MAJA WOJCIECHOWSKA

INTANGIBLE ORGANIZATIONAL RESOURCES

Analysis of Resource-Based Theory and the Measurement of Library Effectiveness

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Preface

The end of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first was a period of fundamental changes in many organisations' functioning philosophy. The development of civilisation affected both the structure and methods of operation of various institutions, as well as the goods they administered. New information requirements, knowledge transfer technologies, and changing patterns of social behaviour also affected the organisation of institutions providing information services, including libraries.

The focus shifted from tangible resources to intangible and intellectual assets, considered to be the basic potential for development. The role of non-physical resources, including organisational knowledge, innovation, leadership, organisational culture, communication, and the reputation of an organisation, started to be acknowledged and analysed. Edith Penrose [313], and later Jay B. Barney [28], formulated so-called resource-based theory, which takes into account the importance of both tangible and intangible resources, and the correlation between them.

In the 1980s, two works vital for future perception of organisational resources were published: *In Search of Excellence* by Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman [315] and *Theory Z* by William G. Ouchi [299]. These publications pay attention to the fact that the success of an organisation depends not only on quickly responding to changes in the community and maintaining effective relations with it, but also on internal resources, especially the philosophy of human resource management and the use of intellectual capital. In the 1990s, the theses of the representatives of resource-based theory were reaffirmed and developed. Gary Hamel and C.K. Prahalad developed the theory of core competencies. This theory posits that the success of an organisation is determined by its specific competencies, which need to be developed, rather than by tangible resources, which are less important in comparison to the intellectual capital [136]. The theory of core competencies assumes the existence of a strong correlation between resources (especially intangible), as well as the organisation's strategy, and competitive advantage.

The gradually growing importance of intangible resources has led to the appearance of a knowledge-based economy, followed by an information society, then a knowledge-based society, and finally, an information economy. For many institutions, a significant condition for development has become the ability to manage intangible resources. These intangible resources are increasingly recognised as the strategic potential of organisations in various sectors (e.g. [24; 280; 410]). Consequently, some researchers even suggest that a new field of knowledge should be developed to focus on a broadly understood management of intangible goods [194, p. 7].

Knowledge of intangible assets and their function, value, and role in developing information services, as well as competencies in managing, measuring, and evaluating intangible resources, is important to the effectiveness of the library and the quality of its services. These issues, in spite of their relevance and significance, have not been fully explored yet. A paper published in 2009 by Petros Kostagiolas and Stefanos Asonotos called "Intangible Assets for Academic Libraries" [193] is an introduction to the subject. In Poland, this issue is rarely discussed. If it appears in a paper, it is usually limited to a case study of a single library or a selected intangible resource, such as texts about organisational culture, the role of leadership, library brand, reputation, innovation and flexibility, human resources, the role of strategy in library management, communication, participation of libraries in networks, consortia and team projects, new technologies, and intellectual property rights.

So far, the problem of managing the intangible organisational resources of libraries has not been comprehensively discussed in a way that would show correlations between the various components of intangible resources and their impact on the quality of services and the attractiveness of libraries. Therefore, it seems reasonable to conduct an in-depth analysis in this field. What is more, a uniform definition of intangible resources as assets does not exist in literature dedicated to the organisation of libraries. There is also no comprehensive classification of concepts related to intangible library resources.

The main goal of the author of this book is to show the evolution of the perception of the library as an organisation. The approach that libraries were only storehouses providing access to publications was superseded by a modern model of the library as an institution providing services, mainly but not only informative. The contemporary library manages its collections as well as access to information. Successful functioning of the library is no longer dependent only on building library collections but also on acquiring information from local and scattered sources and delivering it to users in the expected forms. Another important role of the library is to provide a wide range of services that activate and integrate the local community.

Focusing on services rather than resources necessitates changes in library organisation. The role of intangible organisational resources, which significantly affect the quality of library services, has increased, although it used to be disregarded. A consequence of these changes is the need for knowledge about how to develop resources that support the core processes of library services, as well as knowledge that enables identification of the most important intangible factors that create assets essential for successful functioning of the library in the local and supra-local environment. These assumptions underlie the thesis of this book, which is to acknowledge the importance of intangible factors in managing the library and creating its position in the community.

The nature of this publication is cognitive. This book presents both theoretical deliberations and the results of research conducted by the author in the field of managing intangible library resources.

This book discusses issues covering both library science and management theory, focusing on the problem of managing the intangible organisational resources of libraries. It discusses the mechanisms affecting the functioning of libraries as well as reading processes in the context of organisational changes taking place in the library and its environment. To better organise the discussed issues, the book is divided into four main chapters.

The first chapter illustrates the problem of intangible resources in an information society. It discusses the different perceptions of institutions in an industrial society versus an information society and presents the theoretical bases for distinguishing between tangible goods and intangible and intellectual resources.

The second and third chapters analyse selected intangible organisational resources in contemporary libraries. They discuss and characterise these resources, and present the development process of selected assets. These two chapters also present the results of research conducted by the author in 2014 among the management personnel of various types of Polish libraries. They illustrate selected aspects of the practical functioning of intangible resources, thus supplementing the theoretical analysis.

The fourth chapter focuses on the management of intangible organisational resources in libraries. It highlights the difficulties involved in evaluating these resources, and also looks at the numerous correlations between the resources. The correlations affect the entire organism of the library, forming a mutual system of relations, conditions, and results. Selected models and concepts of managing and measuring intangible organisational resources are discussed. Finally, the problem of protecting intangible resources and the specificity of managing them in the library context are illustrated. The types of indicators that may be considered when analysing intangible library resources are presented, as well as the results of research specifying the hierarchy of intangible resources in the managerial practices of middle and senior management personnel in Polish libraries.

The chapters discuss the research conducted by the author, which was intentionally included in the body of the text rather than presented as an independent analysis so as to better illustrate the problems discussed in the book. The purpose of the research conducted in 2014 was to illustrate selected aspects of managing intangible resources in Polish libraries. The research supplements the selected issues discussed in the chapters with empirical material, providing a more precise presentation of the nature of specific resources. Depending on the particular asset under discussion, various research methods and techniques such as document analysis, statistical analysis, literature review, and interviews and surveys (handed out, filled in on the spot, electronic) were used to obtain multidimensional data. The broad range of issues discussed in the book determined the nature and methods of research. The author focused on presenting the most important data obtained in the course of research, rather than an in-depth analysis of less relevant issues, which could make the discussion confusing.

The general population in the surveys consisted of users, both actual and potential, of libraries, as well as middle and senior management personnel of all types at libraries across Poland. The sample size was 2875 persons, of which 185 were managers and 190 were chief directors or chief managers of libraries. The number of surveyed actual and potential users was 2500. Of the 2500, each of the five segments of the library environment—middle and secondary school students, university students (public and private universities, humanities, hard sciences, social sciences and art courses, daily and weekend courses, full-time and part-time courses), working persons, the unemployed, and pensioners—had 500 persons.

The book ends with a summary that presents the final conclusions and recapitulation of the analysed issues.

This publication is supplemented with an extensive bibliography; its size is due to the broad range of topics discussed. The bibliography also includes foreign literature that serves mainly as a reference for the latest trends in intangible resource management, as well as literature that reflects the reality and specificity of library institutions. Moreover, the bibliography includes publications that were used to develop certain breakdowns (e.g., review of research results concerning the image of the library and librarians).

Incorporating the enterprise organisation theory for the purpose of library science may seem questionable due to the fact that enterprises are commercial in nature, while libraries are typically non-profit institutions. However, it should be noted that libraries, despite their different character, operate in the market economy and are subject to the same organisational mechanisms and principles as other institutions, regardless of the goals they serve.

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Intangible Resources in an Information Society

1.1 Tangible vs. Intangible Resources: Definitions and Classification

When discussing the problem of the functioning of libraries in an information society, two groups of factors that affect the method and quality of library operation may be distinguished. These are the external factors conditioned by the structure and nature of the environment, and the resources possessed by the library. Focusing on resources is typical of the resource-based theory. This theory, used for determining the strategic standing of an organisation, is fundamental for the analyses presented in this book.

The resource-based theory developed in the 1990s. It is based on the assumption that the success of an organisation depends not only on its ability to adapt to the external environment but also on its ability to manage internal resources. This approach developed as a response to an earlier trend known as the positioning theory. The positioning theory claims that an organisation's advantage depends on favourable external

M. Wojciechowska, *Intangible Organizational Resources*,
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conditions (i.e., the characteristics of the industry). A number of popular concepts developed on the basis of or in association with the resource-based theory, such as:

- core competencies
- learning organisation
- knowledge management

Representatives of the resource-based theory include Gary Hamel and C.K. Prahalad. They believe that the success of an organization is determined not by a single competence, attribute, or skill, but rather by their unique set, characteristic of the particular institution [135; 136]. This assumption was further developed by other researchers, who drew attention to core capabilities or core competencies, which are distinctive skills or attributes that may be the source of competitive advantage.

According to the resource-based theory, every organisation, regardless of its nature, goals, and methods of operation, has a unique set of resources (tangible and intangible) that differ in quality and quantity and influence its condition and success. The type and size of resources, as well as other properties such as durability, mobility, rarity, or repeatability, also determine the development of libraries.

No unique terminology associated with managing intangible organisational resources has been developed yet. This is due to the level of their abstraction and problems with their unequivocal identification and measurement. Depending on the context, the terms "goods," "resources," "assets," "properties," and "factors" are used. Terminology also depends on the field in which it is used. Accordingly, the terms "intangible factors" and "intangible assets" are most often used in accounting, "knowledge" is used in economic literature, and "intellectual property" is used in management and law. Economic evaluation of assets falls within the financial research area. Analysis from the perspective of intangible factors and core competencies (resource-based theory) is a subject of interest of strategic management. Strategic management accounting deals with intellectual capital measurement and presentation models, whereas issues associated with market assets (brand, customer relations) fall under marketing research. As far as library science is concerned, terminology is not yet fully developed. Uniform definitions and resource classification are still lacking. To better visualise the discussed issues, it is worth presenting interpretations of terminology contained in various sources.

For example, John Black's *Dictionary of Economics*, published in 2008, provides only for tangible goods. The term "good(s)" is defined there as "economic assets taking a tangible physical form" [40, p. 69;]. The *Dictionary* also defines the term "intangible assets" as "assets of an enterprise which cannot be seen or touched" [40, p. 513]. Intangible assets include goodwill, patents, trademarks, and copyright. "Resources," on the other hand, mean "all that is used in economic activity, [namely:] natural land and sea resources, human resources with labour involving skills and qualifications, capital and man-made means of production" [40, p. 563–564].

Leksykon Marketingu (*Marketing Lexicon*), edited by Jerzy Altkorn and Teodor Kramer, only includes the term "goods," understood as "physical products that serve the purpose of satisfying human needs, given directly by nature and not requiring any activity in order to be acquired, or obtained from nature by extraction, processing, moving in space or storing in time. In marketing terms, goods are considered to be products when they are traded on the market, i.e. when they become merchandise." Altkorn and Kramer identify several classifications of goods depending on various criteria, such as purpose (supplies and consumer goods), durability (durable and nondurable goods), and substitution and joint consumption (substitute and complementary goods).

In *Leksykon Biznesu* (*Business Lexicon*), Józef Penc presents two concepts: assets and organisational resources. "Assets" are "the notion of what is desirable, everything that individuals and social groups consider important in their lives and strive to achieve, namely objects, phenomena and their properties, ideas, motifs and standards, goals or ideals. Thus, assets include both elements of the physical and spiritual worlds. They develop or exist as a result of a single act of evaluation or as a result of a permanent conviction of their 'value.' […] They set the direction for human endeavours (being a driving force to pursue a certain direction), they determine attitudes towards various objects and the scope of an individual's cognition, they affect emotions and stimulate motivation and self-evaluation. […] They have a major impact on the selection of methods, means, directions and goals of action available to an individual." [311, p. 478]. Thus, certain organisational resources, such as reputation, are sometimes referred to as assets. Penc also classifies assets into the following groups:

- attractive and repulsive (causing disgust or reluctance, loathsome)
- assets that are an end in themselves (intrinsic) and instrumental assets
- recognised, perceived, and pursued
- general (abstract) and the assets of everyday life
- universal and specific to a given society or social group
- economic, social, environmental, hedonistic, aesthetic, and moral [311, p. 478]

According to Penc, "organisational resources" are "all the means of production, people, information and finances that an organisation has or uses, even if they are not its legal property" [311, p. 514]. In his definition, Penc presents the resource-based theory characteristic of Hamel and Prahalad's school, stating that "each company may be evaluated as a set of resources the attractiveness of which is judged in the context of the particular environment. Accordingly, every manager should try to answer the question of what resources are responsible for the company's specific market position and whether the company's resources are enough to ensure its competitive advantage and success in a given sector, and determine the principles that may ensure its future competitive advantage" [311, p. 514]. Józef Penc describes the following resources:

- money
- technical means
- technology
- knowledge
- patents
- qualifications
- skills
- motivation
- concessions

- contacts
- influence
- information
- power
- services
- permits
- trademarks and brands
- databases
- corporate and product reputation
- organisational culture
- customer loyalty [311, p. 514]

An interesting and relatively relevant definition of intangible resources is presented in *Leksykon Zarządzania* (*Management Lexicon*), which defines them as "the resources of an enterprise that do not have a physical or financial form but at the same time are an important element of its functioning. In accounting, some intangible resources are referred to as intangible assets, defined as identifiable nonmonetary components of fixed assets lacking a physical form that an enterprise possesses and uses in its operating activities (copyright, licences, patents, trademarks, design patents or trade names)" [236, p. 681–682]. This text distinguishes between intangible resources and intangible assets. According to the author, the second term is broader because it extends to the knowledge and skills of employees, organisational culture, managerial procedures, and external contacts.

The legal aspects associated with these issues were analysed in *Leksykon Własności Przemysłowej i Intelektualnej* (*Industrial and Intellectual Property Lexicon*). The book defines the intangible good as "a legal good that is not a physical object (a 'thing' in the meaning of the civil law). Intangible goods are, for example, personality rights, various forms of energy or intellectual property" [397, p. 37–38].

A twofold definition of intangible goods is given by Rafał Golat, who understands them either as goods associated with a person (personality rights) or as works characterised by an independent being (concept goods). According to Golat, concept goods are mainly works. The author defines personality goods as:

- freedoms, such as the freedom of conscience
- goods that are associated with the protection of personal inviolability, such as health or dignity
- goods that are specific to and identify an individual, such as name, pseudonym, or image
- goods that protect one's privacy, such as the secrecy of correspondence and inviolability of residence
- goods that are the effect of human concept work (e.g., scientific and artistic work, inventions, and technological improvements)

The author says "intangible goods are legally protected goods associated with a human being as a legally distinctive individual (natural person), irrespective of whether the reason for their being legally governed is to protect a human being, or more specifically his personal interests (certain inalienable attributes that have a value in themselves, namely personality rights) or to protect the effects of human intellectual work (concept, artistic) due to their aesthetic, practical, utilitarian and often also commercial value" [125, p. 16]. This definition refers to the concept of intangible goods that is broadly used in legislation. The author analyses goods in the context of their legal status.

The problem of defining and evaluating intangible assets is elaborated in IAS 38—Intangible Assets, which outlines the requirements for recognising a given element as an intangible asset. According to IAS 38, intangible assets are "identifiable non-monetary assets without physical substance" that an entity controls, is able to reliably evaluate, and expects to receive future economic benefits from. An asset is identifiable if it is capable of being separated, sold, licensed, or transferred, which means that it can be the object of a separate transaction (sale, rent, exchange, or other).[1] Thus, the definition excludes most organisational resources of libraries that do not have a separate, easily identifiable character, such as organisational culture, relations, or reputation.

Many legal regulations define intangible assets as property rights acquired by an individual and classified as fixed assets that are capable of economic use, have an expected useful life longer than one year, and are

[1] See updated standard.

intended to be used by an individual for his own purposes, in particular but not limited to:

- copyright and related rights, licenses, and concessions
- rights to inventions, patents, trademarks utility models, and design patterns
- know-how

International accounting standards apply a very narrow definition of intangible assets. To be recognised in a balance sheet, they must generate economic benefits and be fully identifiable (i.e., separate from other assets). This excludes such resources as reputation, relationships, and organisational culture, which, despite their great significance in the development of a library (and any other entity, for that matter), are non-measurable and as such do not meet the requirements of numerous legal regulations for recognition as intangible assets.

When discussing intangible assets from the perspective of legal regulations, a number of conditions for recognising goods as intangible assets should be considered. Thus, intangible assets must:

- be identifiable and describable
- have legal existence and be subject to protection
- be subject to ownership and transferable
- be created in a specific time as a result of certain events
- be capable of being destroyed or put out of use in an identifiable time
- have material proof of their existence: a document, disk, letter [411, p. 34].

Such a formal approach is the result of accounting habits and a need to unequivocally and accurately describe the resources of an organisation. This is contrary to Jonathan Low and Pam Cohen Kalafut's much broader notion of intangible resources as not limited by their ability to be identified or appraised. They repeatedly emphasise the value of these resources, criticising the approach that ignores many of them just because they are difficult to measure [250].

Many authors, including Marek Siudak, divide the resources of an organisation into tangible and intangible. The elements of a balance sheet (all tangible resources and some intangible resources) are referred to as assets. Thus, assets are all tangible resources, whereas intangible resources may or may not be balance sheet assets. According to Siudak, intangible assets include goodwill, research and development expenditure, patents and trademarks, licenses, concessions, franchising, copyright, computer programs, property rights, technical and commercial know-how, and incorporation-related costs of a joint-stock company. On the other hand, resources that are non-balance sheet assets include strong competitive advantage of the organisation, strategic location, high quality personnel, long-term contracts, good business conditions, public relations, and brand [368, p. 18–19]. Accordingly, the value of an organisation may be defined as "the sum of the net value (the value of assets minus liabilities) of balance sheet assets and the value of non-balance sheet assets" [368, p. 13].

To sum up, this book will analyse intangible resources in light of management and library science theories according to which the library, as a cultural and scientific organisation, is subject to specific organisational mechanisms.

As the above definitions show, dictionaries and encyclopedias of management and economics do not contribute significantly to the management of intangible resources (goods). On the contrary, they give an impression of chaos and total incoherence. Thus, it seems reasonable to refer to a broader range of sources and adopt one of the conceptual models presented by researchers.

One such model is proposed by Ewa Głuszek in her work based on the research of Raphael Amit and Paul J. H. Shoemaker [14, p. 33–46]. According to the author, resources are all the assets an organisation uses in its processes and activities. Resources are a "set of available agents—both visible and invisible—that a company possesses and controls" [122, p. 27]. Głuszek distinguishes between tangible and intangible resources (Fig. 1.1). She divides them into resources that are easily acquired, such as technologies or licenses, and unique resources that an organisation must develop individually over an extended period of time, such as knowledge, reputation, and ability to cooperate. Interestingly, she classifies

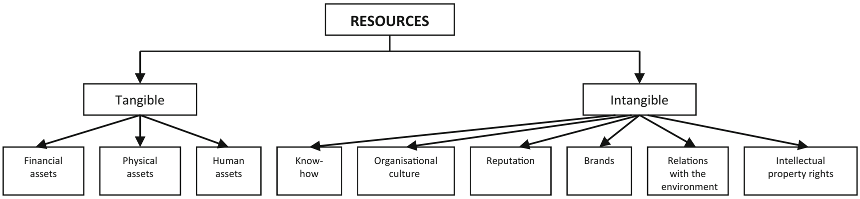


Fig. 1.1 Division of resources according to E. Głuszek. *Source*: Own elaboration based on E. GŁUSZEK. *Zarządzanie zasobami niematerialnymi przedsiębiorstwa*. Wrocław, 2004, p. 27

human assets as tangible assets (as do Tadeusz Falencikowski and Bogdan Nogalski [104]) and regards them as resources that can be bought and sold. Most authors believe they are intangible assets alongside the intellectual capital and knowledge, or even a component of the intellectual capital (e.g., [50; 52, p. 128; 354, p. 122; 414, p. 49]). These differences are associated with different notions of the values that human beings represent. A human being may be regarded either as matter, a carrier of intangible factors, or as the creator of intangible property, such as intellectual works (e.g., books, music, graphics, patents).

A somewhat different approach is proposed by Beata Jamka, whose deliberations are based on the division of resources according to the classical factors of production in the land-labour-capital model [148, p. 85], where the following resources may be distinguished:

- natural resources (elements of the natural environment)
- human resources (people and their skills)
- capital resources (physical resources such as equipment, products, financial resources, raw material)
- tangible resources

Yet another distinction is made by Barbara Kożuch, who divides resources as physical, human, financial, and informational resources [205, p. 53–54]. Given the functions of the library, the most valuable resource would be knowledge, as well as physical and capital assets consisting of library collections, buildings, and equipment. However, with changes in the provision of information services and knowledge-archiving methods, the role of human capital as an intangible resource has increased. Some authors also mention other resources that are used by libraries, such as natural resources used in marketing activities (see [304]).

A similar classification of resources was presented by Joanna Brózda and Stanisław Marek, who listed three types of resources: tangible, human, and intangible. Among tangible resources, they included natural and capital resources, which are treated separately in B. Jamka's classification. They divided human resources into attributes and competencies, and they grouped intangible resources based on the method of their development (e.g., man-made resources and resources resulting from the activity of an organisation) (Fig. 1.2).

According to the classification developed by Marek Stankiewicz, organisational resources may be divided into two basic groups: tangible and intangible. In tangible resources, Stankiewicz included fixed assets, finance, and inventory. Intangible resources included relations, attitudes, functional systems, competencies, and opportunities (Fig. 1.3).

A more in-depth, four-tier division of organisational resources was proposed by Mariusz Bratnicki and Janusz Strużyna, as shown in Fig. 1.4.

Classification of resources according to Bente Lowendahl and Kurt Haanes focuses on the form of intangible resources. The authors distinguish between resources associated with competencies and resources based on relations with the environment and relations within the organisation. For example, among invisible resources associated with competencies are capabilities and skills, which in turn affect the ability to achieve strategic goals (Fig. 1.5). Thus, this model is related to the core competencies concept, according to which the success of an institution depends on the core competencies it has. These are the skills that distinguish it from other organisations offering analogous products or services.

It is also worth noting the typology applied by Grzegorz Urbanek, who, unlike most authors who use certain terms interchangeably, distinguishes between intangible factors, intangible assets, intellectual assets and intellectual property and highlights the differences between these terms (Fig. 1.6). He defines them all as "non-cash sources of possible future economic benefits that lack a physical form and are controlled or at least influenced by an enterprise, resulting from past events or transactions (were purchased or independently created, etc.) that may or may not be sold, regardless of other resources" [411, p. 35]. Urbanek

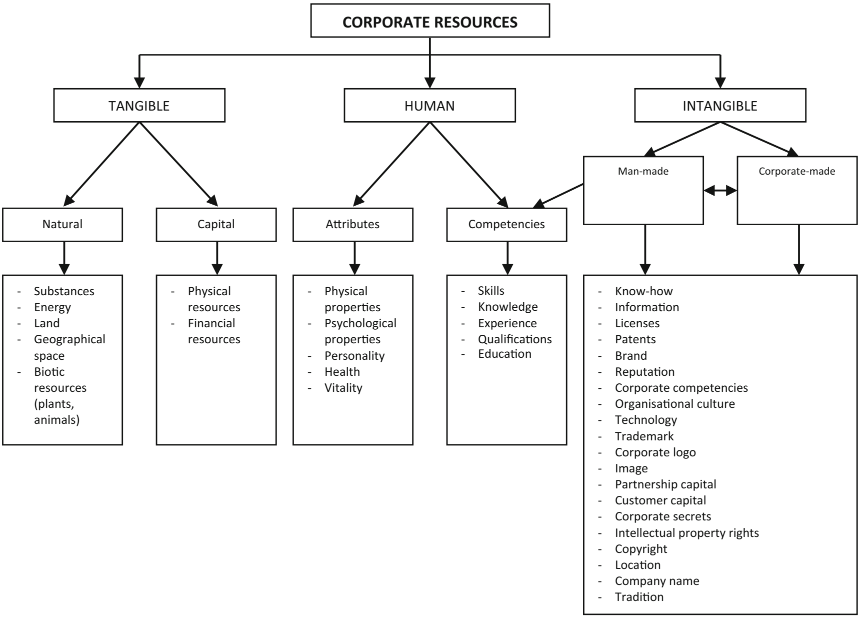


Fig. 1.2 Division of resources according to J. Brózda and S. Marek. *Source*: Adapted from J. BRÓZDA, S. MAREK. Zasoby i ich znaczenie w działalności przedsiębiorstwa. In S. MAREK, M. BIAŁASIEWICZ (academic editor). *Podstawy nauki o organizacji*. Warszawa, 2008, p. 128

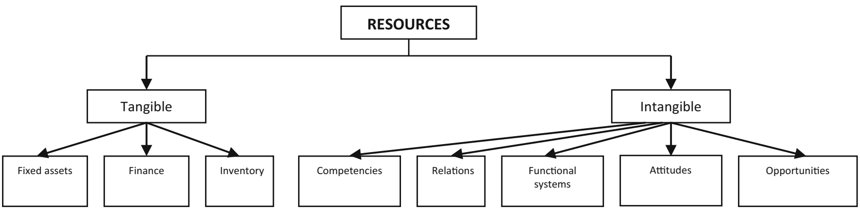


Fig. 1.3 Division of resources according to M. Stankiewicz. *Source*: Adapted from M. J. STANKIEWICZ. *Konkurencyjność przedsiębiorstwa*. Toruń, 2005, p. 105

associates the term "intangible" with physical factors, and the term "intellectual" with human-related resources. According to him, the broadest is the term intangible factors, which he defines as "all sources of economic benefits that lack a physical form, regardless of their type and method of creation" [411, p. 35]. The other elements, such as intellectual capital,

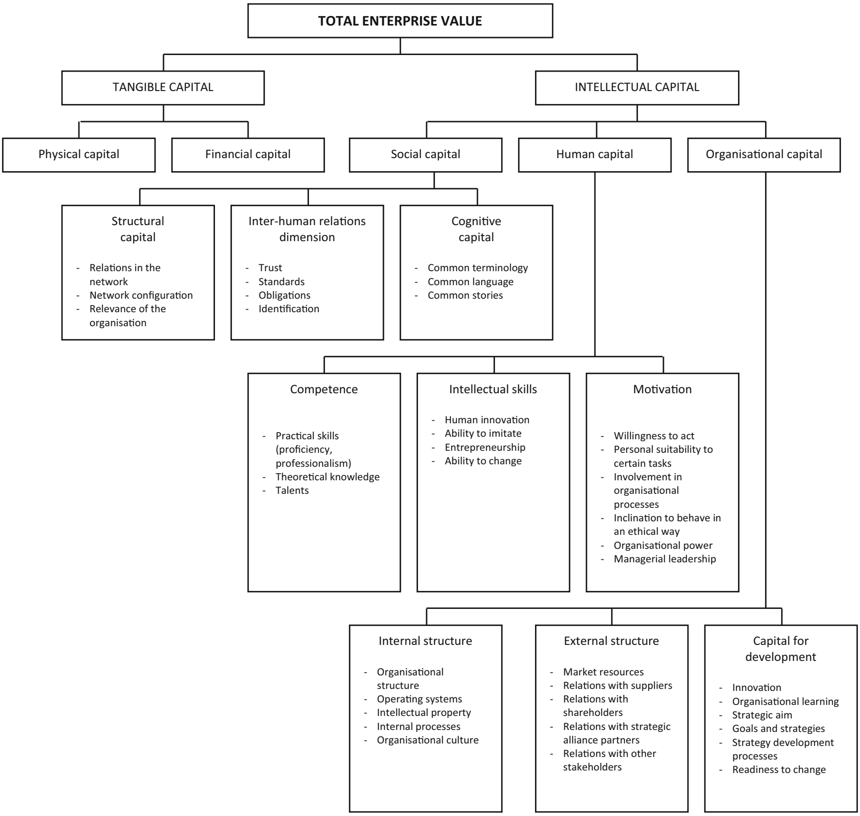


Fig. 1.4 Division of resources according to Mariusz Bratnicki and Janusz Strużyna. *Source*: Adapted from M. BRATNICKI, J. STRUŻYNA (ed.). *Przedsiębiorczość i kapitał intelektualny*. Katowice, 2001, p. 70

intellectual assets, intangible assets, and intellectual property, are intangible factors, according to Urbanek. He describes intangible assets as "the sources of future benefits for an enterprise that lack a physical or financial form" [411, p. 36]. He divides them into those that result from the application of knowledge (i.e., intellectual assets) and those that do not incorporate knowledge (e.g., location). Urbanek divides intangible assets into four groups, depending on the extent to which they are separable from other assets.

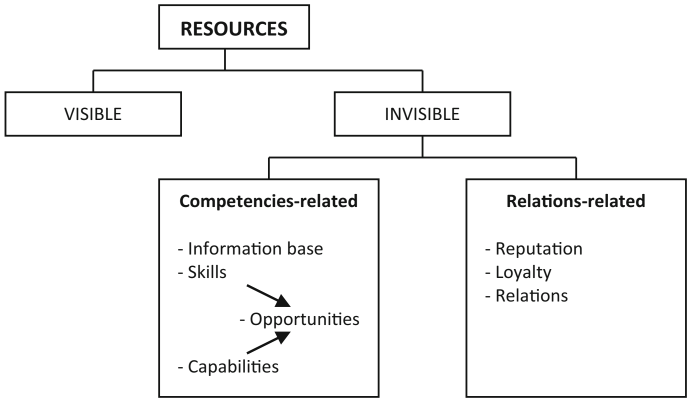


Fig. 1.5 Division of resources according to B. Lowendahl and K. Haanes. *Source*: Adapted from M. MÅRTENSSON. A Critical Review of Knowledge Management as a Management Tool. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. 2000, vol. 4, no. 3, p. 207

- separable intangible assets that may be rented, sold, or exchanged irrespective of other assets (e.g., the right to publish a book or derivative work developed in a library)
- intangible assets associated with tangible assets (e.g., library personnel' knowledge of hardware or software operation, such as the ability to prepare database search strategies)
- intangible assets that combine a number of inseparable intangible elements but are at the same time transferable (e.g., markings or logos developed by a specific library and used within other organisations, such as a set of intangible assets associated with various events organised by libraries[2])
- intangible assets that cannot be transferred individually and may be defined as goodwill (due to the non-commercial nature of libraries,

[2] Examples are logos and markings of the event *Odjazdowy Bibliotekarz* (Bicycool Library), which started in 2010 in Łódź, Poland and was later continued by a number of institutions across the world. In 2013, the transferable intangible assets associated with the event were used by institutions in more than two hundred cities from such countries as Nepal, Romania, Ukraine, or USA. For more information, see [290].

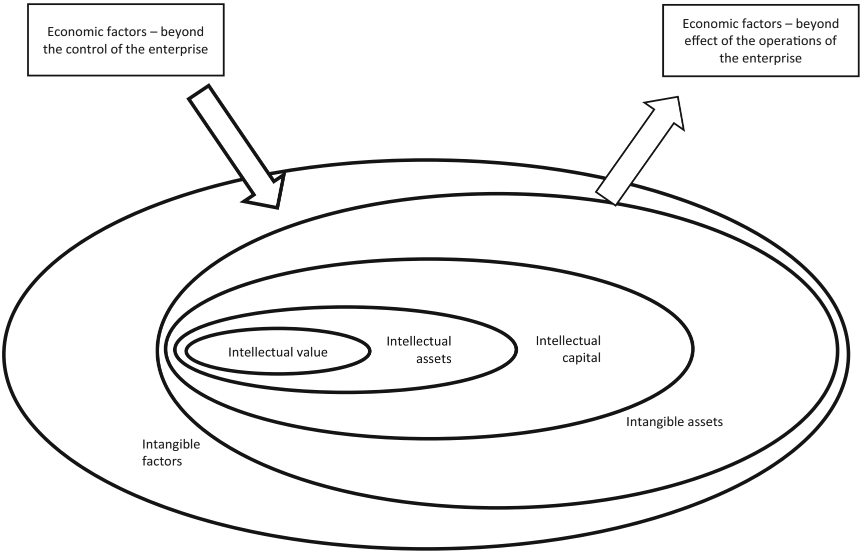


Fig. 1.6 Relations between different categories of intangible factors according to G. Urbanek. *Source*: Adapted from G. URBANEK. *Evaluation of intangible assets of an enterprise*. Warszawa, 2008, p. 37

their goodwill is not estimated, although value associated with reputation and renown also exists for libraries) [409, p. 52]

Intellectual capital, according to Urbanek means all forms of knowledge, both codified and informal. Intellectual capital is "the sum of knowledge-based value-creating factors that are at least partly controlled by an enterprise" [411, p. 36]. Accordingly, it includes the informal knowledge, experience, and research work of a librarian. Intellectual assets, in Urbanek's classification, are a component of the intellectual capital that is codified, formalised, and fixed. In other words, it is "the sources of future benefits of an enterprise based on explicit knowledge" [411, p. 36]. In the case of a library, these may be databases, software, various kinds of works, instructions, regulations, or standards. Intellectual assets that are subject to legal protection and meet the criteria associated with property as a socioeconomic category[3] the author calls intellectual property. Urbanek further divides them into creative (e.g., trademarks, copyright, computer programs) and innovative (e.g., patents, industrial designs, trade secrets) assets.

An interesting definition of intangible resources, important from the perspective of strategic management, was presented by Monika Murawska. She defines intangible resources as "unique property components lacking a physical form which, when integrated with physical assets, may be the object of strategic management" [280, p. 50]. Murawska emphasises the fact that intangible resources yield more benefits if they are combined with tangible resources. For example, a library's friendly organisational culture is strengthened by physical artefacts, such as staff rooms or rest areas for users specially designed to create a positive atmosphere.

None of the resource models available in the economic literature has been commonly accepted yet. Depending on the research objective, authors focus either on the sources of intangible resources or on their properties, forms of legal title, relationships with the organisation, or other aspects of relevance for the analysed research perspective. The multiple interpretations significantly hinder research into the discussed phenomenon. Also, the literature concerning library science does not contain any unambiguous divisions or classifications that could be a starting point for further analysis of the organisational resources of libraries.

One of the few models that provide for intangible resources in the classification of library resources was developed by Marian Huczek, who distinguished four groups of resources used by libraries: material resources, financial resources, physical resources and informational resources, as shown in Table 1.1.

Every organisation, including the library, has a unique set of resources (assets, goods) whose nature and size depend to a large extent on historical conditions. These conditions include not only their past experience (events, conditions, interactions), but also the current situation. Because of problems with acquiring intangible resources, libraries find it very

[3] These criteria include the right of the owner to use the thing owned by him at his discretion, the right to determine the behaviour of other persons related to the use of a certain thing, and the right to transfer one's rights to a given thing to others [163, p. 5].

Table 1.1 Library resources according to M. Huczek

Intangible resources	Financial resources	Physical resources	Informational resources
Relationships with the environment Image Employee knowledge Employee capabilities Organisational culture	Budget Donations Penalties Admission fees Other fees	Library buildings Computers Library equipment (e.g., bookshelves, tables, chairs, lamps)	Reports on library activities Statistics Results of library users' needs and satisfaction surveys

Source: Adapted from M. HUCZEK. *Marketing organizacji non profit*. Sosnowiec, 2003, p. 112

hard to replicate other successful organisations' models of organisational behaviour. There are a variety of obstacles hindering the transfer of intangible resources.

- There is an inherent lack of mobility in that not all intangible resources may be transferred (e.g., sold, exchanged, donated) between organisations. These include organisational culture and employee knowledge. According to Margaret A. Peteraf, perfectly immobile resources are specialised and firm-specific, and will not be useful in another institution. These are resources whose property rights are not well defined, such as organisational culture and assets with bookkeeping feasibility problems (e.g., flexibility of activities) [314].
- It is difficult to imitate intangible resources, as they have a multidimensional and sometimes very complicated structure consisting of numerous components. This significantly limits the possibilities of imitation. For example, a library's positive reputation may be conditioned not only by the broad range of literature offered but also by the library infrastructure, employee competencies, innovations, strategy, and many other factors, which often go unnoticed.
- Replacement of worn-out, outdated, or uneconomic tangible resources is usually uncomplicated in libraries and numerous other institutions, but the basic obstacle is financial cost. The replacement of intangible resources, on the other hand, is not so much dependent on financial possibilities as

on knowledge and social relations. For example, libraries may have problems with replacing old, inefficient communication systems.
- Intangible goods are mostly a collection of interrelated resources that are hard to isolate and treat separately. Typically, they interpenetrate, which makes it difficult to determine the borders of a specific resource and to transfer it. For example, the value of human capital in a library depends to some extent on internal communication as well as on the power of leadership and organisational culture. It is only possible to benefit from the knowledge of highly qualified personnel if they have the ability to cooperate or are adequately motivated by the managerial personnel or the organisational culture.
- Most intangible resources have a unique, highly specialised nature and are thus suitable for a specific institution but may be completely useless for other organisations. This particularly concerns social organisational resources, such as leadership, communication, adaptability, and organisational culture.
- Unlike physical goods, intangible resources require a relatively long time to acquire and develop. It is usually difficult or impossible to accelerate accumulation of non-physical resources. Thus, libraries that have been functioning for a longer time and have gained some experience are more likely to develop certain categories of resources and, as a result, gain the approval of users. Relevant examples include long-term building of positive reputation, collection of organisational knowledge, and starting and strengthening relations with the environment.

Thus, it can be assumed that gradually building, developing, and accumulating intangible resources is their basic source. The more intangible resources a library has that are difficult to replace, imitate, or acquire, the more attractive it becomes for its users, as these resources distinguish it from other institutions (not only libraries). However, it should be noted that many intangible resources acquire or strengthen their value if they are related to physical resources. For example, information search assistance is more valuable for a user if a library has adequate computer hardware and software to support the search, while an innovation generation system is more effective if a library has access to the physical and financial resources required for its implementation.

The transfer of intangible resources is not the only problematic issue. Their evaluation is also a complicated process, as the same resource may have a different value depending on the institution using it and the time when it is used. For example, leadership may be more important for a library undergoing substantial changes (e.g., construction of new buildings) than for a library that is sustainably developing and not implementing any complex projects.

Some authors rank or differentiate resources depending on their value, problems with imitation, and complexity. For example, Mansour Javidan distinguished between resources, capabilities, competencies, and core competencies [157] (Fig. 1.7). In his hierarchy, resources are the broadest and the most general category. Capabilities mean the ability to use and develop resources (e.g., knowledge is a resource, while learning and acquiring new knowledge constitute a capability or competency). Competencies are associated with the integration of resources, capabilities, and processes within the entire organisation. The abilities that are of particular value for a library, influence its high position, and are hard for other organisations to acquire are the so-called core competencies. These competencies are defined as "bundles of resources, processes, and capabilities underlying the competitive advantage […] They are a com-

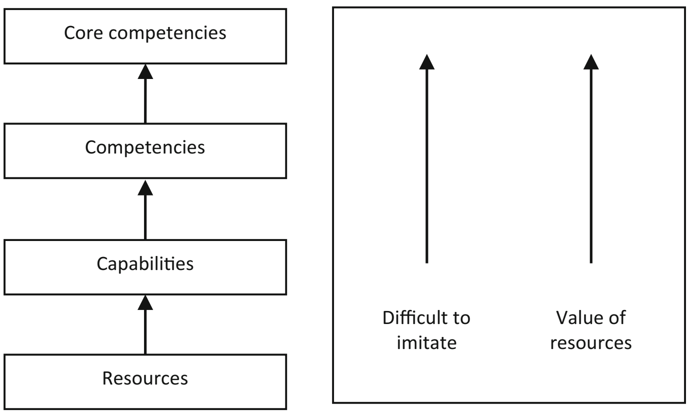


Fig. 1.7 Hierarchy of resources. *Source*: Adapted from E. GŁUSZEK. *Zarządzanie zasobami niematerialnymi przedsiębiorstwa*. Wrocław, 2004, p. 31

plex combination of tangible and intangible assets, knowledge, skills, and capabilities embedded in the organisational structure, technologies, processes, and inter-human relations" [122, p. 29]. The characteristic features of core competencies include sustainability and stability, value generation for clients, and a difficulty for others to imitate, replace, and identify in an unequivocal way (e.g., determine the scope and range).

In the literature, a number of differences between tangible and intangible resources are underlined. The division criteria include theoretical base, price creation mechanisms, evaluation method, ownership, rate of return, production costs, value over time, management, and reporting. The basic specifications of tangible and intangible assets are presented in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Basic specifications of tangible and intangible assets

Criteria	Tangible assets	Intangible assets
Theoretical base	Accounting and neoclassical theories	Information and behavioural theories
Price creation mechanisms	Well known; functioning markets; fully identifiable	Only partly known; not fully identifiable; no markets or emerging markets only
Evaluation method	Primarily cost, market, and income methods	Primarily income methods and option evaluation methods
Ownership	Linked with a limited group of natural or physical persons	Ephemeral, may be owned and shared by many; problems with intellectual property protection
Rate of return	Decreasing	May be increasing
Production costs	Fixed and variable costs quite evenly distributed over the life cycle	High fixed costs before a market for the assets is created; costs of reproduction are negligible
Value over time	Value decreases with use	Value increases with use
Management	Control-oriented	Learning process on various levels
Reporting	Reported in the balance sheet	Partly reported in the balance sheet (provided relevant requirements are met), or voluntary reporting

Source: Adapted from G. URBANEK. *Wycena aktywów niematerialnych przedsiębiorstwa*. Warszawa, 2008, p. 23

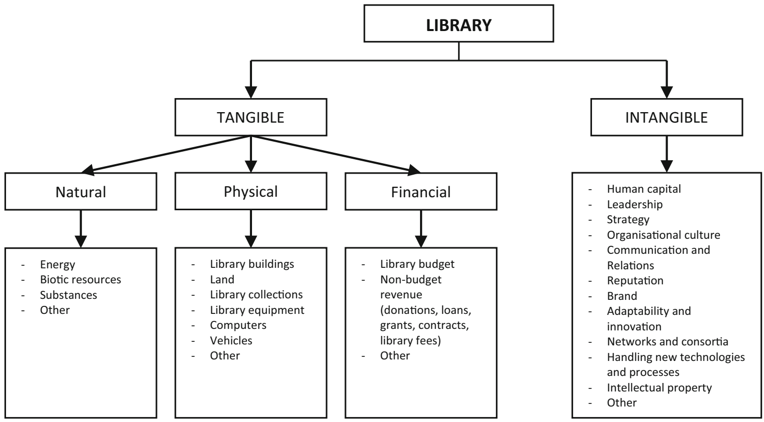


Fig. 1.8 Library resources. *Source*: Own elaboration

This book uses the division into tangible and intangible resources presented in Fig. 1.8. Library intangible resources are understood as the sources of current and future benefits for a library that lack a physical form. These are namely all the resources a library has apart from tangible resources (natural, financial, and physical). Some library intangible resources, such as the ability to develop and implement a strategy, are more like assets or skills than resources. However, for the clarity of the discussion, they are also referred to as resources in the book.

The intangible resources typical of most libraries are discussed in greater detail further on in the book. However, it should be noted that libraries, depending on their type and the network they belong to, focus on different kinds of assets and each institution has its own unique set of resources.

1.2 Types of Intangible Resources

Because of the heterogeneous nature of intangible resources, there exist numerous classifications and typologies. The purpose of this diversity is to facilitate categorisation and measurement. Resources are grouped based on their characteristic features, functions, or significance for the organisation. The characteristic features of intangible resources, sometimes referred to as soft assets [241], are varied.

- Intangible resources do not have a physical form and are **hard to capture**. It is only possible to describe, visualise, or evaluate them on the basis of their tangible manifestations.
- Most intangible resources are **unique and unrepeatable** due to the fact that they are created in individualized environments and societies.
- Due to their unique, non-physical, and elusive nature, intangible resources are **hard to imitate**. It is not enough to know the shape, nature, and value of a specific asset to be automatically able to recreate it in a different environment (e.g., employee group or library surroundings).
- Intangible resources are closely linked with library staff and a library structure conditioned by the nature and form of its activities, which makes it **difficult to replace one resource with another**.
- Because of their nature and the fact that they are closely linked with people, intangible resources are **hard to transfer between organisations**.
- Intangible resources are elusive and often non-formal. Their **unsustainability** results from the unsustainability of such factors as knowledge, relationships, and opinions, making it practically impossible to store them.
- The **length of time and specific staff skill** are major obstacles to the building and development of intangible resources. Unlike tangible resources, they are not always available for purchase. Intangible resources often require meticulous building based on human resources. For example, Richard Hall, who analysed resources, estimated that the average time required to build the reputation of an organisation is approximately eight to ten years. Building group organisational knowledge takes approximately five years [134].
- Unlike physical resources, intangible resources do not depreciate or run out. The **value of intangible resources grows** with their use. This is associated with knowledge accumulation and the fact that each new element of knowledge adds to and generates new knowledge.

- One resource may be **used at the same time by different users or in different places**. In other words, one intangible resource may be used in various branches of the same library or by a number of employees simultaneously, unlike tangible resources, which are limited both in time and space.
- Intangible resources **enrich and strengthen one another**. An example is the positive reputation of a library strengthening thanks to an organisational culture focused on providing high quality services.
- It is **difficult to evaluate and report** intangible resources using traditional accounting systems, which provide only for tangible resources.
- Some intangible resources may be acquired from external sources, but others must be developed independently within an organisation. A library may acquire (buy, borrow, exchange) some resources from external sources. However, many intangible resources **must be developed within a specific institution**, such as organisational culture or relations with users and sponsors.
- **People must develop** intangible resources. Natural resources are only used by humans, but intangible resources are created through the activity and efforts of the personnel. Two examples are the collection and verification of knowledge, and the development of standards, tools, or relationships.
- Intangible resources, unlike physical goods, are available "here and now" and **cannot be stored and used at a later date**. If they are not used, they can disappear or lose their value.
- With few exceptions, intangible resources are **not subject to legal protection** and it is impossible to establish any formal legal title to them.
- Investing in intangible resources has a **higher risk** than investing in physical goods. In the event of a failure, all the funds invested in intangible resources may be forfeited. In the case of tangible resources, unsuccessful investment does not result in the entire loss of their value, because there still remain some physical resources with a specific financial value (e.g., buildings, equipment, book collections).
- It is **difficult to separate one intangible resource from another** within the library structure. Non-physical resources penetrate and interlock with one another, which means that it may not be possible to

draw a clear line between them. This is the case with defining the border between organisational culture and relations; on the one hand, they are separate resources, but on the other hand, they are integrated with each other.

- There is **no link between the cost of generating a resource and its value**. High expenditures on the development of intangible resources do not guarantee proportional benefits from their use.
- Intangible resources require an organisation to **rely on information and behavioural theories**. Tangible resources have a basis in accounting and neoclassical theories.

In the literature, there are a number of typologies of intangible resources that emphasise their characteristic features. It is worth presenting some of them to show different perceptions of these particular components.

One of the classical approaches was applied by Józef Rawłuszko, who divided intangible resources into two groups: "hard components" and "soft components" (Fig. 1.9). Among hard components, he included intellectual capital (governed by invention and copyright laws), databases, software, patents, utility models, trademarks, technology licences, and formulas. In his opinion, soft components are organisational culture, the intellectual capital of employees, staff skills, customer loyalty and trust, and relations capital [340, p. 425]. Monika Murawska determined hard resources to be "commercial" resources because they can be transferred between organisations. In other words, they can be bought, sold, donated, leased, and licensed (obviously, with some exceptions). Soft resources, on the other hand, are "organisational" resources because they result from relationships with employees, clients, suppliers, recipients, government agencies, and other institutions [280, p. 59].

A similar division was presented by Ewa Głuszek, who referred to intangible resources (according to J. Rawłuszko's classification) as "invisible assets" (Fig. 1.10). She divided these assets, the same as Rawłuszko, into two basic groups. One group is resources, such as reputation, patents, brands, contracts, and databases. The other group is skills, made up of employee knowledge (e.g., competencies, know-how, experience) and operating procedures and standards (i.e., organisational culture) [122, p. 61].

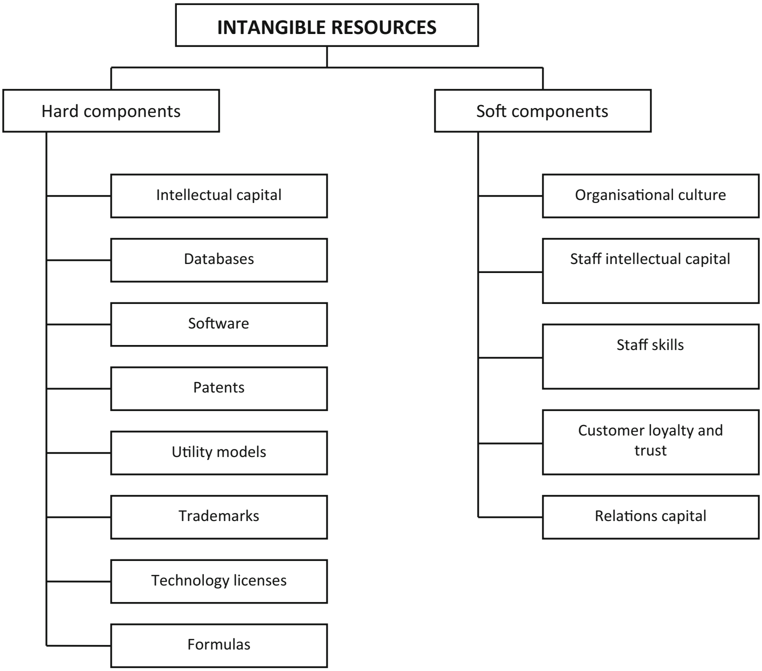


Fig. 1.9 Division of intangible resources according to J. Rawłuszko. *Source*: Own elaboration based on J. RAWŁUSZKO. O kształtowaniu niematerialnych zasobów Poczty Polskiej. In DYREKCJA GENERALNA POCZTY POLSKIEJ. *XII Sympozjum Poczty Polskiej*. Szczecin, 2005, p. 4253

Grzegorz Urbanek, whom I already mentioned in the previous chapter, noted that intangible resources may be grouped according to their contribution to creating value for an organisation [408, p. 35]. He distinguished between "basic assets" that create value independently and are the source of major benefits for an organisation, and "auxiliary resources" that support basic resources and are supposed to strengthen their effect. Among basic assets, Urbanek included research and development work, patents, brands, and relations. Among auxiliary resources, he included human capital, organisational culture, and reputation. It should be noted that the division between basic resources and auxiliary resources may differ between organisations. For libraries, human capital may constitute a

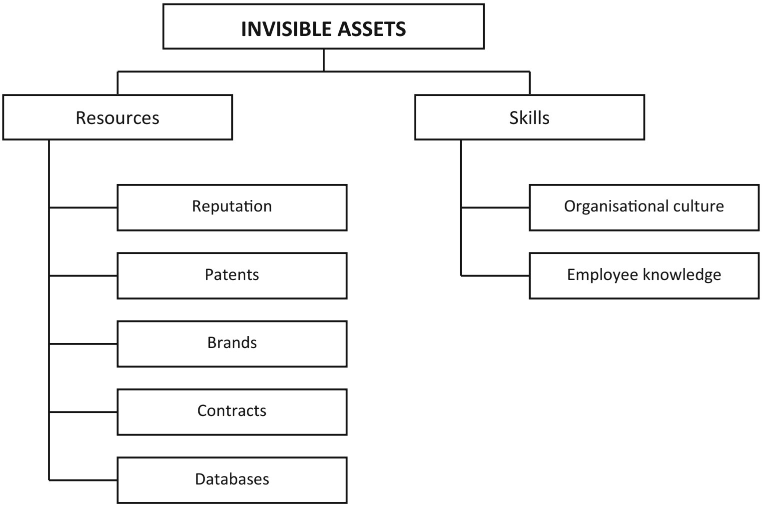


Fig. 1.10 Division of intangible resources according to E. Głuszek. *Source*: own elaboration based on E. GŁUSZEK. *Zarządzanie zasobami niematerialnymi przedsiębiorstwa*. Wrocław, 2004, s. 63

basic resource because it is one of the most important intangible assets. On the other hand, brand may be an auxiliary resource and patents may be of minor importance for libraries, due to the nature of their activity.

Richard Hall proposed a somewhat different classification, dividing intangible resources into functional, cultural, positional, and regulatory [133]. Among functional resources, he included employee know-how, supplier know-how, and distributor know-how. Among cultural resources are perception of quality and ability to learn. Positional resources are reputation, brands, contact networks, and information and databases. Regulatory resources are patents, licences, and trade secrets (Fig. 1.11). According to Hall, intangible goods may also be classified according to their legal situation. Classifications include resources that are legally protectable (e.g., trademarks) and resources that are not legally protectable (e.g., organisational culture or relationships with clients). Another classification could be the way they are acquired, such as patents, which are bought, or resources that an organisation has to develop individually, such as relationships. Resources can also be classified by the source of impact. For example, there people-dependent resources such as reputation and

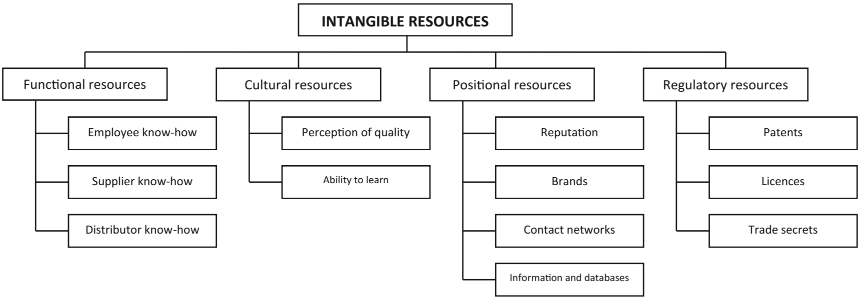


Fig. 1.11 Division of intangible resources according to R. Hall. *Source*: Own elaboration based on R. HALL. A Framework Linking Intangible Resources and Capabilities to Sustainable Competitive Advantage. *Strategic Management Journal*. 1993, vol. 14, p. 607–618

resources that are developed in a more objective way, such as databases or copyright [133].

Jonathan Low and Pam Cohen Kalafut performed a thoughtful analysis of intangible resources, which they called advantages. Instead of classifying them, they focused on those resources that play a more significant role in the development of an organisation. They identified the following as the most important intangible assets: leadership, strategy execution, communication, brand, reputation, alliances and networks, technology and processes, human capital, workplace organisation and culture, innovation, intellectual capital, and adaptability [250, p. 20] (Fig. 1.12). Interestingly, they considered intellectual capital to be an individual intangible asset, unlike most other authors who treat it as a set of intangible resources. This will be discussed in more detail in subsequent chapters.

Somewhat different intangible resource classification criteria were applied by Dariusz Zarzecki. He created eight groups of assets, based on the work of Shannon Pratt, Robert Reilly, and Robert Schweihs. The groups are:

- technology-related assets (advanced technology projects)
- client-related resources (reacting to clients and behaviour)
- contract-related assets (contracts with collaborators, other companies, government and local government institutions, concessions, licences, contracts with suppliers)

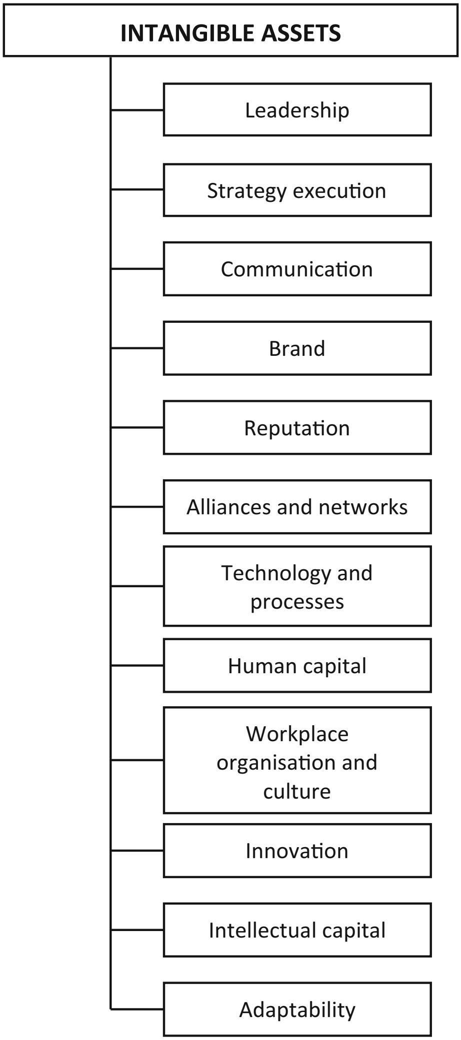


Fig. 1.12 Intangible assets according to J. Low and P. C. Kalafut. *Source*: Own elaboration based on J. J. LOW, P. C. KALAFUT. *Niematerialna wartość firmy*. Kraków, 2004, p. 20

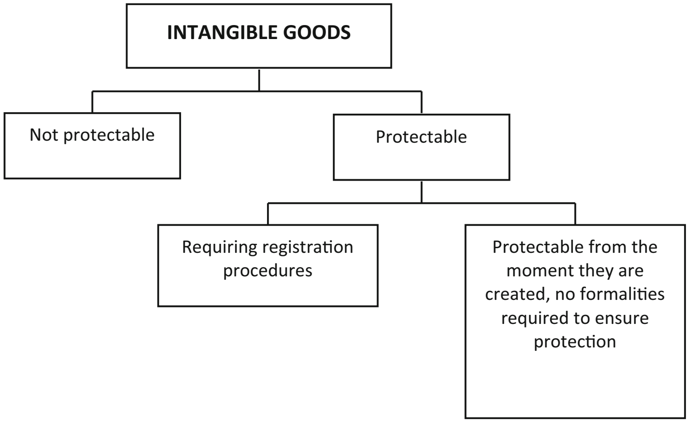


Fig. 1.13 Division of intangible goods according to W. Kotarba. Source: Own elaboration based on W. KOTARBA. *Dobra niematerialne w gospodarce*. Warszawa, 1997, p. 9

- data-processing-related assets (computer software)
- human-capital-related assets (trained personnel)
- marketing-related assets (trademarks)
- location-related assets (the benefits of a lease contract)
- goodwill-related assets (company reputation) [458, p. 27]

Gordon V. Smith and Russell L. Parr classified intangible assets into four groups:

- rights (contracts with suppliers or clients)
- relations (with clients, distributors)
- unidentified intangible assets (e.g., goodwill)
- intellectual property (patents, trademarks, copyright) [375, p. 15–16]

Bogusław Plago divided resources into the following groups:

- market resources (e.g., brand, loyal customers, reputation, distribution channels)
- organisational resources (e.g., organisational culture, communication system, management philosophy)

- relations (e.g., bonds with the environment and other organisations, clients) [324, p. 28]

Wiesław Kotarba, along with other authors analysing the legal aspects of intangible resources, classified intangible resources into those that are legally protectable and those that are not (Fig. 1.13). He called goods that are not legally protectable "free" and "generally available." He included in this group common knowledge (e.g., knowledge presented in various kinds of instruction books, taught in schools) and goods whose legal protection has expired for various reasons (e.g., upon expiry of the protection period). He also divided legally protectable goods, depending on the procedures of ensuring legal protection, into those that require registration procedures (e.g., utility models, trademarks) and those that are subject to protection from the moment they are created or from the moment the process of their creation starts (e.g., books, articles). Kotarba further divided registration procedures ensuring legal protection into research procedures that verify, for example, innovation, originality, or usefulness of a given solution or work and strictly formal procedures without any substantive analysis [194, p. 9]. In the context of the ownership of intangible goods, it should be noted that only a part of intangible resources are commercially traded and may be acquired by the library. Most of them must be developed through various organisational activities.

Wiesław Kotarba developed one more classification for intangible resources. The classification was based on the object of the intangible good, its type, and its scope of exclusivity resulting from protection. He identified works (within the meaning of the copyright law), solutions (e.g., inventions, utility models, industrial models, integrated circuit topologies, new varieties of plants, production secrets, technology improvements) and markings (e.g., trade names, trademarks, service marks, and geographical indications) (Fig. 1.14). He also identified "mixed goods," which combine features typical of more than one respective category. For example, an intangible good can be both a work and a solution (W+S), a solution and a marking (S+M), a work and a marking (W+M), or a work, solution and marking at the same time (W+S+M). An example of a so-called mixed good may be a verbal and graphic logo of a library that is used for promotion; this has the features of both a work and a marking (W+M).

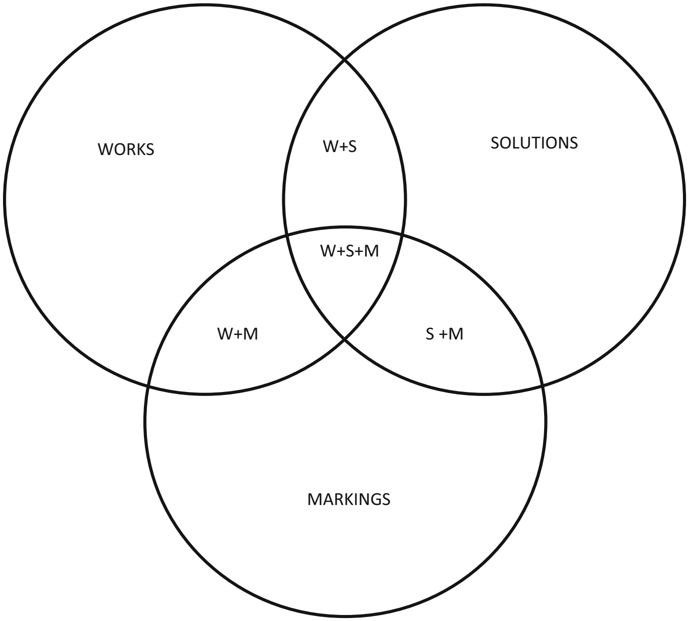


Fig. 1.14 Division of intangible goods according to W. Kotarba based on their object, type, and scope of exclusivity. *Source*: Adapted from W. KOTARBA. *Dobra niematerialne w gospodarce*. Warszawa, 1997, p. 12

Many organisations apply classifications that are the most relevant to their specific needs and the individual conditions in which they operate. For example, the Scandinavian insurance company Skandia has developed the *Skandia Value Scheme* tailored to its systems and the context in which it operates. Due to its numerous advantages, it is used as a model by many other institutions.

To sum up, all of the above classifications have a limited use. However, the manifold divisions and methodologies should not divert our attention from the fact that intangible resources influence one another and create an accumulated value. Thus, they should not be treated as separate and mutually exclusive factors.

In the context of libraries, there are many types of intangible resources that function in libraries. Libraries may use these resources to increase their organisational efficiency and the attractiveness of services. Each library has a unique and individual set of assets that it develops, acquires, and uses in its own way. These institutions pursue different organisational models and focus on acquiring different assets at a different time. Thus, it is extremely difficult to create one universal list of intangible resources crucial for libraries. What is important for one institution, may be redundant for another or only prove important at another time. Nonetheless, it is worth mentioning a group of intangible resources that may prove relevant for most libraries. These are:

- human capital and knowledge management skills
- the ability to build strategies to aid survival in hard times and to develop and strengthen a library's position in the community
- strong leadership that transforms a library into a modern and dynamic institution
- effective communication, both within the library and with users, and a closer and more distant environment
- the ability to create a recognisable and sustainable brand associated with professionalism, quality, and a high standard of services
- an organisational culture tailored to the nature and needs of the library, which helps promote attitudes, behaviour, and activity and strengthens the library's image
- reputation, or a set of beliefs and opinions about the library, and in particular the ability to build a positive image
- innovation, or the ability to implement constructive changes to the services offered and the library management and organisation model, marketing, and strategies
- adaptability, or the ability to adapt to the needs of users, the environment, and changes taking place in the sector, as well as the ability of the personnel to adapt to the rules, practices, and standards existing in the library
- actively establishing external relationships through inter-organisational projects and participation in networks, consortia, and clusters
- ability to adapt new technical solutions that make library services more efficient and acquire intellectual property rights

All these assets are discussed in more detail in subsequent chapters.

1.3 Impact of Socioeconomic Transformation on Intangible Resource Management

An analysis of the significance of resources in the management of an organisation and of intangible resources as one of the categories of organisational resources must take into account the processes that have influenced the development of the society and economy. From the early twentieth century until now, there have been three major stages in the development of the economy: industrial economy, service economy, and knowledge economy. These stages are characterised by different perceptions of assets and resources. Peter Drucker proposed another, similar system of division that focuses on the role of knowledge in organisational transformations. He identified the period of Industrial Revolution (1750–1880), when knowledge was used to generate tools and products; the period of Productivity Revolution (1880–1945), when knowledge was used to improve work processes; and the period of Management Revolution (1945 to present), when existing knowledge is used to generate new knowledge [94, p. 19–47].

The early twentieth century was the period of industrial economy, also referred to as production economy. This period focused on the production of goods. Such an economy was characterised by significant stability. It was mainly based on tangible and natural resources, such as metal ores or coal, which constituted the major assets for many enterprises. Production-oriented companies needed extensive machine parks, production halls, and warehouses, which hindered the development of new companies and, as a result, limited competition. The advantage of the organisations of those times lied in ample tangible and financial resources and large distribution networks. Managers focused mainly on achieving the best sales results, reducing costs, and acquiring tangible resources. Non-physical goods were to a large extent ignored.

Such market behaviour was to some extent conditioned by external factors, such as the government's strong regulation of many industries, the market dominance of large companies who controlled innovation and development in respective industries, and the weak position of new enterprises due to their limited access to tangible resources essential to ensure competitive advantage.

It was during the period of industrial economy that the traditional model of reporting the tangible assets of an enterprise developed. The assets reported in a balance sheet determined the evaluation of a company, investor decision-making, and the activity of partners and market competitors.

In the second half of the twentieth century, the economy started evolving towards the dominance of services. This period was named the service economy. Companies offering services began to gain market advantage and change the market. Unlike manufacturing companies, service providers needed much less funds to start a business and fewer tangible resources, which significantly increased competition and reduced market stability. Service providers started doing business more and more dynamically and pushing one another to come up with new ideas and solutions. The type of activity that used to be disregarded had become the main market player. This phenomenon is best visualised by the data of the *Bureau of Labor Statistics*, presented by Jonathan Low and Pam Cohen Kalafut. According to this data, 75 % of all American workers in the private sector and nearly all workers in the public sector work in service provider companies. Similar numbers exist in other highly industrialised countries [250, p. 26]. Another characteristic feature of the economy of late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries was a large fragmentation of organisations, meaning that an unprecedented number of companies have appeared on the market. The market has been saturated with a multitude of smaller enterprises, which gradually increase their share in the gross domestic product (GDP). The dominance of giants who controlled economic development passed away with the industrial economy era. To visualise this phenomenon, it is enough to say that in the late twentieth century, 1 in 25 adult Americans tried to start their own business. This is larger than the ratio of persons who enter into marriage in the USA every year [250, p. 29].

In the late twentieth century, the concept of the knowledge economy (or information economy) and the information society developed [123]. The information sector was included among the core sectors of the economy (i.e., the primary, manufacturing, and service sectors) [98, p. 34–35]. The basic resources in the knowledge economy are knowledge, abilities, innovation, skills, and inventiveness, and they all generate value. All these elements are embodied in people, or the personnel of an organisation. The development of the knowledge economy depends on the socioeconomic advancement of a country. The growth factors, apart from knowledge, also include investments in science, education, innovations, and so on, which stimulate the development and use of the broadly understood knowledge.

Intangible goods started to be recognised in the late twentieth century. Physical resources became less crucial as service providers strengthened their dominant position. The increasing number of companies dealing in the acquisition and processing of all sorts of knowledge and information developed this trend even further. According to sources [250, p. 32], in 1997, for the first time in history, the funds invested by US companies in intangible resources such as training, research, and brands exceeded the funds invested in tangible resources, such as real property and equipment. This clearly shows the direction in which contemporary companies develop. In Poland, changes are slower but also evident. In 2005, the tangible assets of companies listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange represented only 40 % of their goodwill [411, p. 16].

In the late 1990s, the speculative bubble started growing. Stock investors, who had difficulty objectively evaluating companies from the information and knowledge management sectors, relied on their individual impressions and opinions and significantly overestimated their value. Shares of new companies operating on the Internet were valued higher than huge corporations of the "old economy." Investors' admiration of the new technology—which the Internet was at that time (between 1995 and 2000)—is comparable to the admiration investors felt for the railway or telephone when they were introduced. These technologies were considered important inventions for humanity, but it was difficult to evaluate their actual impact on economic and academic activity. The "bubble" burst in 2000, when indexes of Internet-based companies plunged by more than 50 % by the end of the year [191, p. 13]. As a result, numerous attempts were undertaken to measure and evaluate the intangible resources of organisations.

Intangible resources, naturally more difficult to identify, measure, and describe, became the topic of numerous academic and economic analyses. It was noted that organisations, despite similar environments, service profiles, and customer expectations, operated differently and differed from one another in many ways. The essence of these differences proved to be resources and special, unique skills. In the late twentieth century, the resource-based theory developed, as well as the theory that unique assets and skills differentiate an entity from its competitors and drive their success. Some authors refer to this multiplicity of organisations as heterogeneity [122, p. 32]. In the context of intangible resources, the term "value generator" developed. A value generator is a factor that adds value to an organisation. This is further proof that the role of non-physical factors is increasingly acknowledged. For a library, a value generator may be, for example, good relations with users, a positive reputation, or innovative, well-trained, and competent staff.

The contemporary knowledge economy functioning in the information society may be characterised in the following way:

- It is dynamic and changeable, and its future trends are difficult to predict.
- The value and significance of intangible resources is growing, and knowledge and competencies are often crucial to the success of an organisation.
- The share of knowledge in creating products and services is growing.
- Expenditure on intangible resources is also growing. For example, in the USA, investment in intangible goods represented 3.8 % of gross national income (GNI) in 1953, while in 2000 it went up to 9.7 % of GNI [411, p. 18].
- The perception of the ownership of resources and knowledge control is changing in that many intangible goods used by organisations are not their property in the formal and legal sense.
- A new type of worker has developed: the knowledge worker, whose knowledge, competencies, and skills help develop the intangible resources of an organisation. The knowledge worker is not so dependent on his employer as the industrial worker, since he is a carrier of non-codified knowledge that the organisation would lose if he left. The knowledge worker is more independent and less controlled than the personnel of an industrial economy enterprise. He collaborates with an organisation rather than being controlled (managed) by it. His cooperation is based on motivation and psychological contract.

To better visualise the dynamics of changes in the socioeconomic environment over the last 100 years, Table 1.3 compares the features of an industrial economy and a knowledge economy.

The above mechanisms are also becoming visible in the information industry, and the achievements of the knowledge economy are applied in the field of library organisation. Currently, library managers are increasingly interested in activities aimed at the development of intangible resources. The organisational potential of libraries is actively used to attract the interest of the library environment. The development of the internal resources of libraries—not only their book collections but also the assets and skills that affect the quality of services—is actively used to enhance relations with users. Quality-based approaches have become popular, such as top quality management (TQM), SERVQUAL, benchmarking, or internal customer concept. These approaches are aimed at increasing the level of services through internal development. It is likely that the future development of libraries will be to a large extent dependent on effective acquisition of intangible resources, rather than on book resources only. For example, some libraries are forming all sorts of consortia, clusters, and networks (thus making use of the intangible value of cooperation) to more effectively develop and use book collections while also reducing costs and labour. Libraries that do not make a good use of their intangible resources or have very few of them will not be appreciated by users and will become less attractive compared to institutions offering competitive services.

1.4 Intangible Resources as a Source of Competitive Advantage

The issue of intangible resource management is typically analysed in the context of the positioning of an organisation in the market or, in other words, its placement among other institutions offering similar services to the same or a similar group of users. Numerous authors highlight the relationship between effective management of intangible organisational resources and the competitive advantage an organisation may achieve in a given area (e.g. [88; 104; 122; 250; 368; 385; 404; 411; 414, p. 11–42;

Table 1.3 Comparison between industrial economy and knowledge economy

Element	Industrial Economy	Knowledge Economy
Macroeconomic environment		
Market	High stability	High changeability
Level of competition	Domestic	Global
Dominant form of organisation	Hierarchical, bureaucratic, linear	Flat, network
Microeconomic perspective		
Form of production	Mass production	Flexible manufacturing systems
Growth factors	Investment in tangible capital, labour	Highly innovative, knowledge
Dominant technology	Mechanisation	Digitisation
Sources of competitive advantage	Cost reduction through returns to scale	Innovation, quality, organisational innovation (just-in-time, time-to-market)
Role of research and innovation	Limited or medium	High
Dominant relations with other entities	Autonomy	Broad cooperation, alliances, collaboration
Selected features of the labour market		
Labour market policy goals	Full employment	Intensifying the use of labour force, increasing its productivity, higher real wages and inflation
Skills	Limited and specialised	Broad skills, comprehensive training
Education	Skills, importance of formal education	Continuous learning
Labour market regulations and work management	Conflict management	Collaboration management
Nature of employment	High stability	Higher risk level, higher significance of market opportunities
Government		
Government-to-business relations	Imposing regulations	Creating conditions for growth
Regulations	Management and high level of social control	Market tools, promoting adaptability

Source: Adapted from A. P. BALCERZAK. Wiedza i innowacje jako kluczowy czynnik rozwoju gospodarczego w XXI wieku. In E. OKOŃ-HORODYŃSKA, R. WISŁA (ed.). *Kapitał intelektualny i jego ochrona*. Warszawa, 2009, p. 5

474]). An analysis of competitive advantage may help identify some alarming elements of the library environment and diagnose the organisations that are worth cooperating with.

The author of the competitive advantage concept is believed to be Edward Chamberlin [342], whose *Theory of Monopolistic Competition* [62] reorients the theory of value. His research was continued by Philip Selznick, who focused in his *Leadership in Administration* [359] on the sociological aspects of the problem, and Charles W. Hofer and Dan E. Schendel (*Strategy Formulation: Analytical Concepts* [138]), as well as George S. Day (*Strategic Market Planning: The Pursuit of Competitive Advantage* [78]) and Michael E. Porter (*Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance* [332]).

Hofer and Schendel defined the advantage of an organisation as "the unique position an organisation develops vis-à-vis its competitors through patterns of resource deployments" [138, p. 25] and treated it as an element of an organisation's strategy. It was only in the 1980s that Porter and Day, representatives of the market approach, saw the competitive advantage as one of the main strategic objectives. They believed that to achieve a competitive advantage, organisations must ensure a high level of products and services. They also believed that competitive advantage resulted from the effectiveness and quality of operations, while the source of competitive advantage lay in the structure of the sector that an organisation operated in. Porter defined two sources of competitive advantage:

- increasing effectiveness (e.g., faster customer service or shorter time needed to register new book collections)
- differentiation on the market (e.g., through a high quality of services or library staff friendliness) [311, p. 352]

Various research perspectives are applied to analyse competitive advantage. Competitive advantage may concern products, services, markets, organisations, industries, or entire countries [414, p. 11]. It can result either from the resources of an organisation (e.g., a comfortable and conveniently located library building) or from the skills it has access to (e.g., employee competencies in terms of cooperating with library users).

In the 1990s, the position-based approach (represented by Porter) was gradually replaced by the resource-based theory. The competitive advantage concept, proposed by Gary Hamel and C.K. Prahalad [136], states that the source of advantage are so-called core competencies. The concept gained popularity. For many researchers, this concept remains a fundamental research perspective. It is currently believed that for an organisation to achieve competitive advantage on the market, it must have, among a broad range of other competencies, attributes that differentiate it (or its products or services) from other institutions operating in the same market sector (see Table 1.4). These attributes must be visible or easily perceived by customers because they need to be aware of the attributes to consciously choose the particular organisation whose services they want to use. Maria Romanowska calls these attributes the "key success factors" or "advantages" [236, p. 468], while Józef Penc refers to them as "unique capabilities" [311, p. 352]. They are also referred to as core competencies. Among key success factors, many authors include quality, brand, being modern, technology, reputation, or price, defining them as "various resources, skills, and results of previous operations that

Table 1.4 Types of library competencies

Type of competency	Description
Main competencies	Basic competencies, elementary for a given profile of activity, that are essential for the library to function in the information services sector
Distinctive competencies (attributes core competencies)	Specialist competencies, hard to imitate by other institutions, differentiating a library from similar organisations in the sector or from its competitors, that play a major role in creating value for the user
Organisational competencies	Competencies that condition the proper organisation of work in a library and implementation of core processes in the operational and strategic perspective
Auxiliary competencies	Competencies that add to (complement) the main, distinctive, and organisational competencies
Dynamic competencies	Competencies a library may acquire to introduce innovations and adapt to the existing organisational needs

Source: Own elaboration based on H. PIEKARZ, A. MARSZAŁEK Sposoby ochrony kompetencji organizacji. *Prace i Materiały Wydziału Zarządzania Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego*. 2007, vol. 2, p. 239–247 significantly affect the chances for success" [413, p. 223]. It should be noted that some authors claim it is pointless for non-commercial organisations to develop unique competencies and that instead, they should share knowledge and pursue common social objectives [91]. In the case of libraries, the factor that affects their choice of either the competition strategy or the cooperation strategy is their mission, which determines their method of operation and defines the desired form of relationship with the environment. It should also be noted that library specialisation as a result of developing unique competencies may make it more attractive to users.[4]

According to Richard Hall, the distinctive capabilities (competencies) of an organisation fall into one of the four groups: functional, cultural, positioning, and regulatory capabilities [133]. An organisation may excel in one or more categories at the same time, but expertise in many fields is much harder to achieve. Thus, he suggests developing those competencies that in the future will contribute the most to creating value for customers and ensuring their satisfaction [407, p. 9]. Libraries may strive to ensure the satisfaction of their users by using and developing the existing competencies or by focusing on completely new capabilities. In the context of value to customers, a competency gap is mentioned, meaning excess or lack of competencies. A lack of competencies takes place when a library's competency, as perceived by library users, is below their expectations. Excess is when a library's level of competency is higher than users' expectations. Excessive competencies are usually associated with unnecessary expenditure on activities that, from the users' perspective, are needless because they do not produce the benefits they expect. Lack of some competencies may be compensated, although never fully replaced, by a high level of other capabilities. For example, a library's poor communication in social networks may be to some extent compensated for by a perfectly designed website. The level of library competencies may also

[4] A good example is German university libraries that, apart from serving the basic purposes of their own universities, participate in the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (German Research Community) programme, under which they collect foreign books in the fields assigned to respective libraries. Consequently, German libraries as a whole may offer to their users a wealth of literature in all fields of knowledge, whereas individual libraries have their own unique collections that differentiate them from others [12].

be related to the level of competencies represented by other institutions from the same sector that offer similar services, such as other libraries, bookshops, and cultural institutions. In any case, it is necessary to diagnose the competency gap and take actions to remove the gap.

Hall's theory assumes that the core capabilities of an organisation are based on selected intangible resources. For example, functional abilities may be founded on the knowledge of and relationships between employees and suppliers. Cultural capabilities are founded on the value of organisational culture, perception of quality, and ability to learn. Positional capabilities are based on the existing reputation and relationships with the environment. Regulatory capabilities are associated with formal rights to intellectual property, such as patents or licences. Such relationships are conditioned by the specificity of intangible resources that significantly contribute to the development of core competencies. Table 1.5 presents the framework of organisational assets formulated by Hall.

Table 1.5 Framework of distinctive capabilities according to R. Hall

	Capability differentials				
	Functional	Cultural	Positional	Regulatory	
People dependent	Know-how of employees, suppliers, and distributors				Skills
		Perception of quality, ability to learn			
			Reputation, networks		Assets
People independent			Databases		
				Contracts, licences, trade secrets, patents	

Source: Adapted from R. HALL. The Strategic Analysis of Intangible Resources. *Strategic Management Journal*. 1992, vol. 13, p. 140

Janusz Żurek, on the other hand, assumed that the most decisive factors for the development of an organisation and its advantage are organisational culture, human resources, and knowledge. He believed them to be the "pillars of intangible assets," which are both dependent on other intangible resources and crucial for the development of other assets. Figure 1.15 presents the scheme of intangible assets creating competitive advantage according to J. Żurek.

Factors may play different roles depending on the industry and the users of the services offered by an organisation. Their value may also fluctuate in time, meaning that what is valuable for an institution at a given moment in time will not necessarily be important in the future, or it does not have to be essential for its competitors. For example, the crucial assets of a public library for children may be its modernity (e.g., attractive design and access to various media) and having the latest trendy literature in this age group. On the other hand, a distinctive quality of an academic library may be a high quality of customer service, which also affects the

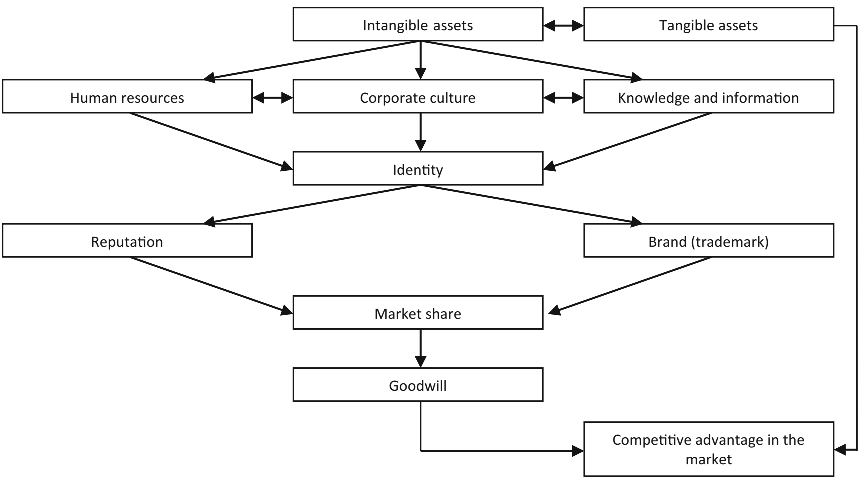


Fig. 1.15 Intangible assets creating competitive advantage according to J. Żurek. *Source*: Adapted from J. ŻUREK. Znaczenie wartości niematerialnych i prawnych w budowaniu przewagi konkurencyjnej przedsiębiorstwa. *Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego. Studia i Materiały Instytutu Transportu i Handlu Morskiego*. 2008, no. 5, p. 139

level and relevance of the information provided. For a library, low book prices may be the decisive factor of its success with customers. The attributes that ensure success with a specific group of users do not automatically guarantee success in the case of diversification of services. This is the problem of libraries that are successful in a certain environment and wish to increase its user group (e.g., academic libraries that start to provide services for a local community that has different needs and expectations than the academic community).

Competitive advantage is defined as "the distance between [an organisation] and its competitors in terms of a selected key success factor, e.g., price, quality, brand, technology" [351, p. 112]. It seems that in the case of libraries, the most typical factor is the quality of services. Sabina Adamiec defined competitive advantage in the context of libraries as "a relatively durable positive distinction of a library from among its competitors as a result of actions taken by it in all the fields of its operation, enabling it to better serve its customers-users and to increase its effectiveness and efficiency" [5, p. 117]. Sustainable competitive advantage means "extended in time advantages of applying a unique value-creating strategy that is not simultaneously implemented by competitors and whose advantages may not be copied" [409, p. 109]. Competitiveness is "the ability to design, manufacture, and sell products whose price, quality, and other properties are more attractive than the prices of equivalent products offered by competitors" [265, p. 522]. Accordingly, the competitiveness of a library is its ability to continuously develop, increase effectiveness, and improve quality in an environment of other organisations offering substitute services. The factors that contribute to developing and strengthening the library's position include:

- developing a competitive strategy
- creating a culture of innovation, efficiency, and quality
- using new technologies, both in internal processes and as tools available as a part of services addressed to users
- optimising operations and adjusting the internal organisation of the library to the changing environment and the conditions in which it operates

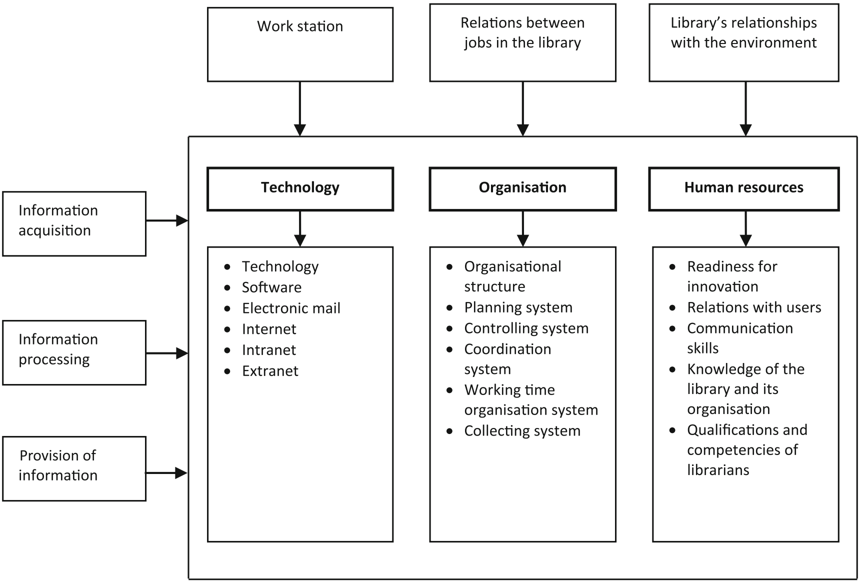


Fig. 1.16 Levels and criteria of identifying information-related factors of the competitive advantage of a library. *Source*: Own elaboration based on J. FRĄŚ. Zarządzanie informacją elementem budowy przewagi konkurencyjnej e-przedsiębiorstwa. *Studia i Prace Wydziału Nauk Ekonomicznych i Zarządzania Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego*. 2011, no. 21, p. 39

Figure 1.16 presents the levels and criteria of identifying information-related factors of the competitive advantage of a library.

Philip Kotler, Gary Armstrong, John Saunders, and Veronica Wong grouped different industries based on the number and size of competitive advantages that an organisation may gain depending on the sector in which it operates. They identified:

- mass industry
- stalemate industry
- fragmented industry
- specialised industry [197, p. 485]

The fragmented and specialised industries are characterised by a large number of possible competitive advantages, while the stalemate and mass industries are characterized by a limited number of them. The specialised and mass industries have the ability to generate a large advantage, while the fragmented and stalemate ones do not. Accordingly, in the mass industry, it is possible to gain few advantages, but they are usually large and yield much profit. An example of a mass industry is airlines that operate on a large scale, although they offer a limited range of services. In the stalemate industry, competitive advantages are rare and limited in size, which makes it difficult for an organisation from this group to distinguish itself. Stalemate industries include steelworks and mining. The fragmented industry is characterised by the possibility to gain many advantages, but which have little significance. This group typically includes the service sector. The specialised industry is associated with aggressive competition, because companies in this group have the opportunity to create numerous competitive advantages that are large and very profitable, such as the cosmetics industry or the pharmaceutical industry. Kotler, Armstrong, Saunders, and Wong included publishing companies in the specialised industry. Libraries may be classified as organisations belonging to the fragmented industry, where numerous, although small, advantages may be gained. Theodor Levitt, the American economist, says that despite certain trends and specificities of the respective industries, it is possible to differentiate business and gain advantage in any industry, although in some it is much harder than in others [242]. Figure 1.17 presents the division of industries depending on the number and size of possible competitive advantages.

According to the resource-based theory, for a competitive advantage to exist over a long time, it should be:

- relatively durable
- perceived and appreciated by customers
- hard for competitors to imitate

Durability means that each factor that positively distinguishes a library from among other institutions should exist over a long period of time, which eliminates randomness. Such properties must be repeatable and systematic so that the user may notice and appreciate them.

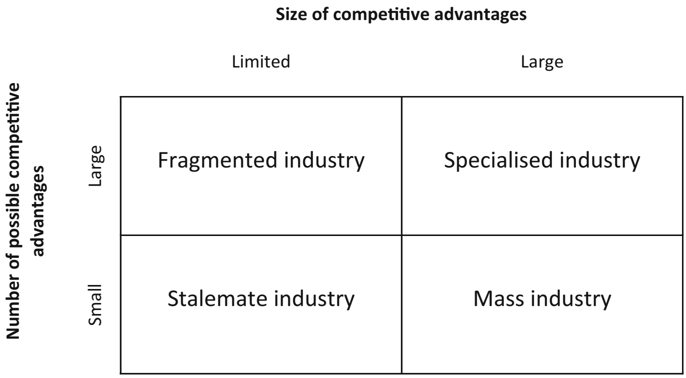


Fig. 1.17 Industries matrix based on the number and size of competitive advantages. *Source*: Adapted from P. KOTLER, G. ARMSTRONG, J. SAUNDERS, V. WONG. *Marketing*. Warszawa, 2002, p. 485

Also, they should represent a measurable value for the user, because factors that are of no value for the user do not create any competitive advantage. An example could be a high standard of customer care typical of a library and maintained in all contacts with the user, irrespective of other variables (e.g., the particular librarian who is interacting with the user, the time of day, the number of users in the library, the workload). The key success factor should also be hard for competitors to imitate, because as soon as it is offered by other institutions, it becomes a required standard of service. An example could be electronic user accounts introduced by libraries that users may log on to at home. The first institutions to introduce this technology were considered to offer a higher level of service, as they enabled some operations to be performed from home (such as reserving a book). By now, most libraries have implemented this tool and it has become a standard option available in the catalogue, and a lack of it very often disqualifies a library in the eyes of users.

It is worth noting that the position of libraries in the information services market is fundamentally changing. Until recently, it was commonly believed that libraries were stable institutions with an established social status, role, and function that did not require any measures to strengthen their competitive advantage. Also, competition in the information and education service market used to be disregarded. Currently, following cultural and technological changes, competition or even rivalry in this sector of services is observed increasingly often.

Competition, a phenomenon that used to be broadly discussed in the context of theories on the mechanisms of business operations, has recently been interpreted in association with the trend of analysing the functioning of non-profit institutions. In this context, it is defined as “the pursuit of two or more organisations to achieve the same goal” [91, p. 94] and associated with competing for funds (e.g., grants, donations), personnel, users, and broadly understood resources, as well as with increasing the quality of services and improving reputation. This phenomenon may be interpreted in a number of ways, taking into account any of the following:

- rivalry between the same kind of institutions offering the same services (competition between libraries)
- rivalry between similar institutions offering somewhat different services (e.g., competition between a library and a cultural institution, which both offer leisure and education services as well as free-time activities)
- rivalry between different institutions offering different services (e.g., competition between a library and a cinema, café, fun park, or shopping centre)

Apart from rivalry between institutions, there are other forms of competition that limit the group of library service users. The literature mentions industry competition and market competition [197, p. 555–556]. Competition within an industry means rivalry between two libraries (institutions offering substitute services), whereas market competition means rivalry in satisfying the same needs, such as the need to relax, spend free time, or obtain information. These needs may be satisfied by completely different institutions; in this sense, the library’s competitors may be, for example, a horse ranch or cinema, or they may service the same group of customers (a library user may at the same time be the client of a bookshop, café, or swimming pool). Other competitors of libraries include alternative media, such as the Internet or new data recording formats.

When grouping organisations into respective industries, it is important to consider the possibilities of competition within one strategic group, as well as between different strategic groups. Libraries that implement the same or similar strategies may operate within the same strategic group competing for the attention of the environment with another strategic group, but they may also be a source of competition for each other.

Considering the different activities of libraries and their different actions with respect to other institutions and substitutes, libraries may be divided into four groups:

- Leading libraries have the most impact on the development of the entire sector and have a large group of users. They take advantage of the effect of scale, and are a benchmark for other institutions in terms of organisational behaviour, action models, development of services, and implementing innovations.
- Partner libraries strive to actively develop and wish to increase their role in the strategic group as well as in the entire industry through attractive or innovative activities.
- Imitating libraries copy the successful models of operation of other leading institutions, wishing to maintain their existing position and image.
- Specialist libraries operate in niche market sectors that require expertise and are not attractive for other institutions as they require specialised models of operation, unique book collections, and specialist skills, as well as a highly individualised approach to the user. Such libraries are the libraries of academic institutes that perform advanced research and require a narrow range of high quality services.

The contemporary literature related to the library science identifies two basic approaches discussing the desirable action models for libraries in the context of competitive behaviour. According to the first approach, libraries should cooperate with each other and the focus of their attention should be to complement their respective services. The second approach assumes that libraries operating in the market economy do not receive sufficient systematic support and must rely on themselves to ensure proper conditions to survive and develop by obtaining the support of decision-makers, donors, and users, offering competitive services, being recognisable in the community, and having a strong brand. There are also intermediate models and extreme situations, where libraries actually compete with each other, as is the case with some libraries at private universities that try to attract the same users or students. Results of my research among the management personnel of Polish libraries show that competition is observed by them increasingly often. The research showed that 40 % of library directors experienced some kind of competition between libraries, and 28 % experienced a situation where a librarian was bound to keep secret information concerning the functioning of the institution employing him. These results suggest that competition between libraries is no longer incidental, as could be expected, but rather it is growing, causing the development of new competencies in the field of organisation and promotion.

Depending on the extent to which organisations cooperate with customers and satisfy their needs or are in rivalry with competitors, they may be divided into the four basic groups presented in Fig. 1.18. Organisations are focused on the product, customer, competitors, or market. The most likely to develop are market-oriented organisations that, on the one hand, compete with other organisations, but on the other hand, strive to satisfy customer needs and ensure their satisfaction. Libraries may be classified as institutions in the second half of development, focused on the

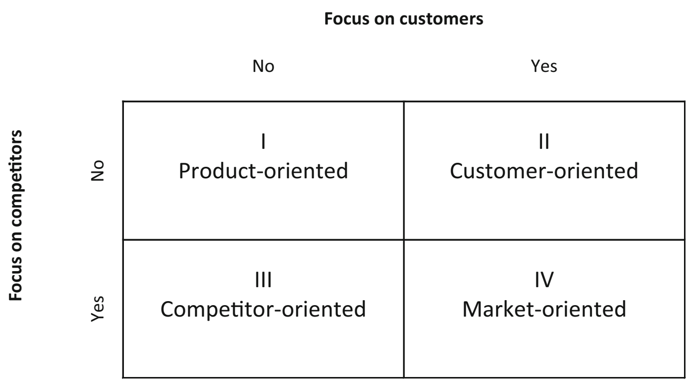


Fig. 1.18 Types of organisational focus. *Source*: Adapted from P. KOTLER, G. ARMSTRONG, J. SAUNDERS, V. WONG. *Marketing*. Warszawa, 2002, p. 589

needs and relations with users and not much engaged in rivalry between institutions.

Competitive advantage is limited in time and dependent on socioeconomic conditions in the community, changes in the information service sector, user preferences and behaviour, and the action models of other institutions from the same sector of services.

The sources of competitive advantage are resources and the ability to use them. In the industrial economy period, these resources were mainly physical items required to produce goods. Value was developed by capital and workforce allocation. However, in the current stage of knowledge economy and increasing value of intangible resources, advantage is gained by organisations that possess such goods and know how to manage them effectively. The role of knowledge and intellectual capital in developing the competitive advantage of an organisation is acknowledged [110, 113, 127, 131, 265]. Libraries no longer only collect books; they also focus on developing high quality services. The library user and his or her needs have become the centre of all activity. These needs may be satisfied in a number of ways without using the traditional physical media, including remotely. Books and other library materials have become a means to an end: user satisfaction. Intangible resources, such as organisational culture, human capital, innovation, and many others, are supposed to support the service provision process.

According to Ewa Głuszek, the potential sources of competitive advantage are technology, experience effect, market share, and industry structure, as well as skills and resources [122, p. 17]. These elements play some role in libraries, though it is a somewhat different role than in the case of commercial institutions.

Technology, considered to be an essential factor contributing to the efficiency of an organisation, has been important in libraries since the second half of the twentieth century. This is a result of the rapid development of information technology (IT) and the popularisation of IT tools in the service sector. For some, the more automated a library is, the more modern it is. Computerised libraries that have online public access catalogues (OPACs), websites, electronic security gates, radio frequency identification (RFID) technology, electronic collections, participate in collection digitisation projects (digital libraries, repositories), and offer electronic document delivery, drop boxes, or self-service borrowing and returning systems were and often still are considered particularly attractive. They are seen as up to date with changing technologies and, consequently, better recognisable and more useful. In librarianship, supporting traditional library processes with new technologies has become the source of numerous innovations, both in the provision of services and in the organisation of work. Information technology development resulted in a number of new specialisations, such as the systems librarian or website administrator. The technological revolution, which in Polish libraries reached its climax in the 1990s, was followed by a period of gradual systematic growth that no longer causes so much emotion among librarians and library users. New solutions and programs that appear every now and again are an element of everyday library functioning and the struggle to ensure high quality services, rather than a precursor of another IT revolution.

The experience effect theory is based on the assumption that the provision of products or services on a large scale reduces the costs of their generation ("the total unit cost of a product [or service] is reduced by a fixed percentage each time the cumulative value of production is doubled" [388, p. 79]. Thus, a library that provides its respective services on a large scale (i.e., it serves a large number of users) will bear lower costs, thanks to the learning process, than an institution that provides services on a limited scale. A relevant example is when a librarian prepares a library lesson once and then repeatedly teaches it to a number of groups, as opposed to when a librarian prepares a training session and holds it only once. The work input in both cases is similar, while the number of users attending the training differs considerably. Repeated provision of the same service makes it possible to gain experience and correct errors, thus helping to standardise the service and raise its level, resulting in higher user satisfaction. It is worth noting, however, that contemporary librarianship postulates individualised perception of user needs and personalised customer service, which is contrary to the effect of mass service provision.

Market share is a concept associated mainly with the operation of commercial institutions. It is defined as "the percentage share of a product of a given company in total sales of that product. […] Market share is very important, because its growth solidifies the competitive advantage of an enterprise as well as its negotiating power vis-à-vis the target group of its product in a given market" [311, p. 466]. The rule that industry dominance is associated with higher financial profit does not work for libraries, except perhaps in the case of libraries that are agencies of commercial institutions generating financial profit and undertaking actual competitive activities, such as the libraries of some universities.

The functioning and position of a library are also affected by the industry structure, which is associated with the nature of the external environment in which an organisation operates. It may be either positive or negative for a given library and it may strengthen or weaken its position. One of the methods of a strategic analysis of industry structure was developed by Michael Porter [333]. According to his five-factor analysis (also known as Porter's five forces analysis), every industry's structure may be defined by five forces: suppliers, buyers, barriers to entry, substitute products, and intensity of competition. The functioning of a library becomes simpler as each factor lessens. For example, lower pressure from suppliers and users, weaker competition, less probability of the appearance of new organisations that could make users resign from library services, and fewer substitutes for library services or different services that could compete with library services, make the industry more attractive and friendly. Apart from Porter's analysis, the literature mentions a number of other tools for industry analysis, such as the strategic gap analysis, weighted industry attractiveness scores, strategic group mapping, or weighted curve [380, p. 151–163].

Kotler, Armstrong, Saunders, and Wong identified the basic factors affecting the phenomenon of an organisation distinguishing itself and achieving competitive advantage:

- product (service)
- level of customer service
- personnel
- image [197, p. 488]

Libraries belong to a group of institutions that can significantly differentiate their services and offer personalised and unique services. This is undoubtedly related to the amount of time devoted to each library user as well as different expectations. A user may be treated as an individual and a service—by definition, repetitive—may be each time personalised and customised. For example, the information provision process may differ completely between libraries. In some libraries, users themselves search the information base, while in others this is done by the librarian. Some libraries provide information on the spot only, while others provide information over the phone or online. Some libraries charge users for ready materials recorded on a given medium, and others provide them free of charge. These are but some of the many differences. Apart from the service itself, the level of customer service may also positively or negatively impact or distinguish a library. An added value for a library is when it takes particular care of the user and user's needs. For some library users, the quality of customer service (especially empathy, kindness, and helpfulness) is more valuable than the service itself and becomes the main reason for visiting a library. An excellent personnel is one of the factors that potentially contributes to a library's strong position. Particularly valuable factors are knowledge, skills, experience, competencies, character, and other things that contribute to the development of the quality of services and the image of an institution. Image development is particularly important when a certain group of users may choose between a number of libraries that offer similar, hard-to-distinguish services. In this case, if a library develops a permanent unique image, it will be easier to identify and distinguish the library and its services.

According to the modern resource-based theory, the effectiveness of an organisation depends on its resources and the ability to manage those resources. Unique resources, both tangible and intangible, make a library more successful. The value of those resources and their actual contribution to the achievement of a library's goals depend, among other things, on:

- how valuable they are
- how rare they are
- how hard to imitate they are (imitability)
- how hard to acquire they are

One of the intangible resources that meets these conditions is the organisational culture of a library. It is precious because it creates a positive atmosphere and the appreciation of users. It is rare because it is characterised by an exceptionally favourable organisational climate while maintaining the effectiveness of the personnel's work. It is hard to imitate because it is a unique set of conditions existing in a library (e.g., behavioural patterns, artefacts, symbols, beliefs, values, standards). It cannot be purchased; the only way to acquire it is by developing a similar culture. Acquisition of intangible organisational resources may be hindered by their high cost (not only financial) and the lack of relevant skills and engagement of the managers and employees of a library. The development of intangible resources requires a lot of effort and long-term and systematic actions. Sometimes these actions are not undertaken, as they do not guarantee success.

Another concept that is worth noting is the relational approach, which states that competitive advantage is gained through the development of relations by using new technologies, especially information and communications technology (ICT). The relational approach developed in the 1990s along with the development of new organisational structures: networks and virtual structures. It turned out that competitive activities require not only rivalry but also cooperation with selected partners. Libraries are institutions that, because of digitisation of resources and the changing form of contact with users, tend to evolve towards networks and virtual structures, but at the same time function within physical networks. They should consider adopting the relational approach to support their activities.

To conclude, it should be noted that the source of a library's success in the information services market is the value it can offer to its users. Understanding users' needs and the motivations of their actions and choices is fundamental to providing services that will distinguish a library from among other institutions and will determine its success. This, however, depends on having adequate intangible resources such as skills, knowledge, a friendly and innovative organisational culture, and many other resources that will be discussed in greater detail in subsequent chapters.

2

Characteristics and Analysis of Selected Intangible Organisational Resources Related to the Intellectual Capital

2.1 Intellectual Capital vs. Intangible Resources Management

The term "intellectual capital" has existed in economics since the 1960s. It was used for the first time in 1969 by John Kenneth Galbraith[1] in his letter to the Polish economist Michał Kalecki. However, the eighteenth century economist, philosopher, and author of *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, Adam Smith, noted that each person was a kind of capital and the specific skills of different nations constituted the major part of a state's capital and could be the cause of their wealth. Galbraith defined intellectual capital as a person's intellectual attributes or properties. As the economy developed, his theory was elaborated on and improved. Currently, the literature is incoherent on this issue, as various authors define this term in different ways. Intellectual capital is

[1] According to some authors, the origin of the term is different [275, p. 73–74].

M. Wojciechowska, *Intangible Organizational Resources*,
DOI 10.1057/978-1-137-58123-5_2

sometimes referred to as "human capital" or "knowledge capital," but these concepts may also be understood to mean something completely different. Other terms that developed in association with the commercialisation of knowledge were "intellectual entrepreneurship," used for the first time by the British deconstructionist and postmodernist Robert Chia [229, p. 15], and "intellectual profit" (see [412]). Sam Leif Edvinsson, the precursor of the intellectual capital trend, interchangeably uses such terms as "intellectual capital," "knowledge capital," "non-financial assets," "hidden assets," "invisible assets," and "means to an end' [100, p. 18].

There exist two basic interpretive approaches to defining intellectual capital. The narrower approach states that intellectual capital is associated with the knowledge and intellectual processes of an individual, but it can also be associated with the competencies and motivation of employees. This approach is presented by Janine Nahapiet and Sumantra Ghosal [281], and by Dorota Dobija in some of her papers [89], among others. The broader approach associates intellectual capital with the intangible resources of an organisation and regards human capital and knowledge as their components, the same as reputation, strategy, or brand. This approach was propagated by Thomas A. Stewart [386], Leif Edvisson and Michael S. Malone [100], and Karl M. Wiig [420], among others. It is also recommended by the International Federation of Accountants, even though accounting standards in most developed countries recognise only works (industrial or intellectual) that are created as a result of the knowledge and experience of an organisation or an individual. It is worth noting that "intellectual capital" is not synonymous with "intellectual property," which means creations (e.g., books, articles, music, films) protected by copyright law.

Since there are many interpretations, it is worth presenting a brief review of the term "intellectual capital."

A definition popularly used in the literature is the one proposed by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). The OECD believes that intellectual capital is "the economic value of two categories of intangible assets of a company: organisational (structural) capital and human capital" [95, p. 213].

Grzegorz Urbanek, following David Klein and Laurence Prusak, defines intellectual capital as "material that may be used to create other, more valuable assets" [411, p. 33]. He treats it as a sort of "intellectual building material" consisting of hidden knowledge stored in employees' brains, which is not the property of an organisation. Thus, he believes that intellectual capital must be transformed into intellectual assets, which he interprets as elements that can be owned and controlled by an organisation. According to Urbanek, intellectual assets constitute manifest knowledge. He also believes that transformation of human capital, or hidden knowledge, into intellectual assets is the basic ability that enables an organisation to gain competitive advantage in its environment. He divides intellectual capital into non-identifiable assets and identifiable assets that can be described and defined. Among identifiable assets, those that do not have independent economic existence cannot be the object of a transaction and are evaluated only for the purpose of improving internal management. Assets that have independent economic existence and can be bought and sold can be directly evaluated by being associated with specific economic benefits, as shown in Fig. 2.1. Urbanek's classification is consistent with the broader interpretive approach, which recognises all the intangible resources of an organisation as intellectual capital.

The literature often divides intellectual capital into three categories: human capital, structural capital, and customer capital. This division was adopted by Nick Bontis and James Guthrie. Bontis focused on factors of intellectual capital, such as essence, scope, parameters, and codification difficulty, as shown in Fig. 2.2. Guthrie, on the other hand, extensively described the components of the structural capital, customer capital, and human capital (Table 2.1).

One of the classical elaborations of this issue is the *Navigator* of the Swedish Skandia company, developed by Leif Edvinsson [99], where the intellectual capital is divided into human capital and structural capital, and then structural capital is divided into organisational capital and customer capital.

Numerous authors distinguish between real capital, comprising the fixed assets and financial resources of a library, and intellectual capital, which consists of:

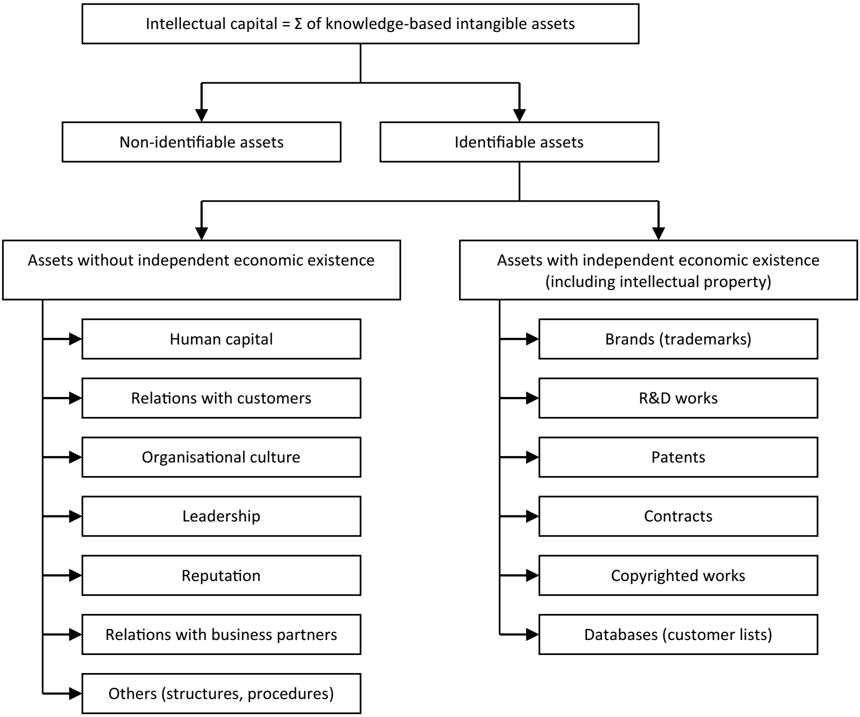
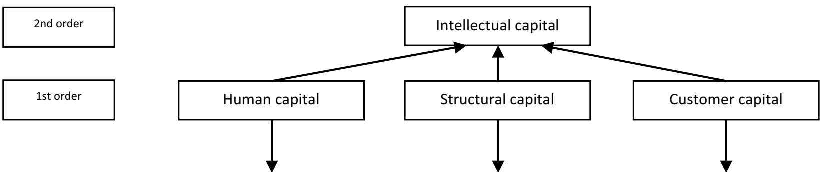


Fig. 2.1 Intellectual capital according to G. Urbanek. *Source*: Adapted from G. URBANEK. *Wycena aktywów niematerialnych przedsiębiorstwa.* Warszawa, 2008, p. 44



Essence	Human intellect	Organisational routines	Market relationships
Scope	Internal within employee node	Internal organisational links	External organisational links
Parameters	Volume appropriateness	Efficiency accessibility	Longevity volume
Codification difficulty	High	Medium	Highest

Fig. 2.2 Intellectual capital according to N. Bontis. *Source*: Adapted from N. BONTIS. Intellectual Capital: An Exploratory Study that Develops Measures and Models. *Management Decision.* 1998, no 2, p. 66

Table 2.1 Intellectual capital indicators according to J. Guthrie

Internal: Organisational (structural) capital	Intellectual property	– Patents – Copyrights – Trademarks
	Infrastructure assets	– Management philosophy – Corporate culture – Management processes – Information systems – Networking systems – Financial relations
External: Customer (relational) capital	– Brands – Customers – Customer loyalty – Company names – Distribution channels – Business collaborations – Licensing agreements – Favourable contracts – Franchising agreements	
Employee competence: Human capital	– Know-how – Education – Vocational qualification – Work-related knowledge – Work-related competencies – Entrepreneurial spirit, innovativeness, proactive and reactive abilities, changeability	

Source: Adapted from J. GUTHRIE. The Management, Measurement and the Reporting of Intellectual Capital. *Journal of Intellectual Capital.* 2000, vol. 2, no. 1, p. 34

- human capital, or the employees of a library as well as their skills, knowledge, experience, and creativity
- organisational capital, or the internal and external structure of a library
- social capital, or the structural capital, cognitive capital, and human relations [29, p. 18; 50, p. 70; 191].

The components of intellectual capital vary depending on the approach, but they typically consist of the abovementioned elements. Tadeusz Dudycz developed a detailed scheme of the structure of intellectual capital consisting of:

1. human capital
    (a) structure of education
    (b) average length of professional experience of the employees
    (c) number of "conceptual employees" (e.g., designers, programmers, design engineers, research and development personnel)
    (d) modifications of the products offered
    (e) workforce fluctuation
    (f) employee participation in trainings

2. structural capital
    (a) IT networks and their availability
    (b) computer software
    (c) management systems
    (d) intellectual assets (databases, knowledge bases), including intellectual property (patents, licenses)
    (e) quality systems

3. customer capital
    (a) customer databases
    (b) distribution channels
    (c) types of relationships with customers [95, p. 223]

In the context of the management of the intangible organisational resources of libraries, which is the topic of this book, the classification proposed by Annie Brooking [51] is interesting. According to her, intellectual capital consists of four groups of intangible resources:

1. Market assets enable a library to develop a strong position in the information service sector. They include, among other things, a library's reputation, brand attractiveness, loyalty and relationships with users, and visual identification system symbols that help develop the identity and image of a library.

2. Human-centred/employee-centred assets comprise elements of human capital, such as employee knowledge, skills, competencies, and expertise, that are embodied by human beings. These are extremely precious in the information services sector.
3. Infrastructure/organisational assets are a number of assets associated with the organisational culture of a library, communication systems, and methods of operation.
4. Intellectual property assets are the rights an institution has to use intellectual property, such as various kinds of works, trade and service marks, patents, and licences.

Table 2.2 presents the elements of intellectual capital that are most frequently mentioned in the literature. The table clearly shows the authors' differences and similarities in defining intellectual capital.

Intellectual capital is usually visualised through the following equation:

$$\text{Market value of an organisation} = \text{book value} + \text{intellectual capital}$$

where:

$$\text{Intellectual capital} = \text{human capital} + \text{structural capital}$$

thus[2]:

$$\text{Market value} = \text{book value} + \text{human capital} + \text{structural capital}$$

It should be noted that, irrespective of the methodology applied, all the elements of intellectual capital are an integral whole and form part of the resources of an organisation. Awareness of the relations and dependencies between the respective components makes it possible to profit from them.

[2] A typical approach in literature. Equations presented on the basis of: *Zarządzanie wartością przedsiębiorstwa – vol.* Dudycz [95, p. 225].

Table 2.2 Selected classifications of intellectual capital

Author of the concept	Year of publication	Elements of intellectual capital
A. Brooking	1996	Market assets Assets associated with people Infrastructure assets Intellectual property assets
K. E. Sveiby	1997	External structure Internal structure Employee competencies
L. Edvinsson and M. S. Malone	1997	Human capital Structural capital
G. Roos and J. Roos	1997	Human capital Organisational capital Customer capital and relations capital
N. Bontis	1998	Structural capital Human capital Relations capital
T. A. Steward	1998	Human capital Customer-related capital Organisational capital
M. Bratnicki	1999	Human capital Organisational capital Social capital
MERITUM Project	2001	Structural capital Human capital Relations capital
The Brookings Institution	2001	Market assets Assets associated with human factor Assets concerning infrastructure Intellectual value
B. Lev	2001	Assets associated with people Organisational assets Assets associated with innovations
D. Dobija	2003	Capital associated with innovations Structural capital Capital associated with the market (customer capital) Human capital
A. Sopiska and P. Wachowiak	2003	Human capital Organisational capital Market capital

Source: Own elaboration

Accordingly, all the elements of intellectual capital should be closely integrated with one another and analysed holistically. As Anna Ujwary-Gil put it, "intellectual capital is not an element of management per se, but rather a function of creating long-term value" [404, p. 8]. It should also be noted that intellectual capital is not an easily definable, unchangeable, and homogeneous whole. Its value and structure depend on the context in which it is used. This means that intellectual assets that are precious and valuable for one company may prove completely useless in another. Knowledge and competencies crucial in library management may be completely different than in other institutions.

Currently, intellectual capital is extensively analysed by many authors in the fields of management and organisation, information sciences, and, increasingly often, library science. The scope of this concept partly coincides with the subject matter of the theory of intangible resources. However, as the definitions presented show, they are not entirely synonymous. Knowledge and intellectual capital management is the object of vivid interest in academic papers, such as numerous conference materials, monographs, or periodicals. To better visualise the scale of the phenomenon, it is enough to say that a number of periodicals are entirely devoted to intellectual capital and knowledge, such as *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *Journal of Intellectual Capital, Journal of Knowledge Management Practice, Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management,* and *International Journal of Learning and Intellectual Capital.*

Currently, intellectual capital is analysed not only in the context of commercial institutions but also, increasingly often, in the context of cultural and academic organisations, such as universities or libraries [64]. One publication discussing the intellectual capital of libraries that is worth noting is *Managing Intellectual Capital in Libraries: Beyond the Balance Sheet by* Petros A. Kostagiolas [192]. However, one should remember that, despite much interest in the topic, specialists generally believe that there are not enough competent experts, measuring tools, and methods to manage intellectual capital. Problems with managing intangible resources, and in particular knowledge-flow-related processes, are caused by a number of factors, such as:

1. lack of a single, generally accepted definition of intellectual capital and intangible resources

2. a large variety of models illustrating the structure of intellectual capital and its position in an organisation
3. a number of different indicators used to evaluate intellectual capital (up to several hundred, depending on the model)
4. lack of the most optimal methods to manage intellectual capital, positively assessed by academic circles and management practitioners
5. ignoring the role of intellectual capital in the development of an organisation
6. ignoring ethical and legal principles applying to the use of intellectual capital

Meanwhile, because of the growing share of knowledge in products and services, the need for solving the above problems is also growing.

2.2 Human Capital

People are the basic source and medium of knowledge. It is through human activity that we can speak of knowledge management and learning organisations. In the context of library management, the literature mentions three terms: human resources, labour resources, and human capital.[3] Human resources are the inhabitants of a given country engaged in production and consumption processes, analysed in the context of their size, spatial distribution, culture, education, standards, and values. Labour resources are the number of inhabitants who work for money or are able and willing to work for money. On the other hand, human capital is the knowledge, skills, competencies, character, health, energy, vitality, and internal motivation embodied in an individual (human being). The components of human capital are genetically determined or result from the activity of an individual, which means they change over time [223, p. 36; 254, p. 85]. Human capital may be analysed from two perspectives:

[3] Some authors use the terms "human resources" and "human capital" interchangeably in the microeconomic context. Others define human capital as a higher stage of human resource management or strategic human resource management (see [72, p. 125–128]).

- quantitatively (e.g., number of library employees, number of hours the personnel can work)
- qualitatively (e.g., level of competencies, knowledge, experience, and other qualitative factors that can affect the ability to work and the quality of work)

In terms of quality, human capital consists of three basic areas: competencies (professional and social), relations that enable transformation of theoretical knowledge into action, and values that make it possible to assess the ethical aspects of conduct. The contribution an individual employee (as opposed to the entire team) brings to an organisation is referred to as personal or individual human capital. Recently, attempts have been made to measure individual human capital and evaluate its impact on the condition of an organisation, just as with the intellectual capital of the entire organisation [89]. Focus is gradually shifting from measuring the costs of human resources to analysing the value of those resources.

Human capital is not a fixed value. It can be developed by investing in certain areas, but it is not the property of an organisation, even though the organisation may use it throughout the duration of and on the terms defined in an employment contract. Grażyna Maniak and Barbara Kryk included the following elements in the abovementioned areas:

- services and facilities associated with health protection
- better catering
- trainings and increasing professional qualifications during working time
- learning in the national education system
- searching for and collecting information about the situation of companies and professional prospects
- analysing choices made by the population
- migrations of the population [254, p. 85]

Recent economic concepts perceive employees in two different ways: either as a resource that, alongside other tangible and intangible resources, generates value for an organisation and helps it gain a competitive advantage (the resource-based theory) [224], or as a medium of knowledge and capital (the intellectual capital theory) [100]. During the industrial economy era, an individual was treated more as an instrument and his activity was limited to mechanically performing his tasks. In this way, employees could be classified as tangible resources (i.e., an employee treated as some kind of a machine). It was only in the late 1980s that the employee started to be perceived as one of the most crucial assets of an organisation, contributing to its success and as such requiring special attention. As a result, we have a dual assessment of an individual employee. Depending on the approach, an individual may be treated either as an investment that will yield future benefits or as an asset that is subject to depreciation and consequently becomes a cost.

Economists have been interested in human capital for a long time. For example, the seventeenth century English economist William Petty claimed that people constitute a value, or a capital that is the condition of specialisation and, consequently, the development of a country's economy. Adam Smith, a Scot, observed 100 years later that the human being is the source of capital, which he increases by gaining knowledge, improving skills, and keeping in good health. A while later, at the turn of the nineteenth century, the French entrepreneur Jean-Baptiste Say emphasised the existence of intangible capital embodied in the human being. In 1890, Alfred Marshall declared that the most valuable capital invested in human beings [260]. Elton Mayo contributed important research on the roles of the individual, group, and superior in an organisation. He was one of the first to conclude, on the basis of his observations conducted in industrial establishments, that the effectiveness of human capital was affected not only by physical conditions and salary but, more importantly, by informal contacts with other people. However, the human capital theory was only formulated in the late 1950s by Theodore W. Schultz [357] and developed by Gary S. Becker, who established the concept of investing in human capital [33]. Schultz recognised human knowledge and competencies as a form of capital and he criticised lack of investment in human capital. Becker's research showed that financial expenditure on the development of human capital was typical of highly developed countries with a higher standard of living, whereas the underdevelopment of certain economies was associated with lack of investment in people. Even though his human capital theory was criticised many times, it nonetheless laid foundations for further analysis. Since the mid-1980s, American economists have analysed the impact of human resource management on the efficiency of an organisation, especially on its financial performance. In 1995, Mark A. Huselid published a famous article [145] in which he showed the relationship between the quality of human resource (HR) management and practices in large American corporations and their financial performance and market value.

Contemporary human capital theories are based on the assumption that people invest in their own development by participating in various forms of education and gaining experience, skills, and competencies. They also state that the accumulation of different capitalised expenditures increases an employee's value on the labour market, thus benefitting both the employee and the organisation. The literature mentions three main theoretical human resource management models: traditional, human relations, and human resource. The traditional model is based on control, discipline, and human productivity. The human relations model emphasises the need for acknowledgement, belonging, and dialogue. The human resource model takes into account human creativity and willingness to develop [148, p. 284–288]. The most recent concepts position an individual or employee, also the librarian, in three areas:

1. competence (human capital)
2. internal relations and organisational culture of the library (social capital)
3. the library's external relationships with the environment (relationships)

Various components comprise human capital. The most common are formal education, professional experience, skills, competencies, health, manners, and character. On the other hand, the relations and conditions that the librarian is subjected to in his workplace may be analysed in multiple contexts, including library science, socioeconomic, legal, organisational, ergonomic, psychological, and many others (see Fig. 2.3).

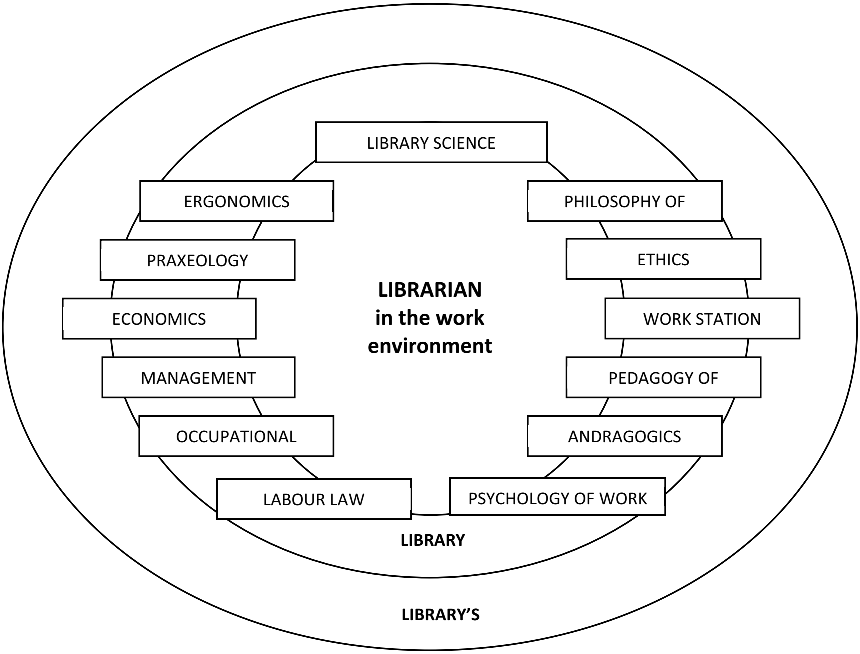


Fig. 2.3 Librarian's positioning in the work environment, in an interdisciplinary context. *Source*: Own elaboration

Thomas Davenport proposed the following equation to illustrate human capital [251, p. 19]:

$$\text{Human capital} = (\text{ability} + \text{behaviour}) \times \text{effort} \times \text{time}$$

Davenport believed that an individual could achieve a similar level of capital by combining various factors. For example, one can compensate for a lack of abilities by more extensive knowledge. Alternatively, the professional competencies development process may take longer, but the same effect is achieved in the end.

Human capital may have two dimensions: market or personal [251, p. 21]. Market human capital consists of the knowledge and skills resources, as well as other components of human capital used in professional work. On the other hand, personal human capital is associated with non-professional activity, such as one's interests, passions, or hobbies. Because of the specific nature of work in the library, personal human capital is increasingly used in the professional activity of librarians. Numerous studies suggest that through various trainings, librarians develop their non-professional passions and interests and later activate them in the library by organising lectures, shows, presentations of short trainings connected with the areas of their interest, or through direct contact with library users. The kinds of knowledge that can be employed in working with library users include photography, painting, decoupage, vital records, therapy through drama, and many others [71]. When asked, 47 % of librarians say they use personal capital in their professional work. The highest ratio is reported in public libraries [294, p. 167].

An important factor that affects the quality of human capital is the range and level of education. In developed countries, education is compulsory. Emphasis is placed on increasing qualifications throughout the entire professional life. It is estimated that the level of formal education in those countries has never been as high as it is now. Also, never before has such a large part of the population been involved in various forms of education. This contributes to the growing value of human capital and intellectual capital in organisations.

However, despite achieving advanced development of intellectual capital through compulsory education, societies in the twenty-first century face the challenge of rapid depreciation of knowledge acquired through formal education. As a result, information personnel, including librarians, must develop lifelong education abilities that will enable them to update their theoretical knowledge and acquire practical skills needed for their professional work. Meanwhile, according to research conducted in Switzerland by the Gottieb Duttweiler Foundation, only 20 % of knowledge available in organisations is used in practice [63, p. 196]. Unfortunately, no such data is available for libraries.

Another researcher, Krzysztof Cichy, writes that human capital is, along with technological progress, a core element of economic growth and social development [66]. Drawing on the theories developed by Kenneth J. Arrow, Gary S. Becker, Jacob Mincer, Theodor W. Schultz, and Burton

A. Weisbrod, Cichy interprets human capital as a “set of employee skills that may be useful in the production process.” According to this theory, every individual accumulates personal intellectual capital during his education that he can later use in his professional work. This accumulation is costly, given the costs of education and the fact that students do not work for money. Thus, investing in human capital and collecting intellectual capital is profitable only to a certain moment. If education lasts for too long, the funds invested in learning will not be reimbursed because the period of professional activity will be too short. According to the model proposed by Cichy, intellectual capital has the fastest growth during the school education period. Once schooling is completed, the growth rate slows down considerably. In the middle of professional life, human capital starts to depreciate and continues to shrink until retirement (Fig. 2.4). Similarly, the costs of education (e.g., accumulation of knowledge) are initially higher than the income generated through work, but as more and more knowledge accumulates, the costs of education drop and the income from gainful employment reaches the maximum level (the same as knowledge) around the middle of professional life. After this point, it begins to gradually diminish [45; 46; 49; 50; 66, p. 17–18].

Human capital is sometimes referred to as an invisible resource that yields visible effects. Dorota Dobija defines it as “knowledge, skills, experience, and creativity of the employees and managers of an enterprise required to effectively perform their respective tasks. Human capital is

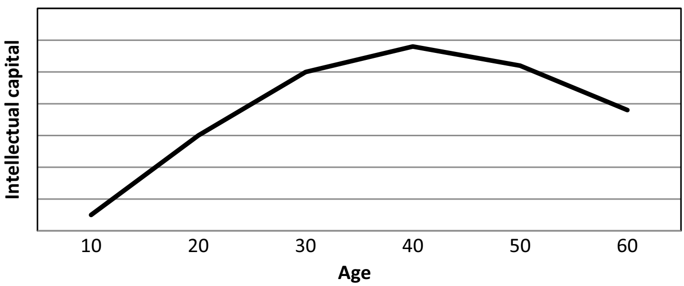


Fig. 2.4 Correlation between age and accumulation of individual intellectual capital according to K. Cichy. *Source*: Elaboration based on K. CICHY. *Human capital and technological progress as determinants of economic growth.* Warszawa, 2008, p. 46

also corporate culture as well as the goodwill and philosophy of an enterprise" [87]. According to Dobija, human capital is an element of intellectual capital and is not the property of an organisation, even though the organisation controls it.

No objective or universal methods of measuring human capital have been developed yet. Different indicators are used in macroeconomic research (concerning one or more states) than on the micro level (concerning organisations or individuals). Moreover, different properties and characteristics of human capital are used in evaluation, depending on the industry and the specific needs of an institution. Grażyna Maniak and Barabara Kryk proposed using the following indicators on the macroeconomic level:

- number of researchers per 10,000 citizens
- expenditure on education per student
- ratio of employees with at least secondary education
- expenditure on education as percent of GDP
- number of patents per 1 million citizens
- number of years in the national education system
- number of visits to public libraries
- relative earnings of highly qualified personnel [254, p. 87]

Interestingly, the above list includes frequent visits to public libraries as one of the determinants of a high level of human capital.

Measuring the human capital of libraries is associated with research on the micro level. One of the measuring tools on the micro level is the Human Capital Index, which shows the relationship between the effectiveness of human capital and the value created by it for an organisation. The authors of the method, having analysed nearly 400 organisations, concluded that the most important contributors to the effectiveness of human capital are recruiting excellence, clear rewarding system and accountability, collegial and flexible workplace, and communication integrity. At the same time, the authors stress that the ability to attract excellent employees must be supported by effective incentive systems and an attractive organisational culture. These help retain employees and ensure their further development to multiply intellectual capital.

The need to actively shape human resources has recently been mentioned in the context of library development. As new functions and work methods of libraries develop, library collections are no longer the focal point of their activity. Printed collections are giving way to digital information, whose storage requires not only less space but also fewer employees to guide users through the labyrinth of electronic resources. Additionally, more and more libraries develop extra services that require completely new and often very specialist competencies in various areas. The cultural and training activities of libraries make them something that the American sociologist Ray Oldenburg referred to as the "third place" [293]. The library as the "third place" creates space for informal public life where local communities can spend their free time. It comes immediately after home and work, the first and second places, respectively. All these activities depend on professional, well-trained, and competent personnel. Thus, strategic management of human resources in libraries, considered to be the core intangible resource, is increasingly often discussed in the literature.

Strategic human resource management started developing in the 1980s. According to Aleksander Pocztowski, it is "a concept of management in the HR function area […], where human resources are perceived as an element of corporate assets and a source of competitiveness" [326, p. 34]. In this approach, human resources are treated as a strategic resource and their management should be closely integrated with the library's overall strategy. It is recommended to create personal strategies that take into account the management of individual professional development defined as "a system of activities […] aimed at linking the development plans of individual employees with the development plans and strategy [of a library]" [72, p. 153]. Even though there is no uniform definition of the term, it is usually assumed that human capital management differs from strategic human resource management in that the former emphasises the measuring aspect. More precisely, it emphasises that measurements show the actual value generated by the personnel. In this context, "management through measurement" is sometimes mentioned [148, p. 302].

Some of the factors human capital is evaluated on include level of innovation, attitudes of employees, employee morale, length of professional experience, rate of turnover, number of employees acquired and lost to competitors, experience profile, rate of absence from work, and productivity and costs. Included in the evaluation of productivity and costs are earnings as a ratio of total operating costs; employee benefits as a ratio to total operating costs, and trainings and professional development programmes per employee [251, p. 87; 258, p. 209]. The main purpose of measuring human capital is to evaluate the benefits (added value) that this particular resource yields to the library. Measurements also help determine the impact of effective HR practices and can collect information useful in the creation of HR strategies oriented towards developing the core competencies of libraries.

The HR function in libraries covers activities such as HR planning, recruitment, evaluation, and motivation; remunerating; directing development; and starting and shaping work relations. The following specific elements are associated with human resource management in libraries:

1. work analysis, the purpose of which is to design jobs (i.e., determine the duties, rights, and responsibilities associated with jobs)
2. HR planning (i.e., determining the library's future needs in terms of human resources and the ways to meet those needs)
3. job candidate recruitment (i.e., acquiring the required number of employees)
4. job candidate selection (i.e., selecting employees from among the candidates shortlisted during recruitment)
5. introduction to work (social and professional adaptation) to help new employees quickly get ready to work in a specific job
6. remunerating employees (i.e., shaping employees' income from work within the limits of available funds and according to the criteria of their distribution)
7. evaluating employees by identifying the performance of employees and the possibilities of improvement
8. training employees (i.e., increasing the qualifications of employees to improve their efficiency)
9. transferring employees to new jobs so as to better use their work potential
10. laying off employees to adjust the quantity and quality of human resources to the needs of the library [76, p. 124–125].

The purpose of the above activities is to shape and develop human capital in libraries. The literature defines three basic stages in the evolution of the HR function:

- first phase: operational (1900–1945)
- second phase: tactical (1945–1980)
- third phase: strategic (1980–present) [148, p. 107]

What differs between the respective phases is the significance of the human factor in organisations and the place and role of HR departments within their structures. During the operational stage, HR departments were auxiliary to other organisational units. Their tasks were limited to handling of employment contracts, calculating wages, maintaining employee records, and handling social matters. During the tactical phase, they developed an advisory function and add to their duties employment planning, recruitment, and training. During the strategic phase, which began in the 1980s along with growing interest in human resource issues, HR departments shifted to the central level. They became units with a major impact on the development of organisational strategy and controlled one of the most precious resources: human resources. The positioning of the HR department within the organisational structure significantly affects human resource management and its perception. Unfortunately, in many libraries, HR management remains in the operational stage and HR departments (among other names) have an administrative function only. I would like to mention here the results of the research I conducted in 2014, in which I analysed the organisational structures of selected libraries.[4] Of the 95 institutions I analysed, 78 did not have a separate organisational unit or job position to deal with HR issues and HR development. Twelve did have such a unit, but its function was auxiliary (operational phase). In another four libraries, its function was advisory (tactical phase). Only one library had an HR unit whose role was strategic (Table 2.3). Libraries have started to hire press officers

[4] Due to the lack of relevant data, it was not possible to analyse the structure of all libraries. Also, the available organisational schemes often contained errors, which rendered them useless for analysis. Only libraries employing more than 20 persons were analysed.

Table 2.3 HR and HR development units in the structures of various types of Polish libraries in 2014

Library type	No separate HR and HR development unit	An auxiliary HR and HR development unit (operational phase)	An advisory HR and HR development unit (tactical phase)	A central HR and HR development unit (strategic phase)
Public libraries	31	6	2	1
Pedagogical libraries	8	1	1	0
University libraries	36	4	0	0
Other academic libraries	3	1	1	0
Total	78	12	4	1

Source: Own elaboration

and develop marketing departments, internal classification departments, and even remodelling and investment departments. However, specialist HR units, crucial as they may be for the functioning of libraries, are a rarity. Some academic institutions hire an academic secretary, but this job has a somewhat different function. Others may have an HR and administration unit, which performs administrative and HR-related functions, but it is not strategy- or development-oriented. The only exception is the University Library in Toruń, which has an Assistant Director for HR and Library Issues). Other authors have similar observations, too. Małgorzata Dąbrowicz writes: "Very few are the libraries that have more or less complex and formal HR management systems and even those do not cover the entirety of HR policy issues, nor do they have a strategic character" [76, p. 121]. Jan Wołosz, when discussing the organisational weaknesses of Polish libraries and management problems, notes that the operation of HR units "is limited to complying with the rules and maintaining appropriate records of HR affairs. They are rarely engaged in organising training and their role in the development and planning of professional careers of employees or creating HR reserves, or acquiring competent employees for vacant jobs is minor" [450, p. 58].

The quality of human resources available to a library may be regarded, according to Alicja Sajkiewicz, as:

1. the value of respective individuals, or librarians working in the library (person-centred approach)
2. total value (attributes, advantages) of work resources available to the library (asset-centred approach)
3. the value of processes associated with the improvement of organisational culture, resources, technology, and so on available to a library (process-centred approach) [353, p. 17]

The quality of human resources may be analysed in a much more detailed way by taking into account a number of different aspects. Table 2.4 presents a review of the approaches discussed in the literature (based on an analysis conducted by Janne Parri [305]) in reference to libraries. Based on the division proposed by Beata Jamka, the approaches discussing quality were divided into three groups:

1. quality as a high potential (continuous development, ability to transform)
2. quality as a reference to certain standards (no mistakes, perfection as a lasting effect of excellent performance, achieving the standards)
3. quality as adjustment to the objective (also quality applicable to the price) [148, p. 118].

Human capital is increasingly recognised as a source of specific, measurable benefits for the library. Consequently, there is a growing interest in various methods of evaluating this resource. It is often said that at a time of widespread computerisation and remote access to information, it will be up to well-trained library personnel to create strong bonds with users by providing them with both professional counselling on information services and a number of non-informational values. These values could include emotional values, such as the need for empathy, integration, acceptance, or coexistence in a community. Human capital is becoming crucial to shaping the perception of libraries by their users, partners, and decision-makers. The quality of services depends on human

Table 2.4 Quality of human resources in the library—review of approaches

	Interpretation of the term "quality" with respect to human resource evaluation	Examples of practical application in libraries
Quality as a high potential	Quality as perfection, as being the best	• Creating the image of a library as a competitive place and more attractive than other institutions or forms of entertainment and free time activities
	Quality as ability to change, adjust, and transform	• Adapting to constant changes (e.g., cultural, economic, technical, legal) • Transforming to perform new social functions (e.g., the library as a meeting place)
	Quality as continuous development	• Constantly learning so they can provide high-quality services to the satisfaction of users • Continuously improving processes, structures, and tools
Quality as a reference to certain standards	Quality as complete elimination of mistakes	• Developing procedures and standards to eliminate and prevent irregularities that may concern various aspects of library functioning (e.g., irregularities associated with improper customer service, processing of resources, or misuse of hardware and software)
	Quality as achievement of (compliance with) standards	• Working in line with library principles (e.g., in the field of resource processing), standards (e.g., concerning customer service), and regulations
Quality as adjustment to the objective (also quality applicable to the price) [148, p. 118]	Quality as adjustment to needs, expectations, and goals	• Satisfying the needs of various user groups, associated with information, culture, science, education, and entertainment • Meeting the expectations of library users
	Quality as good value for money	• Providing users with high quality services that are convenient to use considering the benefits they obtain in exchange (e.g., avoiding complicated registration procedures that could discourage users, strict dress codes or prohibitions concerning objects that users can bring with themselves to the library)

Source: Own elaboration

capital, and in particular on the knowledge, involvement, and creativity of librarians. Consequently, it seems reasonable to adopt certain theoretical assumptions to serve as a basis for further deliberations. Edwin Caplan and Stephen Landekich claimed that:

- Human capital is a source of benefits for libraries, alongside physical and financial resources and other intangible resources.
- Efficient management of human capital should contribute to the achievement of the library's strategic objectives.
- Attracting highly qualified library personnel and ensuring their permanent development may be a cost or an investment.
- The library should collect information concerning the use of human capital and the related benefits and charges.
- Human capital should be an important element in the planning process [60].

According to another theory (represented by Bogusz Mikuła, among others), human capital in a knowledge-based organisation consists of three basic groups: knowledge workers, personnel, and participating partners [275, p. 181–182]. According to the management classicist, Peter Drucker, the work of a knowledge worker is based on the mind rather than the hand and his basic tool is the brain [94, p. 4]. Drucker believed that in the future, knowledge workers will use the most expensive and at the same time the most mobile material: knowledge. The unique feature of this strategic resource is that it is inexhaustible and perfectly renewable [204, p. 96–97]. Some authors claim that it may depreciate and get used up through physical and mental effort (reversible inability to work), as well as through biological aging or fortuitous events that permanently prevent work (irreversible inability to work) [267]. The work conditions offered by the employer may prolong or shorten reversible inability to work.

Thomas Davenport believed that knowledge workers "have high degrees of expertise, education, or experience, and the primary purpose of their jobs involves the creation, distribution, or application of knowledge" [77, p. 22], which is what most librarians do.

Marc Uri Porat, an entrepreneur and information society researcher, included in his book *The Information Economy: Definition and Measurement* [331] the classification of knowledge workers into five groups. In one of these groups, he put librarians:

1. knowledge producers: scientific and technical workers, lawyers, architects, accountants, consultants
2. knowledge distributors: teachers, **librarians**, writers, radio and TV presenters
3. market search and coordination specialists: information brokers, sales agents, sales representatives, selected administration officials
4. information processors: proof-users, accountants, receptionists, secretaries
5. information machine workers: selected ICT workers, electronic machine operators

However, knowledge workers are only a part of the personnel of libraries. Knowledge workers possess key resources of specialised knowledge that determine the future activity and development of the library, as well as special talents and a high development potential. Thus, they are the most precious foundation of human resources. Artur Jazdon suggests that knowledge workers must also have certain personality characteristics and work in specific areas or perform specific tasks. According to him, the areas predestined to hire knowledge workers are the scientific information department, special collections department, and departments handling research, publications, promotions or trainings. He also stipulates that not every employee of one of these departments is a knowledge worker ex officio [159, p. 337]. Joanna Kamińska and Beata Żołędowska specify that knowledge workers in the library:

- have a unique intellectual potential that would be hard to replace by other library workers
- within the scope of their competencies, know more than anyone else in the library
- have authority also outside their own library

- initiate changes in the library and create new ideas and practical solutions
- usually have a stronger sense of their own value
- are oversensitive to underestimation of the contribution they make to the library or disrespect of their right to have their own opinion, or superficial evaluation of the results of their work
- are respected and admired by colleagues, as a result of which they may easily become informal leaders in their teams or departments [172]

Knowledge employees also tend to opt for non-standard forms of employment that grant more mobility and flexibility in performing professional duties. Consequently, flexible management structures and flexible forms of employment are mentioned in the context of libraries [214].

The second group of employees defined by Mikuła is the personnel, or the library workers other than knowledge workers. They perform auxiliary functions, such as bookkeeping, office work, cleaning, and catering. The third group, partners participating in value creation, are mostly representatives of companies outsourced by the library to support or perform certain tasks, such as preparing promotional materials, processing and entering information in databases, or designing and servicing library systems. According to the above classification, human resources in a knowledge organisation is not limited to the employees of the organisation. Accordingly, B. Mikuła suggests that the expression "people working in a knowledge organisation" should be replaced with people working for a knowledge organisation."

In many organisations, employee competencies are becoming the basic success factor. This is also the case with libraries. As they gradually extend the range of services, they are forced to hire personnel with extensive competencies or help them acquire such competencies (see [233]). Statistical data show that the level of education of the personnel of public and academic libraries is steadily growing. This reflects the general trend in education among the Polish society (Tables 2.5 and 2.6).

The data presented in Tables 2.5 and 2.6 show a significant growth in the number of librarians with higher education. In 1999, employees with secondary education were the most numerous in public libraries in all regions, but the trend was reversed by 2010, although not in every

Table 2.5 Core workers of Polish public libraries with secondary or higher education

	Employees with higher library education		Employees with secondary education	
Region	1999	2010	1999	2010
Dolnolskie	237	516	786	480
Kujawsko-pomorskie	138	371	435	276
Lubelskie	165	405	619	446
Lubuskie	87	159	221	179
Ódzkie	194	544	506	303
Maopolskie	271	636	628	454
Mazowieckie	328	1080	1043	582
Opolskie	73	128	213	193
Podkarpackie	126	362	672	553
Podlaskie	52	167	341	219
Pomorskie	148	306	488	288
lskie	295	939	928	610
Witokrzyskie	137	284	314	147
Warmisko-mazurskie	116	316	394	195
Wielkopolskie	222	560	837	551
Zachodniopomorskie	128	284	388	275
Total	2717	7057	8813	5751

Source: Own elaboration based on National Library data

Table 2.6 Core workers of Polish academic libraries with secondary or higher education

Ratio of employees with higher library education to the total number of core workers		Ratio of employees with secondary library education to the total number of core workers	
2002	2010	2002	2010
42.3 %	58.6 %	27.9 %	16.6 %

Source: Own elaboration based on the analysis of the functioning of academic libraries in Poland

region. In 2010, the ratio of persons with higher education was 55.1 %. A similar growth in the level of education was also reported among core workers in academic libraries. In 2002, the ratio of librarians with higher education was 42.3 % and it grew to 58.6 % eight years later.

According to my research of Polish libraries, a department manager participates in five training courses a year on average. This means that the qualifications of this group of personnel are gradually growing, which may result in higher salary expectations. At the same time, analyses of the functioning of librarians on the labour market show a discrepancy between their level of education and salaries. Nearly 80 % of librarians are dissatisfied with the current amount of their earnings, but most would like to continue working in the library, which is in line with their interests [449].

The system of training courses for librarians should reflect the demand for specific competencies. To enable this, competencies are operationalised. Sets of competencies necessary for efficient functioning of respective library departments are defined. Next, respective competencies are associated with specific jobs and managerial positions. Finally, they are hierarchized and grouped into essential and auxiliary to creating value for library clients. These measures make it possible to identify areas requiring intensive development, as well as core workers contributing the most to creating value for library users. As a result of changing library strategies and library services, the demand for employee competencies may also change.

Professional education may be founded on three forms of education, depending on the needs and possibilities of the employer and the trainee, as well as on the nature of the job concerned. They are formal education, on-the-job training, and "learning through doing."

In the classical educational cycle, the chronology of events is maintained. In other words, the library hires an individual with adequate formal education. Then the individual undergoes on-the-job training to acquire the necessary competencies to perform his tasks. Finally, the individual "learns through doing" by performing the tasks associated with his job. However, in various conditions and circumstances, this cycle is different and "learning through doing" and on-the-job training sometimes precede formal education.

It should be noted that human capital is a non-durable resource in libraries. This is because, unlike other resources, people are not the property of an institution. Instead, they only work for an institution within the framework of employment contracts and may move freely between organisations. Consequently, investments in human capital bear an additional risk and should be correlated with other values (e.g., the quality of interpersonal contacts, level of employee commitment, and organisational climate in the library). This discourages employees from leaving and depriving an organisation of their specialist knowledge. Also, library managers should treat highly specialised workers as an important value generator for an organisation. This should be reflected, for example, in the employment policy, employee training system, or salary system. Apart from employee obligations stipulated in an employment contract (e.g., notice period, employment termination conditions), another obstacle discouraging employees from leaving may be the so-called psychological contract. The psychological contract is a contract detailing the mutual expectations of employers and workers. Such contract creates an atmosphere of commitment [21, p. 31]. Initially, this contract primarily governed material issues, including finances, but in contemporary managerial models, it concerns non-salary expectations associated with professional work. The employee's expectations may be:

- stability of employment
- fair and ethical treatment
- adequate remuneration
- professional development
- safety at work
- autonomy and right to make individual decisions
- contributing to the organisational culture of the library

The employer's expectations may be:

- employee loyalty to managers and the library
- commitment
- effective and efficient work
- developing competencies
- observance of the rules existing in the organisation
- cost awareness [428, p. 62]

The contract is based on a set of expectations associated with the employer and employee. The quality of an employment relationship is verified on the basis of costs, as well as financial and non-financial benefits that can be viewed from the perspective of the employee, library, or environment (social costs and benefits). Selected costs and benefits of investing in human capital in libraries, taking into account public and private stakeholders, are presented in Table 2.7.

David Lepak and Scott Snell developed an architectural matrix of human capital based on its two features: value and uniqueness (Fig. 2.5). The matrix consists of four basic models:

Model 1: Internal development of human capital
Model 2: Acquisition of human capital
Model 3: Contracting human capital
Model 4: Creating human capital alliances

Table 2.7 Costs and benefits of investing in human capital in libraries, taking into account public and private stakeholders

		Benefits	
	Costs	Financial	Non-financial
Public	• Public expenditure on education	• Additional income taxes • Lower social expenditure	• Better health • Lower crime rate • Economic growth
Private	• Private expenditure on education • Income lost while learning	• Higher income as a result of higher qualifications	• More satisfaction • Better promotion opportunities • Better opportunities for more attractive jobs • Better health
Libraries	• Expenditure on education • Costs associated with absence from work while learning • Possible costs of losing trained employees	• Savings as a result of not having to engage additional specialists • Savings as a result of more effective and efficient work	• More professional workers • Better atmosphere at work • More attractive services • Better library image

Source: Own elaboration based on M. MARCINKOWSKA. Kapita intelektualny jako ródo przewagi konkurencyjnej wspóczesnej firmy. In A. SZABLEWSKI, R. TUZIMEK (ed.). *Wycena i management wartoci a company.* Warszawa, 2008, p. 70

The first and second models are characterised by a high value of human capital, while the fourth and first models are characterised by a high level of uniqueness. These models also exist in libraries and are worth presenting here.

The first model—internal development of human capital—is typical of knowledge workers who have a high level of unique and specialised knowledge that is valuable for the specific needs of a given institution. Because of highly specialised competencies, the internal development of employees in this model is based on an elaborate system of trainings and internal incentive programmes that strongly integrate valuable employees with an organisation. In libraries, employees from this model perform specialist tasks that are often unique to one organisation and have a scientific nature. These could be employees engaged in the renovation or handling of historical collections, employees developing their knowledge resources in the context of local collections (e.g., related to marine topics or a specific region), or librarians who devote their professional activity to narrow scientific issues (e.g., creating classifications, developing library quality indicators).

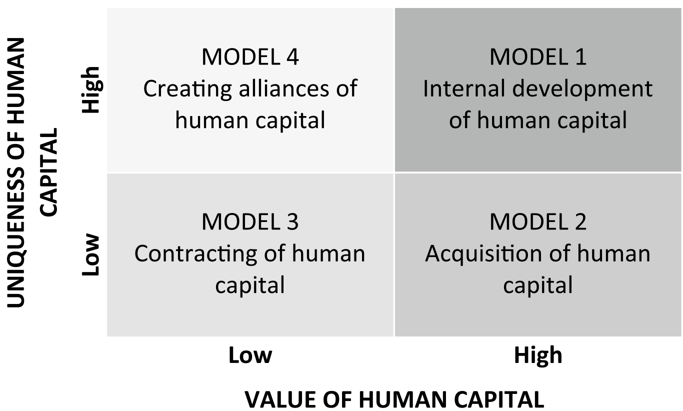


Fig. 2.5 Architecture of human resources according to D. Lepak and S. Snell. *Source*: Adapted from D. P. LEPAK, S. A. SNELL. The human resource architecture: toward a theory of human capital allocation and development. *The Academy of Management Review.* 1999, vol. 24, no. 1, p. 37

The second model—acquisition of human capital—is associated with employees who have valuable but not so unique knowledge. These are, for example, skillful cataloguers or specialists in a given area who are valuable to the library. Given the high costs of personnel training and the availability of the knowledge represented by this group of employees, it is better to acquire well-trained librarians in an external recruitment process than through internal staff development (as is the case with the first model). This way, a library may quickly and cheaply acquire employees with well-developed professional competencies.

The third model—contracting human capital—is based on employees whose knowledge is general rather than unique and as such does not represent any major value for the library. These are auxiliary workers, such as doorkeepers and cleaning personnel. They are the least strategically important worker for the library because their competencies are common and easily replaceable. Thus, they are often hired on the basis of fixed-term contracts or outsourced from other companies.

The last model—creating human capital alliances—concerns employees whose knowledge is unique but not very important to the library. They do not contribute significantly to the development of library services, the core value for the user. Accordingly, libraries establish various alliances between institutions so that different libraries can make better use of these specialists. A person with specialised knowledge that may be occasionally useful in a library is, for example, the library staff coach, who may cooperate with numerous organisations at the same time. To make better use of their employees, libraries may create alliances to support one another with specific human resources. The disadvantage of such a solution is that it does not make employees identify themselves with one workplace. Moreover, it does not stimulate commitment or loyalty.

The role of human capital in creating value for the library is recognised and stressed by library managers. Creating value for a library is developing an extensive and attractive portfolio of services and performing its other social functions. My research, conducted in 2014, shows that library directors regard human capital as the most precious intangible asset. Depending on the type of the library and its specific tasks, human capital is rated between 4.9 and 5.0 on a 5-point scale. This rating proves its superior role to any other intangible resource in the library. Nonetheless, the way personnel are actually managed does not reflect the rank of this particular resources. Perhaps this is due to limited financial possibilities. Libraries make little use of popular management instruments. Only 22 % of library directors declare having an incentive system, and 23 % have a career development (training system) for employees. More respondents declared undertaking measures aimed at creating stronger bonds between employees and an institution (e.g., taking into account the family situation when determining the form of employment, delegating authority to lower level staff). Of library managers, 52 % use these methods to motivate personnel.

Human capital is a specific organisational resource. Even though libraries may use it, they do not own it. Procedures and organisational culture should stimulate its development and strengthen bonds between the personnel and the library to increase the commitment of employees, reduce their rotation, and develop core competencies. The more a library relies on the individual competencies of its employees, the more care it should take in hiring the right staff. Also, library personnel play an important role in developing other intangible resources, such as reputation, brand, or organisational culture. They are what makes the service portfolio of one organisation differ from those of similar organisations. Human capital is supplemented by social capital. Social capital is a network of connections with common values and behaviour that conditions the effectiveness of human resources and, in particular, knowledge sharing.[5]

2.3 Leadership

Leadership is a link between the human capital and structural capital of the library. Its role is to manage the personnel; develop organisational structures; select the strategy, management methods, and funds; and create the rules of conduct and attitudes. Leadership is a value that consists of the ability to activate, properly integrate, and effectively use all the tangible and intangible resources of the library to pursue its mission in the best way possible.

[5] Social capital will be discussed in greater detail in the chapter on communication and relations.

Results of the survey carried out in Poland by TNS OBOP show that 84 % of respondents believe that the director plays a crucial role in creating the value of an organisation and its positive reputation. Half of the respondents think that the director's impact is vital and 40 % believe that the director represents 40 % or more of a company's goodwill [191, p. 64].

In terms of personnel management, effective leadership means creating a positive work environment where librarians have proper physical conditions necessary to providing high quality work and are motivated to constantly improve their work. Thus it is necessary to develop adequate personnel management procedures.

The concept of leadership dates back to ancient times, when the impact of an individual on a group was perceived in the context of military and political operations. Individuals destined by birth to become political or military leaders were taught the knowledge and practical skills they would need in the future. In time, the concept of leadership was extended to religion and business. However, there was no empirical research in this area until as late as the 1940s. Indeed, leadership attracted scientific interest only in the twentieth century, when most leadership theories were formulated. In the 1970s, the concept of strategic leadership was coined.

Leadership, the same as human capital, may be analysed on the macro and micro levels. On the micro level, leadership theories focus on the individual leader, such as personal characteristics and functions, as well as on his relations with workers. Macro theories, on the other hand, are related to the entire organisation and the community in which it operates (i.e., relations between people and systems, such as processes, organisational structures, codes of practice, and principles). On the micro level, the most popular leadership theories include:

1. the great man theory: people from upper classes are predestined to be leaders, as they inherit by birth the traits of a leader
2. the theory of traits: leaders have certain traits that other people do not have
3. the behavioural approach: leadership is not only associated with birth and personality, but also manifested through actions and relations

4. the exchange theory: leaders differentiate the intensity and quality of their relations with subordinates (i.e., they enter into closer relations with and entrust more ambitious tasks to those whom they consider to be more valuable)
5. the situational theory: the leader adapts his conduct to the particular situation and conditions in an organisation

The most popular concepts on the macro level are:

1. the systematic approach: leadership is not limited to the superior-subordinate relationship; it also involves interactions of subsystems in the entire organisation
2. self-leadership: the leader is a coach who supports a worker capable of managing himself
3. the learning organisation theory: the leader stimulates conditions in which the employees of an organisation may expand their knowledge and develop their professional careers
4. mentoring: guides and mentors are not only leaders but also other experienced members of an organisation

In the 1990s, leadership theories founded on human emotionality became the object of much interest. Transformational or charismatic theories emphasised the role of a visionary leader who transforms the employees' thinking by exerting an emotional impact on them. Later, these theories caused some criticism. Also, the impact of emotional intelligence on the power of leadership was analysed. This theory was popularised by the American psychologist Daniel Goleman. Contemporary theories shift the focus from the leader to interactions within a team and methods to activate the potential of human capital.

Leadership plays an important role in the information society, which is very dynamic and unpredictable. On the other hand, there is a tendency to simplify organisational structures and reduce the number of managerial staff. The role of managerial staff is also changing as a result of humanisation of interpersonal relations. Knowledge workers start assuming some of the duties and responsibilities that until recently were reserved for managers. They are also more critical of their superiors; now more than ever they are able to evaluate their work and competencies. Knowledge employees are "required to be creative, to set and perform their own tasks and to be able to cope under conditions of uncertainty and manage their relations [...]. It is now the everyday reality of specialists to independently manage their own work and be accountable for it'" [161, p. 458–459]. Many library workers independently initiate various projects and new services or propose other innovations. Meanwhile, the future of a library often depends on the entrepreneurship of its director or manager and his ability to acquire financing and promote the library. Accordingly, the contemporary library manager must be professional and charismatic and must be able to influence the community. The manager must be able to do this within the organisation by collaborating with workers rather than supervising them. He must also accomplish this outside the organisation with partners and decision-makers. Thus, contemporary leadership is based on the ability to influence and on openness, rather than on a system of regulations and control, which was characteristic of the industrial society.

As the external conditions change (usually for worse), the value of leadership in libraries is growing. Before the 1980s, the role of library managers was limited to maintaining the existing model of the library based on classical managerial functions. It was stable and harmonious. However, contemporary library management is much more diversified. Its main purpose is to raise awareness of the value the library contributes to the spheres of culture, science, and business. It should also develop a profile of services that would be attractive to library users and raise funds for the library. In other words, they must struggle for the library's survival. Accordingly, the contemporary library director must have new traits and competencies.

Leadership may be regarded as an extension of the managerial function, which, in the traditional model, is implemented through planning, organising, motivating, and controlling. Motivation, strongly linked with the vision, mission, and strategy of a library, is becoming a crucial factor in leadership. Not every manager has the attributes of a leader. Jonathan Low and Pam Kalafut suggest that in resource-based theory, the manager, apart from his traditional tasks, is also responsible for managing important intangible values, such as creating the vision, building a management team and attracting talented workers, building a strong organisational culture, and planning succession [250, p. 68]. Leadership covers a slightly different range of activities than management. According to Neil Thomas, [401, p. 12], leadership has five elements not found in management:

1. giving direction
2. providing inspiration
3. building teams
4. setting an example
5. being accepted

Defining leadership is difficult because leadership is an idea that develops in the human mind under the influence of numerous contexts (e.g., social, cultural, historical). It is analysed in various fields of science, such as management, political science, military science, psychology, sociology, and, increasingly often, library science. Gayle Avery even writes that "contrary to the prevailing dogma, leadership does not rest in leaders but is attributed to individuals by those who become their followers. Under this view, leadership resides in the minds of followers and other beholders […]. Effective leadership stems from aligning ideas of leadership held between leaders and the led" [22, p. 33–34]. In the 1970s, in many countries, leadership was identified with formal power and managerial activity, and the terms "manager," "leader," "superior," or "boss" were used interchangeably. In library science, leadership was interpreted in a similar way until the second half of the twentieth century. Then, as a result of structural changes in libraries, the leader was for the first time discussed in library-related literature. Given the complexity of the problem, it is worth quoting definitions of leadership proposed by various authors and showing the difference between such contemporary concepts associated with leadership as "manager," "leader," and "leadership."

According to Neil Thomas, a leader is "the kind of person (with leadership qualities) who has the appropriate knowledge and skill to lead a group to achieve its ends willingly" [401, p. 14]. John Adair proposed a similar definition, extending it by interaction with the team:

> "A leader is the kind of person who has the appropriate qualities (personality and character) to lead a group to effectively perform its tasks, form a coherent team and satisfy the individual needs of its members. The leader is not alone but rather shares his functions with the team. Even though he is the one accountable for the work of a group, all the members of the group should feel responsible for the achievement of goals" [2, p. 32].

Adair distinguishes between a leader and a manager. In his opinion, "a leader achieves his position mainly through the ability to exert influence on others and acting as the driving force […] He is the kind of person to whom others submit willingly because of his ability to lead and control people, or because the group chose him as their boss" [2, p. 37]. To continue this line of thinking, not every manager with decision-making authority may be called a leader. The qualities of the leader are strong commitment, passion, leadership skills, and creating vision, while those of the manager are the ability to bring order to, administer, and harmoniously manage the areas under the manager's control.

In the context of non-profit organisation, the popular terms are "public managers" or "public organisation managers." These are "managers of various levels whose basic task it is to effectively manage organisations providing high-quality public services. Such managers solve management problems in line with the criteria of political rationality and taking into account the economic criteria of the market gambling logic" [206, p. 217]. Public managers include managers of public institutions, including schools, healthcare institutions, police, town offices, the fire service, and libraries. Another relatively recent term is "knowledge managers." These are managers whose main role is to manage knowledge workers and knowledge-related processes [354, p. 161]. In some cases, this term applies to library managers. The role of the leader in the library was discussed, among others, by Elżbieta Barbara Zybert. She claimed that a leader should "lead an organisation and make others follow him, but not push them into action; he must be a leader, not a warden; he should encourage people to achieve specific goals and make sure that they become common goals" [475, p. 142].

It is also worth mentioning the connotations of the term "leadership," which Ralph Stogdill defines as a relationship that exists between individuals in a social situation, claiming that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations [1, p. 59]. Stogdill means that leadership depends on, among other things, the situational context, or the conditions (situation) in which a library operates. Sustainable development requires another type of leadership/leader than aggressive diversification. Leszek Kanarski pinpoints the differences between leadership and management: "managing is usually defined as 'doing something through others', while leadership as 'making others want to do something"' [173, p. 9]. Another famous leadership researcher, Abraham Zaleznik, also noticed differences between leaders and managers. He says "managers and leaders are two very different types of people. They differ in motivation, personal history and in how they think and act. Managers tend to adopt impersonal attitudes towards goals, while leaders tend to adopt personal and active attitudes towards goals" [447, p. 21]. Some also claim that the most important contribution of a leader is to create a vision and strategy, whereas a manager is only supposed to implement this vision and strategy (the next chapter deals with this issue). Others believe that leadership is not an extension of management but rather only one of its functions, alongside planning, organising, and controlling [387, p. 27–28; 447, p. 19].

Leadership is commonly regarded as one of the forms of exercising power. However, power often has pejorative connotations because it uses force where a leader would use motivation. Those in power may make decisions against the will of people and put their own goals or values before the goals of other people [173, p. 103]. Max Weber wrote that "power is a way of exerting pressure" [447, p. 29], although for some it is a synonym of prestige.

The value of leadership may be analysed in three dimensions: team-related, operational, and strategic.[6] As far as teams (the lowest level) are concerned, libraries usually have ad hoc working groups of several employees, appointed to implement specific projects, such as organising a conference, preparing an exhibition, or working on an innovation. The

[6] There are various classifications, including senior management leadership, medium-level leadership, and low-level leadership, or strategic level, structural level, and linear level [173, p. 113–117].

operational level is handled by leaders or managers who control other decision-making personnel. In large libraries, this could be the director for library matters in charge of library managers, or, in a small library, a manager in charge of library teams. The highest (strategic) level is controlled by the managing director (or manager, depending on the nomenclature used in a library). On this level, the library is regarded as part of a system, and the context and environment in which it operates are taken into account.

Leadership may also be classified on the basis of the scope of activities and authority of the management personnel. In this classification, there are general managers who supervise the overall operation of a given agenda (e.g., manager of a library branch, library director) and functional managers responsible for a certain function (e.g., library computerisation manager or research and development manager).

It is believed that the leadership power of a contemporary manager or leader has formal (systematic) and informal sources (see Table 2.8). In the information society, two of the most important personal attributes of power are knowledge and skills. Terry R. Bacon even wrote about "power resulting from knowledge" [23, p. 39]. In his opinion, the source of power was not only knowledge, but also skills, talents, abilities, wisdom, learning, and accomplishments. For power to be based on knowledge, the knowledge must be acknowledged and appreciated by the community. The status of a person with above-average knowledge or skills may be achieved with the help of the attributes of power. In the case of libraries, these include academic titles and degrees, membership in scientific and professional organisations, and honorary distinctions and awards.

Another attribute of leadership is expressiveness understood as the ability to "communicate powerfully and effectively in written and oral forms" [23, p. 65]. This is particularly desirable in institutions that disseminate culture and science, such as libraries. Expressiveness is often associated with the ability to influence others. It is believed that expressive people:

- communicate more often and are consequently more visible in groups compared to less expressive persons
- make others aware of feelings, reactions, and suggestions, sharing more of themselves with others than less expressive persons

- are often better at expressing their thoughts, feelings, and beliefs; they use a lot of metaphors, making them more vivid
- are more assertive and self-confident and therefore dominate in groups
- are perceived as more competent and influential than others
- are inspiring and cause others to feel emotionally or intellectually moved by them [23, p. 66, 74, 86].

Among other informal and personal sources of power, Bacon included interpersonal relations and common experiences that help develop respect and attachment, and being likeable and having high character, thereby increasing trustworthiness. The systematic sources of power, according to Bacon, are position, resources and information available to the leader, network of contacts (based on the social capital), and the reputation understood as the overall evaluation of an individual by his community [23, p. 254].

Leadership may be analysed in the context of the traits and functions of a leader. Functions (the "functional concept of leadership") are related to actions and suggest *what* a leader should do, whereas traits suggest *how* he should do it. Leadership interpreted in this way is both a process and a property. The attributes of leadership are related to the competencies, skills, and traits of a leader, whereas leadership as a process involves the impact of a leader on his environment and subordinates. Surveys conducted by Stefan Kubów among library science students and librarians show that respondents distinguish between the required competencies of management personnel depending on their seniority. In the case of high level managers, the most important competencies are managerial skills, while for medium level managers, library skills are most important [215]. According to Elżbieta Ostrowska, the most important functions of the library manager are:

- managing one's own development and actions, acquiring new skills, and improving one's character
- managing people based on an understanding of their needs and expectations and making good use of their skills and talents to the benefit of the library

Table 2.8 Leadership attributes in libraries

Attribute	Stimulant	Hindrance	Impact on library
Formal/systematic attribute			
Position in the organisational structure	• Acquiring new qualifications and competencies • Effectiveness • Using a style of management adjusted to the needs and character of the library and its staff and managers • Building authority founded on knowledge and the ability to work with people	• Change in the organisational structure limiting the decision-making authority • Putting too much pressure on subordinates, causing passive or open resistance • Using only negative reinforcement, which reduces employees' motivation • Ineffectiveness • Temporariness of managerial function	Position in the organisational structure matters more in libraries that have a complex structure and employ a large number of workers. Being a manager is more important in a strongly hierarchical and formal structures, such as large, academic libraries. In libraries with flat or network structures, the librarian's knowledge and experience matter more and build his authority more than his position.
Access to resources	• Accessing new resources • Developing new access channels to existing resources	• Lack or loss of access to resources • Available resources are no longer relevant • Someone blocks access to resources to gain personal benefits	The ability to acquire resources for a library may affect the effectiveness of projects and, consequently, the authority of the director. The resources that are valuable for the library include financing from grants or sponsors; human resources, such as contacts with high-class specialists who want to collaborate with the library; and various tangible resources.

Table 2.8 (continued)

Attribute	Stimulant	Hindrance	Impact on library
Information sources	• Ability to acquire important information • Developing the library's information management system • Making sure to disseminate only reliable and verified information • Ability to make good managerial decisions based on available information	• Lack or loss of access to information important for library management • Inability to manage information (acquire, process, and distribute) • Disseminating wrong, untrue, or unverified information	The library director is responsible for creating a knowledge management system in his institution. Disseminating unreliable information in a library or relying on such information in the decision-making process is detrimental to the authority and credibility of the director and managers in the opinion of their superiors and partners.
Network of contacts and social capital	• Building an extensive network of contacts, both close and lasting, and more casual with a potential to extend on a large scale • Building one's own attractiveness in a network of contacts based on the available resources and information • Developing communication skills, reducing distance in contacts	• Failure to develop a network of contacts, too much self-reliance or alienation, acting independently • Maintaining only the strong and permanent relations, neglecting the more casual ones • Limited communication, distance • Lack of reciprocity	The effectiveness of a library director depends mainly on the social capital at his disposal. Alienation and too much distance hinder cooperation with the community and library personnel. By developing a network of contacts, it is possible to profit from the effect of scale.

(*continued*)

Table 2.8 (continued)

Attribute	Stimulant	Hindrance	Impact on library
Reputation	• Understanding the rules and standards existing in a community • Developing interpersonal skills • Intensive cooperation with opinion-makers • Effectiveness based on continuously developed knowledge, competencies, and skills • Honesty and reliability • Being accountable for successes and failures	• Breaking the rules and standards existing in a community • Low level of interpersonal skills • Unsuccessfulness or passivity • Limited competencies, knowledge, and skills • Dishonesty	Reputation of the management personnel of a library is difficult to manage due to its instability. Building good reputation wins the support of the personnel and facilitates cooperation, but it also requires laborious and often prolonged effort.

Table 2.8 (continued)

Attribute	Stimulant	Hindrance	Impact on library
Informal attribute			
Knowledge, skills, competencies	• Acquiring new knowledge, skills, competencies • Focusing on the library's core competencies • Actively using knowledge • Building a team engaged in developing the library's core competencies	• Having knowledge that is not relevant to the library profile, or competencies that are not related to the library's core competencies • Numerous errors and mistakes • Inability to substantiate one's beliefs and decisions • Pretending to have knowledge, skills, or competencies that do not exist	The library director, who has formal authority resulting from his position, will never become a true leader of his team if he does not acquire basic knowledge and the most important professional competencies. This is the case with managers who have neither formal education nor the required competencies and are not familiar with the specificity of the library environment. Their nomination to a managerial position triggers resistance and ridicule.
Communication and expressiveness	• Continuous development of vocabulary (also technical terminology) and speaking skills • Improving public speaking skills in speeches and presentations • Improving writing skills (letters, announcements, regulations, articles)	• Inability to communicate effectively, fluently, correctly, and precisely in speech or in writing • Limited vocabulary, including technical jargon • Being too quiet or too dominant in conversation	A library director who cannot communicate fluently and convincingly or cannot correctly use the technical terminology may lose his authority despite his other attributes.

(*continued*)

Table 2.8 (continued)

Attribute	Stimulant	Hindrance	Impact on library
Interpersonal relations	• Maintaining the value of relations despite a temporary lack of benefits • Loyalty and mutual support • Being frank and authentic about the nature of relations	• Inability to maintain relations • Inability to differentiate relations (being too distant or too close) • Disloyalty	A library director who does not develop a network of relations with his personnel, partners, and decision-makers loses most of his impact, and consequently, the ability to form the internal and external library environment.
Being likeable	• Behaviour suggesting interest in the other person (care, friendliness, concern) • Respecting the standards and behaviours typical of the organisational culture of the library • Making consistent and fair decisions • Looking attractive, in a way that reflects the position held by an individual, in line with the library standards	• Being arrogant, unkind, impertinent, or offensive • Not paying enough attention to appearance; not wearing clean and smart clothes in line with the organisational culture of the particular library • Disrespect of others (being biased, ridiculing, being obtrusive, taking advantage of others) • Keeping subordinate employees at a distance (alienation)	A library director who has the required knowledge and competencies but whose behaviour causes the reluctance of employees may find it hard to have his managerial decisions accepted by them and may be distrusted by them.

Table 2.8 (continued)

Attribute	Stimulant	Hindrance	Impact on library
High character	• Eradicating dishonesty and pathology (in oneself and in the entire library) • Keeping promises and commitments • Clarifying one's point of view to persons who are in active or passive opposition • Being authentic	• Dishonesty, lies, manipulation • Not reacting to injustice • Not keeping one's promises and commitments (also those not expressed in writing) • Not being authentic • Aggression	Low character of the library director or managers may cause organisational pathology and various dysfunctions. In extreme cases, it may also result in the termination of leadership (dismissal from a position) and loss of library reputation in the community.

Source: Own elaboration

- managing library development based on the awareness of its goals and mission, its weaknesses and strengths, and the drawbacks and opportunities created by the environment; solving and confronting problems; and making and implementing decisions [298]

Another catalogue of the desirable traits of a leader was developed by Jacek Wojciechowski, who listed charisma, energy, internal integrity, conscientiousness, sociability, openness, intelligence, temperament, objectivity, creativity, knowledge, and skills [442]. The traits and functions most typically associated with leadership[7] are presented in Table 2.9.

Various studies on leadership analyse the functions of managers. In the most general terms, these functions may be divided into organic and inorganic. Organic functions are the tasks associated with a particular managerial position. Inorganic functions of a director or manager are actually the tasks of an employee. An example would be if a library director recruited from one of the core departments continues to work for that department. An analysis of the organisational structures of libraries shows that a director is often simultaneously a manager and a library employee. For example, some directors continue to work as regular librarians, catalogue specialists, old print restoration specialists, or marketing and promotion specialists. There are more cases like these in library managerial practice. Organic functions may be divided into core activity, administrative, and social functions. The core activity function is associated with the goals and tasks related to the library's core activity. The administrative function governs the work processes and organisational structures. The social function has a beneficial, educational, and didactical nature and involves the social goals of the library towards its employees. It is recommended that the time spent on implementing the respective functions be divided according to a 5:3:2 ratio. For example, a manager should spend 50 % of his time on performing core activities, 30 % on administrative activities, and 20 % on social activities [354, p. 221].

Another trend in leadership theory studies is a focus on the source of the leader's authority. The leader's authority is believed to have three basic sources[8]:

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[7] The list of functions and traits was based on the results of various surveys concerning leadership in contemporary organisations (see, for example: [22; 26, p. 260; 173, p. 92–95; 296; 354; 401; 447]).

[8] John Adair suggests that moral authority should be added to the catalogue. Michael Williams lists commitment, high character, relations, and information, while Jan Zieleniewski argues that authority may be external/formal or actual/informal (see [421, p. 28–29; 447, p. 33–36].

Table 2.9 Traits and functions of a leader

Desirable traits of a leader	Functions a leader should perform
• Decision-making ability • Leadership skills • Honesty • Enthusiasm • Energy and vitality • Imagination • Ability to work hard • Analytical skills • Understanding others • Ability to find new solutions and opportunities • Ability to handle difficult situations • Ability to affect others emotionally • Ability to adapt to changes quickly • Willingness to take risks • Entrepreneurship • Ability to communicate effectively, orally or in writing • Wit • Good managerial skills • Being open-minded • Being consistent • Being ready to work laboriously • Ambition • Determination • Self-confidence • Inquisitiveness • Good computational skills • Ability to think in abstract terms • Knowledge of the sector • Desire to be a leader	• Defining tasks • Planning • Instructing TEMS • Controlling • Evaluating • Motivating and stimulating • Organising • Setting an example • Building relations • Making structural changes • Shaping the vision • Ensuring access to resources • Building a system of values

Source: Own elaboration

1. position (job, professional, or academic title)
2. personality (e.g., interpersonal skills, especially team-leading ability and influence)
3. knowledge (general, professional, and specialised [particularly valuable in large, academic libraries])

The more such attributes (sources of knowledge) a library director has, the more impact he has on a group.

Leadership theory studies emphasise that there are different ways to impact one's subordinates [22, p. 32]. The director and managers of a library may have a direct impact on employees through orders, recommendations, or prohibitions. This kind of impact should quickly and effectively change employees' behaviour. Impact can also be indirect. Indirect impact very often involves skillful management of a library's other intangible resources. This can create a good working environment that will help increase the effectiveness of employees. This kind of impact helps the development of a desirable organisational culture of the library, building its reputation and stimulating innovation. Indirect impact is usually hard to identify. Also, because of its prolonged duration, it is not always recognised as the impact of the management personnel.

Sometimes leadership practices are classified on the basis of the intensity of some traits. One of the most frequently analysed qualities is autocracy. Bernard M. Bass, for example, placed autocratic and democratic leadership on opposite ends of the continuum [32, p. 124–140]. Depending on their own character and the circumstances, leaders choose a certain style of management, which is sometimes referred to as a leadership style.[9] Democratic practices, such as a focus on the team, collaboration rather than domination, common decision-making, fostering relations, and considering the opinions of others, are in line with the contemporary paradigm of leadership. In contrast, the former autocratic practices typical of the earlier stages of the development of leadership include managing through ordering, individual decision-making, managing through pressure and force, and focusing on the results rather than on the team. In libraries, both of the above managerial practices exist, but in new institutions, democratic management is predominant.

In 2014, I surveyed middle-level library management personnel using the grid proposed in 1964 by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. In this grid, one axis represents concern for production and the other represents concern for people. Each axis ranges from 1 (low) to 9 (high). The result of my survey was 8.5/7.5, which indicates a leadership style in

[9] Numerous authors propose different classifications for managerial styles, including Rensis Likert and Robert F. Bales, Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, Kurt Lewin, or Jan Zieleniewski. I do not discuss this issue in detail in this chapter.

which high concern is given both to production and to people. Such an approach corresponds to the Theory Y, developed by Douglas McGregor, and seems particularly advantageous for libraries. Figure 2.6 presents the results of my survey.

It is also worth mentioning here that the leadership model proposed by John Adair, a famous researcher of leadership culture, distinguished between two perceptions of a leader: the qualities approach and the group approach (functional) [1]. According to the qualities approach, leaders are born, not made, and they have some inherent traits that help them be leaders. The group approach (functional) assumes that a group develops group personality and has some group needs. To meet these group needs and effectively manage a team, a leader must become competent in performing certain functions, such as planning. Thus, leadership is treated as a skill that can be learned, to some extent. Figure 2.7 presents John

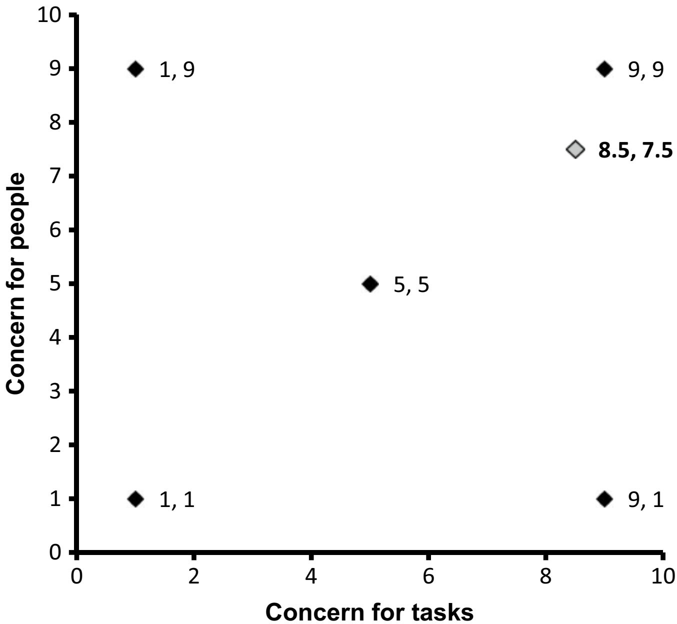

Fig. 2.6 Management style of middle-level management personnel of Polish libraries based on the grid developed by R. Blake and J. Mouton. *Source*: Own elaboration based on the grid developed by R. Blake and J. Mouton

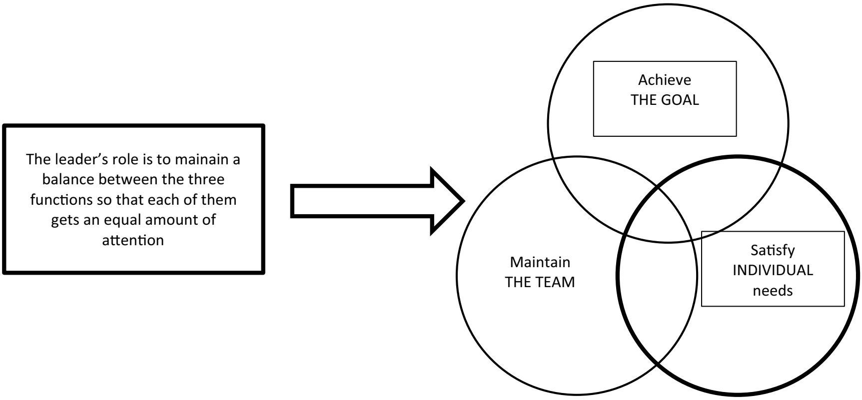

Fig. 2.7 John Adair's leadership model. *Source*: Adapted from M. WILLIAMS. *Przywództwo w świecie biznesu.* Kraków, 2009, p. 51

Adair's three circle model of leadership, which takes into account tasks, the team, and the individual.

The role of leadership in an organisation was the subject of numerous studies, which resulted in multiple divisions and classifications. It is not the purpose of this book to discuss these issues in detail, but it seems reasonable to present the basic stages of the development of leadership to better understand the problems associated with its evolution over time. Table 2.10 presents the characteristics of four basic classifications of leadership: classical, transactional, visionary, and organic.

As the table shows, the function of leadership has evolved over time. The first paradigm—classical—existed until the end of the industrial society. The organic paradigm is consistent with the priorities of organisational behaviour typical of the knowledge society, although it seems that the transactional and visionary models are still prevalent in libraries.

In the transactional model, the library director tries to influence his subordinates to perform the library's tasks. He does this through motivation, instruction, and control. He has a set of competencies and know-how considered by his community to be indispensable for a manager. Transactional leadership is characteristic of bureaucratised libraries whose focus is not on strategy or innovation.

Table 2.10 Leadership characteristics

Leadership characteristic	Classical	Transactional	Visionary	Organic
Major era	Antiquity to 1970s	1970s to mid-1980s	Mid-1980s to 2000	2000 to present
Basis of leadership	Leader dominance through respect and/or power to command and control.	Interpersonal influence over and consideration of followers; creating appropriate management environments.	Emotions; leader inspires followers.	Mutual sense-making within the group. Leaders may emerge rather than be formally appointed.
Source of follower commitment	Fear or respect of leader. Obtain rewards or avoid punishment.	Negotiated awards, agreements, and expectations.	Sharing the vision; leader charisma may be involved; individualised consideration.	Buy in to the group's shared values and processes; self-determination.
Vision	Leader's vision is unnecessary for follower compliance.	Vision is not necessary, and may not ever be articulated.	Vision is central. Followers may contribute to leader's vision.	Vision emerges from the group. Vision is a strong cultural element.
Key players	Leader.	Leader. Low role for individual followers.	Leader. High role for followers.	Entire group. May be many leaders or no leaders.
Followers' knowledge base	Low.	Low to high.	Medium to high.	High.

(*continued*)

Table 2.10 (continued)

Leadership characteristic	Classical	Transactional	Visionary	Organic
Sources of leader power	Position, reward, coercion, expertise, referent, ownership.	Position, reward, coercion, interpersonal skills, negotiated agreements.	Position, referent, expert, personal vision, followers' emotions, charisma.	Group power, expertise, collaboration, sharing power, member attributions.
Follower power	Almost none.	Low.	Medium.	High.
Decision-making	Leader decides alone.	Leader consults, then makes decision.	Leader collaborates.	Mutual decisions.
Management or leadership	Management.	Management.	Leadership.	Distributed leadership.
Structure	Linear.	Linear, bureaucratic, divisional.	Adhocracy, divisional.	Adhocracy, divisional.
Environment	Simple, stable.	Simple, stable.	Simple, complex, stable, and/or dynamic.	Complex, dynamic.

Source: Adapted from G. C. AVERY. *Understanding Leadership. Paradigms and cases.* London, 2004, p. 19, 39, 40

Visionary leadership is founded on the strong and charismatic personality of a leader who has his own vision and well-defined plans of library development. A visionary leader tries to convince employees to achieve these plans through joint effort. His ability to emotionally engage librarians in a common project is crucial for this style of leadership. The employees, motivated and encouraged by the director, engage in work and activate their own innovativeness. A visionary leader is more sensitive to the opinions and ideas of others than a transactional leader, even though he is still the one who determines the basic vision of the library functioning. Those who do not accept or fit in with the preferred set of values and behaviours are usually forced to leave.

The organic paradigm excludes a formal leadership structure and is typical of network organisations. It is founded on strong integration within the group, efficient communication, and a shared vision. It does not resemble the traditional original structure and, instead of a leader, it has an "integrator." It is rare to see the organic paradigm in libraries. Perhaps libraries will try to adopt the organic paradigm in the future as traditional services are replaced by electronic services. Even then, it will likely be more of a hybrid than a classic organic paradigm. In reality, leadership paradigms rarely exist in their "pure" form. They are affected both by the leader's preferences and traits, and the conditions of his work. Libraries with a very complex organisational structure have different forms of leadership in various managerial levels and departments. The organisational model is desirable in departments where both managers and employees must be highly innovative, such as the promotion department. On the other hand, departments where work is routine and founded on a set of standards and guidelines, like the majority of processing departments, usually have the classical model of leadership. Changing the existing paradigm is extremely difficult, not only because it requires adjusting not only the library's structure, but also, even more importantly, its organisational culture. There may not only be resistance to switching to a less advanced level of leadership, thereby limiting the decision-making autonomy of employees). In the opposite situation, when employees don't feel ready for more autonomy and decision-making authority, they may feel more comfortable with the stable and unambiguous rules of classical or transactional leadership.

Those who do not accept the existing paradigm of leadership are regarded as unfitted to the library's organisational culture. These employees find it hard to follow the rules and principles of the library, which may in turn jeopardise their employment.

According to numerous studies, a positive work environment stimulates the commitment and performance of employees. Also, the attitude of the superior has a significant impact on the organisational climate and the emotions of his subordinates. Relations in a workplace are evaluated based on relations with the superior, rather than on contacts with colleagues on equal positions. Thus, the purpose of leadership is not only to set goals but also to shape the "soft factors." There even exists a special term called "employer branding." It means "all the measures taken by an organisation, focused on the existing or potential employees, the purpose of which is to build its image of an attractive employer as well as to support its strategic objectives" [203, p. 13]. The term is now used in reference to libraries, too [48]. Shaping a positive image of the library as a workplace helps attract valuable candidates from among graduates of not only library science studies but also other disciplines. A charismatic leader in a library may attract committed and ambitious employees. My interviews with candidates for library jobs and library science students suggest that many of them would like to work with specific directors whom they regard as attractive employers, and the salary is not always a priority for them.[10]

In many societies, power is still considered to be a male attribute. Some researchers agree with Georgia Duerst-Lahti and Rita Kelly that "concepts of leadership and governance are gendered, embedded inside assumptions, practices norms, belief systems that make men normal" [96, p. 19]. Contemporary, strongly feminised libraries do not fit in with these trends. According to my analysis, the majority (80 %) of library managers are women, although some kinds of libraries, such as large, academic libraries, tend to have male directors. (Detailed results of the analysis are shown in Table 2.11). Earlier studies on the impact of gen-

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[10] I will discuss the results of my research concerning relations with superiors in various Polish libraries in the chapter on communication and relationships.

Table 2.11 Gender vs. managerial positions in Polish libraries in 2014[a]

Position	Number of men	Number of women
Public libraries		
Chief director/chief manager	12	6
Deputy director/deputy chief manager	8	14
Department/branch manager	63	304
Pedagogical libraries		
Chief director/chief manager	1	17
Deputy director/deputy chief manager	3	4
Department/branch manager	11	111
University libraries		
Chief director/chief manager	15	41
Deputy director/deputy chief manager	12	46
Department/branch manager	55	268
Vocational university libraries		
Chief director/chief manager	15	90
Deputy director/deputy chief manager	–	3
Department/branch manager	–	–
Other academic libraries		
Chief director/chief manager	15	12
Deputy director/deputy chief manager	9	20
Department/branch manager	42	93
Total		
Chief director/chief manager	58	166 (74 %)
Deputy director/deputy chief manager	32	87 (73 %)
Department/branch manager	171	776 (82 %)
Total managerial positions (in general)	261	1029 (80 %)

Source: Own elaboration
[a]Selection of libraries on the basis of available data, concerns libraries of the highest level in a given category (e.g., regional pedagogical libraries and their branches in the category of pedagogical libraries)

der on the managerial structure of libraries show that in the 1970s and 1980s, most library directors and managers were men (see [259]).

The problem with leadership in contemporary libraries is that there are not enough managers who have both professional and leadership competencies. Too many actual leaders lack managerial knowledge and training, or their knowledge of library-related topics is deficient. To quote Jacek Wojciechowski, "there are not enough potential leaders, spontaneous leaders of professional awareness" [445, p. 2]. Moreover, the problem of almost all organisations is that leaders are often "promoted to the level of their incompetence," meaning that the success of a person in one position triggers his promotion to a higher position that may be beyond his knowledge, experience, competencies, or skills.

According to my research, only 15 % of persons nominated to managerial positions in libraries are trained in managerial skills. Only 25 % of libraries require candidate managers to have managerial skills confirmed by university diplomas or training certificates. It is much more typical of libraries to appoint a mentor to take care of new employees. My research found that 58 % of directors have a mentoring system. Moreover, 36 % of libraries have a system of delegating employees to various jobs to gain professional experience. Apparently, the managers of Polish libraries are not adequately trained. Only 28 % of them have some kind of managerial education, and only 33 % of respondents had team management experience before being appointed as directors. On average, respondents worked for 5 years as directors, but many (40 %) have been directors for more than 10 years. According to directors themselves, the most important traits and skills of a library director are:

- ability to work in a team
- ability to manage people
- ability to communicate and negotiate
- know-how
- openness to new organisational and technical solutions; innovativeness; creativity
- ability to build library strategy
- diligence
- ability to make quick decisions and work under time pressure
- courage
- energy
- ability to take risks
- empathy and sympathy
- assertiveness and resilience to stress
- organisational skills; effectiveness
- ability to make others work on a high level
- resolve
- ability to collaborate with third parties and to obtain financing

- fairness
- patience
- intelligence
- orderliness and conscientiousness
- authority
- sense of humour
- good manners

It was more difficult for library directors to determine the traits they lacked as team managers. As many as 21 % of respondents believe they have all the features of a good library manager. Other respondents mentioned a lack of assertiveness, a go-get-it attitude and resolve, managerial education, and the attributes of a visionary leader, such as being a blockbuster, having authority, and being able to influence employees and the community. Finally, it is worth mentioning that for many senior-level library managers, the personality of the library director and the organisational culture promoted by him were crucial while they were job-seeking. It suggests that novice librarians seek leaders who will guide their development, teach them the secrets of the profession, and be an authority figure for them.

To conclude my deliberations on leadership, I would like to list a number of terms recently associated with the development of library services. The first term is “opinion leader,” who, “because of his knowledge, experience, position and prestige, is a role model for others and whose opinions and objections matter both to librarians and the community” [199, p. 193]. The second term is “culture leader (manager),” meaning someone engaged in “social and cultural” projects in libraries or other institutions.[11] The third type of a leader, the INIB leader,[12] was mentioned by Maria Kocójowa. She claimed that among academic information and library science specialists, there should be leaders with top-level professional skills, thorough education, and other features making them “the

[11] Culture managers participate in projects such as the 2002 *Young culture managers in libraries* project. Young culture managers are young people aged between 15 and 25 years from villages and small towns who want to implement their own sociocultural projects, such as workshops, neighbourhood events, and meetings with artists. For more information, see http://mmk.e.org.pl/.

[12] Of academic information and library science.

elite of librarians" [182]. Another researcher, Katarzyna Materska, uses the broader term information and knowledge manager [262].

Finally, it should be noted that leadership, as both an intangible asset of a library and an attribute of human capital, may be exercised in a number of ways and using various tools, as long as it is strong, clearly defined, and creative. In this way, it contributes to the development of a clear strategy, transparent organisational culture, and other intangible assets. The strength of leadership determines the operation of a library and the quality of its services, which is the condition of user satisfaction.

2.4 Communication and Relationships

Internal and external communication and relationships, in the broad meaning of the terms, are basic values of libraries. Effective operation of these institutions, whether services are provided remotely or on site, is increasingly dependent on the quality of relationships with users and employees. Libraries no longer focus only on satisfying their users' need for information or reading; they also care about establishing close, long-term relationships with users, supported by effective communication.

In a survey conducted by Anna Rakowska, most directors and senior managers (94 % of respondents) declared that the most important employee competency was the ability to communicate [337, p. 489]. Communication is also one of the main occupations of the management personnel at work. According to studies, managers spend on average between 60 % and 80 % of their time communicating with others [451, p. 335]. On the other hand, surveys conducted among library management personnel revealed that information flow in libraries, which influences the communication process, is significantly distorted. According to 70 % of respondents, it is fragmentary. Up to 25 % of respondents believe information flow is blocked in various directions, and only 5 % think that information flow is clear and direct [255, p. 170]. External relationships with the library's community falter as well. The availability of electronic media deprives libraries of their monopoly for information and causes an "outflow" of users who no longer need a library to access the information they need. Thus, it seems that certain aspects of communication in library communities need to be analysed in depth, especially because they are necessary to the development of effective relationships (both among employees and with the library community). Effective relationships help build loyalty and enable achievement of long-term educational and social goals.

Communication as a field of study developed in the first half of the twentieth century. It was associated with an analysis of semantic, technical, and efficiency aspects of the information transfer process. Communication is defined as "a process of creating, sending, receiving, and interpreting signals between people" [6, p. 63]. Communication is a process that consists of such components as a sender, receiver, signal, information channel, and information code. It is necessary for the proper functioning of social groups (e.g., libraries) and, from a broader perspective, of communities. An act of communication is an attempt by individuals or groups to contact one another to influence, express feelings or communicate expectations and attitudes, or build a community based on integration. The character of communication reflects the standards, principles, hierarchy, and methods of operation of a library. The form of communication is influenced by the principles underlying the organisational culture of a library, which in turn is determined by its leaders. Depending on the context, the role of communication may be to inform, persuade, support, or defend. Communication can also be expressive, connotative, metalinguistic, poetic, social, psychological, and regulatory. Communication may be direct (interpersonal) or indirect (mass); internal (within the internal structure of a library) or external (with the library community); one-way (e.g., a lecture) or two-way (e.g., a conversation between a librarian and a library user); verbal (linguistic) or non-verbal (non-linguistic); and formal or informal. It can be horizontal (between employees of equal ranks), vertical (between a superior and a subordinate), or diagonal (cruciform). Communication may be founded in interpersonal contacts (between librarians or between librarians and users) or in institutional contacts (institutional communication between a library and its partners, supervising authorities, suppliers). The messages (which are, in a way, communication) sent by the library's physical surroundings are now also considered to be important. The physical space of a library and its surrounding area (e.g., parks, gardens) are created in such a way as to support certain goals, achieve a desirable atmosphere, and build the library's image and reputation. Physical artefacts send messages that influence the perception of a library. Accordingly, new buildings are designed according to the principles of proxemics and librarians are vividly interested in its mechanisms [211; 440].

Having presented the above communicational contexts, I would like to discuss the process of social communication, in which libraries are intensely engaged. Małgorzata Kisilowska describes this process as

> "the process is extended in time and space, connecting senders and receivers from various generations, time periods and geographic regions. Its basic task is to transfer information acquired through civilizational development, educate new generations and contribute to the developing universe of knowledge. The library occupies an important place in this process, being a treasury of knowledge, where information not only does not get lost but it is also arranged and reaches the right receivers" [180, p. 26].

Communication is the most important marketing tool for libraries. In this context, it is defined as "planned two-way communication between an organisation and the groups existing in its environment in order to ensure understanding of its activities and create the desired image" [466, p. 112]. The literature mentions six functions of communication in a library public relations (PR) system. They are:

1. create the library image (develop, change, and maintain positive perception of and opinions about the library)
2. communicate information about the library activities that helps build the library's public image
3. ensure understanding of decisions made in the library
4. establish and maintain bonds with all the constituents of the environment that are crucial for the achievement of the library's goals
5. balance social relations both within and outside the library
6. make libraries more "immune" in crisis situations and to negative opinions [466, p. 113]

To develop relationships and improve communication, a library has to continuously build its social capital, or the "network of social interdependencies and bonds of trust, which enable people to achieve their goals thorough cooperation and collaboration" [300, p. 78]. Social capital creates a community that is founded on a system of relations, trust, shared social standards, and joint work, which help achieve the library's strategic goals. It extends and supplements individual effort and forms a uniform structure based on a network of relations. Such social capital complements human, structural, and customer capitals. Some scholars believe it is a strategic resource for a library and a source of sustainable competitive advantage [3, p. 32]. Social capital is also defined as:

- a set of horizontal associations between people, consisting of social networks and associated norms that have an effect on community, productivity, and well-being
- networks norms and trust that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives
- knowledge tied up and developed by relationships among employees, partners, customers, and suppliers

Some authors believe that effective communication, positive relationships, and the ability to collaborate are manifested in knowledge sharing. For example, Boguslaw Skuza writes that "knowledge sharing is additionally dependent on mutual trust and belief, which are the products of certain attitudes and values" [372, p. 203]. Attitudes and values, on the other hand, are an element of a library's organisational structure. This clearly shows the strong interdependence of various intangible resources that add up to intellectual capital. At the same time, considering the nature of intangible resources, communication is more of a competency than a resource, whereas relationships are the asset of a library. However, as has already been mentioned, the term "resource" is used in this book to signify also the abovementioned assets and competencies.

The development of relationships in a library environment, and the fact that relationships and communication are regarded as an intangible resource, are two factors associated with the transformation of libraries from institutions that build their collections to organisations that provide services to users. The nature of relationships both within and outside a library has changed. The term "relationship" comes from the

Latin word *relatio* (reference, contact, relation, consideration) and means "an association between individuals or social groups" [49, p. 701]. Ewa Głuszek defines relationship networks as an architecture of contracts between members of an organisation and its environment. Architecture as a relationship network is founded, Głuszek claims, on collaboration with other establishments. It is a "subtle, complex and hard to describe, unique attribute of a given organisation" that is supposed to help acquire valuable organisational knowledge, streamline its flow, and enable flexible reaction to changes in the community" [122, p. 191–192]. Based on John Kay's research, Głuszek distinguishes between internal architecture (relationships with library personnel), external architecture (relationships with suppliers and users), and network architecture (contacts within groups of organisations engaged in similar activities). Another researcher, Kazimierz Rogoziński, studied the relationships within service-providing institutions. He called these service relationships, and defined them as "mutual interaction of the service provider and the service receiver." He wrote: "in a relationship, the service becomes a medium; a relationship creates and solidifies bonds between participants of the service provision cycle, transforming them from clients to stakeholders. At the end of the process, a service providing organisation turns into a community of interest" [347, p. 14]. The basic types of relationships in libraries include:

1. librarian-to-librarian relationship
2. librarian-to-user relationship
3. user-to-user relationship [435, p. 37]

The other types of relationships, mainly with the external community (e.g., suppliers, sponsors, regulators, strategic partners), are auxiliary.

Relationships whose focal point is the library may be classified according to various criteria, such as:

- where the relationship takes place (in a library, outside a library, or mixed relationships)
- how a relationship is expressed (verbally, non-verbally, or mixed)
- why a relationship takes place (intended, unintended or coincidental)

- how an interaction is evaluated (positive relationships, negative relationships)
- who participates in the process (individuals, such as a librarian and user, or groups, such as a librarian and group of training participants) [435, p. 39]

Publications related to library science focus in particular on relationships between librarians and users, emphasising the need to increase the quality and standards of services. Also, internal relationships are increasingly regarded as important. They are analysed as a part of the internal marketing trend[13] that regards every individual employee and every unit of an organisation as an internal client who requires an equally high level of services as an external client (library user). One of the main objectives of internal marketing is to make library personnel aware that, by providing high quality services and developing effective internal relations, they influence the overall quality of services offered by the library as well as users' satisfaction and loyalty to the library.

A new kind of research is associated with user-to-user relationships. It reflects the relations among library users and their impact on service provision and the level of satisfaction. In commercial institutions, 5 % of respondents report the malfunctioning of services attributable to client-to-client relations [347, p. 142–170]. On the other hand, the behaviour and attitude of other library users is the second cause of distorted perception of services, according to respondents [435, p. 38]. This is probably due to the intensity of contacts and time spent in a library. Libraries have been classified as professional institutions providing specialist services with a high frequency of client-to-client relations (Table 2.12).

In this chapter, I discuss in particular the focal relationships between the librarian or library and the user. Internal relationships in a library are discussed in more detail in the chapter on organisational culture and leadership. Relationships within a network are discussed in more detail in the chapter on library networks and consortia.

[13] It is worth noting the following publications: *Marketing wewnętrzny i zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi w bibliotece* edited by Halina Brzezińska-Stec and Jolanta Kudrawiec [55] and *Marketing wewnętrzny w bibliotece* by Joanna Kamińska [170].

Table 2.12 Professional and consumptive services that increase the frequency of client-to-client relationships

Service-specific attribute	Professional services	Consumptive services
Physical proximity between clients	Lecture Church	Cinema
Verbal interactions between clients	Course	Food service establishment
Clients are engaged in numerous different activities	<u>Libraries</u>	Hotel
Service environment attracts clients of different profiles	Non-selective education	Fun park Ski resort
Collaboration is the essence of the service	MBA course	Weight loss group
Clients must sometimes wait to be served	Healthcare clinic	Post office
Clients spend time together, stay in the same room or compartment, share the items used to provide services	<u>Libraries</u>	Train Fitness club

Source: Adapted from K. ROGOZISKI. *Zarzdzanie relacjami w usługach.* Warszawa, 2006, p. 146

Internal relationships make a library strong and coherent. They are determined by the type of organisational culture adopted in a given library and they influence efficient and successful operation of the library. They help build internal bonds and values and diffuse knowledge. The basic types of internal relationships in libraries include collaborative, coordinative, communicative, and structural [435, p. 40]. They are influenced by the internal structure of a library as well as a network of links between employees. Collaborative relationships are associated with a technical bond between the respective units of a library, as well as between its employees. They are determined by the structure of a library, as well as work sharing and task performance methods. Coordinative relationships concern vertical communication and result from the hierarchy existing in a library (i.e., the superior-subordinate relationship). As a result of efforts to flatten organisational structures, delegate powers, and promote team work and democratic and participative management, coordinative relationships have significantly changed in recent years. Communicative relationships are associated with horizontal and vertical transfer of information using formal and informal communication channels. Their development is attributable mainly to information technology that has provided librarians with new means of communication, such as popular blogs, instant messengers, electronic mail, or Internet forums. They are used both in internal communication and to contact library users and the external community. Changes in structural relationships involve decentralisation, abandonment of a strict hierarchy of employees (especially in young libraries), and development and strengthening of horizontal communication.

Internal relationships in libraries are also shaped by internal bonds that determine the type of relations between respective units and jobs. These bonds may be professional, functional, technical, or informative [42, p. 47]. They coincide to some extent with collaborative, coordinative, communicative, and structural relationships. The professional bond reflects superior-subordinate interdependencies and is associated with the nature of power (i.e., the decision-making authority). The functional bond results from the diversity of librarian competencies and manifests itself in the provision of counselling within one's area of competencies. The technical bond is associated with the distribution of work and definition of goals, from general to specific, and the related, job-specific tasks. The informative bond is manifested in relations developed in association with the exchange of information between employees in specific jobs.

According to a survey I conducted, management personnel rate relationships with their superiors and colleagues very highly. Up to 65 % of directors are satisfied with these relationships and only 25 % of them cannot evaluate them in one way or another or think them to be unsatisfactory (10 %). The level of satisfaction is even higher among management personnel, where it reaches 93 %. Also, relationships between management personnel and their superiors were positively evaluated by 79 % of respondents.

The most important assets in terms of the library's strategic goals are librarian-to-user relationships and communication. They cover a very broad range of issues and may be analysed by focusing on different aspects: organisational, economic, cultural, educational, aesthetic, or psychological. In terms of intangible library resource management, the most important is the organisational perspective, which will be discussed below.

A good starting point for an analysis of relationships between a user and a librarian or library is presentation of the levels of interaction. The following four levels are usually identified: actions, episodes, sequences, and relations [417, p. 83]. An action is the lowest level in the relationship management process. It is an isolated activity, such as studying the terms and conditions of borrowing books from a library. An episode is a sequence of actions that results in an event with an identifiable beginning and end, such as a user studying the library's terms and conditions, a librarian verifying the user's rights and obligations, and then a librarian registering a user in a library. A sequence consists of a number of related episodes that can be evaluated (e.g., their duration, frequency, nature, quality, level of contact, degree of personalisation). For example, a sequence may be a user's visit in a library, which consists of registering in the library, checking the library's offerings, reviewing the literature, and borrowing a book). The most advanced level of interaction is the relation, which consists of a number of subsequent or parallel sequences. Relation is established through direct contacts (visiting a library) or indirect contacts (via electronic mail or over the phone). During a relation, there may be active or passive periods, depending on the number of interactions or contacts taking place. Many libraries divide their users into active and passive, and grant different rights to the two groups. In some institutions, active users receive special privileges, like the right to borrow more books or materials that are not normally lent by a library.

Communication with library users and relationship development are supported by relationship marketing. It is believed to have been started in the 1970s by the Nordic School. The concept was further developed in the 1980s, thanks mainly to the American researcher Leonhard L. Berry and his studies related to the marketing of services. The purpose of relationship marketing is to create deep and lasting bonds with users that stimulate intensive, multi-sided relations, such as a lifelong use of library services and loyalty. Loyalty, in the context of library services, means that a user is loyal to one library or chain of libraries, is a frequent visitor or maintains frequent remote contacts with a library, and is immune to stimuli sent by other institutions (not only libraries). The basic advantages of a library user's loyalty are:

- developing the habit of reading and using reliable sources of information
- a system of recommendations (frequent users are satisfied with library services and recommend the library to others, which makes the number of users grow)
- lower customer service costs (frequent users are more independent and require less time and attention from the librarian)
- more understanding for temporary inconvenience (frequent users are not as discouraged by temporary obstacles to using library services as occasional users)
- less interest in competitive products and services (e.g., computer games, TV, Internet) [438, p. 87–88].

Relationship marketing is client-oriented. The client is the focus of all the library departments. One definition of relationship marketing is "the process of planning, developing, and fostering an atmosphere of connection that promotes dialogue and leads to mutual understanding and trust, and respect for the capacities of every party in accordance with their respective roles determined by the market and the society" [417, p. 35]. According to Marian Huczek and Irena Socha, to achieve the library's goals within the area of relationship marketing, it is necessary to establish relations in six markets: the library, suppliers, agents, potential library users, influential institutions, and the internal market [144, p. 13]. Also, Jan Sójka suggests that marketing activities are the basic element of communication with the environment. The most important factor is the promotional strategy, which informs (about the library and its collections and services) and supports (exerts an impact on the environment by persuading and reminding). Another important issue is media relations, which are one of the instruments of public relations and may also be regarded as a form of marketing communication with the library's external community [431].

Speaking in macroeconomic terms, the sum of a library's relationships with its users is the customer capital. This capital is developed on the basis of the library's knowledge of its users and their particular information needs, reading needs, general preferences and behaviour in the context of the information provision process. (Libraries typically analyse user needs, satisfaction and habits, and the demand for services). Because of its ability to control relationships with users, a library may modify the provision of services to satisfy the needs of its users in the most optimal way, which in turn translates into user satisfaction. Efficient relationship management makes it possible to control the library image. Figures 2.8 and 2.9, respectively, present the life cycle of a relationship and the value chain of a relationship (i.e., the process of building the value of a relationship).

The concept of relationship management gave rise to Customer Relationship Management (CRM), a customer service tool consisting of two separate modules. The first module is the CRM strategy, or the way an organisation operates taking into consideration a philosophy of customer service founded on close cooperation, respect of the user, and identification of individual needs. The second module is the CRM software, or the IT tools that enable collecting and cataloguing data about service users [434, p. 83]. Information about library users collected in CRM systems is the same as information collected in quality management systems. It includes, among other things, general information about library users, their needs (conscious and unconscious), expectations, reasons for using library services, and acceptable conditions of using library services (e.g., time, place, situation). The expected benefits of this approach include the ability to diagnose user needs (essential to satisfying those needs), developing partner relations as a result of an individualised approach to customers, building a base of loyal customers that regularly use library

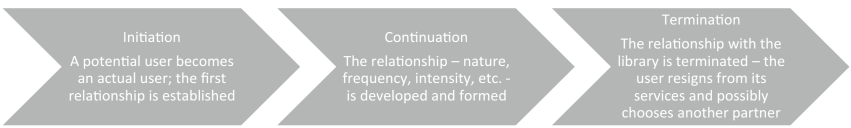

Fig. 2.8 The life cycle of a relationship. *Source*: Own elaboration

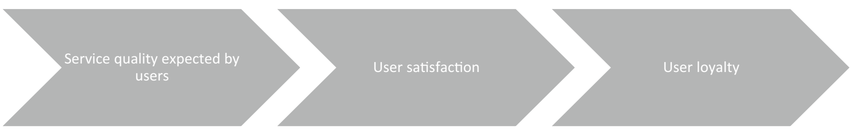

Fig. 2.9 The value chain of a relationship. *Source*: Own elaboration

services, being able to perform effective customer segmentation, and creating positive reputation on the grounds of user satisfaction. The coming years will show whether this concept is useful for libraries and ensures the expected benefits despite its limitations (see [37; 465]).

In the 1980s, economists observed that the relationship between high quality products and services and customer satisfaction was not as obvious as it seemed. Research showed that in many cases, high quality did not guarantee satisfaction, especially if a customer did not have any verbalised expectations associated with it. Moreover, exceeding customer expectations, which was popular at that time, resulted in an excess gap and reduced economic efficiency. In library science, the trend linked with the quality of services remains strong to this day, but in libraries, the relationship between quality and user expectations is emphasised more than in commercial companies. The focus relatively quickly shifted from quality towards satisfying current and future user needs and building sustainable relationships with users, two actions that help increase user loyalty. Gradually, the model where a user borrows a library item or acquires information (measured by the number of items borrowed from a library or the number of visits to a reading room, for example) was replaced by a new model. In this new model, the user simply spends time in a library, a friendly and open space, and is not made accountable for the way he spends his time there. Thus, the quality of relationships was considered to be more important than their number. This change was possible as a result of a transformation of the library image in the eyes of decision-makers. They resigned from measuring library effectiveness by the number of visits or the number of items borrowed from a library. The change in attitude is most visible in reading rooms, whose personnel now allow users less restricted access to library collections by no longer meticulously recording the items used by them or the type of information provided to them.

Obviously, user relationships with the library may be measured. The literature discusses a broad range of measuring tools and presents attempts to apply them in libraries [436]. Relationships may be analysed on the basis of numerous variables, such as regularity of interactions, frequency of interactions, duration of the relationship, periods of user activity, quality of relations, user engagement in interactions, formality of relations, and direction of information flow. On the other hand, marketing research that analyses relationships with library users must highlight the nature of user needs and attitudes, the sources of user satisfaction, and the mechanisms of loyalty building, which is associated with quality research. The most universal indices include library user satisfaction, library user loyalty, loss of users, and user retention rate. The user satisfaction index is one of the quality indicators. It measures the strength of a relationship between a library and a user. This indicator may be calculated using data from surveys asking library users about their satisfaction level with the services they consider to be the most important. If needed, it can be limited, for example, to a selected group of users or services. They loyalty index, just as with the user satisfaction index, defines the library's relationships with users and helps determine the level of their attachment to the library. It indicates the percentage of individuals declaring their willingness to use library services. The user loss index shows the percentage of library customers resigning from library services. The user retention index, unlike the satisfaction and loyalty indices, does not relate to the attitudes or opinions of users, but rather to finalised services. It shows how many individuals used library services in a given time span, then returned to the library and used its services again. Table 2.13 shows how the indices are calculated.

In some libraries it is possible to perform customer segmentation and evaluate relationships with the respective groups of users. The nature of relationships may differ between those groups. For example, contacts with school children may be satisfactory, while contacts with adult users are occasional and unsustainable. Obviously, customer segmentation does not have to be based on the age of users only; it may also be founded on other factors or combinations of factors.

In the research I conducted in 2014, most library directors considered the relationships between the library and its users to be satisfactory but at the same time in need of strengthening (58 %), or positive and strong (40 %). About 2 % of respondents said that the library's relationships with the environment and users were fading. Most directors believed that users' relationships with the library could be strengthened by tailoring services to user needs (50 %) and by adopting a more individualised approach to users (15 %). Up to 12 % also observed the need

Table 2.13 Indices measuring library relationships with users

Index	Formula	Explanation
Library user satisfaction index	$S_I = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} o_i \cdot w_i}{10} \cdot 100\ \%$	S_I—User satisfaction percentage o_i—Assessment of an i-th property of a service on a scale from 0 to 10 w_i—Weight of an i-th property of a service (weight = 1) n—Number of properties used to evaluate satisfaction
Library user loyalty index	$L_I = \frac{L_{KZ}}{L_{KB}} \cdot 100\%$	L_I—Library user loyalty index L_{KZ}—Number of library users who used library services in a given period of time and declare they are willing to use its services again L_{KB}—Number of library users who used library services in a given period of time
Library user loss index	$C_{LI} = \frac{C_R}{T_C} \cdot 100\%$	C_{LI}—Library user loss index C_R—Number of users who resigned from library services T_C—Total number of users
Library user retention index	$R_I = \frac{L_{K,t}}{L_{K,t-1}} \cdot 100\%$	R_I—Retention rate $L_{K,t}$—Number of users in a given period who used library services in the previous period $L_{K,t\text{-}1}$—Number of library users in the previous period

Source: Own elaboration based on selected marketing indices

to start relationships with new groups of previously inactive or excluded users (e.g., senior citizens or "difficult" young adults), and 11 % wanted to offer completely new services such as courses, trainings, and reading room cafés. About 5 % wanted schools to require students to use library services. Interestingly, 3 % disregarded the role of electronic communication in strengthening users' relationships with the library. Also, 3 % of library managers believed that nothing would stop the "outflow" of users from libraries.

The numerous changes taking place in library environments in recent years have led to the appearance of a number of new phenomena and trends associated with communication and relationships. The development of electronic media results in the creation of various networks of informal relationships that extend social capital beyond the traditional borders of an organisation. New communication techniques available to librarians and library users increase the use of instant messaging, social networks, and blogs by libraries [82; 150; 153; 446; 473]. The effectiveness of these tools and forms of communication is verified by quantitative and qualitative analyses. It has not been determined yet whether these tools will support libraries and supplement their services or perhaps will become competitive to library services.

New forms of remote services related to communication with users develop, such as e-learning, which is gradually replacing traditional training methods [47; 235; 334; 335]. E-learning is an advanced communication tool that not only provides users with general information, but also educates them. Apart from training on how to use library services, there are also a number of other e-learning courses, concerning both tailoring library services to user needs and supporting the education of librarians [39; 200].

Another topic discussed in the context of communication between library users is word-of-mouth marketing [9; 17; 430]. Librarians looking for new ways to promote library services in the context of growing competitiveness of services and media are interested in this particular form of marketing. The idea of word-of-mouth marketing is to create interesting ideas, services, or concepts that arouse curiosity and are talked about by library users and the library environment. It uses networks of interpersonal contacts as a natural channel for communicating information about a service. However, this kind of marketing requires an exceptionally attractive offer that will not only be approved by users, but will also intrigue them, triggering a system of recommendations.

In a system of relationships, understood as the internal and external architecture of a library, relations may be disturbed in a number of ways. Such disturbances are usually caused by psychosocial factors, or, less typically, by technical or economic problems. They are usually due to different systems of values, different assessments of a situation, or conflicting aspirations, expectations, priorities, or goals. Minor disturbances may upset harmony and reduce the level of user satisfaction, whereas major disturbances may cause conflicts. Conflict is defined as a

> "situation of emotional and intellectual engagement resulting from a social context that distorts bonds between people and causes difficulties in estab-

> lishing and maintaining interpersonal contacts […]. Conflicts are not a mere exchange of opinions or informed discussion. They are conscious experiencing of strong emotions, such as irritation, anger, jealousy, hatred" [42, p. 174].

According to contemporary theories of management, organisations that try to avoid conflicts by all means are ineffective and are no more efficient than other organisations. A solution to this problem is conflict management, which consists of consciously and successfully discharging conflicts by making deliberate use of accumulated energy to prevent escalation of aggression. Conflict management makes it possible to transform a destructive dispute, characterised by hostility and animosity and causing stress, into a constructive dispute that is free of antagonisms and aggression and encourages action (see [288]). Conflict management involves dispute mitigation techniques, such as confrontational meetings, anti-crisis teams, third-party interventions, or negotiations. Conflict-solving is particularly interesting for librarians, who are sometimes confronted with "difficult" users. Małgorzata Kisilowska distinguishes six types of library customers whose behaviour may be problematic and cause conflicts. She calls them chatterboxes, grumblers, seducers, aggressors, the shy, and the indecisive [180, p. 41–42].

It should also be noted that not all relations with a library are voluntary. Sometimes users are pressurised by the external community or the library itself to contact the library (e.g., to undergo mandatory training, participate in library classes, or reach the required level of library user activity). Here, the impact on users may range from persuasion to force. From the perspective of library marketing, such bonds are less durable and less effective, and pressure does not stimulate user loyalty or trust, nor does it contribute to the library's positive reputation.

Relationships between users and a library are associated with an exit barrier, or the various factors that prevent termination of a relationship. Objective barriers may be of financial, organisational, or legal nature, whereas subjective barriers concern users' internal fears, beliefs, or feelings. An objective barrier is, for example, remoteness of other libraries or lack of funds to individually buy materials such as books, periodicals, or electronic databases. A subjective barrier, on the other hand, could be fear of having to look for information independently without the assistance of a librarian. Until recently, the major obstacles that resulted in library monopoly for the provision of information services was the fact that data were recorded in print. This required appropriate institutions to manage the collections. However, the digitalisation and accessibility of information in electronic format has significantly affected the position of libraries in the information services market, as their mediation is no longer necessary to access information. Consequently, libraries should undertake efforts to improve their relationships with users.

To conclude, it should be noted that relationships are an extremely valuable intangible resource of the library, and that communication competencies are crucial to the work of a librarian. The ability to communicate is the condition of library efficiency. Knowledge of user behaviours and preferences enables designing services tailored to their needs. Developing relationships with the environment and users has become the goal of most library strategies. Also, there are more and more strategies that focus solely on improving relationships with users (e.g., strategies for customising relations with individual users, for strengthening bonds with users, or for tailoring services to user needs). Deep relationships create user loyalty, which may help strengthen a library's position among other organisations and substitutes, while successful communication stimulates its reputation and the value of its brand.

3

Characteristics and Analysis of Other Intangible Organisational Resources

3.1 Strategy

The ability to build and implement productive strategies is becoming a valuable asset not only in commercial institutions but also, increasingly, in libraries. In recent years, there have been many projects to improve the strategic skills of libraries, which is necessary in view of the changes taking place in the external community of libraries. With libraries implementing multiple new models of operation, the significance of strategy is growing. As a result of technological and organisational innovations, the functioning of these institutions changes and they perform their core activity—information services provision—using many different strategies. The ability to implement a strategy is increasingly influenced by intangible resources and assets, such as motivational organisational culture, a visionary leader or positive reputation, and users' confidence in projects undertaken by a library.

M. Wojciechowska, *Intangible Organizational Resources,*
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A strategy is crucial for library development because it combines tangible and intangible resource management. As such, it is sometimes defined as the art of building intangible resources and their effective synergy with tangible resources to achieve the expected benefits [280, p. 100].

The word "strategy" comes from the Greek language, where it was used to mean a military strategy. In other words, it meant the art of fighting a war (i.e., military campaigns, battles, combat) with the enemy to achieve certain political goals. In ancient Greece, *strategos* was the term for a leader of the Athenian Army. He was supposed to be a good military man with leadership and political skills. Initially, the word "strategy" was only used in the military context, but later it proved relevant in many other areas. Because of the numerous analogies between the "military art" and the "art of doing business," the word "strategy" was adopted into economics and management. One of the most important theoreticians of military strategy was the Prussian General Carl von Clausewitza. The author of twentieth-century strategic management is considered to be Igor H. Ansoff, the Russian mathematician and economist.

Strategic management was initially popular in commercial companies. Later it was also adopted by non-profit organisations, including cultural and educational institutions. Since the 1970s, it has also been used in library science, although some researchers claim that it is used in a selective way. Only some elements of strategic management are implemented—mainly the mission statement and strength, weakness, opportunity, and threat (SWOT) analysis [115, p. 22]. In terms of using strategic tools and scientific solutions, the non-profit sector is estimated to be about 15 years behind the business sector [91, p. 64].

The development of strategic management, the same as human resource management, can be divided into a number of stages associated with different schools of the theory of strategy. Initially, strategic management was embedded in the planning school, whose main assumption was that a manager made unrestricted decisions on the basis of thorough analyses, this way shaping the future of an organisation. This is still the dominant assumption underlying many theoretical deliberations on the organisation of libraries. The planning school was replaced by the evolutionary school, which took more notice of behavioural factors and treated strategy as an evolutionary process. This process stemmed from a consensus resulting from the breakthrough potential of certain factors, such as user needs, employee needs, drive to power, and the force of routine. The perception of the tasks and roles of libraries was significantly influenced by the positioning school and its representative M. Porter, who emphasised the impact of the sector in which an organisation existed. In the case of libraries, the focus was on the immediate surroundings. As the resource-based theory developed, focus shifted to the potential (resources and skills) that a library possesses and can use to implement its strategic objectives. Such an approach enables a more effective use of internal factors, although it is sometimes criticised for ignoring (or partly ignoring) the impact of external factors on the functioning of an organisation (see [122, p. 45]).

According to Stanisław Galata, strategic management concerns future outcomes of current decisions. It is a reaction to human hopelessness in the face of the complexity of the contemporary world and its future [112, p. 89, 90]. It can be defined as long-term management of library development founded on the process of decision making as well as task planning, implementing, and controlling. Thus, it is an attempt to actively shape the library's future as opposed to passively receiving changes. It involves constant monitoring of the library environment, the opportunities and threats generated by the environment, and the changes and trends taking place in the environment. It also involves knowing what is going on within the library, and its resources. Zdzisław Gębołyś emphasises two features crucial for strategic library management: focusing on key issues and defining the most important future matters [115, p. 8].

Strategic management includes the development of:

- analysis of the library and its community
- library's mission
- library's vision
- library's strategic objectives
- library's strategy
- library's strategic plan

It should be noted that most of the listed elements of strategic management depend to a large extent on the perspective adopted by the library

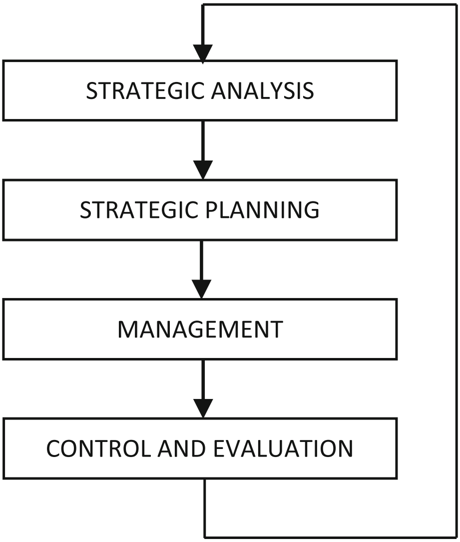

Fig. 3.1 Strategic management process in libraries. *Source*: Own elaboration

director. Thus, there is a very strong correlation between the power of leadership and strategy.

The strategic management process in libraries is assumed to consist of the following four basic stages: strategic analysis, strategic planning, management, and control and evaluation. However, there exist many models in the literature that focus on different aspects of the process.[1] Figure 3.1 presents the strategic management process in libraries.

The first stage—strategic analysis—involves diagnosing the external situation and the internal potential of the library, both in terms of its intangible resources and core, main, and auxiliary competencies, and tangible resources. The internal and external factors that are subject to analysis are presented in Table 3.1. The strategic analysis may take into account two perspectives: tools and actions [117, p. 17]. The tools perspective diagnoses possible future statuses of the library and its environment and how they will affect the library's functioning and development. The

[1] See [91, p. 86–93; 112, p. 101–102; 168, p. 109; 181, p. 29–34; 463].

Table 3.1 Internal and external factors in a strategic analysis of the library

Infernal factors		External factors	
Tangible	Intangible	Micro environment	Macro environment
Natural Tangible Financial	Human capital Leadership Strategy Organisational culture Communication and relationships Reputation Brand Innovation Adaptability Networks and consortia Technologies and processes Intellectual property	Users Strategic partners Suppliers Competitors Regulators Owners	Sociocultural dimension Technical dimension Economic dimension Legal and political dimension International dimension

Source: Own elaboration

actions perspective diagnoses the library and its environment to build its strategy. The diagnosis should include:

1. analysis of the library's organisational potential (i.e., its strengths and weaknesses) including an analysis of its finances, physical resources, technologies, management system, organisational structure, and human resources/capital and services
2. analysis of the library's community (i.e., its nature and structure as well as the opportunities and threats it generates), including an analysis of the sector in which the library functions, trends, competitors, and library user needs
3. diagnostic analysis, which evaluates the current condition of the library and its community
4. prognostic analysis of possible changes in the library and its environment
5. determining the hierarchy of the library's goals, (i.e., how relevant they are for the library's functioning and how difficult they are to implement) [432, p. 152]

These analyses may be performed using a number of tools, such as the SWOT analysis; critical success factors analysis; political, economic, social, and technological (PEST) analysis; partner analysis; Porter's five-forces analysis; trend extrapolation; strategic gap analysis; scenario method; or Ishikawa diagram, to name but a few. These tools are discussed in relative detail in the library management literature (see, for example, [106; 132; 167; 186; 201; 240]).

Analyses make it possible to develop the library's strategy and a feasible strategic plan. The next stage of strategic management is operational and tactical activities aimed at implementing the mission, vision, strategy, and strategic plan of the library. The final stage involves control and evaluation of what was actually done. Its purpose is to determine the level of completion of goals and the effects of the work done (broken down into the respective units or jobs in the library), and to correct errors or reformulate the basic assumptions of the library's functioning. Strategy implementation may be controlled on the basis of selected effectiveness indicators (e.g., the level of user satisfaction with services, the rate of using library materials, the rate of return on innovation investments) that verify the four most important perspectives of library functioning: the financial perspective, the library user's perspective, the internal processes perspective, and the development perspective.

- The financial perspective is the rate of return on investment and the added value that a library has gained, such as lower costs of service provision, higher rate of use of library resources, or more efficient use of the library's assets.
- The library user's perspective determines user satisfaction with the services offered by a library, the rate of acquisition of new users, the level of retention of the existing users, and the library's share in a given sector of services.
- The library's internal processes perspective determines the internal effectiveness and efficiency of its operational activities.
- The development perspective helps determine the innovations and changes implemented as part of a library's strategy and the possibilities of implementing them in the future [432, p. 154].

The key element of strategic management is the library's strategy,[2] defined as the

> "programme adjusted to a library's current situation through which the library wishes to achieve its strategic objectives and mission. It is the foundation for all the activities undertaken by the library: they should be based on and synchronised with the strategy. Moreover, the library's strategy should be consistent with and take into account the goals and operational programmes of the library's parent institution or administrative or financing authority, i.e. for example, the university in the case of an academic library, or the local government for a public library. The strategy and strategic plan should take into consideration the current situation and conditions of the library's functioning so that they may be successfully implemented. Also, they should be communicated to and complied with by all employees" [432, p. 150–151].

In the functional approach, the strategy is based on constant monitoring of the environment, diagnosing the library (e.g., its structures, resources, processes) and gradually achieving the strategic objectives, although other approaches treat it in a much more complex way. Henry Mintzberg defined five dimensions of strategy [277]. In the context of libraries, they may be formulated in the following way:

1. strategy as a plan, or the direction of the library's future strategic procedures
2. strategy as a model, or the pattern of the library's future systems and procedures of action
3. strategy as a standard, or a reference point for the library's strategic reactions
4. strategy as a place, or the place where the library would like to be as a result of strategic actions or the position it would like to achieve in its environment
5. strategy as a perspective, or the library's desirable condition achieved as a result of strategic actions

[2] The term "strategy" was meticulously reviewed by Zbigniew Sabak (see [352]).

A strategy should take into consideration the numerous conditions and interdependencies that determine the library's functioning, such as the:

- profile of its activity and the nature of services provided by the library
- main user groups
- goals and priorities of the library's activity (what the library wants to achieve and what it focuses on)
- library's current strategic position
- possibilities for development (defensive position, stagnation, or offensive position)
- library's competencies (core, main, organisational, auxiliary, dynamic)
- library's resources (tangible and intangible)
- ability to act (what the library can do to achieve its goals)
- planned changes (what the library will have to do)
- effectiveness of changes (whether the planned changes ensure achievement of the library's goals)
- means necessary to perform the planned actions
- expected obstacles to achieving the library's goals

The literature identifies a number of elements that a well-formulated strategy should contain. The following factors seem crucial for the library: the time horizon, the final effect or effects resulting from goals, the resources required to implement the strategy, the decision-making system that will determine the actions to be taken, and awareness of the strategy's assumptions among the library personnel and, if possible, in the library's environment.

A strategy should be formulated on the basis of the goals the library wishes to achieve. These goals determine the direction of future actions. They should be informed and realistic, so that a well-motivated team can achieve them using the available tangible and intangible resources in the expected time span. Also, clearly defined goals help determine the extent to which a strategy has been implemented. Some commercial institutions, in order to increase the chances of success, introduce incentive systems that offer extra remuneration or other bonuses for employees if they achieve certain goals. Despite some difficulties, such incentives may also be effective in the case of librarians who often lack convincing stimuli to intensify their commitment. It is often claimed that since libraries do not generate financial gains, it is hard to define a gratifying goal to achieve. However, according to numerous analyses, it is possible to define goals described by means of quantitative (rather than financial) indicators. Another consideration is the kind of gratification that should be offered to librarians. A possible solution to this problem could be unfixed extra remuneration, such as incentive bonuses or innovation funds used by some libraries in the case of achievement of specific results. Apart from an overall goal, the library may define specific tactical and operational goals (Fig. 3.2 presents the hierarchy of goals in the library's strategy). In the literature, goal setting is defined as communicating the library's primary aims: presenting proposals concerning core environmental factors, discussing goals and forecasts with managers of the library's basic units, and negotiating the goals and tasks of the respective parts of the organisation to ensure coherence with the primary goals [115, p. 17].

Strategy implementation may be facilitated by limiting expenditure on those intangible resources that do not yield any significant benefits and instead focusing on strategic resources. Expenditure means financial contributions required to develop and maintain a resource (e.g., the cost of trainings that do not result in the acquisition of core competencies) and non-financial contributions, such as the time required to develop a resource (e.g., training employees in competencies they do not need in their work). A strategy aimed at the development and utilisation of intangible resources should take into consideration the:

- types of intangible resources that determine or will determine the competitive advantage
- connection between intangible resources and tangible assets (physical resources)
- time and place of allocating respective resources
- sources of resource financing
- units responsible for strategy implementation [280, p. 103]

Libraries, just as other organisations in different sectors, tend to imitate other institutions, including strategy development. This may be detrimental if actions are not preceded by an adequate analysis and instead imitate the solutions applied by another institution. This is often due to the incompetence of the management personnel or belief in the successfulness of strategies tested by other organisations. Józef Penc analysed this problem and divided strategies into pioneering and imitative [181, p. 48]. In recent years, library strategies aimed at the development of infrastructure and IT tools to attract users' interest were often duplicated. However, it should be noted that niche strategies closely tailored to the specific needs of a library's environment may also yield multiple benefits.

Another problem is that the management personnel of libraries sometimes formulates visions of activity that are not reflected in the accepted and implemented strategy and operating activity. This may infringe upon the library's reputation among its users and partners, as well as the strength of its leadership, especially in the eyes of the employees. Thus, it is claimed that a properly constructed strategy should include three basic elements (shown in Fig. 3.2):

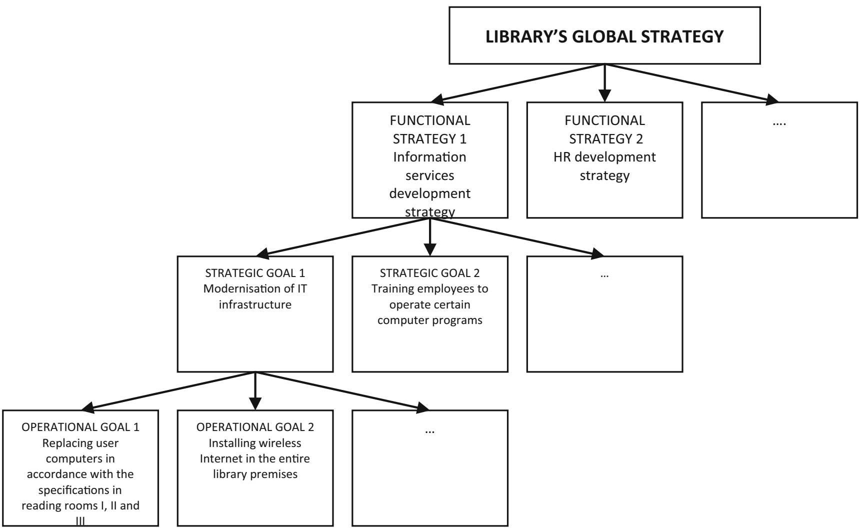

Fig. 3.2 Hierarchy of goals in the library's strategy. *Source*: Own elaboration

1. Global strategy is the library's overall strategy that determines its main goals concerning the directions followed by the library (e.g., a public library providing the local community with access to belles-lettres and popular science).
2. Functional strategy is the strategy developed for the library's respective functions, such as informational function associated with the information services development strategy, marketing function associated with the marketing strategy, cultural, academic, collections management, financial management, HR management, and other functions.[3] For example, a strategy for the library's cultural function may determine the types of cultural activity to be pursued by the library. Table 3.2 shows the basic functional strategies.
3. The strategy of the respective areas of activity determines the strategic objectives of the library's units (e.g., departments, branches). For example, the collections department strategy may include support for the library's cultural function by acquiring collections in certain categories [432, p. 151–152].

Libraries should develop strategies that reflect their organisational possibilities and at the same time respond to the informational and cultural needs of their environment. Thus, strategies may differ considerably depending on the conditions in which a given library functions. The most basic distinction is between offensive and defensive strategies, but the literature presents a number of other classifications.[4] Offensive strategies concern the development of a library, perhaps by increasing collections, starting new services, acquiring more users, or improving the quality of services. Defensive strategies involve limiting the library's activity, such as by closing its departments, shortening working hours, or suspending purchases. This is usually due to the lack of finances or receivers of library

[3] According to Lidia Derfert-Wolf, the library's core functional strategies include collections management strategy, financial management strategy, information services development strategy, HR development strategy, information users training strategy, and marketing strategy [83, p. 13]. Paweł Pioterek, Janina Przybysz, and Barbara Zieleniecka add the research and development strategy to the list.

[4] For example, the following categories of strategies: 1. Growth. 2. Stabilisation. 3. Reduction. 4. Combined; 1. Development. 2. Stabilisation. 3. Restructuring. 4. Defensive (see [181, p. 42–62]).

Table 3.2 Basic functional strategies in libraries

Strategy	Strategy goals
Collections management strategy	– Optimising the collections policy – Streamlining the processing of collections to enable faster access to new items – Increasing the accessibility of collections to users by modifying the lending policy – Developing the collections selection policy – …
HR development strategy	– Analysing the competencies of the personnel – Introducing a system of sending employees to training – Introducing an incentive system that provides for employee development – Introducing a system of internal training – …
Marketing strategy	– Surveying the satisfaction of library users and environment – Analysing adjustment of the services offered by the library to user needs – Developing the library's visual identification system – Preparing an advertising campaign – …
Financial management strategy	– Developing a plan for optimising expenditure – Acquiring new sources of financing – Developing a plan for providing commercial services for business clients – Training the personnel responsible for financial management – …
Information services development strategy	– Thoroughly surveying users' informational needs – Updating the service portfolio – Modernising and developing the IT infrastructure used for the provision of information services to users – Intensifying the training of users and personnel of departments providing information services – …
Research and development (R&D) strategy	– Analysing the scientific potential of the library – Drafting a general R&D plan based on the available resources and possibilities – Developing professional development plans for employees who wish to engage in R&D activities within the framework of the library's general plan – Starting scientific collaboration with other organisations and specialists and determining the terms and conditions of such cooperation – …

Source: Own elaboration

services (e.g., depopulation of a public library's neighbourhood, closing down a university branch that has its own library). The type of strategy adopted by a library may also be associated with the planned scope of activity. For example, the leader strategy makes the library a leader in a group. The "client first" strategy focuses on user needs and is aimed at providing users with a broad range of high-quality and widely available services. The niche strategy is aimed at discovering and filling a niche in services. The cultural changes strategy works to transform the library's organisational culture. The activities undertaken by libraries within the framework of their strategies may focus on their core activity associated with the traditional range of services offered or, alternatively, on diversification and exploration of new areas. Many libraries have been doing this recently due to reduced interest in the existing profile of services. Moreover, libraries may implement a competitive profile or a collaborative profile, which involves collaborating or competing with other institutions. Certain correlations may be observed here, namely that the libraries of commercial institutions (e.g., non-public universities) are increasingly adopting competitive strategies, although they sometimes adopt models of activity based on collaboration and alliances, too. Another type of market strategy, apart from competitive and collaborative strategies, is the niche strategy. It involves specialising in a given area, focusing either on users (market strategy) or on services (product strategy). Niche strategies are typically implemented by specialised and research libraries that offer specialist collections and services to a narrow group of receivers, focusing on the quality rather than quantity of services, and on individualised user approach. The other market strategies (confrontation strategy and avoidance strategy) are not relevant to libraries.

In terms of the causative factors, libraries use four different strategy-building models:

1. The first model makes strategic planning the domain of the library's senior management.
2. In the second model, strategic planning is not the responsibility of the library. Instead, it is done on a higher level, usually in institutions that administer the libraries (e.g., universities in the case of academic libraries or municipalities in the case of municipal libraries).

3. In the third model, strategic planning is done by a specialist library unit, such as the planning and development, promotions, or marketing department.
4. The fourth model has employees contribute to strategic planning, such as task or problem-solving teams.

The selection of one of these models is conditioned by a number of factors, such as the size of the library, the quality of leadership, an organisational culture that limits (or increases) the awareness and accountability of employees, and the quality of human capital. Probably the worst model is that which prevents a library from formulating its own strategy. On the other hand, it is desirable that a library's strategy be treated as a functional strategy and as one of the components of a global strategy of a university or municipality.

The structures of different library strategies may be very diversified. They depend on a number of factors. However, they should all meet a number of basic criteria, such as:

- internal consistency and coherence
- coherence with the environment
- relevance to the available resources
- satisfactory risk level
- adequate time horizon
- feasibility [460, p. 147]

Developing an attractive library strategy is not the only challenge in strategic management. The key is to implement the strategy from start to finish. According to research conducted by David Norton, 90 % of organisations are unable to implement their strategies [452, p. 95]. It is usually claimed that the reason for such failure is the lack of employee commitment to the strategy and that strategic management is treated as the sole domain of the management personnel. In this case, the library's strategy and vision is an unattainable ideal that, because of its unrealistic qualities, will never be formulated in the category of operational goals and implemented as such. Thus, adequate internal communication seems to be a prerequisite for successful strategy implementation. According to one of the methodologies, the respective stages of communicating a strategy should include:

1. building strategy awareness—communicating information about the most important assumptions of a strategy
2. ensuring understanding of the strategy—clarifying any doubts about the strategy's assumptions and communicating detailed information (e.g., about indicators, strategic projects)
3. ensuring acceptance of the strategy—individualised communication, explaining the impact of a new strategy on a specific employee and his unit
4. ensuring commitment to the strategy—defining the individual contribution of every manager and employee to strategy implementation [43, p. 57]

The other conditions required to successfully implement a strategy include operationalizing goals, acquiring and allocating resources, building an organisation able to effectively implement a strategy, ensuring budget for strategy implementation, developing a management system to support strategy implementation, adjusting culture to strategy, creating an incentive system, and implementing strategic leadership [413, p. 271–273].

In 2014, I interviewed library workers and found that their knowledge about the strategies implemented by libraries was limited. Most of them could not tell whether the libraries they worked in implemented any strategy and if they did, what that strategy was. Thus, it seems that communication between senior management and library staff is faulty from the very first stage of building strategy awareness. Also, a survey conducted by Marzena Marcinek among the management personnel of libraries in the city of Kraków, Poland confirmed low awareness of the objectives and goals of libraries and their long- and short-term development plans [225]. Another survey I conducted among library directors showed that only 48 % of libraries implemented a specific strategy, of which 42 % were offensive while the other strategies were stabilising or defensive. A positive note is that 67 % of the strategies were based on analyses of the environment and the library's potential. In the other cases, the opinion was that all libraries implemented similar strategies, so there was no need to differentiate them and develop any special strategies (8 %), or that employees were aware of the library's goals and knew what to do by intuition (25 %). Contrary to the results of former surveys, most directors declared that they informed their employees about strategies (55 % at meetings, 21 % through line managers, 10 % in documents or informal talks), although 10 % believed that it was not necessary and 13 % informed only managers. Thus, it seems that communication of information to library personnel needs improvement. In a survey of middle-level management personnel, 50 % of respondents declared that the libraries they worked in implemented a strategy. Up to 10 % declared that there was no strategy and 40 % did not know if there existed any strategy in the library. In libraries that had a strategy, 90 % of management personnel declared they knew the strategy and could identify its most important elements. In most cases, managers found out about a strategy from formal documents (38 %), from superiors (27 %), at meetings (7 %), by co-creating the strategy (7 %), or learned about it informally, such as from a colleague or in an informal conversation (4 %).

According to the resource-based theory, the strategy adopted by a library should not only utilise the existing potential to achieve the desired goals but also, conditions permitting, be offensive and strive to improve the existing resources and acquire new ones. Developing some assets is time- and labour-consuming. For example, the library's reputation requires commitment to the quality and level of services. Making the best use of resources should be combined with an analysis of external factors, as recommended by the authors of the positioning school. Only using the library's potential based on its resources may not be enough to implement a strategy. The library's core competencies are also important.

The growing popularity of the resource-based theory in strategy implementation is associated with the nature of the library's environment and its high changeability and unpredictability, which makes it difficult to develop suitable long-term strategic plans. The resource-based theory covers the gaps existing in the positional theory by managing resources and competencies in such a way as to ensure success, even if changes in the environment require modification of the strategy.

Despite the fact that intangible resources are vital for strategy implementation, their lack is not an insurmountable barrier to library development. Resources that the library has may substitute for the missing resources. It is important to develop a strategy that would minimise the role of lacking resources and increase the role of those easily available and relatively well developed by a library, and at the same time provide for the acquisition of the lacking resources. In this context, Hamel and Prahald wrote about resource leverage, an effect that can be achieved through efficient concentration of resources around strategic goals, efficient accumulation of resources, substituting resources (as I already mentioned), resource protection, and quick recovery of resources [122, p. 53].

To conclude, it may be expected that libraries, as beneficiaries of public financing, will be obliged to produce transparent visions of their future activity, which will encourage them to use strategic management tools, both as a means to an end and as a method to communicate with stakeholders. Given the changing awareness of management personnel and increasing availability of professional tools, the professional level of strategic management is also likely to increase.

3.2 Organisational Culture

The library, as an organisation that provides services and supports the development of culture and science, is a place where the atmosphere of work and relationships between the personnel and with the environment are particularly important. Books, information services, or library events used to be indispensable, but are now of secondary importance and may easily be replaced by other goods and services such as films, theatre, computer games, and the Internet. There are many competing forms of entertainment and free time activities available. Libraries, despite their very important role, must act in a very delicate and informed way. They must not be too aggressive, but at the same time should be transparent and attractive so as to attract the attention of the community. The challenge is even more difficult because libraries provide complex services that involve not only book lending or information provision, but also a number of other operations that are supposed to create a friendly atmosphere and make users feel attended to and taken good care of.

Relationships (their type, quality, and frequency) between librarians and users are to a large extent determined by the type of organisational culture in a given institution. The term "culture" was used for the first time in the context of an organisation in 1951 by the Canadian psychologist Elliott Jaques. He defined it as "the customary and traditional way of thinking and doing things, which is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all its members, and which new members must learn, and at least partially accept, in order to be accepted into service in the firm" [19, p. 13]. Contemporarily, organisational culture is defined as "a set of values, standards, beliefs and attitudes that constitute the basic patterns of behaviour of the members of an organisation, developed and learned by them in the course of the life of the organisation" [248, p. 74–75]. Thus, organisational culture may be regarded as an intangible asset of the library that can be managed and used for specific purposes. According to the classical definition proposed by Edgar H. Schein, organisational culture is "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" [355, p. 12].

The organisational culture of a library is defined as a

> "set of properties that determine its personality, i.e. the uniform rules of conduct and perception that reflect its system of values, create an organisational atmosphere and identify and distinguish the library. They are reflected in the organisation's transparency and management philosophy as well as in its attitude to library personnel and users" [475, p. 22].

Organisational culture is currently an important element of the functioning of libraries and it should be taken into account in management processes. Convenient premises, good staff, sufficient finances, and extensive collections do not guarantee a high quality of services or frequent and satisfactory relations with the environment. Thus, it is important to verify which type of organisational culture currently exists in a library, which model it should pursue, and how it should shape its existing culture so as to achieve the desirable model. In other words, a library must know which patterns and types of behaviour it should promote and solidify and which it should eliminate. This is called organisational culture management, in accordance with the trend that treats organisational culture as a management instrument. Czesław Sikorski defines organisational culture management as "the strategies managers use to influence their subordinates in order to shape and solidify certain patterns of thinking and doing things, and, most importantly, to use them for the purpose of achieving the organisation's goals" [366, p. VII]. It is also worth analysing the actual or possible impact of the organisational culture of a library on relations with the environment, in particular with potential users.

Organisational culture is one of the intangible resources that cannot be imitated or purchased. It is the unique effect of the specific relationships existing in a given library.

A lot has been written about library organisational culture. It is one of the most extensively defined intangible organisational resources of a library. To sum up the observations of researchers, the organisational culture of libraries:

- is relatively stable and takes a lot of time to change entirely
- may have a strong (positive or negative) impact on human behaviour (of librarians and in the library's environment)
- is hard to define and describe in a definite way
- is often subconscious, "in the background"
- is multidimensional (assumptions, norms, values, artefacts)
- helps new workers and users adapt, as it offers ready-made patterns of behaviour accepted by a given community
- may have a positive or negative impact on the library's activity and its relations with the environment
- unites the library's workers and users, creating a feeling of community
- is influenced by group leaders (not only directors but also charismatic and influential persons and opinion makers)
- may become stratified (if different types of culture exist in the respective departments or branches of the same library)

- helps control behaviour and norms of conduct, being a system of reference and giving a sense of support and stability
- influences the quality and efficiency of work

The classical model of organisational culture formulated by Edgar Schein includes three levels (layers) of meaning: assumptions, norms and values, and artefacts (Fig. 3.3). Alfred L. Kroeber and Clyde A. Kluckhohn integrate these three layers into a single system: "culture consists of patterns of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts" [366, p. 8].

In libraries, the most visible (for third parties) is the level of values, including the artefacts and symbols that determine these values. The system of values is associated with what the library is supposed to do, how it is supposed to act and, most importantly, with its place in the contemporary society. For example, is it modern, dynamic, and popular in its environment, or is its existence no longer justified and its ideals and cultural models outdated? The system of values and the workers' beliefs determine the level of library services, attitude to users, and commitment to duties. There is a huge gap between a library whose mission and vocation is to work with users and an institution that only implements the procedures legally imposed on it. The stronger the beliefs and values (supported by managerial efforts), the more they impact the behaviour of workers as well as the daily functioning of a library and its relationships with users. According to surveys conducted in academic libraries, the cultural values cultivated in these institutions include:

- believing in the right of public access to library resources
- believing the library's own users are a priority
- believing academic workers are a priority
- appreciating the role of technology in libraries and information provision
- respecting the changing needs and demands of users
- respecting users' time
- attending to foreign students

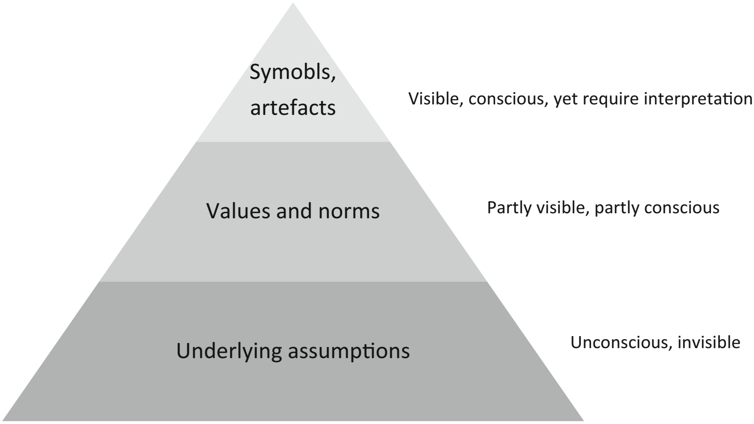

Fig. 3.3 E. Schein's model of organisational culture. *Source*: Adapted from *Leksykon zarządzania*. Warszawa, 2004, p. 251

- having zero tolerance for destroying and stealing books as well as for insubordination
- being user-oriented
- taking care of the health and non-academic needs of users
- protecting intellectual property rights
- respecting the rights of the disabled [152, p. 41]

The library's system of values may be reflected in various documents, such as statutes, regulations, mission statements, strategic goals, and recommendations and instructions.

Values are embodied in linguistic, behavioural, and physical artefacts, which are the visible elements of organisational culture. Linguistic artefacts are the way of speaking, the myths and stories about a library, work, and users. This is a unique way of communication, both verbal and non-verbal. It is a system of designations, calls, or greetings that creates distance or, alternatively, strengthens bonds. The most basic example is the way colleagues address one another by first names, or as Mr. or Ms. in formal cultures. The same refers to how users are addressed. Another example is e-mail; in some libraries, they are very official, while in others they are direct and informal. Bożena Jaskowska quotes some typical linguistic symbols used in libraries. For example, a "boomerang" is an inquisitive user who double checks every piece of information and frequently returns with more questions. An "official secret" is a situation where an information department worker cannot find the information needed by a user. "Teddies" are users, "popular titles" are frequently borrowed books, "reindeers" are users from Scandinavia, and an "aquarium" is a glass cubicle for individual work [152, p. 37].

Behavioural artefacts are customs, cultural patterns, gestures, schemes of conduct, rituals, or ceremonies. Rituals are a set of predictable behaviours in a given situation. They serve as reference points and make work more predictable. They may also become an element of the HR policy. A ritual is, for example, the way one starts work every day (hurriedly or with a cup of coffee) or has a planned lunch break (going to the canteen in a group or quickly eating a sandwich while doing less absorbing work). It could be the way the directors welcome new workers (show them all the departments and introduce the staff, or leave them alone) or the way holidays are celebrated (e.g., librarian's day, local celebrations, employee awards ceremonies). Cultural patterns, on the other hand, may concern the perception of a library in a given community. They may be oriented on certain types of behaviour, such as non-intrusive support for employees or material aid.

Physical artefacts are the technologies, dress code, use of the library's physical space, visual identification systems, and many other things that affect the perception of the library and its relationships with users. Modern libraries, especially those that focus on children and young users, take great care of the attractive design of library premises. Serious academic institutions can, through simplicity and functionality of internal design combined with elegance and a clear visual identification system, create an atmosphere of professionalism.[5]

Basic assumptions that exist within the organisational structure of a library are much more difficult to identify and realise. They are the patterns of thinking used by workers while evaluating certain phenomena,

[5] An elaborate study of symbolic, physical, and social aspects of library activity was presented by Tomasz Kruszewski [211].

behaviours, and situations. They are called group ideologies based on the preferable cultural norms and values. They exist on a higher level of abstraction and have an ideological nature. They define the general attitude of library workers towards the environment, life, world, and social and cultural changes. An example is how contemporary society views the role of libraries as institutions that harmoniously collaborate with one another, or rather compete for the customer's attention in an aggressive socio-economic environment. A basic assumption is also the attitude to interpersonal relationships.

Czeslaw Sikorski analysed various areas of organisational culture and identified four types of bonds:

- professional bonds between superiors and subordinates
- collaborative bonds between colleagues
- workers' attitude towards their own work
- workers' attitude towards the organisation's environment

Sikorski also mentioned different types of bonds in an organisation's environment: with clients, competitors, or collaborators [366, p. 7]. Such division seems relevant to analysing the organisational culture of libraries.

Studies devoted to organisational culture also analyse its functions and tasks. The most basic of them include integrative, perceptive, adaptive, identifying, and change catalyst functions [389, p. 60–63]. The integrative function serves the purpose of cultural integration that is built through shared rules, principles, customs, rituals, language, and ideology adopted by a given library. The perceptive function is associated with the perception of the surrounding reality and consistent interpretation of phenomena, events, or dependencies made possible through the library's shared cognitive filters. The adaptive function reduces uncertainty by means of accepted patterns, schemes of behaviour, and rules of conduct shared by all library employees, which help them adapt to internal changes. The identifying function is associated with creating a coherent library image, as seen by workers and the environment, which strengthens its reputation. On the other hand, the change catalyst function reduces uncertainty among employees by introducing mechanisms that facilitate implementation of changes and instruments that increase the level of acceptance of innovations.

The theory of management contains numerous classifications of organisational cultures. The most popular are those proposed by the already quoted Schein, Handy, Harrison, Deal and Kennedy, and Williams, Dobson, and Walters [21, p. 253–254]. Roger Harrison's model (1972) takes into account:

- The ideology of power assumes the most important values are power, status, and money.
- The ideology of role assumes that the formal status of a worker (i.e., his function or position) matters. Such culture is very common in bureaucratic and highly formalised institutions, and in many libraries, especially conservative ones. There, the focus is on procedures and rules of conduct, while the librarian and user are only a part of a system they should submit to. To use a colloquial phrase, "people serve the system; the system does not serve the people."
- The ideology of task assumes the focus is on achieving goals and performing tasks. Such culture is typical of young, dynamic libraries that are not function-oriented but instead strive to achieve specific, measurable, and visible results and opt for team work and projects.
- The ideology of person focuses on and serves individuals, both users and librarians. According to this ideology, the library is supposed to serve workers and users and that people are the core of its activity and efforts.

Charles Handy's classification (1981) is similar to Harrison's model. He identifies power-oriented culture, role-oriented culture, task-oriented culture, and person-oriented culture.

A different classification was proposed by Terrence A. Deal and Allan A. Kennedy (1982). They identified:

- The tough-guy, macho culture is dominated by individualists who focus on their own professional career, work on their own rather than in a group, and are dynamic or even aggressive. This type of culture is rare in libraries. Even though large academic institutions employ specialists (e.g., conservators-restorers, book historians) who work in specialist workshops and avoid teamwork, aggressive competition seldom takes place in libraries.

- The bet-your-company culture is characterised by a tendency to take risks, but at the same time values collaboration, positive interpersonal relationships, and regularity of work.
- The work hard/play hard culture is characterised by composure, rationalism, and respect for experience. It is typical of many libraries.
- The process culture is the most stable type of culture. It is characterised by respect for traditions and customs, preference for established mechanisms of action, standardisation, and formality. This culture is very common in libraries, especially those with a long history and established schemes of operation.

Two other types of organisational culture described in the literature are the achievement-oriented culture and the support-oriented culture. The achievement-oriented culture is a culture where personal commitment and motivation, as well as satisfaction with work, are important. This type of culture is called a culture of commitment. The support-oriented culture, cultivates trust, mutual support and close relationships. If this is the case, workers form a loyal and well-organised group. This also affects relationships with users, who are treated as a part of the organisation rather than external to it.

Allan Williams, Paul Dobson, and Mike Walters redefined (1989) the types of culture identified by Harrison and Handy. Also, Robert A. Cooke and J. Clayton Lafferty identified (1989) as many as twelve types of organisations based on their organisational cultures. As can be seen from the table below, this classification system could be used by libraries. Depending on the type, size, location, structure, management, and many other factors, a library may have formalised and hierarchical structures, or they may promote interpersonal relationships, creativity, and innovation (Table 3.3).

Some authors (e.g., Wendell L. French, Fremont E. Kast, and James E. Rosenzwig) distinguish between organisational culture and organisational climate. In this case, organisational culture means the system that actually exists in an organisation, whereas climate is how the organisation is perceived by workers or users. Vaclav Šmid defined organisational climate as "the totality of social relationships that influence worker behaviour in a given organisation" [374, p. 121]. Katarzyna Tracz defined it as the "mood existing in the social environment of an organisation with respect to those aspects of the organisation's environment that are consciously perceived by its members. Organisational climate means a relatively constant set of members' observations, feelings and notions as to what their organisation is" [248, p. 61]. Climate, although it is based on subjective feelings and is not an objective indicator, is important because it is linked with beliefs that result in specific actions. For example, a library worker may be convinced that the library's incentive system (bonuses, rewards) is unfair to him. Even if this is not the case, his conviction may make him quit his job or lower the quality of his work.

Organisational climate is evaluated on the basis of various elements of the organisational system, including:

- innovation—the impression that librarians are motivated to introduce changes and innovations in their work, and are supported in their undertakings
- appreciation—a feeling that the worker's engagement is noticed and appreciated by the managers
- independence—being aware that one is allowed to make independent decisions and chose how to perform one's duties according to the worker's abilities and job
- justice—being convinced that the decisions of the library management personnel are objective and not whimsical or arbitrary
- coherence—a feeling of community and unity with the library, colleagues, and users, which creates a sense of responsibility and commitment
- support—knowing that one can share one's problems and discuss difficult decisions and that it will not be perceived as weakness or inability
- resource—knowing what tangible and intangible resources one can use in his job

Table 3.3 Types of organisations identified by R. A. Cooke and J. C. Lafferty based on organisational cultures

Organisation	Description
Humanistic-encouraging	Organisations managed in a way that enables participation and focus on people
Affiliative	Organisations where constructive relationships between members are the priority
Approval	Organisations where conflicts are avoided and interpersonal relationships are nice, at least on the surface
Conventional	Conservative, traditional organisations that are bureaucratically controlled
Dependent	Hierarchically controlled organisations that do not allow workers to participate in decision-making processes
Avoidance	Organisations that do not reward success, but do punish mistakes
Oppositional	Organisations where confrontation is dominant and negativism is rewarded
Power	Organisations built on power associated with the positions occupied by members
Competitive	Organisations where success is appreciated and members are rewarded for excelling over others
Perfectionistic	Organisations where perfectionism, perseverance, and hard work are appreciated
Achievement	Organisations that appreciate work done well and members who set and achieve difficult but realistic goals
Self-actualising	Organisations that appreciate creativity and quality, rather than quantity, and value both the completion of a task and personal development

Source: Elaboration based on M. ARMSTRONG. *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*. Kraków, 2005, p. 255

- trust—believing in the freedom of communicating and discussing difficult matters;
- warmth—a sense of positive, informal relationships with other librarians and the environment
- identity—a sense of being a valuable member of the library team as well as a sense of belonging and commitment

When we combine the research perspective of Georg Litwin and Robert Stringer [249] with that of Daniel Koys and Thomas DeCotiis

[202], we can conclude that the organisational climate of a library may be analysed in the following dimensions:

1. structure/independence—feelings associated with freedom or limitation of action and the level of the library's formality (freedom or regulation?)
2. responsibility/trust—feelings associated with the sense of being trusted (trust or control?)
3. risk—feelings associated with the level of risk and stability (risk or stability?)
4. warmth—feelings associated with the atmosphere in the library (warmth or distance and aggression?)
5. support—feelings associated with the likelihood of receiving support (support or alienation?)
6. standards—feelings associated with the quality of the broadly understood work standards (high or lowered?)
7. appreciation—feelings associated with being appreciated by others (appreciated or depreciated?)
8. justice—feelings associated with the decision-making policy (unbiased or biased?)
9. conflict—feelings associated with problem-solving methods (hushed up or solved?)
10. innovation—feelings associated with promoting creativity and changes (stagnation or innovation?)
11. identity—feelings associated with the level of integration with the library (identifying with or distancing from?)

These dimensions may concern both the internal relationships within a library and relationships with library users. For example, "accountability" may mean that a superior trusts his subordinates and delegates various authorities to them, or that a librarian trusts his users and lends certain items to selected persons. Also, the level of support and atmosphere in a library are important both for the people who work there and for the users of library services. Conflict-solving methods may increase or reduce the level of satisfaction among both librarians and users, who may be pleased or displeased with the method of problem resolution. All these factors affect the sense of identity with a library as well as the sense of being an appreciated or depreciated client/worker. Also, the intensity of the respective dimensions affects the library's reputation.

The organisational culture and climate of a library may be of different strength and intensity. Strong cultures are difficult to change or eradicate because they are strongly integrated with the library. Thus, it is good for a strong culture to also be a positive culture that pursues innovations and creates a high quality of services. A deeply rooted and persistently negative and destructive culture that favours stiff patterns and schemes may cause a gradual degradation of the entire institution. Table 3.4 presents positive and negative effects of organisational culture.

The power of culture may be measured by the intensity of properties like clarity, popularity, and rootedness [366, p. 14]. Clarity of cultural patterns means clear and distinct notions of behaviours, patterns, conduct, and so on that are desirable in a given library. In libraries with a strong organisational culture, workers have no problem identifying the desirable patterns of behaviour. They get a clear message about how to behave, what is condemnable or, to the contrary, desirable and rewarded.

The popularity of the library's organisational culture is the extent to which a given culture is adopted by workers. The more uniform and homogenous a culture is, the more impact it exerts. Large libraries with multiple branches and departments may be more heterogeneous with numerous librarian subcultures. Such incoherence is undesirable when it is reflected in relationships with the library environment, and in particular in contacts and customer service standards (e.g., different approaches, different methods, different levels of service provision). On the other hand, in some cases service differentiation may be intended, such as a caring attitude with children and a demanding attitude with young adults, who should learn and acquire new information competencies. Considering the impact exerted by subcultures on the library, they may be divided into three groups: enriching subcultures that strengthen the dominant culture and are compatible with its priorities, orthogonal subcultures that maintain the most important assumptions of the basic culture and supplement them with their own norms and values, and countercultures that express dissatisfaction with and negate the assumptions of the main culture, and stand in opposition to it [19, p. 19–20].

Table 3.4 Positive and negative effects of organisational culture

Effects of organisational culture	
Positive	Negative
Streamlining activity by reducing complexity	Tendency to escape into oneself
Effective communication network	Blocking new orientations
Quick decision-making	Hindering implementation
Accelerating plan and project implementation	Fixing traditional patterns of success
Limited input on control	Collective attitude of evasion
Strong motivation and loyalty	"Culture thinking"
Stability and reliability	Inflexibility

Source: Adapted from *Leksykon zarządzania*. Warszawa, 2004, p. 253

The rootedness of organisational culture is the degree of adoption of certain cultural patterns by librarians, such as norms, customs, and models of behaviour. A higher degree of adoption of these patterns is characteristic of strong organisational cultures, while a lower degree of adoption is typical of weaker cultures. Cultures with rooted patterns give a worker a sense of stability and provide him with certain automatic reactions. This means that a librarian does not have to analyse and evaluate every situation if he can use available patterns. For example, if a user is rude, the librarian does not have to evaluate the situation from a moral perspective. Instead, he can use certain standards of action typical of the library where he works.

For library managers, organisational culture may become a tool to influence and shape the attitudes and behaviour of workers. On the other hand, culture gives librarians a sense of certainty and belonging to a group of people who share the same professional interests and habits, and use the same working procedures, mechanisms, and values.

Studies of organisational culture also include analyses of cultural dissonance. Cultural dissonance is differences in thinking, behaviour, beliefs, or preferences that can lead to psychological discomfort, misunderstanding, or even conflicts. Cultural dissonance can lead to subcultures within a library. Library workers, despite a similar level of professional education, working conditions, and cultural patterns within a library, may have completely different perceptions of the surrounding reality and interpretations of signals sent by the environment. This is due to workers being raised in different conditions and having different psychological structures, as well as many other factors that distinguish individuals. The reasons for cultural dissonance include different working conditions (front office vs. back office), position in the organisational hierarchy, function (e.g., library director, department manager), different professions (e.g., librarians, HR department workers, IT specialists, bookbinders, warehouse workers), sex (typically female or male departments, or mixed), social class, religious affiliation, and so on.

Cultural dissonance usually occurs in new organisations or when existing organisations undergo major transformations. When a new library, branch, or department is formed, people with different histories, backgrounds, and educations, who are accustomed to different schemes and procedures and have different goals and preferences, are brought together in one place. These different people have to develop a shared model of cooperation that will be the start of a new organisational culture. Moreover, dissonance is typical if a library undergoes changes that shake the existing status quo. Depending on individual attitudes, these changes may be accepted or rejected, which can also cause conflicts and a struggle of influence. Changes are particularly difficult to implement in process cultures (according to the classification proposed by Terrence A. Deal and Allan A. Kennedy), which are conservative and formalised and whose workers are attached to the existing procedures. Contrary to popular belief, new technologies are not the most problematic to implement because most employees, if properly trained, can use them relatively efficiently. Problems occur when changing attitudes or adopting a modern approach to users. These changes require commitment, openness, and empathy from librarians, rather than mechanically performing their duties.

Czesław Sikorski, when analysing managers' attitude towards cultural dissonance, classified them into rational, or those who integrate subcultures in the formal layer, and symbolic, or those who analyse subcultures and try to have a direct impact on organisational culture. He also identified three possible reactions:

- rational, where one shapes thinking patterns through teaching
- emotional, where one shapes behavioural patterns by setting an example through one's managerial style
- indirect, partly rational and partly emotional, where one shapes thinking and behavioural patterns through indoctrination [366, p. 47]

Studies of cultural dissonance were used to analyse organisational cultures. Czesław Sikorski proposed four types of culture that are relevant to libraries: a culture of domination, culture of competition, culture of cooperation, and culture of adaptation.

The culture of domination, as the name suggests, involves the domination of the organisational culture favoured by the senior management, disregarding other subcultures, which are considered inferior and improper. Domination may occur in large libraries that have multiple departments and distant branches, where subcultures are likely to develop. If this is the case and if there are no regular contacts with headquarters, librarians may develop a separate organisational culture that promotes radically different values. This happens, for example, in large public libraries, where the indicator of effectiveness is often the number of users served. In their branches in small towns, individual contacts are favoured and more attention is paid to their quality and duration because of a limited number of users.

The culture of competition occurs in libraries without a single, dominant organisational culture. Coexisting subcultures in those libraries are relatively well established but, instead of functioning in harmony, their members compete and struggle for influence. Depending on the reaction of the manager, such competition may be destructive and yield only conflict and no benefits. Or, if the right approach is adopted, it may become the source of inspiration and new ideas and solutions developed within the framework of distinct employee subcultures. Bożena Jaskowska emphasised in her research [152, p. 25–42] that there is a tendency among the workers of academic libraries, especially those with complex organisational structures, to form cliques. These are hermetic groups competing for an advantageous position. The culture of competition is very often caused by differences among library personnel working in the respective departments or jobs. Perhaps the most striking example of animosity is the problems that arise when small, municipal libraries are merged with other cultural institutions. Library workers, worrying about their future work and influences, try to show their superiority and the prevailing importance of their competencies.

The culture of cooperation accepts differences between people and always seeks a compromise. In the case of libraries, this means respect for differences and approval of diverse styles of functioning in the different branches or departments of a library, according to their individual tasks and structure of their environment. For example, the standards of a library for children and young adults may have little in common with those of a centre for economic information or a conservation department. The disadvantages of the culture of cooperation are the lack of coherence between institutions and the absence of a universal model of organisational culture. As a result, workers sometimes identify themselves with a department or branch, rather than the library itself.

The culture of adaptation is entirely subordinated to the formal goals of an organisation. Workers focus their activity on implementing formal goals, which results in a diversity of reactions, standards, and models of conduct. In this context, the culture of adaptation is changeable and impermanent because it constantly evolves to fit the current needs. It is good for institutions that function in a changeable environment that requires quick reactions and adjustment to client needs. However, the problem with this culture is the lack of identity, certainty, and security, which are particularly important for librarians. Satisfaction is attainable only to workers who have a strong drive for success. Consequently, this type of culture is very rare in libraries. It occurs only in young, change-oriented institutions that are ready to meet all the needs of their users to ensure their full satisfaction. This can also be the case with private school libraries.

Obviously, the organisational culture of a library is not fixed and it often changes in time. Edgar Schein identified four stages of the development of organisational culture: founding, early growth, midlife, and maturity [356, p. 40].

New organisational culture is formed (founded) when a new library is established. It is very convenient for managers to create the desired model of an institution from scratch, free of any organisational pathologies or fixed cannons of action. The director plays an important role in such a situation. A more vivid personality and precise expectations and work standards makes it easier for librarians to settle down and find their group personality. In time, original values and ideas become absorbed. In strong cultures, they are transmitted to new workers as actual standards, whether or not the originator of culture still works in the library.

Early growth of organisational culture is very often the period of the organisation's growth. In a library, it is the stage of jointly developing the quality of services, work standards, and relationships between workers and with users. It is usually a period of mobilisation, mutual support, and enthusiasm.

At the midlife stage, a library operates on the basis of the developed schemes. Its organisational culture is fully mature. Workers know the existing mechanisms and customs, know what to expect and how to behave, and how to react to specific situations. Moreover, librarians must comply with and report on compliance with specific standards.

Maturity is a stage of full cultural stability of a library. Workers are aware of their duties and expectations. At this point, negative emotions start to develop, including criticism and suspicion of the conduct and decisions of others. Librarians who desire changes and want to shake the status quo may be negatively evaluated by others. Different behaviours, decisions, or beliefs may lead to serious disputes and even conflicts.

According to Michael Armstrong [21], organisational culture is shaped by four basic factors: visionary leadership, turning points in the history of an organisation that strengthen or undermine values, social relationships within an organisation that influence the development of principles and expectations, and the external environment with its economic, legal, and cultural dimension. According to other research [366, p. 37], organisational culture usually changes as a result of various factors.

- A dramatic crisis questions the validity of the existing culture (as I have observed, for many libraries a dramatic crisis is shortage of funds resulting from an organisational change that forces a library to close some of its branches or departments or merge with another institution. This, in turn, jeopardises the future employment of workers, as well as their sense of stability and security.

- Changes in managerial positions can occur if new managers have a different vision of management. These changes often cause stress and anxiety in workers. Libraries with harmoniously formalised organisational cultures should be carefully influenced by senior management so as not to trigger negative reactions among employees, including their resistance to change.
- A young organisation that has not had enough time for the organisational culture to grow strong can experience cultural change. We can compare academic libraries of old universities, where changes in organisational culture are only possible when the personnel is replaced, to young libraries of non-state-owned universities, where changes and innovations are a natural element of development and an opportunity to gain more experience.
- The small size of the organisation makes it easier for managers to cause changes in the culture. Here, the scope of management is important. For example, if the number of workers directly reporting to the library director is small, that director will have more direct impact on the workers.
- Weakness of the culture makes it more susceptible to changes. Weak cultures are easier to modify, but it is very likely that the changes will not be permanent.

Organisational culture may also be wilfully reconstructed by managers as part of a project to change the library's strategy. Such reconstruction requires extensive and gradual changes that are associated mainly with the development of a new system of employee values and beliefs. This new system is supposed to lead to changes in attitudes and behaviour. Transforming organisational culture usually takes time and is preceded by a number of preliminary operations, such as defining new goals, promoting the desired values and attitudes by top management and ambassadors of change, adjusting the library's HR structure and policy, gaining the approval of middle and junior managers and opinion leaders for the new values, and cooperating with the environment.

Despite much interest in the organisational culture of libraries, comprehensive empirical studies of this topic are rare. Those that are available in most cases analyse a single institution, which is usually the place where the author works [252; 369]. Analyses of organisational culture for managerial purposes are also rare; about 10 % of libraries perform such analyses, and only 8 % analyse organisational climate. It is more popular to survey employee opinions on the quality of work (23 % of libraries do that). The organisational culture of libraries was discussed at length by Bożena Jaskowska [152; 154]. The results of her in-depth analyses of academic libraries suggest that the cultures of public university libraries and non-public university libraries, respectively, are two different things. The culture of public institutions is oriented towards complying with procedures and maintaining the status quo. Its characteristic features include:

- avoidance of uncertainty
- a large distance between workers and their superior, both professionally and emotionally
- strong identification with the group, which gives a sense of security, belonging, and adaptation
- readiness to comply with the rules of the team
- no individual accountability
- loyalty and obedience
- observance of procedures and working methods
- avoiding and mitigating conflicts
- strong dependence of an individual on managers and the team
- lack of employee participation in decision-making
- fear of expressing one's opinion
- coexistence of strong subcultures
- strong collectivism
- lack of a comprehensive review of the library's activity
- fear of using all one's knowledge and skills
- tendency to form cliques
- obstacles to innovations and changes
- preferring regular, repetitive work defined by regulations
- relying on bureaucracy and generating multiple documents
- moderate enthusiasm about acquiring new skills
- lack of adequate cooperation and communication between library departments
- high authority of those in power

- position is more important than abilities
- hierarchical organisational structure and vertical information flow
- efforts to strengthen the power, such as by issuing orders, controlling, and top-down communication

The culture of non-public university libraries is different, with a higher tolerance of uncertainty and changes. Its other features include:

- maintaining partner relationships between superiors and subordinates
- delegating authority to and participation of employees in decision-making
- encouraging team work and active participation of members in the work of a team
- desire to learn and acquire new skills and knowledge
- independence of the members of a team
- high tolerance level

Contemporary libraries are an open social system that is susceptible both to external stimuli and internal relationships created by workers. The quality of these relationships and the level of internalisation of values and principles, and consequently, the type of organisational culture, to some extent affect the condition of the library. Creative cultures, oriented on development, cooperation, and innovation, will certainly stimulate development of these institutions. Dysfunctional and pathological cultures may distort the perception of the role of books and libraries in social life. After all, libraries are not only service providers. They also have a mission to fulfill and play an important role in social development.

Organisational culture is one of the most valuable intangible resources of a library because it is unique, hard to imitate or transfer, and has an impact on the other intangible resources. In particular, it helps activate the library's other assets and competencies, which results in a higher efficiency of the entire system of intangible resources. Organisational culture is strongly linked with the library's other resources, both tangible and intangible and its importance is associated with the social dimension of an organisation. It brings people together and governs the social relationships that affect the functioning of a library, thus being equally crucial as tangible assets. It may significantly affect the development of human capital and it determines internal and external communication, as well as the library's reputation, innovation, and adaptability. It may also have a regulatory function with respect to the ethical principles of acquisition and provision of information [271; 302]. Organisational culture is shaped by the power of leadership and strategy. Some authors claim that positive organisational culture should be recognised as a core competency that helps build other core competencies [411, p. 64], while others regard it as a strategic resource of the library [166; 322]. It seems that in the years to come, the most desirable cultural models in libraries will be the cultures of changes, quality, and knowledge.

3.3 Reputation

Reputation, as an intangible asset, is strongly linked with organisational culture and brand. It reflects the attractiveness of an institution in the opinion of its users, workers, partners, and local community. Thus, it represents the status of a library in its environment. It is founded on such features and behaviour as reliability, loyalty, quality, accountability, accuracy, and honesty. Reputation is a derivative of formal and informal communication between the library and its environment. It can also be affected by the beliefs of library employees that they consciously or unconsciously disseminate in the environment.

Reputation is believed to be particularly valuable for knowledge-based organisations, such as consulting or legal companies, banks, or universities and their libraries. This is because the services offered by these organisations are based on knowledge, which is a trusted good, meaning that it is used on the basis of trust and faith in its value, correctness, and reliability. In other words, a trusted good is used on the basis of reputation [209, p. 28].

Reputation became a popular concept in the 1950s. It was promoted by John M. T. Balmer and Stephen Greyser, brand marketing specialists. Initially, it was associated with the image of an organisation (between the 1950s and 1970s). Then it became associated with personality (between the 1980s and 1990s), and finally, reputation was recognised as an intangible organisational resource. In 1996, Frederick F. Reichheld, in his famous book *The Loyalty Effect*, discussed the loyalty of customers. He claimed loyalty is due to positive reputation, to a large extent, and significantly contributes to the condition of an organisation and its success. Currently, there exist such concepts as reputation marketing and reputation managers specialising in reputation management [209].

Reputation is defined as the effect of a social structure created as a result of the associations a library develops with its collaborators in an institutional environment. Reputational ranking represents an aggregated evaluation of the institutional prestige of a library and describes the creation of a social system that surrounds it [230, p. 15]. The library's reputation consists of the opinions of the environment, especially users, concerning the various aspects of its activity. Sometimes, reputation is also reduced to an external manifestation of the internal character of an organisation that reflects the system of values adopted in a given organisational culture. The reputation of a library is affected by multiple factors, such as its mission, strategy, values, organisational culture, management methods, organisational structure, history and traditions, internal and external communication methods, and tangible resources (collections, buildings, technologies). Some authors divide these factors into four groups: organisation-based, relation-based, policy-based, and marketing-based [120, p. 152], which, depending on the type, character, and size of a library, may have a different impact on reputation. The most important, however, are other intangible resources, whose value affects the quality of the library's reputation.

Reputation may also be defined as the general opinion of a library. It is shaped by all stakeholders: users, workers, managers, partners, suppliers, and even those who do not actively use its services, but who have some opinions concerning the library. Reputation is affected both by substantiated opinions resulting from past contacts with the library (positive or negative) and beliefs not associated with personal experience but instead influenced by the opinions of others, or one's own assumptions and speculations. Despite the fact that the types of opinions are not equally reliable, their effect is the same.

Reputation is the result of opinions concerning the quality of library services, wealth of its collections, effectiveness, objectives, and social and cultural functions. It is also based on the skills and qualifications of employees, availability, openness, and attractiveness (both in terms of the place of provision of information services and physical public space). It is influenced by the personal experiences of library workers and users and the efforts consciously undertaken by the library to win the favour of the environment and to eliminate its anonymity among potential users. It is also influenced by the impact of opinion leaders, both individuals and groups. However, positive reputation should always be founded on the high quality of services, the other reputation-building factors being only auxiliary.

The reputation of a library may be analysed in eight basic contexts, as shown in Table 3.5. These contexts represent the perception of library reputation from the perspective of various scientific disciplines. Each of them focuses on one of the eight crucial aspects of library activity.

The process of creating reputation is associated with the concept of reputation capital, which is an intangible asset of a library developed on the basis of its positive reputation. A library acquires reputation capital when it is perceived in various stakeholder groups as an attractive workplace, a reliable project partner and receiver of products and services, and, most importantly, a reliable service provider that satisfies the needs of its users.

Even though libraries are non-commercial cultural institutions that until recently were relatively highly trusted by the public, the current tendency among its clients is similar the clients of commercial companies: they are less trustful and demand detailed information about the organisation's functioning. The decreasing social trust of managers in general, resulting from the financial crisis of the 1990s and bankruptcy of many companies, resounds among library clients, who now want to be informed about the management of government budget institutions. However, the transparency of financial information concerning the functioning of libraries sometimes goes to extremes. In some countries, for example, librarians are demanded to disclose to the public the status of their personal property, which is evidently absurd.

Table 3.5 The contexts of library reputation

Context	How reputation is perceived
Strategic context	Library reputation is treated as a strategic element that may determine the type of strategy adopted, as well as strategic objectives.
Organisational context	Library reputation is regarded as an element that to some extent influences organisational behaviours, the effect of those behaviours, and the existing organisational culture.
Marketing context	The purpose of reputation is to promote the library in various stakeholder groups (library users, partners, suppliers) by shaping its image and brand.
Economic context	Reputation is a tool used to streamline the service provision process (the distribution of services). It also increases the effectiveness and efficiency of library activities to improve its economic efficiency.
Sociological context	Reputation is the effect of the library's relationships with the environment.
Accounting context	Library reputation is an intangible asset that has a specific value that is hard to measure and estimate due to its elusive character.
Psychological context	Reputation is a visualisation in the human brain of the interactions between the library and its environment. It is also the visualisation of the library's activity.
Biological context	Reputation is a tool that affects the social perception of a book and of the library as an institution that promotes literature.

Source: Own elaboration

Libraries should inform the local community and decision makers about their goals, priorities, and values, as well as the rules and principles of their operation. All the activities they undertake should be transparent and should reflect the declarations and objectives previously communicated by them.

The library's positive reputation has a good impact on its relationships with its immediate environment, as shown in Fig. 3.4.

Stakeholder groups (listed in Fig. 3.4) develop various relationships with the library. The respective groups have different needs and expectations of the library. They are interested in and, to some extent, influence library reputation, which is strongly linked with the respective segments of the environment. The opinion of one group may significantly differ from another. For example, a public library may be highly regarded by young parents, who appreciate the broad range of services addressed to children, but at the same time it may be negatively perceived by elderly persons who experience a number of obstacles to using the library's services. In this context, a library may have a number of separate images that form its reputation, which is a reflection of the opinions of various stakeholder groups. These groups express their opinions through their behaviours and attitudes, and through what they say and think. Generally speaking, the library has different reputations in the internal environment (among workers), in the immediate environment (users, partners, suppliers), and in the more distant environment. The latter reputation is associated with the way political and opinion-making circles perceive the library's function and role in stimulating social development and promoting reading. A specific library rarely has a reputation in its macro environment, unless it is a large and popular institution, such as a national library.

On the basis of the relationships between the library and the receivers of its reputation, the latter may be divided into: normative, functional, special, and receiver groups (see [209, p. 24]). The groups pay attention to different aspects of reputation and have different notions about the library. Normative groups determine the general rules of the library's functioning and some specific aspects of its activity. They may also have a controlling function by obliging the library to comply with certain standards, decisions, or regulations (e.g., labour laws, construction standards, financial regulations). Normative groups can be external authorities, such as employment or financial control offices, and internal stakeholders within the organisation, such as the library council.

Functional groups are characterised by strong associations with the library and have a major impact on its reputation. The library's partners, product and service suppliers, trade unions, and librarians belong to this group. Workers play a special role because they disseminate information about the library's activity. Companies that cooperate with a library also affect its reputation by evaluating the quality and effectiveness of cooperation. Successful partnership may encourage other companies to cooperate with a library. On the other hand, unsuccessful projects or unsatisfactory cooperation causes the distrust of both potential and existing partners.

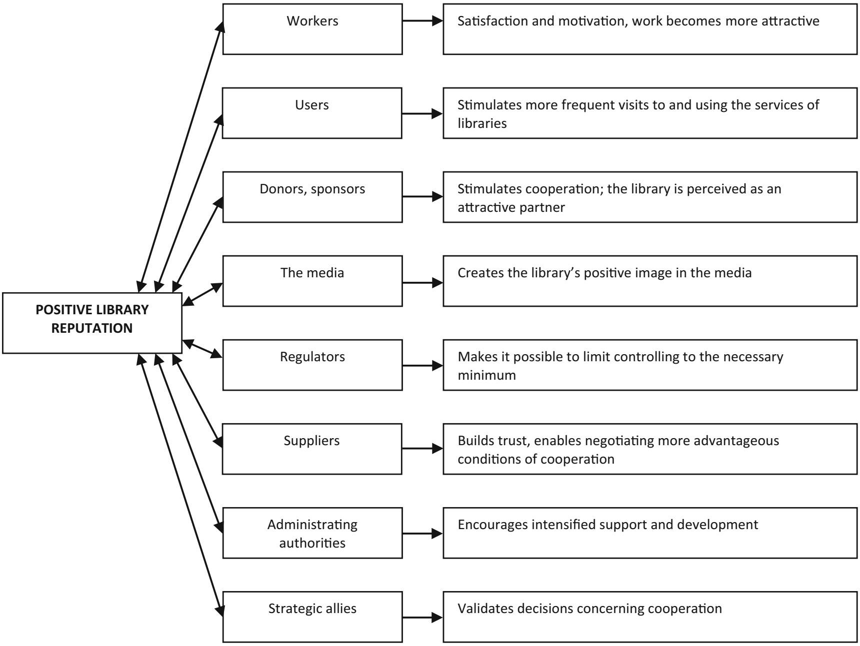

Fig. 3.4 Impact of positive library reputation on the behaviour of selected groups in the library environment. *Source*: Own elaboration

Special groups are members of the local community, journalists, or other individuals or institutions engaged or interested in the library's functioning. They evaluate the library and if they do not accept its activity, they openly express their disapproval. Libraries are not controversial organisations and they rarely attract the interest of special groups. However, it sometimes happens that their plans are opposed, for example, if a library wants to erect a modern building in a historical part of a city or operate a commercial advertising studio to finance its other projects.

The most important group in terms of the library's reputation are the receivers of its services. They are particularly sensitive to the library's reputation. Their expectations may differ depending on the segment they represent.

The four most important factors stimulating positive reputation are believed to be accountability, trust, credibility, and reliability [112, p. 135]. The underlying factor of library services is reliability, or a high level of services in line with the declarations made by the institution. Reliability as an element of library reputation also involves professional-quality projects and focus on satisfying user needs, both in terms of the provision of information and the library's auxiliary functions (e.g., social). Libraries that have a rich tradition and history must be particularly reliable, given the high social expectations associated with them.

Employees play a major role in building library reputation. They send signals to the external environment that influence opinions on the institution. These signals are, on the one hand, clear messages containing elements of evaluation, namely opinions, beliefs, and impressions associated with the library. On the other hand, the signals are indirect and sent unconsciously to users during the provision of services. The workers' attitude depends to a large extent on their trust in the library. Trust is the result of a sense of safety and identification with the institution. What is important is the way workers are treated and, in particular, whether they have proper conditions to develop, be independent, innovate, and engage, as well as the right to formulate their own opinion on a given situation and express their observations. Trust is also stimulated by treating workers as partners who have an equal share in responsibility for implementing the strategy and shaping the library's image. Users trust a library if they are convinced about its reliability, credibility, and accountability. User trust is associated with the expectation that a service will be provided in line with the library's declarations, such as access to the databases advertised by the library or availability of collections within the period declared on the library's website.

Credibility is associated with the reliability of information communicated by the library to its environment. In the case of commercial companies, reliability concerns mainly financial information associated with the institution's financial stance. In the case of libraries, credibility is manifested in the authenticity and integrity of information provided by the library either to individual users (e.g., information contained in informational materials or provided by librarians during personal contacts with users) or to the media, partners, suppliers, sponsors, or the library's supervising authorities.

Accountability is associated with the effects of the functioning of libraries in local and supra-local communities. In other words, accountability has to do with a library's commitments towards the community, both contained in official declarations and presupposed or expected by the environment. This relates to the social responsibility, which provides for social needs and protection of both the natural environment and the needs of various stakeholder groups. The concept of social responsibility is based on the assumption that a socially responsible organisation not only complies with legal regulations but also respects ethical standards and traditions and tries to give back to the environment as much as it takes from it. The social responsibility of libraries is particularly important in view of its role and the tasks it is supposed to perform for the benefit of local communities and the society at large. Accountable institutions that support certain areas of culture, education, or environmental protection have more social respect, which translates into their positive reputation [319].

The social responsibility of libraries became the object of formal interest in the 1960s. In 1969, the Social Responsibilities Round Table (SRRT) of the American Library Association (ALA) was established. The SRRT was a discussion group about the responsibility of libraries with respect to various social problems. The group discussed such issues as homelessness, wars, access to information, and minority rights. Another group that focused on discussing the problem of the distribution of information within and between states was the Social Responsibilities Discussion Group. It was established in 1997 within the framework of the Education and Training section of the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA). Małgorzata Fedorowicz-Kruszewska enumerated the projects a library may undertake within the area of its social responsibility. Examples are preventing discrimination in access to information and collections; protecting intellectual property rights; animating the cultural life; engaging in education and integration of local societies; cooperating with local authorities, organisations, and institutions; enabling access to new technologies, and satisfying the needs of disadvantaged library and information users. Also discussed were environmental issues, such as designing library buildings in such a way as to minimise negative impact on the social and natural environments (green libraries) [105]. Undoubtedly, all such projects promote the reputation of a library as an institution conscious of its social mission that is proactively engaged in solving problems, even those it is not directly accountable for. In other words, it is a reliable institution.

Reputation is sometimes associated and treated synonymously with brand, but they are two different assets. Brand is the effect of conscious marketing efforts and a set of associations related to a specific library service, whereas reputation concerns the overall activity of a library and its perception (true or false) by users and the entire environment. Feelings associated with both brand and reputation contain elements of evaluation.

Other related terms are the identity and image of a library. Identity is defined as "all the visual, verbal and behavioural communications sent to the internal and external environment, the purpose of which is to distinguish an organisation" [280, p. 70]. Identity stems from self-awareness. The basic values of a library resulting from its mission, philosophy, and history are the source of self-awareness. It is an important manifestation of organisational culture. However, unlike organisational culture, which is rooted in the deep layers of the library's organisational structure, identity is consciously perceived. According to E. B. Zybert, "identity is a set of properties that determine the nature, individuality and specificity of a library" [475, p. 183]. Identity, as the internal property of a library, may be modified by the library, unlike image, which is external and may be influenced only indirectly by a library. The features typical of the identity of a non-profit organisation include attitude, behaviour, communication with the environment, and visual identification [139, p. 133]. Since libraries significantly differ from one another, both in terms of the profile of services offered and the nature of collections, user service methods and infrastructure, they may have a unique identity distinguishing a specific institution from many other similar institutions. Since identity shows the values that are important for a library, it also influences its image.

Image is a set of notions, beliefs, and impressions associated with a specific organisation, in this case, a library. It is as if opinions about a library are formed based on a "mental image," which in turn influences its reputation. A positive image is "a necessary condition of a library's existence. It helps create bonds with the local community and stimulates the public belief that the library is indispensable for the development of the society, which enables its functioning and development conditioned by the inflow of funds, which in turn is influenced by the library's image" [475, p. 186–187]. Image consists of both logical components and emotional components associated with feelings. They complement one another and determine the overall impression of the library. Opinions arising from logical reasoning (i.e., logical components) are not very powerful and do not trigger action. On the other hand, emotional components lack the foundations of knowledge and objective evaluation. These two components combined enable creation of a library's image, stimulating an individual to adopt an active attitude towards the library stemming from one's feelings as well as knowledge and experience. Image, the same as reputation, is associated with a set of opinions about a library and may or may not be realistic. It concerns not only an institution but also the services it provides (both traditional and electronic) to users and workers. A typical image of a library user is that of a "bookworm," and a library worker is usually perceived as a dull librarian wearing a bun on top of her head and glasses.

It is sometimes raised in the literature that an image combined with values appreciated by various groups of stakeholders (e.g., users, workers) helps build a positive reputation. For example, E. B. Zybert enumerates the factors that ultimately shape the library's image: the type of services provided, the way they are provided, and the conditions of service provision [475, p. 187]. Image is not a fixed, unchangeable asset. As a result of changes taking place in the library, its environment, and the minds of those who visualise the image, it constantly changes. For example, beliefs associated with the library's image may be strong or weak, negative or positive. The least advantageous is, of course, a strongly rooted, negative image, and the most desirable is a strong, positive image (which requires intensive effort to maintain). Building a library's positive image and reputation may be linked to developing strong bonds with users, resulting in their loyalty. On the other hand, weak images suggest low awareness and knowledge about libraries in their environment, such as where they are located and what their target user groups are.

Just as with reputation, there exists the concept of image capital. This is a measurable asset of a library, consisting of the level of awareness (library recognition), benefits associated with the library, quality of the library brand, and loyalty of library users (see [347, p. 180–181]). Library image, especially the image capital, helps shape PR activities through which the library communicates its social objectives, role, and significance, as well as a visual identification system that visually stimulates the environment.

Depending on the context, there are different image types: realistic image, mirror image, desirable image, or optimal image [56, p. 16–17]. A realistic image (foreign, external image) is the notion of a library held by members of its environment who, as a result of contacts with an institution, influence its image. A mirror image (own, internal image) is a reflection of the opinions of library personnel. A desirable image is associated with a library's aspirations to achieve a certain desirable target status. An optimal image is a consensus between the realistic, mirror, and desirable images that a library may develop within a specific period of time, in a given context, and using the available means.

An analysis of the relationship between image and brand suggests two more types of images: an isolated image and an integrated image [56, p. 19]. An isolated image is when a library and its services are perceived separately by the environment. Then, the library has independent reputation that is not necessarily identical with the evaluation of its respective services. An integrated image is when a library and its services are perceived holistically without making any distinctions between one and the other. Since it is difficult for non-profit organisations to create brands, an integrated image is much more common, especially in the case of small libraries with a limited range of services offered. In a broader context, there also exists an image of the entire information services sector, as well as an image of a specific library facility, or an image of the brand of a service or group of services offered by a library. Each of the above images may be either strong and focused or dispersed and elusive.

The concept of the image of a library, librarians, and the librarian profession, along with the associated stereotypes, was repeatedly discussed in literature (see [70; 74; 75; 108; 116; 189; 198; 467]. The obligation of library workers to build a positive image of a library in the society was also emphasised in several ethical codes of librarians [183]. Recently, the

Table 3.6 Review of the results of surveys concerning the image of libraries and librarians

Author	Sample	Range	Results[a]
Surveys among library users			
A. Andrejów-Kubów M. Podgórska [15]	University library users (active and passive, university workers and students, and external users)	Wrocław	Mediocre image
S. Baran K. Bikowska [27]	University students (active users)	Olsztyn	Good image
A. Bogusz [44]	University students, academic researchers (potential and active users)	Kraków	Good image
S. Borkowicz K. Cyran M. Dziołak [46]	University students, administrative staff, and academic researchers (potential and active users)	Biała Podlaska	Lack of a uniform image
M. Cupa [68]	University students	Toruń	Good image
L. Cybulska [69]	University students, university workers (active users)	Toruń	Lack of a uniform image
A. Folga J. Kołakowska [109]	University students	Kraków	Negative image, except in terms of evaluation of the level of librarian education and competencies
B. Jasiak A. Piróg W. Matuszewska [151]	Active users of public libraries	Dolnośląskie region	Very good image

(*continued*)

Table 3.6 (continued)

Author	Sample	Range	Results[a]
M. Jaworska [158]	Academic researchers (active users)	Lublin	Physical space of the library had a negative image Library workers had a very good image
E. Lepkowska K. Popławska [239]	University students (active users)	Poznań	Very good image
E. Pawełka [307]	University students (active users)	Bytom	Very good image
J. Ratkowska [339]	University students, university workers (active users)	Gdańsk	Good image
J. Rogińska-Usowicz [346]	University students (active users)	Olsztyn	Good image
S. Sobczyk [376]	Active users of a university library (workers, students, and external users)	Kraków	Good image
R. Tawfik [400]	Active users of a public library and university library	Gorzów Wielkopolski	Very good image
Surveys among librarians and library science students			
E. Amghar B. Bułat [13]	University library workers	Kraków	Good image
M. Jaskowska A. Korycińska-Huras M. Próchnicka [156]	Public and university library directors	All Poland	Good image of public and university librarianship, poor image of library science graduates
H. Kościuch [190]	University library workers	All Poland	Good image

Table 3.6 (continued)

Author	Sample	Range	Results[a]
T. Kruszewski [212]	Library science students	Toruń	Mediocre image
W. Łapuć [234]	University library workers	Szczecin	Good image
K. Mazur-Kulesza D. Wierzbicka [268]	Academic library workers	Opole	Mediocre image
E. Makowska P. Gamus [253]	Library science students	Łódź	Mediocre image
M. Rekowska [345]	University library workers	Warszawa	Very good image
E. Skubała A. Kazan [371]	University library workers	Łódź	Very good image
M. Wojciechowska [429]	Library science students	Katowice	Mediocre image
B. Żołędowska-Król [469]	University library workers	Kraków	Good image

Source: Own elaboration

[a]Because of the incomparability of data resulting from different survey methodologies, my evaluation of survey results is subjective

electronic image has also become a popular topic of discussions (see [292; 439]). An analysis of the results of research conducted by various authors leads to the conclusion that there is a gap in the overall perception of the librarian profession[6] between the way the tasks and the workers of a library are perceived by the environment and the way the library is seen by active users or by librarians. Table 3.6 summarises surveys concerning the image of the library and librarians conducted in Poland since the 1990s. The surveys involved active users evaluating their libraries (usually in the most positive way), those who did not use library services (a less positive image), library workers, and library science students. As the table

[6]The problem of the image gap in the context of libraries is discussed in greater detail by Beata Żołędowska-Król in her article “Luka wizerunkowa a analiza satysfakcji pracowników biblioteki” [470].

shows, a positive image prevails. In my opinion, such favourable results of the surveys are caused by the fragmentary nature of the surveys focusing on groups of persons actively related to a library (workers and active users) and predestined to have a positive image of the range of library services and the methods of their provision, despite possible shortcomings or errors. Moreover, most of the surveys were conducted in large cities within dynamic libraries oriented towards improving the quality of services, for whom opinion surveys were a part of their dialogue with users and a core element of building high standards of services. Thus, it seems reasonable to conduct an in-depth research taking into account a broad range of factors affecting the image of libraries, librarians, and books in various social groups, especially those that do not read books or are not linked with any library. Because of the fragmentary nature of previous surveys, there is no comprehensive approach to the issue of image and reputation. Thus, it is impossible to formulate in-depth conclusions beyond what is related to a specific library or its services. Supposedly, the results of more thorough surveys of library image in groups not related to libraries at all or related to not very dynamic libraries could be less optimistic.

To analyse library reputation and, in particular, verify if the relatively good image is the effect of the fragmentary nature of survey samples, I surveyed five segments of the library environment: middle and secondary school students, university students (public and private universities, humanities, hard sciences, social sciences, and art courses, daily and weekend courses, full-time and part-time courses), working persons, unemployed, and pensioners. The survey was answered by a total of 2500 respondents, 500 per segment. My research covered rural and urban areas (split into small and medium towns, and large cities) from nine Polish regions. The survey asked respondents for their opinions on libraries, librarians, and library user activity (as detailed in Table 3.7). The results of the survey led to the following conclusions:

- Many respondents are unwilling to participate in or they resign from the survey, if they do not use or have a negative opinion on library services.
- Many respondents are ashamed of the fact that they do not read books.

Table 3.7 Opinions about library services in library environment

Segment I: Middle and secondary school students		
Percentage of respondents using library services		83
The most important elements of a library	Professional personnel	16 %
	Friendly atmosphere	44 %
	Broad range of services	63 %
	High quality of services	19 %
	Regularly introduced new services (innovation)	12 %
	Reacting to the needs of users and the local community	20 %
	Co-implementing interesting projects, not only associated with reading, with other institutions	10 %
	Using new technologies (programs, devices, applications)	18 %
	Having a modern building and modern equipment (e.g., computers)	17 %
Are libraries open to the needs of the environment?	Yes	81 %
	No	19 %
Did respondents participate in other surveys concerning their opinion about library services?	Yes	5 %
	No	95 %
Overall evaluation of the profession of the librarian	Very good	11 %
	Good	34 %
	Average	48 %
	Bad	6 %
	Very bad	1 %
Overall evaluation of libraries	Very good	16 %
	Good	51 %
	Average	30 %
	Bad	1 %
	Very bad	2 %
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the library's reputation	Incompetence or improper behaviour of some workers	n/a
	Outdated library collections	
	Lack of innovations, no Wi-Fi, lack of computers	
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, positively influence the library's reputation	Friendly atmosphere	n/a
	Broad range of gratuitous services	
	Internet access	

(*continued*)

Table 3.7 (continued)

Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the librarians' reputation	Lack of relevant knowledge Impoliteness and untidiness Being underpaid	n/a
Overall evaluation of the library, where the respondent is/was a user	Very good	22 %
	Good	53 %
	Average	23 %
	Bad	1 %
	Very bad	1 %
Fear/hesitation of using library services	Yes	8 %
	No	92 %
Reasons for fearing a library	The personnel (impolite, uncommunicative, busy)	33 %
	Insufficient knowledge about the library (regulations, rules of moving about the library, location of book collections)	17 %
	Mechanical barriers to using various devices (e.g., computers, electronic catalogues, viewers, self-return machines)	8 %
	Negative impressions of the library (unfriendly atmosphere, feeling uncomfortable and anxious)	50 %
Did anything change/improve in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	60 %
	No	40 %
Were any new services introduced in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	54 %
	No	46 %
Did the respondent propose any changes/innovations in the library?	Yes, and it was done	3 %
	Yes, and it was not done	6 %
	No	91 %
Which statement is the most relevant in the respondent's opinion?	Libraries are outdated	11 %
	Libraries are changing for worse	2 %
	Libraries are not changing at all	13 %
	Libraries are gradually adjusting to changes	58 %
	Libraries are dynamic institutions and they constantly update their portfolio	16 %

Table 3.7 (continued)

Segment II: University students		
Percentage of respondents using library services		91
The most important elements of a library	Professional personnel	46 %
	Friendly atmosphere	52 %
	Broad range of services	67 %
	High quality of services	25 %
	Regularly introduced new services (innovation)	27 %
	Reacting to the needs of users and the local community	54 %
	Co-implementing interesting projects, not only associated with reading, with other institutions	21 %
	Using new technologies (programs, devices, applications)	27 %
	Having a modern building and modern equipment (e.g., computers)	31 %
Are libraries open to the needs of the environment?	Yes	77 %
	No	23 %
Did respondents participate in other surveys concerning their opinion about library services?	Yes	10 %
	No	90 %
Overall evaluation of the profession of the librarian	Very good	10 %
	Good	44 %
	Average	43 %
	Bad	2 %
	Very bad	1 %
Overall evaluation of libraries	Very good	11 %
	Good	63 %
	Average	25 %
	Bad	1 %
	Very bad	0 %
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the library's reputation	Incompetence or improper behaviour of some workers Lack of progress or innovation Limited library collections	n/a
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, positively influence the library's reputation	Rich library collections Technical facilities, in particular OPAC catalogues New, attractive services	n/a

(*continued*)

Table 3.7 (continued)

Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the librarians' reputation	Unwillingness to help users Untidy appearance Incompetence, not being familiar with the book collections	n/a
Overall evaluation of the library, where the respondent is/was a user	Very good	18 %
	Good	52 %
	Average	26 %
	Bad	4 %
	Very bad	0 %
Fear/hesitation of using library services	Yes	12 %
	No	88 %
Reasons for fearing a library	The personnel (impolite, uncommunicative, busy)	51 %
	Insufficient knowledge about the library (regulations, rules of moving about the library, location of book collections)	31 %
	Mechanical barriers to using various devices (e.g. computers, electronic catalogues, viewers, self-return machines)	15 %
	Negative impressions of the library (unfriendly atmosphere, feeling uncomfortable and anxious)	35 %
Did anything change/improve in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	63 %
	No	37 %
Were any new services introduced in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	67 %
	No	33 %
Did the respondent propose any changes/innovations in the library?	Yes, and it was done	2 %
	Yes, and it was not done	3 %
	No	95 %
Which statement is the most relevant in the respondent's opinion?	Libraries are outdated	3 %
	Libraries are changing for worse	1 %
	Libraries are not changing at all	12 %
	Libraries are gradually adjusting to changes	73 %
	Libraries are dynamic institutions and they constantly update their portfolio	11 %

Table 3.7 (continued)

Segment III: Working individuals		
Percentage of respondents using library services		73
The most important elements of a library	Professional personnel	37 %
	Friendly atmosphere	47 %
	Broad range of services	47 %
	High quality of services	20 %
	Regularly introduced new services (innovation)	26 %
	Reacting to the needs of users and the local community	35 %
	Co-implementing interesting projects, not only associated with reading, with other institutions	16 %
	Using new technologies (programs, devices, applications)	18 %
	Having a modern building and modern equipment (e.g., computers)	6 %
Are libraries open to the needs of the environment?	Yes	82 %
	No	18 %
Did respondents participate in other surveys concerning their opinion about library services?	Yes	2 %
	No	98 %
Overall evaluation of the profession of the librarian	Very good	18 %
	Good	59 %
	Average	17 %
	Bad	4 %
	Very bad	2 %
Overall evaluation of libraries	Very good	12 %
	Good	67 %
	Average	16 %
	Bad	5 %
	Very bad	0 %
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the library's reputation	Lack of modern equipment, no Wi-Fi	n/a
	Regulations or workers are user-unfriendly, users have to wait a long time to be served	
	Outdated library collections	
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, positively influence the library's reputation	Competent and friendly personnel	n/a
	Broad range of services	
	Modern building	

(*continued*)

Table 3.7 (continued)

Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the librarians' reputation	Being reluctant, impolite, or passive	n/a
	Not knowing the book collections well enough	
	Impoliteness and untidiness	
Overall evaluation of the library, where the respondent is/was a user	Very good	28 %
	Good	49 %
	Average	19 %
	Bad	4 %
	Very bad	0 %
Fear/hesitation of using library services	Yes	1 %
	No	99 %
Reasons for fearing a library	The personnel (impolite, uncommunicative, busy)	40 %
	Insufficient knowledge about the library (regulations, rules of moving about the library, location of book collections)	0 %
	Mechanical barriers to using various devices (e.g., computers, electronic catalogues, viewers, self-return machines)	0 %
	Negative impressions of the library (unfriendly atmosphere, feeling uncomfortable and anxious)	60 %
Did anything change/improve in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	79 %
	No	21 %
Were any new services introduced in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	77 %
	No	23 %
Did the respondent propose any changes/innovations in the library?	Yes, and it was done	1 %
	Yes, and it was not done	5 %
	No	94 %
Which statement is the most relevant in the respondent's opinion?	Libraries are outdated	6 %
	Libraries are changing for worse	1 %
	Libraries are not changing at all	11 %
	Libraries are gradually adjusting to changes	62 %
	Libraries are dynamic institutions and they constantly update their portfolio	20 %

Table 3.7 (continued)

Segment IV: Unemployed		
Percentage of respondents using library services		67
The most important elements of a library	Professional personnel	30 %
	Friendly atmosphere	46 %
	Broad range of services	36 %
	High quality of services	12 %
	Regularly introduced new services (innovation)	18 %
	Reacting to the needs of users and the local community	30 %
	Co-implementing interesting projects, not only associated with reading, with other institutions	9 %
	Using new technologies (programs, devices, applications)	36 %
	Having a modern building and modern equipment (e.g., computers)	18 %
Are libraries open to the needs of the environment?	Yes	85 %
	No	15 %
Did respondents participate in other surveys concerning their opinion about library services?	Yes	6 %
	No	94 %
Overall evaluation of the profession of the librarian	Very good	21 %
	Good	46 %
	Average	33 %
	Bad	0 %
	Very bad	0 %
Overall evaluation of libraries	Very good	15 %
	Good	64 %
	Average	18 %
	Bad	3 %
	Very bad	0 %
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the library's reputation	Incompetence or improper behaviour of some workers Lack of new collections The time to return a book is too short	n/a
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, positively influence the library's reputation	Kind and professional personnel Fast service A quiet place	n/a

(*continued*)

Table 3.7 (continued)

Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the librarians' reputation	Being reluctant, impolite, or passive Incompetence, especially in terms of using new technologies Being too formal	n/a
Overall evaluation of the library, where the respondent is/was a user	Very good	36 %
	Good	45 %
	Average	13 %
	Bad	6 %
	Very bad	0 %
Fear/hesitation of using library services	Yes	12 %
	No	88 %
Reasons for fearing a library	The personnel (impolite, uncommunicative, busy)	75 %
	Insufficient knowledge about the library (regulations, rules of moving about the library, location of book collections)	0 %
	Mechanical barriers to using various devices (e.g., computers, electronic catalogues, viewers, self-return machines)	0 %
	Negative impressions of the library (unfriendly atmosphere, feeling uncomfortable and anxious)	25 %
Did anything change/improve in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	76 %
	No	24 %
Were any new services introduced in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	71 %
	No	29 %
Did the respondent propose any changes/innovations in the library?	Yes, and it was done	11 %
	Yes, and it was not done	4 %
	No	85 %
Which statement is the most relevant in the respondent's opinion?	Libraries are outdated	9 %
	Libraries are changing for worse	0 %
	Libraries are not changing at all	3 %
	Libraries are gradually adjusting to changes	61 %
	Libraries are dynamic institutions and they constantly update their portfolio	27 %

Table 3.7 (continued)

Segment V: Pensioners		
Percentage of respondents using library services		44
The most important elements of a library	Professional personnel	47 %
	Friendly atmosphere	40 %
	Broad range of services	33 %
	High quality of services	13 %
	Regularly introduced new services (innovation)	3 %
	Reacting to the needs of users and the local community	13 %
	Co-implementing interesting projects, not only associated with reading, with other institutions	20 %
	Using new technologies (programs, devices, applications)	10 %
	Having a modern building and modern equipment (e.g., computers)	10 %
Are libraries open to the needs of the environment?	Yes	87 %
	No	13 %
Did respondents participate in other surveys concerning their opinion about library services?	Yes	7 %
	No	93 %
Overall evaluation of the profession of the librarian	Very good	33 %
	Good	50 %
	Average	17 %
	Bad	0 %
	Very bad	0 %
Overall evaluation of libraries	Very good	17 %
	Good	43 %
	Average	40 %
	Bad	0 %
	Very bad	0 %
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the library's reputation	Poor condition of the building Lack of new collections Incompetence or improper behaviour of some workers	n/a
Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, positively influence the library's reputation	New media (e.g., e-books) Many different presentations, exhibitions, courses, meetings Professional and helpful personnel	n/a

(*continued*)

Table 3.7 (continued)

Characteristics/situations/behaviours that, according to respondents, negatively influence the librarians' reputation	Not being familiar with library collections Being reluctant, impolite, or passive Impoliteness and untidiness	n/a
Overall evaluation of the library, where the respondent is/was a user	Very good	26 %
	Good	39 %
	Average	35 %
	Bad	0 %
	Very bad	0 %
Fear/hesitation of using library services	Yes	3 %
	No	97 %
Reasons for fearing a library	The personnel (impolite, uncommunicative, busy, etc.)	100 %
	Insufficient knowledge about the library (regulations, rules of moving about the library, location of book collections)	0 %
	Mechanical barriers to using various devices (e.g., computers, electronic catalogues, viewers, self-return machines)	0 %
	Negative impressions of the library (unfriendly atmosphere, feeling uncomfortable and anxious)	0 %
Did anything change/improve in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	63 %
	No	37 %
Were any new services introduced in the last five years that the respondent benefited from?	Yes	74 %
	No	26 %
Did the respondent propose any changes/innovations in the library?	Yes, and it was done	0 %
	Yes, and it was not done	5 %
	No	95 %
Which statement is the most relevant in the respondent's opinion?	Libraries are outdated	17 %
	Libraries are changing for worse	0 %
	Libraries are not changing at all	8 %
	Libraries are gradually adjusting to changes	67 %
	Libraries are dynamic institutions and they constantly update their portfolio	8 %

Source: Own elaboration

- The unemployed are an active group of library users and recently, this group has been joined by many young and well-educated persons willing to continue their learning and development.
- Many respondents have a negative opinion of libraries caused by unavailability of new collections and unfriendly or unprofessional staff.
- Many respondents appreciate the broad range of services offered by libraries.
- M major factor influencing the respondents' opinion on libraries is their atmosphere, which either encourages or discourages them from treating the library as the "third place."
- The librarian's physical appearance matters; respondents are annoyed if a librarian looks untidy, too casual, or unattractive.
- Library users rarely propose innovations in libraries, even if they are not satisfied with the services offered.
- Many respondents do not use library services, even if they have a good opinion on libraries, due to the fact that they prefer to own books rather than borrow them.

Both the image and the identity of a library contain elements that create its reputation. This aspect is presented in Table 3.8. To paraphrase Zbigniew Zemler, library image is what people think about a library, and its identity is the elements that people associate with it [462, p. 31]. Thus, image is the consequence of identity. For the two to create a positive library identity, they must be recognised and properly managed. Libraries that lack strong identity and do not promote an external image are nondescript and unattractive for the environment. However, trying to compensate for the lack of identity by creating an image is like building an artificial facade: a library wraps itself in symbols forming its visual presentation and declares its vision of operation but lacks a personality that would distinguish it from the numerous other organisations and stimulate strong relationships with users. The other extreme is when a library has a well-developed identity that is supported by its values but does not want to or does not know how to communicate it to the environment. As a result, it remains unrecognised and its image blurs in people's consciousness. The ideal situation is when a library actively develops its identity and at the same time communicates it to the internal and external environments to form a positive image based on identity.

According to contemporary trends within the resource-based theory, an organisation should undertake efforts to consciously manage its reputation and benefit from it. This is in line with the assumption that reputation is not coincidental, but rather it is the result of specific actions taken or neglected by an institution. However, since it is a perception or a picture existing in the human brain, it cannot be shaped directly. It can only be shaped through managing the factors that affect reputation.

Library reputation should be actively and purposefully managed by the library director and senior managers, while junior managers and library workers should actively participate in the process. The persons immediately responsible for building positive library reputation are press officers and PR personnel. Other instruments existing in an institution may also be useful, such as managerial methods (e.g., quality methods that increase user satisfaction with contacts with a library); library vision, mission, and strategies that take into account the goals and operating models accepted or negated by the environment; internal procedures and organisational structure focusing on certain mechanisms of reaction; organisational culture promoting selected values, norms, beliefs, and behaviours; internal and external communication ensuring access to information, as well as positive relationships with a library; and charismatic leadership.

Reputation management requires identifying certain variables that are of crucial importance in the process. These are:

- current opinions that shape a library's current reputation, existing in various communities/segments
- quality of a library's image compared to the image of similar institutions;
- information/opinions about a library that the library would like to communicate to the environment
- reasons for taking certain actions towards creating a specific reputation
- community where a given reputation is to be created
- implementation (tools and methods)
- evaluating the effectiveness of the actions taken

All the measures a library undertakes to create its reputation should be preceded by a diagnosis of the current opinions existing in various stakeholder groups (internal and external), as well as the factors that influence those opinions the most. It is particularly important to identify the sources of negative reputation to eliminate them.

Reputation management also requires formulation of the reputation statement, which, just as with the library's mission statement, should constitute a conscious value determining the work of the entire personnel. The reputation statement is a verbalisation of the desired opinions about a library. It is built by communicating the expected image to target groups. Some activities are supposed to create an external image. They focus on the library environment, while others shape the library's internal identity and organisational culture supporting the external image. These activities complement one another and contribute to the development of coherent reputation.

Another important element of reputation management is selecting the instruments a library will use to influence its environment and determining the time perspective needed and the means to achieve the desired image.

Table 3.8 Identity and image, and their impact on library reputation

	Library reputation	
	Identity	Image
Nature	Internal	External
How it can be influenced by the library	Created and modified by the library	Only indirectly influenced by the library
Components	• Visual (name, logo, bookplate, colours, and the entire system of visual identification; library space management; dress code; printed and electronic informational materials for users) • Non-visual (when the library was founded, its profile, location, mission, organisational culture, communications and relationships, user service standards, personal contacts)	• Mission and vision • Strategy • History • Management styles • Organisational culture • Personnel (professionalism and attitudes) • High quality of services

Source: Own elaboration

Reputation management may be evaluated in terms of the accuracy, efficiency, and effectiveness of the activities undertaken by a library. It is usually associated with four main aspects: reaching a specific group in the environment, the reaction of this group to the library's activities, the impact on the group's future behaviours, and the communication process with the groups in the environment. Reputation is evaluated on the basis of either qualitative indicators or quantitative data, the latter being more reliable. Qualitative evaluation may involve analysis of various attributes, such as the quality of services, innovation, a library's ability to attract and maintain active users, and the quality of management. Table 3.9 presents a reputation index proposed by K. Cravens, E. Oliver, and S. Ramamoorti, which may be modified to analyse library reputation. In quantitative analyses, the effects of activities are compared to the quantitative objectives previously determined by a library according to its aspirations and priorities. A quantitative objective associated with the creation of reputation may be, for example, an increase in the number of users positively evaluating a library, or a specific number of media releases in a given period of time positively commenting on a library. It should be noted, however, that analysing the effectiveness of reputation management is extremely complicated. Reliable results are hard to obtain because reputation takes a long time to develop and it is difficult to identify the factors (intentional or unintentional) that actually affect it. Also, the effects of certain activities, such as expanding book collections, are not immediately visible.

A library's ability to create positive reputation and a strong, positive image yields multiple benefits. One of them is the ability to maintain close relationships with the environment, even in crisis situations resulting from unfavourable events or trends that have a negative impact on the functioning of the library. Crisis situations may have internal causes resulting from improper library management or external causes (e.g., economic, social, technical, legal) generated by the environment. The crises that currently affect libraries the most are social and technological changes that offer new ways to spend leisure time [433]. Teenagers and adults spend less time reading now than in the past, and an attractive appearance of a library may catch the attention of potential users and encourage them to start reading, which a library with a negative reputation will certainly not be able to do. Modern public libraries, especially

Table 3.9 Components of the library reputation index (based on the model proposed by K. Cravens, E. Oliver, and S. Ramamoorti)

Index component	Index rate	Indicator on a scale from 1 (lowest) to 9 (highest) verbal description
Services	30–60	Quality, awareness, guarantee, associations
Workers	1–20	Satisfaction, rotation, number of applicants for open positions, suggestions, improvements, terms of remuneration, reputation and competencies of managers
External relationships (except with users)	1–10	Longevity of cooperation, strategic alliances, partner reputation, social endeavours, payment terms
Innovation	0–20	Programme to generate innovation in the library, new services
Value creation	5–20	Responding to user needs, user retention
Strategy	1–10	Priorities relative to strategy, control systems, integration of strategy across the units of the organisation
Culture	1–10	Ethics, management attitudes, procedures in the case of unethical behaviour

Source: Elaboration based on G. URBANEK. *Pomiar kapitału intelektualnego i aktywów niematerialnych przedsiębiorstwa*. Łódź, 2007, p. 101–102

multi-centres offering space to entertain, learn, and relax, are becoming increasingly popular among young adults. Their positive opinion, disseminated through social networks, helps reverse negative reading trends among children and young adults.

Library reputation analyses, although they exist in the literature, are not yet a standard in most libraries. The results of a survey I conducted in 2014 suggest that 25 % of libraries had never performed such analyses. Moreover, many could not tell when, or whether, they had performed such research (19 %). Of the libraries, 21 % performed reputation analyses during that year, 30 % performed them within the last five years, and 5 % performed them more than five years earlier. The needs and preferences of users are more regularly analysed: 32 % of libraries analyse them at least once a year, 24 % perform an analysis at least once every five years, and 5 % did this less than once every five years. Up to 29 % of libraries do not conduct such analyses at all and 9 % of library directors could not tell if there had ever been such an analysis in their library. In most cases, the director or the manager are responsible for creating the library's reputation (52 %), or it is the joint responsibility of the managers of all the library units (24 %). Less often, such responsibility rests with PR/marketing departments, dedicated teams, or employees. Some libraries delegate the task of creating positive reputation and measuring it to several persons or units at the same time. In such a case, the supervisor may be the director who collaborates with the PR department or unit managers. The survey found that 27 % of libraries do not have employees or teams dedicated to this specific aspect of the functioning of libraries. In general, library directors assessed the profession of a librarian as good (53 %) or very good (24 %). Only 3 % of respondents assessed it as bad or very bad. Table 3.10 details the rating of the respective aspects of the librarian's profession.

The causes of negative library reputation that library directors indicated most often were non-conformity of services with user needs, isolation of the library and lack of cooperation with the environment, limited funds to develop the infrastructure and book collections, and incompetent or ill-disposed personnel. Negative opinions on library workers resulted, according to respondents, from low qualifications, impoliteness and untidiness, indolence, negative attitude to users, and lack of innovation.

To conclude, it should be noted that reputation as a library resource is non-durable and very susceptible to external factors. Also, it can only be

Table 3.10 The librarian's profession in the opinion of library directors

Aspect	Average rating (on a scale from 1 to 5)
Salary	2.2
Atmosphere at work	3.9
Attractiveness of duties	3.8
Possibilities of professional development	3.6
Career possibilities	2.7
Reputation of the profession among friends and relatives	3.0
Innovation	3.5
Challenges	3.7
Sense of stability	3.7
Total	3.2

Source: Own elaboration

developed through the long-term and regular efforts of library personnel. This particular resource cannot be transferred from external sources or acquired through third parties. However, reputation and image are also believed to be the most precious intangible resource in marketing [209, p. 16] and a distinctive ability (competency) that creates customer loyalty and creative commitment of workers [230, p. 14]. The measures that proactively shape them yield measurable effects in terms of reliability and trust in an organisation. Positive library reputation is a derivative of multidirectional communication. It increases attachment and loyalty of users; may be the source of commitment and satisfaction for librarians, who are internally motivated by working in an institution regarded to be an attractive work place (friendly, creative, socially involved); creates effective relationships with the library environment, including the decision-makers and partners; and is positively presented by the media. It also has cognitive aspects, as it involves dissemination of information about the opinions of others, which often result from past contacts with an institution. The value of library reputation results from other intangible resources, such as human capital, leadership, organisational culture, strategy, or brand.

3.4 Brand

Brand is one of the most important intangible resources that make an organisation identifiable by customers. It distinguishes a product or service from competitive products or services by building its individual image in the receiver's brain. It is closely linked with a set of expectations of the quality, level, and reliability of services. Even though branding is not popularly used by libraries, it is worth analysing its purposefulness. A brand distinguishes a library from other organisations and associates it with a specific product portfolio, user service quality, and reputation. For publishers of books and periodicals, as well as traditional and online bookshops, building a strong and recognisable brand is essential for attracting customers and gaining profit. Also, managers tend to believe that institutions with a recognisable brand are more highly esteemed than those that offer analogous products or services but are not recognised by customers.

The tradition of identifying goods and services has existed for ages. The first brands appeared in antiquity: ceramics and jewellery, as well as pipes, bricks, and medicinal products from Ancient Egypt, Greece, Babylonia, Rome, China, and Syria bear the identification of the manufacturer. Brands developed in medieval guilds, where it was recommended or even required to label craft products to identify their origin, be it workshop or craftsman. Entries in guild records are considered to be the first trademark registration. Printed brands also developed at around the same time. In subsequent ages, brands appeared and disappeared, depending on the type of economy and demand for goods. In the eighteenth century, brand symbolism developed. Before that, brands had been associated mainly with product manufacturer identification. Brand images started to be associated with the place of origin of products, symbols (e.g., animals), and proper names. The first true brand in Europe is considered to be the KPM monogram, used since 1723 by the Royal Porcelain Manufactory in Meissen. The nineteenth century marked the development of branding following the industrial revolution. As a result, products started to be distributed to new markets, which required identification of their origin. Subsequently, the first legal regulations protecting trademarks developed in Austria (1858), United Kingdom (1862), Germany (1874), USA (1870), and Switzerland (1879). At the turn of the twentieth century, many legendary brands appeared that exist to this day, including Coca-Cola, Aspirin, or Milka [10, p. 120; 425, p. 17–27].

The decline of branding is typical of socialist economy and its above-average development—of market economy offering an excess of products and services that have to be made identifiable to customers through brands. In the 1980s, the concept of brand value developed. The brand was recognised as a precious element of an organisation that could affect its competitive advantage and be measured. Genesis of brand evaluation is associated with the British periodicals market in the 1980s. At that time, the most valuable element of the News Corporation goodwill were the titles of periodicals, which, because of the tax regulations in force, were not listed separately in the balance sheet. As a result, the company was obliged to make write-offs that reduced its goodwill. The News Corporation looked for a way to evaluate the respective brands of its periodicals. Now, there are various brand ratings based on brand evaluation or its appreciation among customers. Currently, the role and value of brands is industry-related. For example, on the American market, brand represents on average 61 % of the asset value of clothing companies, 48 % of tobacco companies, 30 % of food and chemicals companies, and more than 20 % of the market of electrical devices [280, p. 60–61]. Even though the role of the brand has been increasing for the last few decades among service providing institutions, branding is practically non-existent in the case of libraries. The only exception are graphical symbols of libraries and library services.

The "brand" is a broad term with multiple definitions. It can be associated with a library (organisation brand), its specific service (product brand), or a group of related services (see [457]). Sometimes, brands of individuals or places are also mentioned, but they are not of much relevance to libraries. Brands may also consist of a set of service-related means that symbolise a specific value, service terms, and so on that help shape a library's image. It is claimed in the library-related literature that, because of the limited possibilities of libraries to diversify their services, the key to the success of a brand is the "wrapping" of services [160, p. 76]. Brands may be non-reserved (which is most common for libraries) or registered trademarks (a trademark may also be a part of a brand). The trademark is one of the most commonly evaluated intangible resources in the world. Protection applies to verbal, graphical, spatial, acoustic, and combined markings. Trademarks are usually registered by patent offices. In many countries, the basic protection period is 10 years, but it can be extended. In some countries, there is no such legal term as the brand. Instead they use other terms, such as "trademark" in reference to a product or service, or "company name" in reference to the corporate brand. The marketing literature uses the term "brand," whereas legal literature uses the term "trademark." The word "brand" comes from the verb "to brand," which originally meant to American practice of marking cattle with iron to indicate ownership [10, p. 121; 425, p. 28].

The American Marketing Association defines the brand as a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies the goods or services of one seller as distinct from those of other sellers [10, p. 12]. A broader definition is proposed by Grzegorz Urbanek, according to whom brand is "a set of functional, economic and psychological advantages yielded by a product marked with a given brand or symbol (also referred to as brand identifiers). These advantages are usually associated with a specific good or service" [409, p. 63]. In the case of library services, cognitive benefits are as important as the advantages mentioned by Urbanek. To paraphrase John Kay, a library's brand may generate value for the library if the service related to it is considered better than its functional equivalent [178, p. 353]. As such, a brand may be the source of a library's competitive advantage and a marketing tool to build the library's reputation. A valuable brand helps maintain strong relationships with the library environment. It also influences perception of library services, whose significance increases thanks to the brand. Its basic property is to distinguish the services offered by a specific library from its functional substitutes by making them more identifiable.

Brands consist of two groups of components: functional and virtual [10, p. 15; 160, p. 28]. Functional components have a realistic, often material nature and are associated with the functional quality of a service, such as the technical and physical condition of library premises and facilities or the speed and accuracy of its IT services. Virtual components, sometimes referred to as emotional, are non-material and exist only in human mind. They are the consequence of emotions, impressions, beliefs, and opinions. In this context, brand may be associated with such intangible attributes as modernity, cultivating cultural and scientific values, or respecting traditions. It can also have negative connotations, such as excessive conservatism or obsoleteness. The virtual components of a brand may also symbolise associations with a specific group of users. This is the case with many academic libraries that are associated only with students or academic workers. It also applies to school libraries that, contrary to the common belief, also serve the parents of students, or multicentres that offer services to all groups of users, even though they are identified mainly with young adults.

Depending on the dominant component (functional or virtual), a brand may be either functional or representative [10, p. 17]. A functional brand is founded on the quality and efficiency of services (i.e., its functional properties). For example, a user who activates remote access to databases may reasonably expect to have access from a personal computer to the most important academic papers in the field of study of his choice.

Or, a parent who sends his child to library classes is assured that the child will have contact with literature under the supervision of a professional. A representative brand depends mainly on virtual components, which are an important addition to practical aspects. In the case of the library, it may be a sense of uniqueness and contact with art and science, which is an element of belonging to the intellectual elite.

The functional and emotional components of a brand are associated with two types of benefits for library users: functional and emotional. Functional benefits involve the objective advantages of a service that determine its functionality (i.e., a well-configured search engine for users to search library databases from home). Emotional benefits, on the other hand, are the additional attributes of a service, such as workshops for seniors that, apart from practical skills, give the participants satisfaction through integration and activation. It may happen that emotional benefits will be more important to a user than functional attributes.

The structure of a brand is usually identified with the following three basic components: core, additional advantages, and attributes of a brand [10, p. 17–19]. The core of a brand is associated with the expectation that the basic functional properties of a service will be fulfilled (e.g., that a request for information will be answered). The additional advantages of a brand are the values of a brand beyond its basic functional properties that are required by users as a standard (e.g., being able to print a record or article from a database or copy it to a portable memory device). The attributes of a brand go beyond the expected quality and constitute an added value that makes the brand attractive. One such attribute may be a separate room to search databases in comfortable conditions or a library café to relax after work. It should be noted that the attributes of a brand that are initially considered unique and particularly attractive may in time become an additional advantage required by users as the quality of services offered by other libraries increases. This was the case with OPAC catalogues, which were at first regarded by users as particularly attractive, but relatively quickly turned into a standard element of library services (Fig. 3.5).

Brands are multidimensional; they consist of both material and non-material elements. The easiest to see are their visible manifestations, such

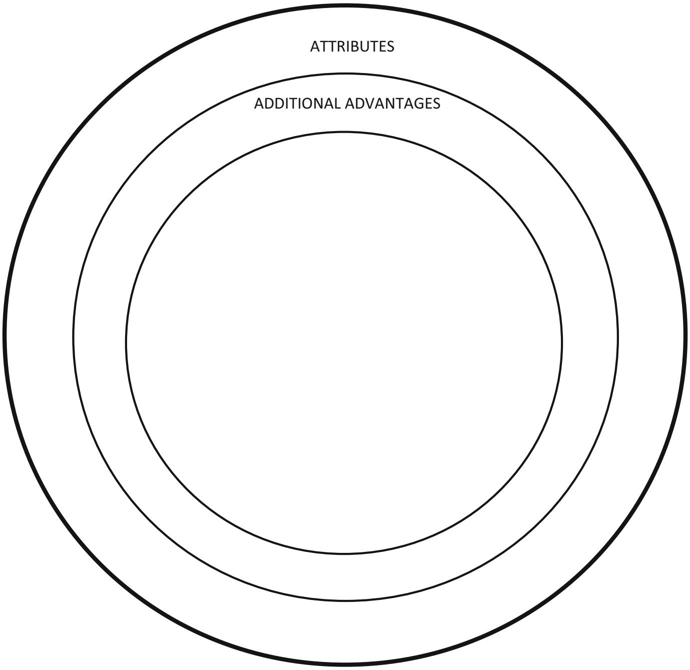

Fig. 3.5 Brand structure. *Source*: Adapted from J. ALTKORN. *Strategia marki*. Warszawa, 1999, p. 19

as markings (logos[7]) or colours and lettering, such as in a name or slogan.[8] To attract the interest of the library environment, each of these elements must have certain properties. For example, the name of the brand may be surprising or symbolic, or refer to certain values. Typical library symbols are an open book (symbolises reading), an owl (symbolises wisdom), or a lighthouse (symbolises knowledge that enlightens). Apart from material components, brand is also affected by important non-material influences. These are, among other things, knowledge management processes,

[7] Graphical symbols of libraries represented in their logos are discussed in more detail in an article by Tomasz Kruszewski [210].

[8] I am not going to present physical symbols of brands in this publication due to its limited size. This issue has been extensively discussed in literature (see [165; 211; 426]).

values, organisational culture, relationships, human capital, and the resulting quality.

In the case of library services, brand quality may be affected by three parameters: technical quality, functional quality, and emotional quality [10, p. 26; 160, p. 74]. Depending on the type of service, the role of the respective parameters may differ and their quality may be actual or perceived. The most important for library users is the quality they perceive and evaluate on the basis of subjective beliefs and impressions. Technical quality is associated with the technical parameters of a service (e.g., efficiency of the library system). Functional quality results from the type of relationships between the user and the library. It often determines the overall perception of the library. In many cases, it is the most important element of a service and influences the level of user satisfaction. Emotional quality is the consequence of impressions, opinions, and perceptions associated with a service and reflects a user's fascination with a brand. Usually, the user's emotional attitude towards a service, library, or library personnel determines his attachment to a brand. Emotional quality particularly affects the selection of library services that are auxiliary for a user; he may use them but they are not essential for him and may be substituted by services offered by other institutions, such as free time activities not associated with the user's educational or professional duties. The three brand quality parameters complement one another to form the full picture of the brand. However, their respective roles differ depending on the type of the service concerned. The low level of one parameter may be compensated for by another parameter (e.g., a poor computer system in a library may be compensated for by excellent customer service by librarians). This is confirmed by several surveys that state that if library infrastructure is negatively assessed by users, it does not necessarily affect the library's overall evaluation because the professionalism of librarians compensates for shortages in other areas [see the results of surveys presented in the chapter on library reputation and image].

Building a strong library brand requires awareness of the above process, because not every property a brand has is valuable and worth emphasising. Philip Kotler, Gary Armstrong, John Saunders, and Veronica Wong identified the following seven features that may affect brand distinction:

- importance (distinction contains an advantage valuable for library users)
- uniqueness (other organisations or libraries do not offer the particular distinction or the library offers a special distinction)
- advantage (a distinction offers a specific benefit better than other solutions)
- communicativeness (brand distinction is easy to communicate and eligible for persons using the library)
- sustainability (the features that distinguish the brand are not easy to imitate)
- accessibility (the services covered by a brand are accessible to library users[9])
- profitability (a brand yields measurable benefits for a library) [197, p. 506]

Having these properties produces the specific benefits of having a strong and recognisable brand, which include:

- increased awareness of the library and its services
- higher user loyalty
- higher number of users
- a relatively permanent and coherent image of the library associated with a specific level and quality of services
- higher employee identification with the library

For commercial companies, having a brand also means direct financial profit when selling or franchising the brand. However, such transactions are rare in libraries.

Surveys of customer perception of brand identify four basic levels of brand awareness: unawareness of brand, supported brand awareness, spontaneous (unsupported) brand awareness, and first choice brand [425, p. 50]. Unawareness of a brand means that potential and active

[9] Sometimes, services advertised by a library are not actually available. If, for example, a library may want to build its brand by claiming that it owns precious historical collections, but in fact, no such collections are available to the majority of users, even academic workers.

users are not aware of the existence of a library and cannot recognise its services, even though these services could satisfy their informational needs. Supported brand awareness means that users recognise a library and its services among other libraries and services named in a survey. Spontaneous brand awareness is when potential and actual users can identify a library or its services without any help. The highest level of brand awareness is when a library or its service is the first choice among other institutions that can satisfy reading and informational needs.

The results of numerous surveys suggest that creating strong brands, both in commercial institutions and cultural and academic institutions, builds a strong position and value. Other functions of a library brand, apart from those listed by Kotler and others, include:

- quality certification, such as emphasising the high quality of services through an individualised approach to user needs
- communicating a library's position, such as announcing that a library has the country's largest collections or the best access to electronic resources
- ensuring relevant guarantees in terms of quality of services, such as providing copies, printouts, and bibliographies
- communicating the service development process, such as a university library emphasising close cooperation with a specific group of receivers (students or academic teachers) in the service development process
- helping create mental shortcuts, symbolising the values and attributes of a service
- emphasising the continuity and inalterability of a service over a long period of time to highlight its special attributes, such as timelessness and universality
- communicating the uniqueness of a service, such as taking care of children while their parents are doing research in a university library
- promoting a library, such as by strengthening its visual identification system with the help of a brand
- making a library and its services identifiable among other institutions and services
- associating a service with a specific library, especially if it is a remote service and is provided outside the library's physical premises

The process of library brand creation is not automatic. It requires conscious and regular activities undertaken by a library both in the strategic and operational time horizons. Brand management is defined as a "creative process involving formulation of a vision of brand development and functioning […] as well as its implementation through exerting a proper impact on the environment and employees" [425, p. 89]. The chronology of the process may be as follows:

1. Analysis of the properties of a service/library in terms of its attractiveness and the features determining its competitive advantage in the information services sector
2. Determining the desired position of the brand
3. Designing the brand identity
4. Determining the function and role of the brand in the library's strategic development
5. Identifying the tools to build the library image
6. Implementing the library development strategy

It should be noted that, to create a strong brand, it is necessary to satisfy user needs. These needs may be both functional (e.g., informational needs) and emotional (e.g., the need for integration in a local society). A brand may symbolise a guarantee that user needs will be satisfied, or it may trigger new needs of which users were not aware before. Moreover, the development or depreciation of library brands is subject to external trends in the library environment. For example, the deteriorating image of a book or social underestimation of reading as a free time activity may negatively affect the value of the brands of some library services.

Because the preferences of receivers constantly change, brand management is regarded as a continuous process that involves analysis and adjustment to customer expectations to maintain the brand image. In extreme cases (usually associated with the depreciation of existing values or principles), it may become necessary to change the brand image to prevent the loss of its value.

There exist three basic strategies for creating strong brands [10, p. 30]. The first involves creating brands for products or services that are hard or impossible to imitate by other institutions. In the case of libraries, these can be either services associated with unique collections or services requiring specialist premises or personnel. There exist numerous libraries that have unique old prints or organise original courses or trainings. The second strategy is to create a simple portfolio of services for which there is a huge market demand. A typical feature of this strategy is the effect of scale, which accompanies basic information services or services associated with book lending. They are not unique but if they are disseminated in a large group of people, they build a brand that is deeply rooted in the consciousness of users, provided they meet the required quality parameters. The third strategy is to create a niche brand for a service that responds to certain specific needs that were not satisfied before. A niche brand emphasises the uniqueness of a library service and promotes its special attributes. Such a service could be the assistance of specially trained librarians in writing official letters or filling out application forms. Rare as it may be, it responds to the specific needs of a local community and supports the image of the library as an institution conscious of the needs of its environment and willing to help.

J. Altkorn observed that, depending on the number of brands an organisation creates, brand management may be classified as a one-brand or a multi-brand strategy [10]. Both strategies may be successfully used by libraries. The one-brand strategy is a better option for small libraries that offer relatively homogeneous services of similar properties and quality. However, it may also be applied by large libraries that wish to create a strong and coherent image. In this strategy, all the services are covered by the same brand, which becomes the library brand whose image is identical with the image of the institution. In this case, the attributes of the services add to the library's reputation. Consequently, there is less need for promotional activity than in the case of multiple brands. On the other hand, I cannot agree with Ewa Głuszek, who claims that this strategy "is the only feasible strategy for service providers, if the intangibility of services or inability to standardise them makes it impossible to differentiate brands" [122, p. 178]. To the contrary, services offered by one institution may have various properties or varying quality. They could be targeted to different market segments, and be recognisable in different target groups. Accordingly, the multi-brand strategy may be successfully applied by a large public library or academic library that wishes to emphasise the individual character of its services and does not have a homogeneous group of users. A single, public library's portfolio of services may indeed be diversified, including information services for small businesses, brain activation trainings for senior citizens, or fairy tale therapy for children.

Apart from the basic brand-building strategies identified by Altkorn, there is also the double-brand strategy. It involves two institutions (not necessarily two libraries) building the image of a single brand, combining their respective reputations to create a strong brand faster and more effectively. The double-brand strategy is most typically used in large projects that are too complex to be implemented by one library. It may also serve the purpose of creating the brand of library consortia, digital libraries, or library clusters.

Strong brands are a source of value for libraries, which is called brand equity. It comprises all the properties, attributes, associations, and opinions related to a brand (their medium being the brand name) that affect user decisions. Every brand has some equity, which may be positive and encourage customers to use a given service, or negative and cause a contrary effect [411, p. 46]. Brand equity is strengthened by proper brand management. The following metrics are believed to characterise strong brands and determine the level of their equity:

- customer loyalty to the brand
- brand awareness
- quality perceived by and associated with the brand by users
- brand associations
- assets related to the brand[10] [79, p. 110]

User loyalty to a library is particularly valuable because it reflects satisfaction with the library's service portfolio, quality, and benefits. It also translates into frequent use of library services and helps develop reading habits.

[10] Depending on the model, there are different listings. For example, G. Urbanek proposes to measure brand strength by analysing the following four sectors: market position (consumer preferences, brand awareness, conscious priority), relationships with customers (identification with the brand, customer loyalty, reference rate), brand perception (prestige, quality perception, value perception) and market types (see [409, p. 70–74]).

Brand strength is determined by a positive image and brand identity. Brand identity is the favourable perception of a library, which the library creates with adequate tools. It is a set of associations that, if positive, contribute to user activation and satisfaction. Philip Kotler identified six groups of associations that shape brand identity [196, p. 410–411]. In the case of libraries, the associations are:

- the attributes of services, such as friendly and attentive user assistance combined with a brief chat that helps integrate the local community with a library, or quick, efficient, and professional service in an academic library that helps save the user's time
- benefits, such as access to a unique collection offered by a library or specially designed areas for individual work
- specific values, such as fostering reading habits by participation in library classes
- national culture, for example, Scandinavian library brands are associated with extensive collections and excellent customer service
- users, such as services offered by a library for business education associated with small business and economics students, or fairy tale therapy for children with specific problems or fears;
- personality, such as open air events combining reading and sport, associated with young, active, open-minded people

Brand image is how a library is subjectively perceived and visualized by users. The image may differ, depending on the specific sector of the environment where it is analysed. It also depends on individual opinions, experiences, evaluation of, and expectations for a library. These differences are particularly visible among the users of public libraries, who are a heterogeneous group in terms of age, education, interests, and computer skills. Brand image is also affected by library reputation integrated with its services and the user's self-image. The way a user sees himself (as a modern or conservative person, literate or not, demanding or tolerant) affects his choice of services. He bases his choices on his evaluation of the properties of a service, and how and where the service is provided. For some users it is important that the image of a service is similar to their image of themselves. For example, teenagers, for whom the opinion of their peers is extremely important, refuse to use libraries, which they believe to be unattractive, outdated, and unfashionable. On the other hand, they are happy to use institutions that are modern, cool, and approved by their age group. Also, an expressive brand image helps distinguish a service from similar services offered by other institutions.

Image is the reflection of a brand in the user's awareness. It is created by such elements as recognition, prestige, uniqueness, and respect. To maintain a strong and coherent brand image, a library should:

- build a consistent and possibly unchangeable representation of the brand (including via the Internet)
- maintain respect of values that are crucial for the library and its users, which the image highlights
- avoid changes in the brand's representation
- emphasise the brand's distinguishing features
- communicate with the environment and users in a way that highlights the attributes and reliability of the brand

On the other hand, the brand's position may be weakened by a number of factors. The most important of these are:

- significant change in the nature of a service
- significant change in the properties of a service (e.g., a sharp drop in quality)
- changing the name of a service, which makes it hard to identify for users
- changes that are contrary to the values and principles that users associate with the library (e.g., introducing high fees for services)
- appearance of negative associations with the brand
- lack of coherence in the brand marking
- applying the brand to too many different services, which blurs its image

The literature identifies six types of brand images: ritual brand, symbolic brand, heritage brand, snobbish brand, brand of affiliation, and legendary brand [10, p. 44–46]. Since there is little interest among libraries in developing their own brands, the existing library brands are not very diversified and some of the listed images are rare or non-existent in the case of libraries (such as the snobbish image). Also, library customers are not particularly interested in library brands and categorise them more generally as good or bad, modern or old-fashioned. Nonetheless, some of the listed brand types do exist in libraries. The most important may be the brand of affiliation, which emphasises bonds among a group of people affiliated to a brand who share common goals, values, culture, and styles of behaviour. They are attached to a specific library not only as a group of users but also as an integrated community that actively participates in common projects. Another type of a brand that exists in libraries is the symbolic brand, which is said to "represent a specific model of consumption" [10, p. 44]. In the case of commercial companies, it is usually associated with luxury goods that suggest the prosperity and high status of the buyer. However, in libraries it symbolises a certain lifestyle and emphasises the values appreciated by a user. These values could be fascination with literature, culture, art, and science. They could also be things that are not directly linked with libraries but are incorporated in some of their services, such as taking care of physical fitness. A user with this value would enjoy that libraries sometimes organise football tournaments, bicycle rallies, or location-based games. The ritual brand is associated with special occasions, such as Christmas, Easter, Library Week, school days, and many other events and the services. Many libraries organise special cycles of shows, exhibitions, lectures, or classes specifically to celebrate moments that are particularly important for the communities associated with the given library. This becomes a kind of a ritual. Legendary brands are the brands of libraries or library services of historical or legendary significance, such as the Bodleian Library, the Library of Congress, or the Vatican Library. The heritage brand has similar connotations—it is associated with rich traditions and an important value contributed by a given brand. Heritage brands usually belong to large libraries that have played a major role in the development of librarianship and information services.

Depending on the intensity of functional and symbolic (emotional) components, brands may also be classified as nondescript brands, particularly useful brands, user personification brands, and "pearl" brands [425, p. 44]. As the name suggest, the least valuable are nondescript brands characterised by a low level of functional and symbolic value. They are vague and quickly blur in users' memory. Unfortunately, many libraries, due to insufficient funds and other means, create indistinct services that are used by the local community only if absolutely needed or for lack of better options. The second type, the particularly useful brand, is relatively common in libraries that focus on the quality and reliability of services. Such brands offer a high level of functionality and limited emotional benefits. On the other hand, user personification brands focus on symbolic benefits, while their functional value is average. Such services are targeted to those users for whom a library not only enables access to literature but, more importantly, is a place where they can socialise, learn, entertain, and spend their free time—an attractive and friendly public space. Pearl brands are relatively rare and they signify both an outstanding functionality of a service and its multiple symbolic attributes. A library that provides its users with both kinds of benefits is, for example, the Metropolitan Ervin Szabó Library in Budapest. It is highly esteemed by users for the high quality of its services, extensive book collections, and competent staff. At the same time, because of the uniqueness of its historical interiors, it is a privilege and pleasure for users to visit the library, which is located in the renovated Wenckheim Palace and uses its original furniture. Some users have described it as "a magical place and the pleasure of being there is almost ecstatic."

The literature emphasises that service providers with strong brands usually have a transparent mission and a hierarchy of sustainable values traditionally associated with them [347, p. 180]. Thus, brands are an expression of organisational identity and the effect of an organisational strategy. A library brand should be based on the library's experience, competencies, and foundations, as well as the quality of team work, which is the result of the joint efforts of library staff. Brands relying only on marketing activities are shallow and short-lived.

Just as with reputation, a brand may be created by using a number of instruments. If a library wishes to influence the behaviour of users in association with the development of its brands, it can:

- change users' notions of how their needs may be satisfied
- change users' notions of the attractiveness of library services in the context of available substitutes
- change users' notions of the functioning of libraries and their character on the service market

- change the priority of service evaluation criteria
- focus users' attention on the factors they should consider when evaluating a service that they normally disregard [139, p. 134]

In commercial institutions, products are not branded if their economic or emotional value is limited. Until recently, branding was extremely rare in libraries. However, due to growing competition in the information services sectors, libraries are starting to create their image and make their services recognisable. According to A. Jazdon, "attentiveness to building the library brand and ensuring its high organisational quality and a top level of its services, which translates into its recognition on the market and its being associated with a guarantee of a high-level brand (class), is not only possible but also necessary" [160, p. 78]. In my survey, 24 % of library directors confirmed that their libraries have a separate brand. These are either brands of specific library services, recognisable in the library's environment, or brands of the library as a whole. Most brands are represented by logos to make them identifiable and distinguishable. Also, 66 % of middle-level managers believe that it is reasonable for libraries to create brands, 20 % are not sure, and 11 % are against branding due to the belief that effort required to create a brand would not be balanced by any benefits a brand may yield for the library. Finally, 5 % believe that branding is limited to commercial institutions.

In summary, it should be noted that the brand is one of the intangible resources of a library that affect, for example, its strategy, intellectual property, and, most importantly, its reputation. By shaping users' notions not only of a specific service, but also of the entire library, the brand helps create its image. Although some might claim that branding is not reasonable or timely in libraries, the role of tools that highlight library image and identity will grow as libraries are forced to build a strong position and develop services that are recognisable in the environment.

3.5 Adaptability and Innovation

Adaptability and innovation are new values in libraries. For ages, these institutions have been regarded as pillars of knowledge and tradition, characterised by stability, continuity, and inalterability. These properties guaranteed the survival of ephemeral human thoughts recorded in books and meticulously preserved by subsequent generations of librarians. It was not until the second half of the twentieth century that libraries were forced to innovate and quickly adjust to the changing needs of their environment. It turned out that adaptability was the condition of survival and innovation and was a factor necessary for library development.

It is believed that the concept of innovation was introduced to contemporary management theory by the Austrian economist Joseph Alois Schumpeter, who understood it as a fundamental change leading to ideological transformation and generating added value. Previously, innovation had been associated with biological sciences and the transformation of the natural environment. Innovation with reference to organisations became a popular topic in late twentieth century along with the appearance of the term "innovative economy," which signified an unprecedented intensification of intellectual services based on competencies, intangible resources, and innovation. The fact that innovation was recognised as a factor determining the development of organisations and entire societies led to the integration of a number of competencies and research approaches. One such approach that has recently been very popular in library science is the learning organisation theory proposed by Peter Senge [360]. In resource-based theory, innovation is one of the four factors affecting competitive advantage. According to Jacek Rybicki and Beata Pawłowska, the factors are:

1. organisational learning processes
2. relationships with customers and partners
3. core competencies
4. **innovation** [351, p. 119]

Figure 3.6 presents the interdependencies between the respective factors.

Innovation, in the broadest meaning of the term, signifies creative changes in the economy, science, culture, and nature. It may be analysed on a global scale or on the level of a country, region, organisation or team, or as individual creativity. Innovation may concern methods, processes,

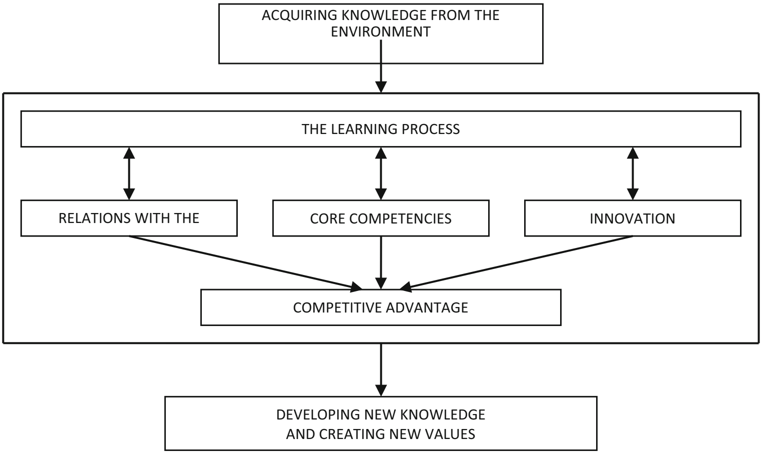

Fig. 3.6 Selected elements of intellectual capital and their contribution to competitive advantage. *Source*: Adapted from J. RYBICKI, B. PAWŁOWSKA. Kapitał intelektualny jako podstawa budowy przewagi konkurencyjnej. In E. OKOŃ-HORODYŃSKA, R. WISŁA (ed.). *Kapitał intelektualny i jego ochrona*. Warszawa, 2009, p. 119

structures, behaviour, cultures, attitudes, competencies, or approaches. In every case, innovation has social connotations because it responds to human needs or contributes to their creation by developing new relationships, ways of thinking, opinions, and social relations. Social innovation is to a large extent oriented towards the development of culture, science, and education. In praxeological terms, innovation is the "transformation of a creative idea into a useful good or service, or action method" [287, p. 15]. The library science literature defines innovation as a "purposeful change in the structure or functioning of an institution involving replacement of a specific state of affairs with another, more advanced state of affairs" [80, p. 55]. The innovation process in a library is defined as "the whole of activities necessary to prepare the implementation and practical application of new solutions in terms of customer service as well as organisation, management, economics and technology of library processes, etc." [141, p. 91]. Thus, innovation is marked by novelty and progress (creativity).

Adaptability, which is the foundation of innovation, is defined as a "proportional reaction of one variable to a minor change in another variable" [311, p. 107]. In economic sciences it usually refers to the supply and demand processes associated with production and services. Defined as such, the term may be used in the context of library services and, in particular, the adjustment to the specific needs and demand of the environment. The literature also defines adaptability as the ability to initiate and implement changes in the existing rules and principles to better adjust to market needs and expectations of the environment. In other words, it is the ability to effectively react to changes and disturbances within a library and in its environment and treat them not as threats, but rather as opportunities for new measures and their verification on the market [311, p. 109]. As such, adaptability is associated with openness to changes and being pro-innovative. Both theories will be discussed below.

Innovation is a synthesis of ideas, knowledge, and creativity which, when combined, translate into new products, services, and processes [454, p. 167]. Numerous studies confirm beyond any doubt that innovations are the driving force of developed societies and are a condition of their growth. The development of an organisation is also conditioned by a flexible approach to changes in the environment and implementation of innovations. To be competitive, organisations, including libraries, must improve their competencies in this area. Libraries may have a dual role in the innovation process. Libraries may be the source of innovations related to their own activity or they may be an element of a larger innovation system extending to companies (manufacturers, service providers, traders, financial institutions), research and development centres (research institutes, universities), institutions promoting technology transfer (business incubators, science and technology parks, technology transfer centres) and libraries as institutions ensuring access to knowledge resources. In this book, I focus on the first approach, in which the innovation and adaptability of a library are regarded as its intangible resources and abilities that help strengthen the library's position in the environment.

Adaptability and innovation are proof that an organisation is mature, has extensive knowledge, and is capable of acquiring and processing new knowledge. Innovation is the effect of invention, which is the product of knowledge. Innovativeness is the consequence of the library's innovative potential, which, apart from knowledge, also includes financial, physical, human, and material potential.

Innovation is a highly subjective category. It should be analysed in the context of specific institutions because a change that is innovative for one library is not always so for another organisation. A library is innovative if it:

- understands the need for creative changes and has the capacity and motivation to implement them
- introduces organisational improvements
- offers new services (diversifies its service portfolio)
- updates work organisation
- introduces new services or improves the existing services
- develops as a result of adopting an innovative strategy

It may be assumed, in general terms, that the effect of innovation in a library is better processes or services.

The adaptability and innovation of a library are determined by its internal and external conditions. External conditions are associated with the impact of the micro and macro environments involving social, cultural, technical, economic, legal, political, and international conditions, as well as the impact of users, suppliers, partners, competitors, and regulators. Internal conditions depend on the library's tangible and intangible resources, its personnel, managers, organisational structure, profile, and size (see [437, p. 51–56]).

It is believed that the environment may have a direct or indirect impact on library innovation. Direct impact is usually caused by the micro environment, which formulates its expectations of the library. For example, users may propose new services or changes to existing services, media suppliers require compliance with certain standards, and administrative authorities expect innovation that will support achievement of their strategic goals. Indirect impact is usually associated with the macro environment, which sets new paths for development, such as new technical standards that libraries should consider when planning various aspects of their activity, legislative changes (e.g., concerning copyright) that can affect the planning of innovative knowledge distribution projects, economic transformations, and so on.

Innovations may be implemented in a library using the library's own or external means. The latter is called diffusion of innovation. The choice of the particular path depends on the conditions in which a given library operates. The advantage of the diffusion of innovation is that a library may acquire solutions that have already been tested and that may better prepare it for changes, and that the costs of innovation are lower. On the other hand, the major disadvantage of this method is that libraries, by imitating existing innovations, are in fact a few years behind institutions that apply pioneering solutions. If, however, a library does not have sufficient funds to develop, adopting the achievements of other organisations may be a reasonable solution.

In the context of applying the library's own streamlining solutions, there exist certain personal and impersonal factors that help generate innovation. The most important of them are:

- library directors and managers
- active personnel
- internal innovation-stimulating mechanisms
- external innovation-supporting programmes
- scientific conferences, meetings, exhibitions, fairs
- courses and trainings
- contracts with university workers associated with library sciences
- stimuli from the environment
- other libraries (as collaborators or competitors)
- specialist literature
- legal regulations and standards [437, p. 49]

Among the sources of innovation, the most important are users and the library environment declaring demand for specific types and forms of services. Depending on the degree of library users' expectations of new services, innovations may be divided into:

- expected innovations,[11] (i.e., those that satisfy the needs users are aware of, such as adding the electronic reminder option to the library system, long awaited by users)

[11] Some authors claim that libraries focus mainly on changes enforced by the external environment, which are expected innovations [58, p. 101].

- complementary innovations that enable an additional or new application of existing services, such as extending the library training programme
- super innovations that trigger needs that users were not aware of (e.g., equipping multi-centres with mini laboratories for interactive presentations for students, which was a huge surprise for library users and increased their interest in library services)

Focusing on one of the above three types of innovations, libraries decide on a specific strategy: strategy of delayed adjustment to changes taking place in the environment (for expected innovations), strategy of anticipating possible changes and preparing suitable scenarios (for complementary innovations), or strategy of creating changes (for super innovations).

Authors propose many different classifications of innovations, the most general being a division into external and internal innovations. Jacek Wojciechowski classified the following innovations as external: innovations involving service portfolios, methods of operation, network organisation and location, service structures, and promotional programmes. According to him, the internal innovations of libraries are innovations involving human resources, technologies, and back office structures [444, p. 89]. Table 3.11 presents a detailed review of innovation possibilities in libraries, divided into the seven most important areas.

Innovations may be divided on the basis of their object into: product-related, process-related, organisation-related, marketing-related, and technical categories. The literature presents multiple other classifications of innovations and changes based on various criteria, but I do not discuss them in this book. Table 3.12 presents a short summary of the different types of changes and criteria of their classification. Many of these changes, because of the creative character that improves the effectiveness of library activity, may be classified as innovation. An innovation is a change, but not every change is innovative.

Libraries, the same as other institutions, should implement systems that initiate innovation. Such systems should both increase the adaptability of libraries by monitoring changes in the environment and motivating library workers to develop innovations, and enable full implementation and maintenance of innovations. It is vital that such processes be continuous and engage all library workers. Libraries,

Table 3.11 Review of innovation possibilities in libraries

Verifying and updating main assumptions: • accelerating the development of information systems • verifying priority functions • supporting education • intensifying proactive projects
Modifying the programme: • new forms and scopes of services • intensifying information services • optimising the repertoire of work with the user • developing promotional activities • adjusting the portfolio to the social education programme
Improving the functioning: • adjusting the organisation of services (location and time of service provision) to the requirements of the environment • implementing a programme for serving disabled clients • improving cooperation between libraries
Modernising the network: • verifying the arrangement and size of the network • modifying the coupling of the main library with its branches • updating the principles of segmentation and specialisation
Analysing the internal structure: • maintaining or modifying the basic assumptions of the structural division • establishing new service and back office units, if needed • verifying and replacing the personnel
Updating resources: • extending the repertoire of media • selecting and collecting resources on the basis of the anticipated demand
Modernising the technology: • analysing the possibilities of modernising and automating the processes • computer program

Source: Adapted from J. WOJCIECHOWSKI. *Marketing w bibliotece*. Warszawa, 1993, p 99

because of the nature of their activity, do not have a structuralised innovation process. Instead, it is an informal process and typical research and development projects are rare. Libraries usually transfer new technologies and solutions, focusing on innovations associated with relationships with users. The creativity of librarians may be threefold:

1. targeted on actual and potential users by customising literature and various forms of work to their needs

Table 3.12 Types of changes in libraries and their environment

Division criteria	Change type
Degree	• reproduction • transformation
Nature	• adaptive • innovative
Scope of change	• partial (minor) • complex • overall (comprehensive)
Method of implementation	• evolutional • revolutionary
Continuity of process	• gradual • breakthrough
Size	• small • medium • large
Range	• internal • external
Object	• technology • processes and structures • people
Duration	• short • medium • long
Source	• internal • external
Motivation	• voluntary • obligatory
Intentionality	• unplanned (unintentional) • planned
Complexity	• individual • combined
Originality	• original (creative) • unoriginal (non-creative)
Physical representation	• tangible • intangible
Structure	• introducing new elements • combining • dividing • replacing • eliminating
Streamlining activities	• building • improving • correcting • transforming

(*continued*)

Table 3.12 (continued)

Division criteria	Change type
Response to changes in the environment	• reactive • anticipatory
Effect	• development (progress) • stagnation • regression
Costs	• low budget • high budget
Changes in the environment	• psychological • social • cultural • political • economic • technical

Source: Adapted from M. WOJCIECHOWSKA. *Zarządzanie zmianami w bibliotece*. Warszawa, 2006, s. 37

2. targeted on the librarians' own working methods, which should be reliable and continuously upgraded
3. targeted on the professional development of librarians and dissemination of their experiences to the benefit of the library [16, p. 135]

All three levels seem equally important and necessary for the development of libraries.

Regular development and implementation of innovations is associated with the concept of innovation management, which may be incorporated within the framework of a library's innovation strategy. Innovation management may be defined as a set of systematic activities (planning, organising, leading, controlling) focusing on the library resources (human, physical, financial, and informational) undertaken to achieve developmental goals. These activities should enable acquisition, development, implementation, promotion, and dissemination of innovations in a systematic way that is in accordance with the library's development strategy and the legal, financial, social, environmental, administrative, structural, and technical conditions [30, p. 232–233]. Some authors suggest that the innovation management process should consist of four stages: analysing the micro and macro environments, selecting innovative projects, ensuring means and tools to implement a given innovative project, and implementing an innovative service, process, or added value [329, p. 467–468]. However, there are many alternative (simpler or more complex) models proposed in the literature (see [97; 287]). From a broader perspective involving not only innovation implementation but also the entire change management process, the following stages of activities may be identified:

- specifying the object of changes
- defining the purpose of changes
- identifying the area of changes
- surveying the attitude of library workers and users to the planned changes
- determining relevant rights and competencies
- determining responsibilities
- determining the time frame and the respective stages of the project
- deciding on the methods of communicating pending changes and trainings to library workers and users
- identifying the methods of stimulating cooperation of the library's entire personnel as well as its environment in the change process
- performing financial plans and identifying the means necessary to implement the change process
- determining work methods
- forecasting (evaluating) the results of changes
- planning an alternative project if the existing plan fails (for more information, see [437, p. 79–89])

Analysis of the macro and micro environments provides information about the purposefulness of introducing specific changes in libraries. The reasons for innovation may be both the needs of library users or workers and changes in the library's immediate and more distant environments. Innovations are usually dictated by the desire to:

- satisfy a certain area of needs existing in the environment
- ensure the development of a library and library users
- improve the working conditions
- increase a library's effectiveness [437, p. 78]

By analysing whether changes are indeed reasonable, libraries avoid over-innovation, or in other words, introducing solutions for which there is no demand and which generate costs and stress among the receivers of services and the library personnel.

Selection of innovative projects involves, among other things, determining the level of library resources and the organisational potential required to implement a project. It is important to choose projects that will use the available potential (human, physical, financial, and intangible resources) to generate as many benefits as possible.

The last phase of innovation management incorporates the stages of project development, review (correction), implementation, and control. If the implementation process is performed in the right way, it should result in added value, higher quality, or lower costs, as is shown in Fig. 3.7.

None of the numerous innovation management methods identified in the literature is recommended as the most suitable. Each library should individually choose the tools it will use to design innovations. Every institution operates in a unique environment and has its unique resources, character, size, specificity, and experience. It is important to properly diagnose the possibilities and obstacles of a given library and the trends existing in its environment, and then make an informed selection of the most appropriate forms of action.

INNOVATION AS A PROCESS					
Idea	Innovative project development	Project review (correction)	Implementation	Monitoring and improvement	Result: Added value and/or Higher quality and/or Lower costs

TOOLS SUPPORTING INNOVATION							
TQM	ISO 9000	Benchmarking	Reengineering	EFQM	CAF model	Lean Management	Other

INVESTMENTS SUPPORTING INNOVATION					
Investing in library personnel in order to develop intellectual capital and pro-innovative culture	Developing and modernising the infrastructure	Investing in conservation and research laboratories	Investing in computer software and hardware	Investing in library users and environment in order to ensure full implementation and use of innovative services	Investing in a quality management system and marketing

Fig. 3.7 Library innovations. *Source*: Elaboration based on T. WAWAK. Innowacje a zarządzanie w szkole wyższej. In E. OKOŃ-HORODYŃSKA, R. WISŁA (ed.). *Kapitał intelektualny i jego ochrona*. Warszawa, 2009, p. 246

A library's innovation and adaptability is to a large extent dependent on the creativity of its personnel. Creativity can be stimulated by making workers aware of a need for changes, creating proper conditions for their implementation, and motivating the personnel on various levels. The creativity of librarians as a stimulant of innovation is gaining interest among both management personnel and librarians [58; 107; 330]. Analyses are undertaken to identify tools that support creativity and increase the effectiveness of library personnel. It is believed that designing innovations through teamwork is more effective than individually. Some even propose establishing innovation teams dedicated to the development, implementation, and monitoring of innovations. The underlying principles of such teams include:

- selecting creative and dynamic team members who think prospectively
- having the team coordinated by a person with extensive professional experience but who is ready for change (even fundamental), and is a good negotiator
- building a positive and creative working atmosphere in the team
- being innovation-oriented, rather than evaluation-oriented
- having the support of library directors but at the same time limiting their impact on the decisions made by the team
- having directors and managers ensure proper conditions for the team to work (organisational, physical, technical, and financial) and implement the projects that are good for the library
- proactively ensuring support for pending projects among the library personnel

The most important requirements for effective implementation of innovations and innovation management include:

- diagnosing the innovations that are of key importance for the functioning of a library
- defining the added value for library users generated by the library's innovativeness or specific innovations
- full support of library managers for the innovation processes

- communicating the planned changes to the personnel and ensuring their support or commitment, or at least lack of resistance
- integrating innovations with the library strategy
- ability and willingness of the library personnel to learn, absorb new knowledge, and gain new professional competencies

The innovation management process is not always harmonious and can be disturbed by a number of obstacles, such as:

- economic barriers associated with the lack of funds to develop and implement innovations (one of the major reasons that hinder innovations in libraries)
- psychosocial barriers caused by the lack of motivation, knowledge, and awareness of the purposefulness of library innovations, reflected in the attitudes and behaviour of workers
- opportunistic barriers (e.g., library managers and personnel adopt a conformist attitude and limit their professional activity to what is necessary only)
- quality barriers reflected in a low quality of work, library services, and library management processes
- organisational barriers manifested in the lack of relevant structures and methods of management, and a rigid organisational structure
- technical barriers caused by the lack of adequate technology (e.g., computer hardware and software)
- informational barriers caused by the lack of know-how and information about the library environment and the needs of library users
- legal barriers imposed by existing legal provisions and standards

Some barriers underlying the behaviour and expectations of librarians are extremely important in the innovative process because they distort or even disrupt it. Examples could be habits, routines, fear of the unknown, loss of status, deeply rooted problem-solving, and self-evaluation patterns [58, p. 101]. These barriers may be caused by group or individual reactions. Below are some examples of individual resistance to the innovative process:

- the right of defiance—unwillingness to disrupt the existing order and a tendency to restore the former status quo
- inertness of habits—numbness of behaviour and a drive to restore the disturbed balance
- cognitive dissonance—avoiding information and situations that do not conform with one's own beliefs
- the ethos of sticking to one's own opinions—blocking new solutions just because they do not correspond to one's own experience and cause anxiety about the future
- focusing on what is certain rather than on what is possible
- defensive self-consciousness—fear of losing prestige and reputation, and of deterioration of one's own image
- emergency situation associated with the fear of losing one's job or position and characterized by the reduction of motivation, aspirations, and ambitions [312, p. 72]

A separate group of factors that hinder innovations in libraries are barriers posed by the management personnel. These include:

- the threat of losing one's position
- fewer benefits
- limited power
- the need to gain and improve competencies
- the need to undertake new tasks
- quality management requirements
- deteriorated working conditions
- low level of organisational culture
- reduced area of impact [354, p. 87]

As Russell Palmer, a businessman and dean of the prestigious Wharton School, observed, "in general, people do not mind change as long as it does not affect them" [301, p. 29].

Recently, there has been a growing interest in library innovations. According to relevant surveys, some managers of these institutions realise the need to develop innovation systems. For example, the Library of the University of Lower Silesia in Wrocław has implemented an efficient innovation system with a separate budget and a document specifying the terms and conditions of project financing. An analysis of the organisational structures of Polish libraries shows a tendency among libraries to create special positions to promote innovation. The University Library in Toruń, for example, has created the position of Deputy Director for Information and Innovation. Also, libraries organise conferences and trainings dedicated to the library community about innovation and adaptability.

However, the available literature presents individual innovations libraries implement, rather than comprehensive innovation systems. According to five librarianship periodicals (*Archiwa, Biblioteki i Muzea Kościelne; Biblioteki; Bibliotekarza; Przeglądu Bibliotecznego; Toruńskich Studiów Bibliologicznych*) published between 2009 and 2013, the most common innovations implemented by libraries are introducing new forms of services beyond traditional book lending, implementing new management tools, and installing new computer software (Table 3.13).

Despite a number of publications describing library innovation projects, this area has not yet been sufficiently researched and presented. The available papers discuss case studies of specific libraries or postulate desirable innovations. However, thorough and comprehensive research into the actual condition of library innovation is lacking. In a survey I conducted in 2014, 70 % of library directors asked about the innovativeness of their organisations said that it was average and similar to that of other libraries. Some 19 % thought that it was higher than in other libraries and 11 % thought that it was lower. However, it must be noted that the survey was based on subjective impressions and evaluation of management personnel. Up to 62 % of libraries have not yet implemented systems promoting innovation (initiated by library personnel or by users). Only 1 % of libraries have implemented a formal tool to implement new solutions. On the other hand, 37 % of directors declared that their libraries had an informal innovation management system. According to directors, innovations in libraries are most often initiated by library managers (58 %), library workers (30 %) or, less frequently, by the administrating authority or users (6 %). Surveys conducted among users also confirm that this

Table 3.13 Library projects and innovations presented in librarianship periodicals between 2009 and 2013

Innovation[a]	Number of Articles
Innovative product (service)	
New forms of book lending (e.g., mobile libraries, special user groups, free access to library collections)	5
New services promoting culture and book reading (e.g., meetings with authors, exhibitions, shows, festivals)	16
New electronic services (e.g., ordering electronic copies of documents, chats, blogs, messengers)	4
New forms of library trainings (e-learning, blended learning)	4
New forms of educational activities	8
Repositories and digital libraries	4
New forms of on-the-job training for library science students	1
Innovative processes	
Changes in search and information languages	5
Bibliometrics innovations	1
Reorganisation of processes or structures	2
Organisational innovations	
New or proposed standards	2
New management methods and techniques	10
Marketing innovations	
Implementing visual identifications systems or their elements	1
Library activity in social networks	2
New marketing programmes	2
Technological innovations	
New computer systems in libraries	8
Digital archiving of library collections	4
New library software	14
New hardware (scanners, computers, users, photocopiers, self-return machines, self-check systems)	5
Construction or modernisation of library buildings	7

Source: Own elaboration

[a]In some classifications, innovative products and services are treated as technological innovations. Considering the specificity of library innovations, technological innovations constitute a separate category in this table, covering all changes associated with the introduction of new technologies to libraries. If a specific innovation could be classified as both a technological innovation and a new service (e.g., introduction of trainings in an e-learning system), the prevailing approach in the relevant article is decisive

group rarely initiates innovations. Users sporadically declared to have contributed to an innovation or change. Innovations are not rare in Polish libraries. Many were implemented during the last year (60 %) or the last five years (26 %). Only 3 % of libraries introduced an innovation during the last 10 years, and 11 % did not know when or whether they did that. Directors declared that these innovations involved new services (68 % of libraries that implemented innovations), improved services (52 %), technological changes (52 %), marketing activities (33 %), and improvements in internal library structures or organisational changes (28 %). Economic barriers were indicated as the major obstacle to introducing innovations in libraries, according to 68 % of respondents. Other reasons were much less important. The results are presented in Table 3.14. Also, respondents claimed that increased project financing would contribute the most to stimulating innovations in libraries (69 % of respondents).

To sum up the above deliberations on adaptability and innovation in libraries, it should be noted that they are to a large extent dependent on other intangible assets. Thus, the conditions to implement successful innovations are human capital supported by creative leadership, effective communication and proactive organisational structure (a culture of innovation), and the ability to develop creative strategies. Innovation may protect libraries against competition from services or media that marginalise the social role of books. Although libraries are the kind of institutions that do not generate many innovations—this is not the purpose or nature of their activity—they must maintain a certain level of changes that will guarantee that their services are attractive and up to date, which will satisfy high social expectations. Unfortunately, stimulation of innovations in libraries through national and regional policies is currently highly unsatisfactory.

Poland is much behind other European Union (EU) Member States in terms of the level of innovation. This is reflected in the rate of reported inventions, public expenditure on R&D, ratio of university graduates in various age groups, and participation in lifelong learning.[12] The Summary

[12] For example, the number of inventions reported to the European Patent Office per one million inhabitants is 4.2 in Poland, while in the EU it is 128. The ratio of public expenditure on R&D in GDP is 0.39 % in Poland, while in the EU it is 0.65 %. The percentage of persons aged between 25 and 64 who participate in adult education in Poland is 4.7 %, while in the EU it is 9.6 % [459, p. 112].

Table 3.14 Barriers and stimuli for innovations in libraries

Barriers	Percentage of responses	Stimuli	Percentage of responses
Economic barriers	66	Increased project financing	69
Psychosocial barriers caused by lack of motivation or unawareness of the need for change	9	Better access to information about innovations introduced by more modern libraries	9
Opportunistic barriers, if the personnel adopt a conformist attitude and limit their professional activity to what is necessary only	9	Better training of librarians to enable them to design innovations	6
Technical barriers caused by a lack of adequate technology, such as computer hardware and software and other facilities	8	Closer cooperation between libraries through networks, clusters, and consortia	5
Organisational barriers manifested in a lack of relevant structures and methods of management, and a rigid organisational structure	3	More pressure from users and the environment	5
Informational barriers caused by a lack of know-how and information about the library environment and the needs of library users	3	Cooperation with institutions from other sectors to share experiences	2
Legal barriers imposed by the existing legal provisions and standards	3	Closer cooperation with library science institutions in the area of designing innovation	1
		More possibilities to go on foreign scholarships	1

Source: Own elaboration

Innovation Index (SII) classified Poland in the last group of "modest innovators," behind "innovation leaders," "innovation followers," and "moderate innovators." Poland ranked alongside such states as Romania, Bulgaria, and Latvia. According to the authors of the *European Innovation Scoreboard 2013*, Poland may need 20 more years to reach the EU average [103]. Because of these unsatisfactory indicators, it seems extremely important to activate libraries and develop models of activity that would fill the numerous gaps and support the learning process. Research shows that the educational gap is growing between social groups, and the rate of participation in adult education is still much lower in Poland (4.7 %) than in other EU Member States, such as Denmark (29.9 %) or the UK (26.6 %) [459, p. 113]. Thus, innovative leadership focused on specific social goals may play a major role, especially if it becomes possible to prepare individualised services dedicated to specific user groups who need special assistance, similar to what is done in municipal libraries that offer IT assistance for senior citizens.

3.6 Networks and Consortia

The ability of libraries to establish cooperation with other institutions has always been an important competency. Libraries started exchanging publications in the eighteenth century, although initially such exchange was not systematic or coordinated [226, p. 10]. Depending on changes in and the nature of the environment, various forms of cooperation developed. The market economy simultaneously loosened formal library networks and forced libraries to establish partnerships with a broad range of institutions, not just libraries.

Such cooperation may be twofold: on the one hand, there are formal structures with transparent rules and principles such as library consortia or clusters, and on the other hand, there are various networks of informal groups, called "soft alliances" by Low and Kalafut [250, p. 114]. In this context, human capital may be perceived in a collective dimension as social capital embedded in a network of connections. In the social context, it is an element (node) of a social network. The role of the library is positioned in the social context by Małgorzata Kisilowska, for one [179].

Both forms of cooperation help build relational capital, which stimulates knowledge sharing and the acquisition of new competencies and capabilities.

Cooperation between libraries is defined as "purposeful collaboration between fewer or more libraries involving the handling and lending of library collections, academic information, research and educational papers, and publishing activity, etc. in order to increase the range and effectiveness of library services in a way that is economically reasonable" [118, p. 307].

The diversity of strategic liaisons of libraries is associated with their position in a competitive and dynamically changing environment. Libraries, just like other institutions, establish various relationships with other organisations to strengthen their own position. No organisation is fully self-sufficient, and the demand for library services offered as a result of interinstitutional activity is growing. Collaboration with other institutions enables libraries to implement tasks that are beyond their individual possibilities and generates the scale effect. Libraries may enter into various agreements with a number of partners, and their duration may depend on multiple factors, such as:

- implementing goals defined by a library and its partners
- achieving benefits that are proportionate to input and effort and in line with the terms of an agreement
- generating benefits that would not be possible without a partnership agreement
- having expectations associated with long-term (future) benefits

Interinstitutional relationships may be territory-related, subject-matter-related, or task-related (ad hoc), vertical or horizontal, bilateral or multilateral. The most common types of cooperation between libraries include networks, consortia, strategic alliances, clusters, foundations, and associations.

The first of the above forms of cooperation—networks—is defined by organisational theory either as "self-organising systems without borders" or intentional networks "covering groups of organisations, where each has a specific role" [350, p. 80]. Traditional library networks have a highly formalised and hierarchical structure of cooperation, where one institution is dominant. Networks of equal partners are less frequent.[13] The most important are networks of school libraries, public libraries, and, in some countries, pedagogical libraries, although this list is by no means exhaustive. Library networks may be characterised by such parameters as the number of libraries in a network or uniformity, diameter, density, or concentration of a network. On the other hand, the role of libraries is increasingly often analysed in the context of the creation of nodes in social networks. Such nodes lack a fixed structure and constantly change [179]. The main goal of both self-organising and intentional networks is to create bilateral relationships with the library environment. One type of cooperation directed at marketing processes is a marketing network that, according to Kotler, is one of the assets of an organisation and covers the organisation itself as well as its suppliers, distributors, and customers with whom it builds lasting relationships. A marketing network is the effect of activities undertaken within the framework of relationships marketing [196].

Another model of library cooperation is a consortium, one of the most popular forms of partner relationships—there are 159 library consortia registered in International Coalition of Library Consortia (ICOLC). This form of interinstitutional cooperation usually serves the purpose of implementing a specific project that requires substantial funding beyond the financial possibilities of an individual library. Legally, consortia are not economic entities and as such they need not be registered. They are established on the basis of an agreement between partners who remain independent in matters that are not covered by the agreement but implement a joint policy with respect to the object of the agreement. Consortia are usually established to implement a more advantageous purchasing policy (books, periodicals, databases), shared catalogues, databases and digital libraries, and a more effective lending of collections. They are either closed (limited to a certain group or type of libraries) or open. Their operating methods and structures are very diversified; they may be local, regional, national or international, functional, or related to a

[13] For example, a network of pedagogical libraries may be hierarchical if it consists of a regional library with local branches; parallel with a coordinator if one of the libraries in a region coordinates the other libraries; or parallel without a coordinator if libraries are independent and joint activities are coordinated by means of, for example, agreements between their directors [415, p. 23].

specific subject matter. Some authors regard them as a form of a strategic alliance [284, p. 163; 348, p. 92].

Strategic alliances are defined as "relationships between parties that help achieve their common goals" [91, p. 98]. They are long-term agreements between libraries from the same sector or with institutions that have a completely different model and area of operation, such as commercial organisations. The parties to such agreements remain separate institutions and cooperate as partners to receive benefits commensurate to the contributions made. Strategic alliances became popular in the late 1980s, when increasing competition and changes in the environment forced various institutions to cooperate to strengthen their potential. The characteristic features of alliances are, among other things, the fragmentary nature of activities (cooperation between libraries concerns only a part of their activity), transfer of tangible and intangible resources between partners, focus on specific objectives, liaising only with those partners that increase the chances of achieving the goals, and differentiation of relations (alliances may comprise elements of both cooperation and competition).

Another form of cooperation that libraries engage in is a cluster. The theory of clusters is relatively young. It was described first by Michael Porter in 1990, but it quickly attracted the interest of innovative libraries. Clusters are geographic groups of interconnected institutions that share a specific profile. They may consist not only of libraries but also of specialist suppliers, partners and supporting organisations, or institutions offering similar services. Clusters may involve both cooperation and competition. Unlike networks, members of a cluster have similar but not identical goals. These structures are focused on acquiring new partners that have the desired competencies and specialties. They are founded on common values, trust, knowledge, and resource sharing. Many clusters are affected by geographic conditions (e.g., access to infrastructure, transport), historical factors (e.g., traditional institutional models in a given region, history, traditions and customs associated with cultural activity), economic and academic conditions (e.g., proximity of academic and business centres that determine the economic and academic development of the region) and political conditions (i.e., financial, organisational, and legal support of the local authorities enabling the cluster to develop).

Associations and foundations are less popular among libraries. Associations are relatively informal and voluntary groups, while foundations focus on fundraising for a specific objective. Both associations and foundations are non-governmental organizations (NGOs) with a legal personality.

Libraries may cooperate with partners in various fields, such as:

- joint creation of databases (including central catalogues and digital libraries)
- exchange of duplicates and items published by libraries and their administrating authorities
- interlibrary exchange
- book lending to the users of partner libraries
- employee exchange and training
- equipment sharing (e.g., scanners in digitisation projects)
- joint implementation of trainings, research, and other projects (e.g., co-organising conferences, grant sharing)
- joint procurement of goods or services from suppliers on preferential terms (e.g., jointly purchasing books for a library network to obtain a discount)

These activities may be grouped into five layers of cooperation:

- administrative (orders, procedures, processes)
- economic (physical and financial transactions)
- operational (joint projects and decision making, resource sharing)
- cultural (shared standards and values and a community of opportunities and threats)
- informational (accessibility of information, information exchange and sharing) [350, p. 80]

The reasons why libraries establish various relationships with other organisations include in particular but not limited to:

- creating an added value that a library could not generate on its own
- strengthening innovation
- sharing project costs

- sharing premises, facilities, and human resources required to implement certain projects
- sharing the risk of decision making
- learning from each other and building new competencies
- adopting new solutions, technologies, knowledge, or skills from partners
- establishing common standards (e.g., processing formats, technology, quality)
- enabling some libraries to specialise in certain fields and sharing work in line with such specialties
- extending the service portfolio
- acquiring new groups of recipients of library services
- changing image

Institutions that start partnerships integrate their respective individual and unique resources, both tangible and intangible, even when those resources are hard or even impossible to imitate. They streamline the information circulation process and stimulate innovation. Also, cooperation frameworks determine social, educational, and cultural relations between institutions and, most importantly, the principles of service provision. They enable joint representation of interests towards third parties, decision-makers, and impact groups.

General conditions of effective functioning of interorganisational relationships between libraries include:

- An agreement should result from a real, perceptible need (agreements without a clearly defined goal are passive).
- The goals and principles of the agreement (mission and main goals of the partnership) should be transparent.
- The role and nature of undertaken obligations should be emphasised.
- A common organisational culture or separate cultures promoting partnership should be created.
- A shared social capital should be built.
- An effective communication system should be created.
- Abilities to harmonise activities and jointly pursue goals should be developed.

- The principle of reciprocity in terms of education and provision of skills and resources should be respected.
- The terms and conditions of the agreement and the principles of professional ethics should be strictly observed.

Partnership is particularly valuable for libraries if they operate in an unstable environment experiencing intense social, cultural, and technological changes that determine the functioning of libraries. Building interorganisational relations helps create strategic liaisons that may generate the effect of scale, better access to resources, and more effective use of available resources. It can also help develop competencies and minimise the risk associated with certain projects.

The growing expectations of users, both in terms of the range of services and their quality, force libraries to implement processes that they previously did not specialise in. The consequence of this is their relationships with institutional partners. Many of the relations established by libraries result from ad hoc cooperation under a specific project and are based on the collaboration of independent, autonomous organisations.

Libraries should build partnership in a conscious way, both on the managerial and executive levels. There are three major groups of participants of such networks, depending on the function:

1. system integrators responsible for network development and management (for libraries, these are usually institutions that initiate a project, such as a digital library or library consortium)
2. specialists (i.e., institutions with unique competencies) in the areas of providing services to specific groups of users, cooperation with the environment, software and hardware operation, and handling unique library resources
3. independent professionals engaged to support or streamline a project (e.g., lawyers who provide legal assistance, computer specialists handling the technical aspects of a project/network, marketing specialists who promote a project, consultants) [42, p. 83]

J. Low and P. Kalafut claim that cooperation with other institutions within the framework of various associations and agreements is not easy

[250, p. 120–123]. In their opinion, the risk of failure increases as a result of improper management of other intangible resources, such as:

- leadership—different attitudes, priorities, and methods hinder cooperation
- strategy—different strategic goals and nature of the strategy
- communication—if missing, implementation of the basic functions and processes may be hindered
- organisational culture—may substantially differ between libraries and other institutions (e.g., computer companies), which hinders understanding and cooperation between their respective employees
- innovation and willingness to change—the condition of all interinstitutional undertakings and can affect the pace of learning and ability to make use of the possibilities of development by respective institutions

Thus, to be able to build a network of connections, partners must have a number of competencies, such as the ability to adapt to different goals, structures, strategies, cultures, and attitudes. Cooperation in large groups is usually more complicated because many different interests must be reconciled. Because of that, intangible resources (assets) that supplement the formal standards and conditions play a major role in the implementation of various agreements. These resources help build a community of goals, trust, and reciprocity. Such community, within the framework of collaboration, may be developed on three levels: activities, knowledge sharing, and emotions, feelings, and values. The literature reports that many organisations stay at the level of activities and refrain from acquiring new knowledge and developing standards and values based on that new knowledge [122, p. 198]. The value of interinstitutional relations is the highest if they turn into relationships based on loyalty (i.e., if they are founded in the sphere of feelings and emotions). However, it takes prolonged, conscious effort to build such bonds. The trust and commitment of partners are guarantees of reliable collaboration (alongside formal precautions provided in cooperation agreements).

According to the literature, libraries relatively often establish different forms of interinstitutional cooperation. Table 3.15 shows examples of such cooperation discussed in the literature.

Table 3.15 Examples of interinstitutional cooperation in Polish libraries (analysis of publications between 2009 and 2013)

Clusters
Bi@lsk Library Cluster
EKONLEX Legal-economic cluster EKONLEX of Wielkopolska
Wrocław Libraries Consortium
Networks
Network of Pedagogical Libraries of Lower Silesia
INFOBIBnet
Academic Network SYNAT
Consortia
Polish Digital Libraries Consortium
BazTech Consortium
Consortium of Economics Libraries
Academic Libraries Consortium of Kujawsko Pomorskie Region
Academic Libraries Consortium of Lower Silesia
Academic Libraries Consortium of Białystok
Academic Libraries Consortium of Lublin
Academic Libraries Consortium of Łódź
Consortium of Libraries—Users of Integrated Library Management Systems SOWA 1 and SOWA2/MARC21
Academic Libraries Network of Łódź
Digital Library Consortium of Podkarpacie
Agreements
Team for Standards for Academic Libraries
Krakow Team of Libraries
The Tricity Team of Libraries
Libraries Understanding of West Pomerania
Understanding for the Cooperation of Libraries Implementing and Using VTLS
Warsaw Understanding of the Libraries of the Polish Academy of Sciences
Libraries Understanding of Szczecin
Digital Pomerania
Foundations
Poznań Foundation of Academic Libraries
Associations
Polish Libraries Association
Association of Church Libraries FIDES
Joint development of databases
Regional Bibliography System of Podkarpacie Region
Regional Bibliography System of Łódzkie Region
Library Resource of Lower Silesia
Bibliography of Małopolska Region BR@MA
Regional and Academic Information System of West Pomerania Region ZSIReN@

Table 3.15 (continued)

Library Information System of Mazowieckie Region MSIB
Agricultural Research Information System SIBROL
Food Management Information System SIGŻ
SYMPOnet
BazTech
BazTOL
BazHum
Polish Humanistic Literature—ARTON
Articles from Polish daily and weekly newspapers since 2005
Database of de-acidified objects
Electronic database of theological sciences EBNT
Lower Silesia System of Educational Information
Regional and Academic Information System of West Pomerania Region ZSIReN@
Prints from sixteenth to eighteenth centuries from the collections of the Wrocław University Library, National Library, Pomeranian Library in Szczecin, and Gdańsk Library of the Polish Academy of Sciences
Foreign periodicals in the libraries of Wrocław and Opole
Foreign periodicals in the Poznań
Regional Bibliography System of Podkarpacie Region
Regional Bibliography System of Łódzkie Region
Education in Śląsk Opolski
Education
Lower Silesia—regional education
Bibliography of Mazowieckie Region
Regional Bibliography of Opolskie Region
Regional Bibliography of Lower Silesia Region
Regional Bibliography of Miechowski Poviat
Bibliography of West Pomerania
Joint development of central catalogues
National Universal Central Catalogue NUKAT
Union Catalogue of Polish Libraries KaRo
MultiOPAC Max Elektronik S.A.
Central Catalogue of Periodicals
Central Catalogue of Foreign Periodicals CKCZ in Polish medical libraries
FIDKAR-FIDES
Catalogue of English language libraries POLANKA
Joint Catalogue of the Academic Network of Libraries in Łódź
Union Catalogue of the Libraries of Wielkopolskie Region
Union Catalogue of the Libraries of Szczecin and RoK@Bi Region
Virtual Catalogue of the Academic Libraries of Lublin
Joint Catalogue of the Libraries of Poznań
Catalogue of the Krakow Team of Libraries

(*continued*)

Table 3.15 (continued)

Joint development of digital libraries
Federation of Digital Libraries
Polish Online Library
Digital Library of Wielkopolska
Digital Library of Silesia
Digital Library of Kujawsko-Pomorskie
Digital Library of Małopolska
Digital Library of Lower Silesia
Digital Library of Podlasie
Digital Library "Pomerania" of West Pomerania
Digital Library of Pomerania
Digital Library of Mazovia
Baltic Digital Library
Digital Library of Podkarpacie

Source: Own elaboration based on literature analysis (selected books and periodicals: *Archiwa, Biblioteki i Muzea Kościelne, Biblioteka, Bibliotekarz, Przegląd Biblioteczny, Toruńskie Studia Bibliologiczne* from 2009 to 2013)

Some of the activities presented in Table 3.15 are correlated. For example, the Library Resource of Lower Silesia was formed on the foundations of the Wrocław Libraries Consortium, and the educational database WikiEduLinki is linked with the Lower Silesia System of Educational Information. The Federation of Church Libraries FIDES, which in fact is an association, participates in the creation of the FIDKAR-FIDES catalogue. These are but a few of many examples. Thus, in practice, libraries establish interinstitutional cooperation to prepare specific products, such as databases. Such products are also one of the many effects of cooperation within the framework of a cluster or network. There are some problems with terminology, though. The names associated with some forms of cooperation do not fully reflect their nature or structure. For example, the Academic Libraries Network of Łódź is a consortium and the Wrocław Libraries Consortium is in fact a cluster, the same as the Baltic Digital Library.

According to the survey I conducted among library directors, nearly half of libraries (45 %) are members of various interinstitutional agreements. The most typical forms of cooperation are consortia (49 %) and networks (38 %). Less popular are associations (28 %), strategic alliances (15 %), federations (12 %), and clusters (6 %). Some libraries participate in more than one form of cooperation. An average library that cooperates with other organisations has 25 institutional partners. Most of them are other libraries (87 %), cultural institutions (63 %), academic institutions (39 %), suppliers (33 %), commercial institutions other than library suppliers (20 %), and other organisations such as regional societies, schools, parishes, choirs, voluntary fire brigades, NGOs, and custody centres. Most library directors positively evaluate the effects of cooperation (86 %), but 13 % cannot say whether the effects are positive or negative and 2 % think they are negative. The most important reasons for starting cooperation are to create added value that a library could not generate independently (58 %) and to share project cost (42 %). The main objectives of interinstitutional partnership for library directors are joint development of databases including central catalogues and digital databases (61 %) and interlibrary exchange (55 %). More reasons for cooperation are presented in Table 3.16.

To conclude the deliberations on interinstitutional relationships, it should be noted that the ability to establish interinstitutional cooperation was appreciated even in the Middle Ages, when professional guilds were popular among merchants and craftsmen. Contemporary management of organisations, founded on the economy of intangible assets, requires similar activities. Since systematic support is often lacking, libraries started to independently strengthen their position by establishing various forms of interinstitutional relations. The future will show if these initiatives are sufficient and whether libraries will continue to be a successful medium and promoter or knowledge by using interinstitutional cooperation as a tool for more effective management of organisational resources, both tangible and intangible.

3.7 Support for New Technologies and Processes

The importance of new technologies for the development of information and communication technology (ICT) services does not require proving. New technologies affect the structures, processes, and service portfolios of libraries and are, at the same time, the source and effect of library innova-

Table 3.16 Reasons for interinstitutional cooperation of libraries

Reasons for interinstitutional cooperation of libraries	Percentage of responses	Purposes of interinstitutional cooperation of libraries	Percentage of responses
Creating an added value that the library could not generate on its own	58	Jointly creating databases (including central catalogues and digital libraries)	61
Sharing project costs	42	Interlibrary exchange	55
Extending the service portfolio	39	Implementing joint research projects (e.g., co-organising conferences, grant sharing)	28
Strengthening innovation	32	Exchanging duplicates and items published by libraries and their administrating authorities	25
Sharing premises, facilities, and human resources to implement certain projects	25	Lending books to the users of partner libraries	25
Learning from each other and building new competencies	25	Jointly procuring goods or services from suppliers on preferential terms (e.g., jointly purchasing books or periodicals to obtain a discount)	19
Acquiring new groups of recipients of library services	17	Training and employee exchange (e.g., under the Erasmus programme)	15
Changing image	16	Sharing equipment (e.g., scanners in digital libraries)	10
Establishing common standards (e.g., concerning processing formats, technology, quality)	13		

Table 3.16 (continued)

Reasons for interinstitutional cooperation of libraries	Percentage of responses	Purposes of interinstitutional cooperation of libraries	Percentage of responses
Adopting new solutions, technologies, knowledge, or skills from partners	12		
Sharing the risk of decision-making	2		
Enabling some libraries to specialise in certain fields, and work-sharing in line with such specialties	2		

Source: Own elaboration

tions. On the other hand, the introduction of innovative technologies and processes is usually analysed in financial and technical terms, which are material. Yet, physical artefacts should serve only as foundations for additional assets developed on the basis of knowledge and skills associated with the use of technology.[14] Accordingly, technical solutions should be treated as tools for the development of a library's new or existing competencies.

The concept of new technologies should not be limited only to ICT solutions, even though library computer systems, office software, and electronic communication systems are incredibly important for librarians. According to the Information Society Development Foundation, there exist eight categories of ICT solutions that libraries can use:

1. office software (text editors, worksheets)
2. graphics and photography editing software
3. multimedia creation and editing software (films, photo reportages, sound)

[14] Such an asset is, for example, user satisfaction resulting from the installation of a computer system in a library that enables using the OPAC catalogue without the need to physically visit the library.

4. software for the creation of presentations, promotional materials, and opinion polls
5. Internet-based communication tools
6. website and blog creation tools
7. virtual disks and online collaborative tools
8. mobile technologies (including QR codes)

Apart from the above solutions, libraries introduce a number of technical innovations associated with physical storage of collections, improvement of library facilities and infrastructure, etc.

In the most general terms, new technologies may be product-related or process-related. In terms of the stage of their development, they may be base technologies (popular in a given area/sector), key technologies (crucial for being successful in a given area), and emerging technologies (in progress) [272, p. 155]. All these technologies are utilised by libraries. New technical solutions or technologies may be transferred by library workers (transfer embodied in humans), documentation or written instructions and recommendations (non-embodied transfer), or by acquisition of new devices, materials, and products (transfer embodied in devices) [272, p. 164]. Libraries usually transfer technologies by purchasing hardware or software, or by signing license agreements with manufacturers and distributors.

In the context of intangible resource management, technologies are sometimes referred to as intangible technological assets. According to G. Urbanek, they are "technology-related knowledge, rights or processes owned by an enterprise, generated by the enterprise or purchased by it on the market" [411, p. 51]. This definition, although it was formulated for commercial institutions, may also be used by non-profit organisations that manage intangible technological assets. Each library, apart from devices, has more or less extensive know-how required for proper and effective use of those devices.

Leif Edvinsson and Michael Malone, the pioneers of the intellectual capital trend, suggest that organisations misuse new technologies and that the organisations' underlying philosophy in this respect is wrong [100, p. 80–81]. The main problem is that organisations adapt to the requirements of new technologies instead of tailoring technologies to the needs of an individual institution. The second mistake observed by the authors is that the choice of new technologies is dictated by trends, tendencies, or fashions, without a critical analysis of whether an organisation needs a particular solution. Examples include installing costly technologies that are not indispensable to implement the processes planned by a library (e.g., computer workstations for handling library catalogues whose parameters are much above the requirements of this particular job) or purchasing technologies and not training the personnel (e.g., installing high-class scanners that cannot be fully used, if their operators are not properly trained). Examples like these prove that technology in itself is not the source of success, but is merely a tool that should be properly adapted and implemented in a library. The authors claim that it is desirable to determine measurable goals and then analyse whether the actions taken help achieve those goals and whether they may be supported by new technologies that could streamline some of the pending processes. Convincing proof that people are still important in the implementation of new technologies is the fact that the same technological solutions yield completely different effects in different libraries. This is associated with the quality of management and preparedness of librarians to operate new hardware and software. Thus, every technology implemented in a library should be verified for effectiveness, efficiency, and usefulness. Such verification requires objective criteria of evaluation, including various quality or quantity indicators. In the case of computerisation of library process or changes in library systems, the following indicators could be useful:

1. number of computers per library worker
2. number of computers per active library user
3. number of computers readily available per active library user
4. cost of system administration per library worker/user (active) in a given time span
5. number of new employees hired to operate the system (librarians and computer specialists)
6. productivity of the system, measured by the efficient use of processes (e.g., the number of bibliographic entries in the new system compared to the old system)
7. percentage of librarians trained to use the new system

8. percentage of librarians who know how to operate the new system
9. total cost of training per worker/user
10. growth or drop in user satisfaction associated with the new system
11. growth or drop in the rate of use of specific library services after introduction of the new system

Contemporary library science emphasises the usefulness and multiple advantages of automation and digitisation of libraries. It also notes the significance of the social aspects of their functioning and the need for a proactive attitude from library workers to assist and build relationships with users. In this context, the human factor and the technical factor are complementary.

Another reason for the importance of new technologies in libraries is that they change "the way of the book" and enable libraries to function not only in the physical sphere but also in the digital world. New ICT solutions also cause changes in the structure of employment and work organisation. Libraries create new jobs, such as the system librarian, website administrator, database management and publication specialist, digital information specialist, library network administrator, digitisation coordinator, and computer processing and database specialist. Also, new organisational units are established, such as computerisation departments, reprography and digitisation units, ICT departments, computer system departments, informatisation departments, and computer rooms.

According to numerous surveys, new ICT solutions should be substantiated by the actual needs of an institution and the expectations and possibilities of the "human factor." According to surveys presented by Anna Rakowska, 58 % of managers believe that ICT technologies do not facilitate their work because they generate too much information, and their installation should be informed, purposeful, and fully conscious [337, p. 492]. Using new technologies in libraries requires an analysis of processes and structures so that the final solutions are an actual, rather than apparent, improvement. Implementation is a chance for improved effectiveness of libraries, provided that it is properly synchronised with the needs of an organisation and gains the social approval of workers and users. Thus, many libraries, aware of the complexity of automation processes, integrate them with intensive employee trainings and surveys of user needs and opinions. A model example of justified use of new technologies to streamline existing processes is e-learning training programmes addressed to users and librarians to help improve the accessibility and convenience of certain services.

According to surveys I conducted, most directors realise the need to train library workers how to use new technologies. Some 44 % of libraries organise such training programmes for all workers, while 37 % do so only for those who will use new technologies. In 7 % of libraries, workers have to individually learn to operate new technologies on the basis of manufacturer instructions and recommendations, while in 12 % of libraries, workers do not receive external support and have to learn through experience how to use new hardware or software. Library managers are aware that new software or technologies do not only streamline simple activities but may also affect entire processes. Thus, when planning to purchase new technologies, 56 % of libraries analyse future work organisation. Unfortunately, 30 % of directors do not undertake any plans or simulations, assuming that the new work organisation will clarify after implementation, while for 14 % of directors, new technologies are a tool to streamline isolated activities rather than the entire work process. It seems that libraries introduce new technologies or new ICT solutions relatively often, given the not very innovative profile of their activity. In the last year, it was done by 45 % of libraries. In the last five years, 43 % of libraries introduced new technologies, and in the last ten or more years, 12 % of libraries did so. New technologies in the next year are planned by 29 % of libraries, 46 % plan to do so in the next five years, 9 % plan new technologies for some time after the next five years, and 16 % of libraries do not have such plans. There are also passive libraries that have not recently implemented and do not plan to implement any new solutions. They are worth particular attention because it seems that they are extremely underfinanced or mismanaged. Whatever the reason, they influence a negative opinion about libraries in general.

Technological change in libraries is a broad issue and cannot be fully penetrated in this book due to lack of space. Mass computerisation of libraries in the second half of the twentieth century is widely discussed in the literature. Library automation and related processes are still analysed more as a technical aspect than a competency integrating a number of skills, experiences, and knowledge that generates a measurable added value for a library user. Thus, it seems reasonable to emphasise on every stage of the implementation of new technologies their ancillary role to the personnel and users. In resource-based theory, technology is treated as a tangible resource and its effective implementation and use is perceived as an organisational competency that may be generally treated as an intangible resource.

3.8 Intellectual Property

Intellectual property, as has already been mentioned, is a separate part of intangible assets and it is subject to protection. Intellectual property is the product of academic, industrial, literary, or artistic activity and is a precious intangible asset of every organisation, including a library. In this context, it is defined as “property related to the right of ownership, use and disposal of products generated through human inventiveness (the intellect), covering patents, registered trademarks and copyright” [311, p. 486]. Intellectual property is regarded as a strategic resource for many organisations, making them recognisable and competitive and enabling development of an original service portfolio.

The World Intellectual Property Organisation’s catalogue of intellectual property includes:

- literary, artistic, and scientific works
- performances by performing artists
- phonograms and broadcasts
- inventions in all fields of human endeavour
- scientific discoveries
- industrial designs
- trademarks, service marks
- commercial names and designations
- protection against unfair competition
- all other rights resulting from intellectual activity in the industrial, scientific, literary, or artistic fields [423, p. 3]

Libraries, as institutions strongly related with the world of art and science, may be both the source (initiator or author) of such works and acquire the right of their use (on their own behalf or on behalf of their users).

Intellectual attributes may be categorised into:

- marketing property (trademarks, commercial names, logos, bookplates)
- technological property (product and process patents, industrial designs)
- artistic and scientific property (literary, artistic, and journalistic works and the rights associated therewith, music and film works, plastic works, photography)
- data-processing-related property (rights to computer software, computer applications)
- architectural property (designs of library buildings and interiors)

Libraries have all these types of property. However, their frequency differs depending on the category. For example, various computer applications that facilitate work in a library are relatively frequent, especially software for customer service, cataloguing of collections, and database creation. Artistic property includes, in particular, the artistic and scientific work of librarians, such as scientific and journalistic papers, scientific monographs, literature, short films, or music commissioned by libraries for promotional purposes, as well as photography, paintings, and other works. Increasingly popular in libraries is marketing property in the form of various visual identification systems. Also, competitions for the most interesting designs of library identification systems are increasingly frequent. Architectural property rights concern libraries that change the internal layout of their premises or commission the construction of new premises, sometimes including arrangement of the space outside libraries, like green or leisure areas. Less frequent, due to the nature of library activity, is technological and engineering property.

The above types of property, if generated in the course of library activity, may also constitute its organisational property. Acquisition of property developed by other entities requires an agreement (e.g., a licensing agreement) to govern the terms and conditions of its use by libraries. Licences and sublicenses are a popular use of intellectual property. According to the definition, "licence means that an entity holding a specific right to an intangible good authorises another entity to use this right on contractual terms and conditions" [403, p. 128]. A licensing agreement identifies parties to the agreement, object of the agreement, scope of the licence (territory and forms of use), responsibility for maintaining protection, procedures in the case of violation, scope of technical assistance, control of the use of goods and exchange of information concerning the use of goods, licensor's responsibility and guarantees, calculation and payment of the licence fee, and rules of product trademarking [122, p. 221–222]. In practice, the catalogue of licences is relatively extensive. Libraries are both licensors (e.g., in association with the creation of databases, studies, evaluations, or academic papers) and licensees using the products of external companies (e.g., computer programs, library systems, external databases).

Despite the general opinion, libraries may also use know-how, another intangible asset. Know-how means "specific confidential industrial, commercial, scientific or organisational knowledge" [403, p. 129] that is not publicly available and is crucial for a library and the services it provides. This type of resource is particularly frequent in scientific libraries engaging in academic research.[15] It is also owned by public libraries that have unique organisational knowledge gained through the development of specialist services. Since library managers realise the importance of unique organisational knowledge, they often oblige workers to observe the secrecy of specific information (e.g., personal, organisational, or financial information, or internal standards and procedures). Some institutions even require new librarians to sign secrecy declarations.

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[15] In 2008, the European Commission adopted the *Recommendation on the Management of intellectual property in knowledge transfer activities and Code of Practice for universities and other public research organisations*, applicable to all organisational units of universities, including libraries. See Commission Recommendation of 10 April 2008 on the Management of intellectual property in knowledge transfer activities and Code of Practice for universities and other public research organisations (Official Journal of the European Union 2008/416/EC).

In 2014, I asked library directors about the intellectual property rights of their institutions. According to their responses, 45 % of libraries had ownership of intellectual property. Of these libraries, 24 % had data-processing-related property (e.g., rights to computer software, computer applications), 21 % had marketing property (e.g., trademarks, commercial names, logos, visual identification systems), 16 % had artistic and scientific property (e.g., literary, artistic and journalistic works and the rights associated therewith, music and film works, plastic works, photography), 9 % had architectural property (e.g., designs of library buildings and interiors, as well as green and leisure areas), and 2 % had technological property (e.g., industrial designs and designations, product and process patents).

According to another survey carried out among library management personnel, 41 % of managers never developed any intellectual property in association with their profession. The other 59 % developed artistic and scientific property (74 % of responses), marketing property (17 %), architectural property (14 %), data-processing-related property (12 %), and technological property (2 %).

Since libraries engage in various kinds of academic research, they may be regarded as potential purchasers and developers of the abovementioned works. Up to 20 % of library directors declare that their organisations engage in academic research. Dedicated jobs for this purpose exist in 3 % of all libraries. Usually, there is one such job per library. Some libraries also oblige their workers to engage in academic activity and create works in employment contracts or other documents (9 %). Employees who are obliged to engage in academic activity and develop various kinds of works may sometimes expect various privileges or benefits (62 %), such as performing academic work during normal working hours (54 %); using library software, hardware, and offices (54 %); extra days off work to prepare a publication (8 %); or higher tax deductible expenses, higher salary, the possibility to go on scientific conferences, fixed working hours, and so on. Libraries, probably because of financial problems, are not able to fully support librarians in publishing and distributing their works. Such support is offered by 42 % of institutions and usually consists of publishing a work (31 %), financing (9 %), promoting, motivating, or finding a publisher.

Another aspect of intellectual property management by libraries is the provision of the objects of intellectual property to users (i.e., the broadly understood library collections, in traditional or digital format). This issue is extensively discussed in various interpretations of copyright law, so I am not going to discuss it here. However, it should be noted that, because of the lack of uniform interpretation of the copyright law, many issues are still disputable.

Intellectual property is a separate area and it is only briefly mentioned in this book to indicate that libraries, as social institutions of science and culture, are responsible for providing users with works that are subject to legal protection. At the same time, they use various kinds of intellectual property in their normal work, and create works that may become intangible resources. Accordingly, intangible resource management must take into account the three types of intellectual property that build the resource potential of each library. The protection of these works will be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter.

4

Intangible Organisational Resource Management

4.1 Models of Intangible Organisational Resource Management

Because of their specificity (e.g., problems with determining the actual limits, heterogeneity, changeability, and dependence on human behaviour; interpenetration and overlapping of resources; complementarity and interdependence), intangible resources must be comprehensively considered in the planning of management processes. Because the resources have a bilateral impact on one another in that one resource may strengthen or weaken another, an organisation must manage bundles of intangible resources, rather than individual isolated goods. The intangible resources of a library must be managed as an interconnected system, rather than as separate assets in the different organisational areas of a library. Such an approach, acknowledging the interdependencies between resources, is based on the holistic theory developed in the early twentieth century by

M. Wojciechowska, *Intangible Organizational Resources,*
DOI 10.1057/978-1-137-58123-5_4

Jan Smuts. This theory assumes that a whole cannot be analysed in the context of the value of its respective elements. The world around us is a hierarchical whole governed by certain regularities and rules. The rules governing the whole cannot be determined on the basis of the regularities and rules governing the elements of the whole. The contemporary holistic theory is used in many fields of science, including in resource-based theory. A simplified model of the interpenetration of intangible resources based on the holistic theory is shown in Fig. 4.1.

Many authors regard human capital as an intangible resource that provides a framework for the management of other resources. It is considered to be indispensable for the development and formation of other resources. According to this theory, human capital and knowledge form a part of every intangible resource. For example, building lasting relationships with users requires knowledge of their needs and preferences, and developing the organisational culture requires knowledge of management

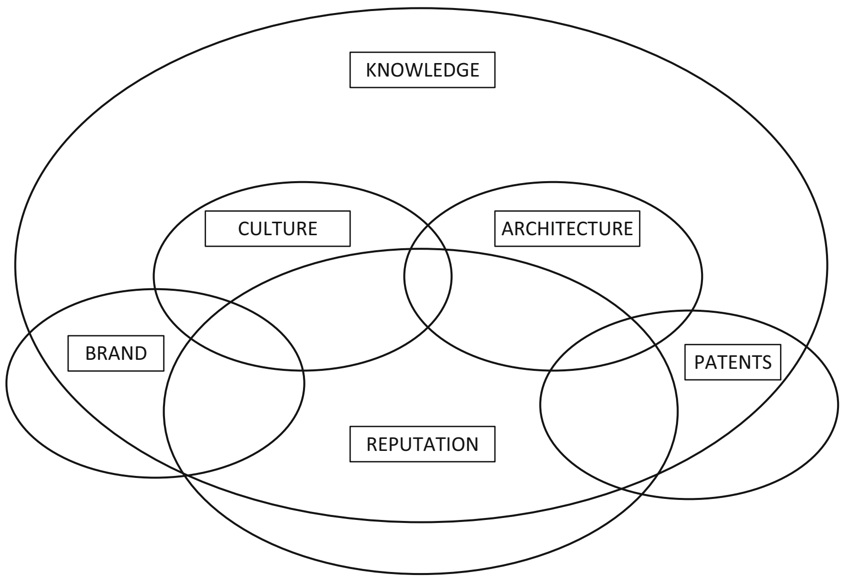

Fig. 4.1 Interpenetration of intangible resources according to E. Głuszek. *Source*: *Adapted from* E. GŁUSZEK. *Zarządzanie zasobami niematerialnymi przedsiębiorstwa. Wrocław, 2004, p. 246*

psychology and the impact of the respective cultures on library effectiveness. Since knowledge and human capital are regarded as the axis of all activities associated with the management of intangible organisational resources in libraries, it is necessary to focus on their three dimensions: acquisition of library workers; skillful management and evaluation of the personnel; and knowledge transfer, which involves creating relationships within and outside the library to establish new contacts, a good working atmosphere, a culture of development, and the loyalty of and close bonds with users.

Ewa Głuszek proposed a concept of intangible resource management in which knowledge is superior to the other assets. According to the author, intangible resources interlink and individual resources should be analysed in association with the other resources. Her proposed scheme of interactions between intangible resources (Fig. 4.2) presents only the most important links. Actual relations are much more complex. According to Głuszek, the main types of relations are between:

1. organisational culture and knowledge
2. organisational culture and reputation

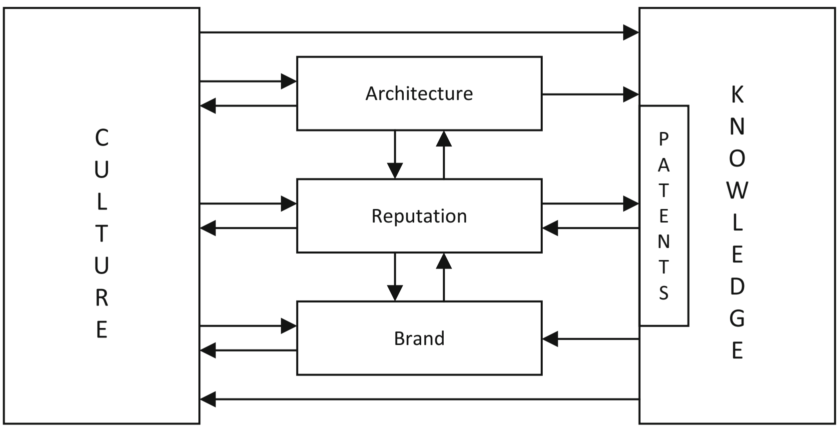

Fig. 4.2 Interactions between intangible resources. *Source*: Adapted from E. GŁUSZEK. *Zarządzanie zasobami niematerialnymi przedsiębiorstwa. Wrocław, 2004, p. 247*

3. organisational culture and architecture
4. organisational culture and brand
5. brand and reputation
6. knowledge and reputation
7. knowledge and architecture

According to Głuszek, the components of the first relation, organisational culture and knowledge, are the pillars of intangible resources. This seems reasonable. The relations between them are bilateral in that organisational culture influences the absorption and use of knowledge and forms the procedures and mechanisms of its absorption, while knowledge shapes organisational culture. Organisational culture, by promoting certain norms and attitudes, shapes reputation. It is also a component of architectonic competencies understood as the ability to use various competencies in new ways through the ability to create routines of information acquisition and development of communication channels. As new knowledge is gained, value systems and rules of conduct change, causing the evolution of the organisational culture. On the other hand, relations between organisational culture and brand are usually unilateral because organisational culture shapes the nature and perception of the brand. This interdependence is particularly strong in the service sector, where the values preferred by the personnel are crucial for service provision, especially in creating quality. Brand and reputation are another pair of intangible resources that promote one another. A good brand helps shape positive reputation, while reputation affects opinions about the brand. Reputation is also affected by knowledge; a library with valuable knowledge that can act in a logical way to the advantage of the environment has positive reputation. Last but not least, the relationship between knowledge and architecture involves access to external knowledge through a system of communication based on a network of contacts. In this context, knowledge, specifically its development, depends on architecture (a network of relations).

The relations identified by Głuszek seem the most important and the most perceptible in the management of intangible resources. However, it should be noted that these are not the only relations and, depending on the needs of a specific library, other relations and interactions between assets may be utilised. Since Głuszek classifies human resources as a tangible asset, they are not included in the above model. Nonetheless, human capital and its impact on the other intangible resources are fundamental in libraries. Library workers as well as users shape all its intangible resources. It is even postulated that impact from users should gradually increase so that libraries become institutions founded on close partnership relations. The list of relations proposed by Głuszek should be extended by adding the interactions between organisational culture and leadership (as was discussed by Joanna Kamińska [171] and Wiktoria Pękaty [310]), organisational culture and strategy [142], and impact of library management personnel on the development of human capital, reputation, innovation, and strategy of a library [218]. Relations between human capital and library image and reputation are often highlighted, too [92]. The quality of service is one of the most important factors affecting opinions about a library. Communication is also important for effective strategy implementation, while strategy influences human capital, reputation, innovation, and brand. There are many more such relations. Assuming that all the 11 intangible resources discussed in this book interact with one another, there exist the total of 55 relations of differing nature and intensity.

According to the intangible resource management model developed by Głuszek, two action levels are important: operational level and strategic level. On the strategic level, intangible resources are treated holistically, as a joint, synergic asset that generates value for the entire library. Accordingly, the management of intangible resources should be subjected to a library's strategy, mission, and vision. On the operational level, the management of intangible resources is focused on improving the respective competencies. The scheme of strategic intangible resource management proposed by Głuszek is presented in Fig. 4.3.

Głuszek identified three stages of intangible resource management:

1. determining the goals concerning intangible resources and the strategy of their development (including mission, vision, and strategic goals), and defining the types and qualities of intangible resources that will be desirable in the future
2. measuring the condition and quality of intangible resources, especially those of crucial importance for the achievement of the strategy, by means of effectiveness indicators

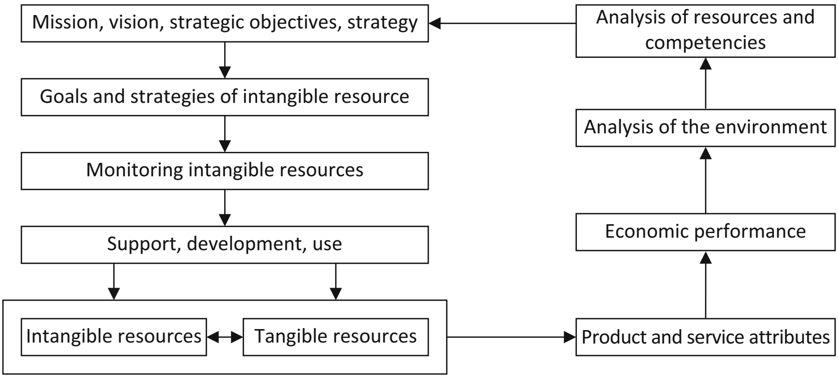

Fig. 4.3 Strategic intangible resource management according to E. Głuszek. *Source*: *Adapted from* E. GŁUSZEK. *Zarządzanie zasobami niematerialnymi przedsiębiorstwa. Wrocław, 2004, p. 277*

3. transforming strategic objectives in the area of intangible resources into specific tasks for organisational units (e.g., teams, jobs) in the operational dimension [122, p. 277–282]

Low and Kalafut proposed a different model of intangible resource management. They focused less on relations between resources and more on the sequence of operations, which they identified as:

1. determining the organisation's most important intangible resources
2. selecting metrics for key intangible resources
3. creating a baseline and benchmarking it against competition
4. launching initiatives to improve performance on intangible resources
5. communicating what the organisation is doing [250, p. 194–199]

According to Low and Kalafut, every organisation has different intangible resources that are crucial and most valuable. Thus, they suggest selecting three or four groups of values that are the most important in a given industry. They also note that different resources may be valuable for a specific institution, department, or person, so it is important to analyse this issue thoroughly rather than only talk to the managers about it. Similar mechanisms may be observed in libraries, which often lack an organisational coherence of activities or shared beliefs. Their departments pursue their own interests and have different priorities, and managers sometimes fail to consult their employees about their opinions, even though the latter remain in direct contact with users and know their needs. For Low and Kalafut, the most valuable intangible resources in the production industry are innovation, the quality of management, and relationships with workers. In financial services, the most important are the quality of management, technology, brand, and relationships with clients. For libraries, the most valuable intangible resources are human capital, relationships with clients, organisational culture, and reputation.

Selecting metrics for key intangible resources involves first collecting the available data generated by institutions (even for completely different purposes). Libraries very often create various statistics to help verify the condition of those resources. For example, there are user surveys that evaluate the quality of book collections, the quality of service, or comfort of library premises. Automatic statistics generated by most library systems contain information about the condition of book collections, the level of their use, user activity, and other information. Information from available statistics should be supplemented with data gathered for the purpose of evaluating intangible resources, which can be gradually extended to achieve comprehensive indicators. As often noted, measuring intangible resources is difficult and problematic. Low and Kalafut mention that some categories of resources are particularly hard to measure. For example, leadership may be measured on the basis of opinions existing in the industry, rankings, and other subjective evaluations such as the opinions of subordinate workers or potential employers. On the other hand, the opinions of clients are relatively easy to acquire, process, and summarise.

Low and Kalafut suggest that the results of analyses should be measured and compared to the results of competitors and other organisations from the same industry. Thus, it seems reasonable for libraries to analyse their potential compared to similar organisations—other libraries, cultural institutions, or even commercial companies that engage in cultural and informational activities. This is advisable, because clients (library users) also compare the services and methods of activity of various institutions. Their decision to choose a service provider is based on the conclusions of such comparisons.

Knowledge acquired through comparative studies should help improve the management of the most important intangible resources. It is possible to achieve the desired results by creating a culture of innovation that engages all library workers in the process of changes and improvements. Development of resources makes it easier to determine metrics and specific goals pursued by the entire institution. The types of metrics and goals may differ depending on the type of library, the character of its activity, strategy, priorities, or organisational culture. Importantly, a library should be able to evaluate whether those goals were achieved so that workers receive feedback on the effects of their effort.

The final stage in the model proposed by Low and Kalafut is information management—in other words, sharing knowledge about activities involving intangible resources with workers and the environment. In libraries, it is important to engage workers and users in the information dissemination process. A mistake frequently made by managers is that they do not inform workers about their decisions concerning innovation or strategy. As a result, workers are confused and anxious because they do not understand the reasons and purposes of such changes and, consequently, they may passively resist them. Asking workers about their opinion and engaging them in the decision-making process significantly increase their motivation to create new solutions. The same is the case with users who, when informed about the measures taken by a library, better understand its goals and work organisation methods. This may encourage them to intensify cooperation with a library, communicate their needs, or propose new or modified services.

Similar models like the one designed by Low and Kalafut were also proposed by other authors (e.g., [275, p. 105–110]). In libraries, such model may consist of the following stages:

1. formulating the library's strategy
2. identifying and measuring the library's intangible organisational resources or intellectual capital
3. evaluating intangible resources in terms of their impact on the implementation of the library's overall strategy
4. designing methods for the development, acquisition, transfer, and full use of intangible organisational resources owned or desired by a library,

taking into account its potential and individual situation (e.g., financial, material, intellectual, organisational, legal)
5. creating proper conditions in a library for the adopted methods of the acquisition, transfer, and use of intangible resources (e.g., required innovations, employee training, investing in infrastructure, ICT infrastructure);
6. implementing intangible resource management methods

A detailed analysis (evaluation) of intangible resources should provide for a series of actions. As a result of these actions, managers and employees should acknowledge the priority role of intangible resources or intellectual capital in library management and interdependencies between those resources in an organisation. These actions include:

- identification of the pool of intangible resources
- identification of the level of use of the intangible resources of a library and their better allocation
- verification of how well the available intangible resources serve the purpose of a library's strategic objectives
- verification of which resources generate added value for a library
- diagnosis of whether a library sufficiently develops its intangible resources

As the above models show, intangible organisational resource management consists more of ensuring conditions for their development and effective use, and less of merely profiting from the existing assets. It should be noted that the level of focus on intangible resource management depends on the industry and nature of the organisation. In recent years, there has been a growing interest in intangible resource management in the telecommunications, media, finance, and ICT industries, while in the transport and food industries there is little concern for it. In libraries, the paradigm of thinking is evolving. Managers now tend to shape libraries not into institutions that collect data carriers, but rather into centres for the management of scattered information, requiring focus on intangible resources and, most importantly, development of models for the management of those resources.

4.2 Measurement of Intangible Resources

Measuring the value of an organisation's resources is obvious and common. During the industrial economy, the reason for doing this was that the goodwill of most enterprises depended on the volume of the resources at their disposal. Corporate operations and decisions depended mainly on physical goods. Their balance sheets listed only tangible resources in the form of physical assets that were easy to define, determine, and evaluate. Evolution towards a service economy caused interest in the measurement of intangible resources. Their contribution to the goodwill of an organisation was recognised. The assets of an organisation were divided into four groups: current assets (disposed of or used during one accounting year), fixed assets (used during a period longer than one year, such as buildings and equipment), investments (stock and shares), and intangible assets [100, p. 26]. A milestone was the identification of a gap between the market value of an organisation (understood as the current value of future economic benefits resulting from ownership [327, p. 24]) and the value of tangible assets. The gap grew from year to year, proving the growing value of intangible factors.

$$\text{market value of an organisation} - \text{net book value of its tangible assets}$$
$$= \text{value of intangible factors}$$

Numerous financial analyses showed that the value of corporate tangible resources (real property, equipment financial resources, software) was lower than the value of intangible resources which were not included in financial statements and were disregarded in industrial economy (Fig. 4.4). Some studies also proved the existence of a correlation between increased expenditure on intangible resources and growing market value of an organisation. Currently, intangible resources represent a major part of the goodwill of many institutions, in some cases between 80 % and 90 % [341, p. 461]. According to the research conducted by Robert Sapiro and Nam Pham, the market value of the largest American corpo-

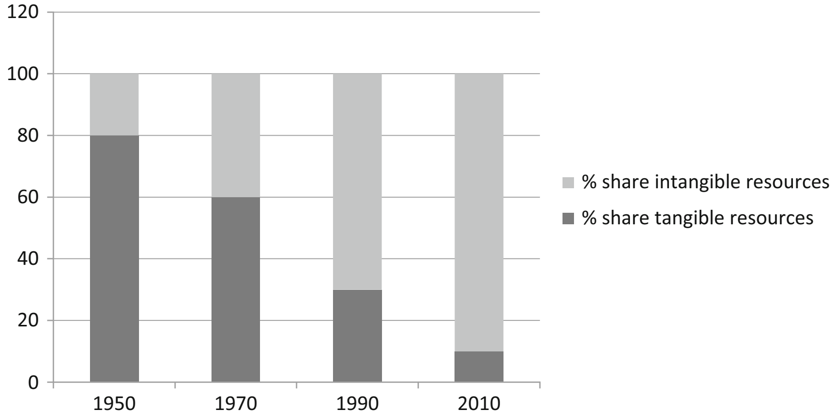

Fig. 4.4 Share of tangible and intangible resources in corporate goodwill between 1950 and 2010. *Source*: Adapted from G. URBANEK. *Wycena aktywów niematerialnych przedsiębiorstwa.* Warszawa, 2008, p. 17

rations is acquired through intangible resources, and the share of selected intangible resources grew from 25 % to 64 % between 1984 and 2005. The average value of intangible assets of Western commercial companies is also constantly growing, as can be seen in Fig. 4.5. According to the 1996 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report, in the mid-1990s more than 50 % of gross domestic product (GDP) in the major OECD economies was founded on knowledge (i.e., industries associated with knowledge processing generated 50 % of GDP) [291, p. 9].

A growing interest in measuring the value of intangible resources resulted from their growing role in the development and success of organisations. During the service economy era, the reasons for the advantage of numerous companies without extensive tangible resources were investigated. The concept of a knowledge economy [222, p. 73; 386] was developed, synonymously called the new economy [411, p. 15–21], new management [320, p. 251–252], information economy, or network economy [191, p. 12].

In the 1960s, it was concluded that the traditional formula of reporting the goodwill of an organisation was not satisfactory and did not fully

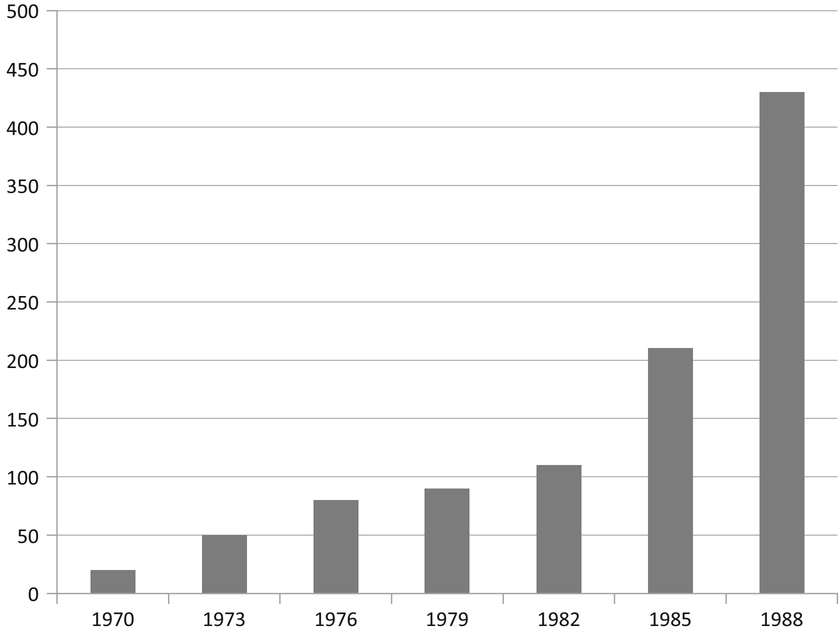

Fig. 4.5 Average value of intangible assets in American companies (million USD). *Source*: Adapted from M. SIUDAK. *Zarządzanie wartością przedsiębiorstwa.* Warszawa, 2001, p. 21

reflect the role of resources or the possibilities of companies. Even though the existing methods were sufficient to evaluate stable tangible resources, the perishable value of knowledge and relationships required new methods of evaluation. Particularly important was the problem of evaluating the contribution of human resources with their knowledge, experience, and competencies. A moral dilemma arose: Was it ethical to measure the value of a human being? Meanwhile, it was for the first time emphasised that employees should be analysed in terms of an investment that would yield measurable results if properly managed, rather than in terms of costs.

One of the first professional attempts to measure intangible resources was the Human Resource Costing and Accounting model developed in Scandinavia in the 1970s to evaluate the costs of employee fluctuation, recruitment, and training. Growing competition and development of qualitative theories required continued research to answer the question of which resources, apart from tangible resources, represented actual value and should be developed to gain competitive advantage.

In the late 1990s, Karl Erik Sveiby, founder and manager of the Konrad Group, undertook another significant attempt to evaluate intangible assets. The goal of the Konrad Group was to develop a method for measuring the intangible resources of an organisation and a concept for managing those resources. In 1989, the Konrad Group published a report that criticised traditional accounting methods that covered only the tangible resources of a company [188]. The report claimed it was wrong to entirely disregard the value of human capital and knowledge, which could be decisive for the market success and effectiveness of numerous organisations. According to the Konrad Group, evaluation of only tangible goods was selective and did not represent the actual goodwill. Alongside financial capital and tangible resources, an organisation consisted of intellectual capital comprising the individual capital of people and the structural capital of the organisation. Depending on their type, organisations should focus on one of these capitals. Traditional production companies usually focus on financial capital and tangible resources, whereas large international corporations with uniform standards of operation try to multiply their structural capital. Small, individual, and not very formal organisations rely on knowledge management to accumulate individual capital.

The report of the Konrad Group opened a new stage in the perception of the development and evaluation of an organisation. It triggered complex academic studies in this field as well as changes in the management philosophy of commercial companies. The traditional financial metrics, founded on the evaluation of net profit and operational profit and the assumption that the value of assets was equal to the discounted value of future benefits for the owner of those assets, were extended to include also quality indicators.[1] Organisations, not only those that were profit-oriented, started to analyse their resources, identify and measure

[1] For more information about financial metrics in commercial companies and the Market Value Added (MVA) model, see [325].

their intangible assets, and consciously develop them. Numerous reports, analyses, and models were published, such as the *Intangible Assets Monitor* by Karl Erik Sveiby [391], Leif Edvinsson's *Navigator*, prepared for the Swedish insurance company Skandia [99], or the *Balanced Scorecard* by Robert S. Kaplan and David P. Norton.

K. E. Sveiby noted the limited usefulness of financial metrics in evaluating the condition of an organisation and proposed that they should be applied together with non-financial metrics. In his *Intangible Assets Monitor*, which was supposed to be a supplement to traditional accounting, he claimed that the actual goodwill of an organisation consisted of the net book value of tangible assets as well as intangible assets grouped into three categories: competencies (the personnel contributing their knowledge, experience, and skills to an organisation), internal structure (organisational culture, internal communication systems), and external structure (relationships with clients of suppliers, reputation) (see [126]). Next, the three groups of assets should be analysed in terms of their growth and development potential, efficiency, productivity, stability, and risk, as is shown in Fig. 4.6. Sveiby's *Monitor* is assessed to give the best results in the case of small and medium-sized companies that hire high-class specialists in a given area, such as consultants, lawyers, and information brokers.

Kaplan and Norton's paper published in the USA in 1990 concerned measuring and presenting the performance of an organisation from an internal perspective. It focused on analysing its tangible and intangible assets in four dimensions: clients, finances, R&D, and internal processes (Fig. 4.7). For each dimension, the authors developed a set of measuring tools and goals, and a map of interdependencies—the strategy map, which was supposed to show the cause and effect relationship between the goals and their respective tasks under a given strategy. This enabled transposition of the strategy into all areas and levels of the organisation. Unlike Karl Sveiby, who carefully evaluated assets, Kaplan and Norton believed it was essential to link them with a strategy and vision of organisational development. They concentrated on the development perspective, rather than analysing historical data, which was typical of the traditional systems of resource evaluation. However, their model does not measure the volume of intangible resources and is sometimes criticised

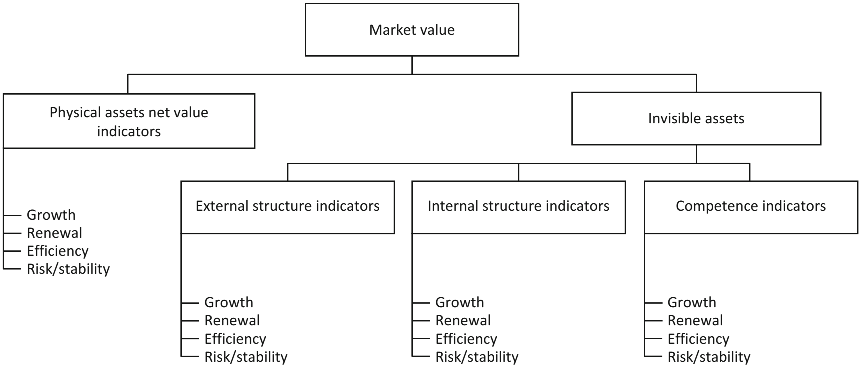

Fig. 4.6 Intangible Assets Monitor by K. E. Sveiby. *Source*: Adapted from DUDYCZ. *Zarzgdzanie wartością przedsiębiorstwa.* Warszawa, 2005, p. 218

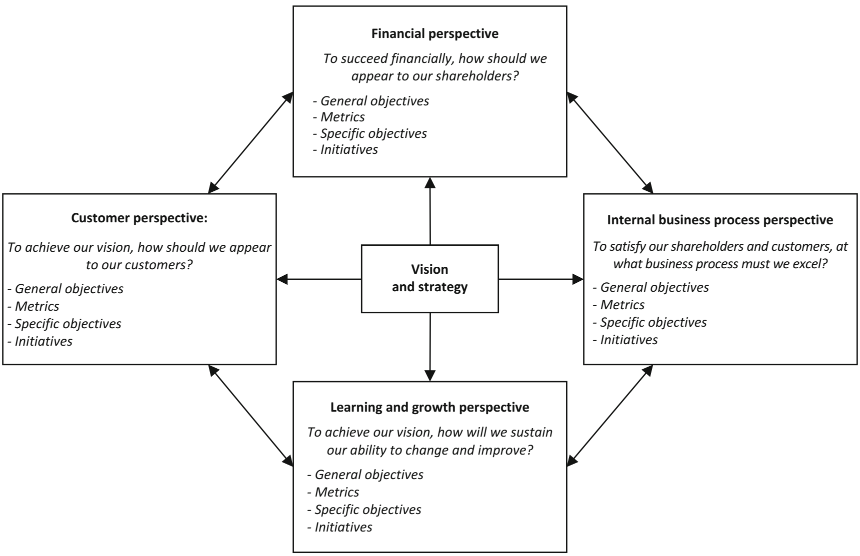

Fig. 4.7 Balanced scorecard by R. S. Kaplan and D. P. Norton. *Source*: Adapted from R. S. KAPLAN, D. P. NORTON. Using the Balanced Scorecard as a Strategic Management System. *Harvard Business Review.* 1996, vol. 1, p. 76

for that. Neither does it diagnose all the perspectives of an organisation. Instead, it focuses on the above four basic dimensions.

Kaplan and Norton's paper is increasingly used in libraries. Maria Sidor [362; 363] proposed using the strategic scorecard in quality management systems, and Lidia Białoń [34] suggested an even more extensive use of the model. Another interesting document is the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) handbook called *ISO 11620:2014 Information and documentation—Library performance indicators*, which groups indicators in accordance with the concept proposed by Kaplan and Norton under four measuring areas: resources, access, infrastructure; use; efficiency; and potentials and development. It is also worth noting the achievements of German libraries that used this method in combination with previous quality indicators [328] and in the context of the efficiency of information provision by academic libraries [61]. Also of note are the solutions used by the American Association of Research Libraries to enable evaluation of the development potential of research libraries [231]. A similar approach was implemented at the University of Pretoria in South Africa [318], where Kaplan and Norton's scorecard was used to increase the strategic effectiveness of the Academic Information System. This approach was also used at the University of Virginia Library to diagnose areas that needed improvement [358; 422] and at the Royal Library in Copenhagen as a strategic tool linking the long-term objectives of a library with its current tasks [207]. Libraries in other countries also tried to use the scorecard (e.g., UK, Australia) and it may well become an important tool in library system diagnostics, which is suggested by the growing number of relevant studies.

All the above projects, implemented both by individual institutions and under larger research programmes (e.g., the German project and the American project), adapt Kaplan and Norton's model in different ways, depending on the actual needs. The basic difference between the original tool and the solution implemented in libraries is that the latter focuses mainly on the user's perspective, while the original model is dominated by the financial perspective. Diagnosing the area associated with library users requires an analysis of their services, relations with the environment (especially users), and image and reputation. To visualise differences between the tool dedicated to commercial companies and libraries,

Table 4.1 presents a sample (simplified) strategic scorecard developed for the University of Virginia Library.

According to L. Edvinsson, the value of an organisation consists of financial capital and intellectual capital (comprising human capital and structural capital). Structural capital is made up of assets related to clients and internal and external organisational capital, as is shown in Fig. 4.8. Edvinsson proposed about 150 indicators to analyse the five basic areas of an organisation: finances, customers, processes, workers, and growth. He focused in particular on the interdependencies between the company's part (picture of finances), its current status (picture of customers and processes), and future (picture of growth).

L. Edvinsson's solution, modelled on Kaplan and Norton's scorecard, is much more detailed than the original. It has a much more elaborate structure and many more indicators, probably due to the fact that it was developed for a specific company and took into account its nature and specificity. On the other hand, Sveiby's and Kaplan and Norton's models are more universal. As a result of Edvinsson's analysis, Skandia was the first company in the world to create, in 1991, the position of the director for intellectual capital—to which Leif Edvinsson was appointed. Also, in

Table 4.1 Balanced scorecard for the University of Virginia Library

User perspective How well is the library meeting the expectations of users? • Market research • User satisfaction • Lead time on user orders	*Financial perspective* How well are the library's necessary resources secured and used? • Costs of library transactions • Costs of purchased materials • Public and private financing
Internal business process perspective How well do the internal processes function to meet the needs and expectations of users? • Total time required to make new library materials available to users • Time of response to questions of lead time on internal orders	*Growth perspective* How well is the library positioned to ensure future services? • Results of employee training • Recruiting and hiring the best candidates • Replacing hardware and updating software

Source: Adapted from M. SIDOR. Strategic scorecard as a quality management system in libraries. In M. KOCÓJOWA (ed.). *Przestrzeń informacji i komunikacji społecznej.* Kraków, 2004, p. 232

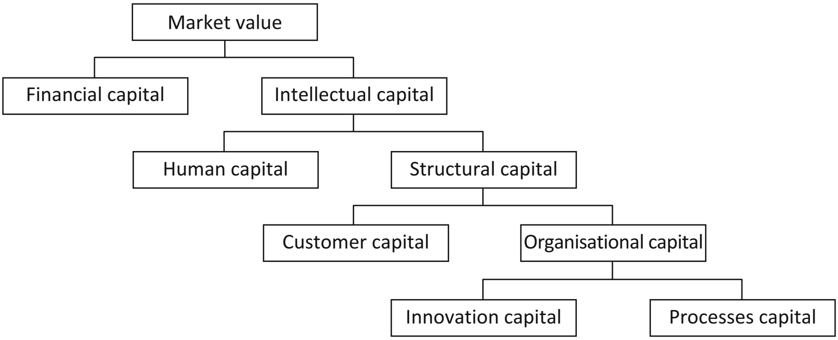

Fig. 4.8 Skandia's tree metaphor by L. Edvinsson. *Source*: Adapted from L. EDVINSSON, M. S. MALONE. *Kapitał intelektualny.* Warszawa, 2001, p 45

1995, Skandia published, apart from the traditional financial statement, the first official annual report on corporate intellectual capital. Edvinsson's analyses and the results of analyses included in the *Navigator* were used to create Dolphin, a computer program for ongoing monitoring and evaluation of processes in a company, and for simulations [372, p. 201].

In 2001, the Brookings Institution, an American non-profit organisation devoted to research in the field of, among other things, global economy, management, and development of societies, published the *Unseen Wealth* [41] report. This report summarised measurements of intangible resources conducted by an interdisciplinary task force (business leaders, consultants, accountants, economists, intellectual property lawyers, political analysts) and chaired by Margaret M. Blair and Steven M. H. Wallaman. The report emphasised that intangible resources were much more difficult to define, measure, evaluate, and account for than tangible resources. It also noted that there were no standards for identifying, measuring, and recording intangible resources. Some methodological solutions were proposed, too.

A large share of intangible resources in the goodwill of various organisations has become a typical feature of institutions operating in the information society. The European Union (EU) and OECD recognised the importance of those resources and recommended including certain intangible assets in annual business reports of companies. Between 1998 and 2001, the EU implemented the international Meritum project, the purpose of which was, among other things, to create tools for measuring intangible investments [129]. Intellectual capital reporting became mandatory for Scandinavian companies and a sound practice in such countries as the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, and Austria. The Dutch Ministry of Trade and Industry's *Intellectual Capital Statements* has been recommending since 2000 that intangible resources be reported by companies (see [395, p. 50–55]). Also, numerous organisations strive to develop uniform standards for the reporting of intangible resources. One such standard is the Global Reporting Guidelines for the social, environmental, and economic aspects of activity. Thus, it is no longer only a fashion or trend. Actual management models, as well as qualitative and quantitative measuring models, are being developed.

So far, no coherent methodology for measuring and evaluating intangible resources has been achieved, but efforts continue. Undoubtedly, knowledge about available intangible resources is useful for the purpose of allocating and investing financial resources. Such knowledge also helps better manage those resources and create a strategy founded on their use. Measuring intangible resources and determining their contribution to the achievement of the goals of an organisation may also substantiate investments in knowledge management, relationship management, and human capital development. There are many arguments in the literature in favour of measuring intangible resources [87; 95; 121; 221; 368; 390; 424]. Problems with evaluating intangible resources cause problems with investing adequate funds in their development, posing the risk of overestimating or underestimating the value of those goods. Thus, many institutions try to measure and report intangible resources, even though, due to the lack of generally accepted standards, such reports are based on individual practices and solutions. This results in the incomparability of data reported by different organisations.

The specific measuring methodologies and models depend on the industry, size of the organisation, nature of activity, and many other factors. For example, Low and Kalafut gathered information about 39 types of non-financial indicators to acquire data about intangible assets of organisations [250, p. 43]. They also developed the value creation index to measure how efficiently companies use their intangible resources

[250, p. 192]. They conducted interesting experiments where investors were asked to make investment decisions on the basis of various data packages of virtual companies. According to the results of such surveys, 35 % of experienced analysts make decisions on the basis of non-financial information and information about intangible resources [250, p. 43]. In another survey, directors reported a discrepancy between the factors that actually influenced the success of companies and those that were measured by them. According to managers, there exist no tools to analyse which resources actually influence the success of an enterprise [250, p. 191]. Ernst & Young conducted similar surveys, asking 300 stock exchange analysts about the non-financial factors they considered when analysing the condition of a company. Among the first 10 factors were implementation and achievement of strategy, credibility of managers, quality of strategy, innovation capabilities, ability to attract and maintain talented employees, market share, experience of management personnel, adjusting the salaries of managers to the interests of shareholders, leader position in research, and the quality of vital economic processes [102; 111, p. 455]. Interestingly, most of the data considered by specialists to be of crucial importance is not provided in business reports, since they are not mandatory in reporting. Accounting standards only require information about market share and salaries. The result is an information gap between expected information and the information that is actually published.[2]

According to numerous studies, the role of intangible resources differs depending on the specific industry in which an organisation operates. For example, in the telecommunications industry, 85 % of the market value of a company depends on intangible factors [250, p. 193]. Developing tools for analysing intangible resources is particularly important in organisations that rely on knowledge or are related to the processing and dissemination of knowledge, like libraries. However, metrics should always take into consideration the nature of the entire industry as well as the specific institution. They should carefully reflect the profile of the departments of a library and its internal structure (horizontal and vertical).

[2] An information gap in business reporting was defined and described by Samuel A. DiPiazza and R. G. Eccles in their book *Building Public Trust* [86].

Analysing intangible resources serves three basic objectives:

1. visualising (determining, defining, and specifying) the types of intangible resources available to a library, also known as the elements comprising its intangible property (qualitative metrics)
2. measuring or specifying the volume of the respective goods available to a library (quantitative metrics)
3. evaluating or specifying which of the resources available to a library are the most important for its activity

Measuring resources is usually understood as a process of determining their value according to a certain scale, which may not necessarily be monetary [409, p. 16]. Małgorzata Adamska rightly notes that measuring intangible resources is often mistaken for their financial evaluation. It should be treated in terms of analysing this category of goods and developing a "catalogue" of intangible resources managed by an organisation [7]. Also, Marek Świątkowski observes that intangible assets are in most cases qualitative rather than qualitative. Using the term "management" in reference to intangible assets should be reconsidered, as it was originally applied to the management of tangible assets [392, p. 132]. Agnieszka Tokaj-Krzewska claims that evaluating the non-physical assets of an organisation is problematic because assets that are unmeasurable, qualitative in nature, and hard to define cannot be expressed through numbers (e.g., schemes, mathematic algorithms) [402, p. 302]. Anna Pietruszka-Ortyl suggests that this kind of resources should be "evaluated" rather than measured [275, p. 84]. Value can be defined as "a set of the properties of a thing that determine its usefulness for a given organisation. Evaluation of things requires a specific metric to enable comparison of the 'usefulness' of different things. […] Evaluation of things by means of a monetary metric is their price estimation. Value is subjective in the sense that it can differ between organisations" [409, p. 187–188]. Thus, the value of library resources will be evaluated differently by different organisations and the conditions of such evaluation should always be made clear.[3] Evaluation of

[3] Depending on the principles of evaluation, the literature mentions various types of value of intangible resources: fair market value, market value, acquisition value, value in use, investment value, owner value, insurance value, collateral value, and asset value. However, they are all of limited use in libraries (see [409, p. 188–189]).

intangible resources is also determined by the purpose for which they are evaluated.

The term "price estimation" is associated with the financial evaluation of the goodwill of an organisation, "a separate economic and legal entity with a specific potential in the form of fixed and current assets as well as a number of intangible assets and properties" [191, p. 69]. Thus, price estimation covers both physical (tangible) goods and intangible goods. The term "price estimation" is used mainly in the context of change of ownership. In other cases, the applicable term is "evaluation" (of an organisation or library) [191, p. 70]. There are a number of reasons for performing price estimation. In the case of libraries that do not perform financial estimations (which should be clearly noted) and instead evaluate the quality of resources, the reasons for such evaluation may be to introduce incentive systems, identify value creators, and prepare strategic plans. In general, the evaluation of library resources has three basic functions: advisory (informative), mediatory (communicative), and justifying (reasoning).

Marek Panfil focused only on the reasons for measuring intellectual property, which he grouped into three categories:

1. measuring intellectual property to improve internal management
2. measuring intellectual property for the purpose of external reporting
3. measuring intellectual property for the purpose of transactions and statutory obligations (e.g., at the request of supervising bodies or administrative orders) [303, p. 315].

The above methods of measuring intellectual property are used by libraries proportionally to the extent to which they have and use these kinds of assets.

A separate category is economic evaluation methods, including methods based on the evaluation of assets, methods based on the evaluation of the ability to generate profit, market methods, and mixed methods [368, p. 40]. Interestingly, results may differ depending on the methodology used, which puts into question the purposefulness of unstandardized methods of evaluation. Different evaluation methods are used under property-based theory and resource-based theory, respectively [269, p. 143]. Property-based theory involves evaluation of all the resources of an organisation, both physical and non-physical. On the other hand, income-based theory is associated with evaluating the profit an organisation may generate. The economic literature defines a number of other tools, which are not discussed in this book (e.g., [101; 191; 285; 370]).

In theory and in practice, there are many attempts to evaluate and measure non-physical resources, but in most cases they concern intangible assets [184; 191; 228; 327; 373; 406; 411]. Robert Reilly and Robert Schweihs observed that, from the perspective of evaluation and economic analysis, intangible assets should meet the following conditions:

- Their specific nature should be possible to perceive, identify, and describe.
- They should have a legal status and be subject to protection.
- They should be transferable.
- Their existence should be proven by material evidence, such as a printout, CD, or photography.
- It should be possible to control them over time, such as creating or liquidating in a specific moment of time [344, p. 5]

Few of the intangible resources available to libraries meet the above conditions. It can be assumed (though it is an oversimplification) that they are intangible properties (e.g., intellectual works, patents, licences) whose use is limited in libraries and associated mainly with their role as a licensee rather than licensor.

Evaluation may be global and concern the value of intellectual capital, or it can determine the overall value of intellectual capital as the sum of its components or the individual value of respective intangible assets [411, p. 103]. Measurement may be quantitative, qualitative, or mixed. It can be continuous monitoring of the condition of the library for its better management, or an individual verification of the condition of resources at a given moment or period of time [297, p. 95]. Data from continuous measurements usually serve the internal purposes of a library, unlike data from an individual measurement, which are addressed to external stakeholders (e.g., the university) where an academic library is established or to municipal or regional authorities that administer a public library.

Traditional evaluation methods popularly used by commercial companies include, for example, the discounted cash flow method. In this method, the actual value of assets is equal to the discounted value of future benefits of the organisation (owner). Benefits are estimated on the basis of such metrics as profit, dividends, and cash flow. Numerous authors (e.g., Jerzy Baruk [31], Dorota Dobija [87; 88], Leif Edvinsson and Michael Malone [100], Artur Paździor [308], Monika Marcinkowska [257, p. 63] and Karl Erik Sveiby [391]) recommend using the model of evaluating intangible resources, where the book value of non-depreciated tangible assets is deducted from the market value of an organisation (understood as the current value of future cash flows, modified by market psychology factors). However, this method needs improvement, as is also suggested by the abovementioned authors, because the difference between market value and tangible resources is not always equal to the sum of intangible resources. G. Urbanek recommends replacing the simplified formula:

$$\text{market value} = \text{book value} + \text{intellectual capital}$$

with another formula:

$$\text{market value} = \text{book value} + \text{intellectual capital} + \text{market structure}$$

Urbanek explains that the reason for the above change is capital market fluctuations causing changes in market evaluation that are not associated with the evaluation of intangible resources [411, p. 90, 106]. Market value may be distorted by a number of causes, such as economic instability, speculations, or increased demand. In extreme situations, when book value is higher than market value, this formula will produce negative value of intangible resources, which, of course, is inadmissible. Another problem are non-uniform accounting standards in countries and different accounting practices (e.g., concerning the amounts of depreciation).

As a result, the same assets may be associated with different book values. To balance the differences between book value and market value, the concept of "fair value" was introduced the actual value of resources. This method of evaluation, which does not provide for the historical cost of a resource, is sometimes criticised for its lack of credibility, its subjectivity, and its loss of impartiality and objectivity (which should always characterise accounting methods). Thus, it is suggested that traditional financial statements be accompanied by separate reports describing the available intangible resources, or that accounting reports include additional qualitative metrics of those resources.

It should be noted that most evaluation methods are founded on economic factors, while the goodwill of an organisation is also affected by other factors (e.g., demographic, psychological, technological, social). These are particularly important in the case of libraries, where economic value is secondary to social, cultural, or psychological values.

There are numerous evaluation models available both to academics and managers. However, the problem is that they are all selective and none of the existing models has so far become standard or even generally recognised. Attempts are being made to develop a measuring tool that would take into account the specificity of various institutions (including non-profit organisations, such as institutions of culture and science) and enable the evaluation of not only intellectual property, but also other intangible resources.

The above models of evaluation have not gained popularity in libraries due to the non-financial goals of their activity, although it is often claimed that the "need to determine and communicate to the society the economic value of library services or products has always been important, the more so now, when the financing of libraries is drastically shrinking. Decision-makers and the society in general must be made aware of the benefits of library services" [119, p. 217]. The foreign literature reports a growing interest in calculating return on investment (ROI) to measure the effectiveness of a library or, more specifically, its economic value for the society [119; 177; 282; 316].

Some of the models of summary evaluation of intangible resources proposed in the literature are the Tobin Q indicator developed by the economist James Tobin, the Calculated Intangible Value method developed by the NCI Research, and the Knowledge Capital Earnings Method developed by Baruch Lev. The methods of evaluating individual intangible assets are divided into:

- cost methods founded on the assumption that an investor is willing to invest an amount corresponding to the cost of acquiring an asset
- market methods founded on price adjustment as a result of a balance between demand and supply
- income methods calculating the value of intangible resources on the basis of the current value of expected economic benefits of those resources
- real option methods measuring the added value for an organisation resulting from future development prospects

One of the interesting current trends in the area of goodwill management is Value Based Management, which combines strategic management with financial management to achieve a good position and competitive advantage and, consequently, to make the most of the value of the organisation. In this method, goodwill is perceived in the context of the organisation's ability to gain competitive advantage and build strong market value, unlike the methods that evaluate goodwill on the basis of the physical resources of an organisation (see [95, p. 29–36]).

Another increasingly popular model is the Value Reporting framework developed by PricewaterhouseCoopers [111, p. 473–481]. It consists of four basic categories of information that cover both internal and external factors:

1. market overview—the competitive, regulatory, and macroeconomic environments
2. strategy—goals and objectives, organisational design, and governance structure
3. value-creating activities—innovation, brands, customers, the supply chain, human resources, reputation
4. financial performance—economic results, financial position, risk management, business segmentation

When measuring the intangible resources of a library, the most important are "value creating activities," which cover most of intangible resources. Other areas may also prove useful in library management processes, such as market overview or strategy. When adequately redesigned, the model may prove useful in diagnosing the library's strategic position, taking into account its intangible resources.

It should be noted that many models and systems of evaluating goodwill proposed in the literature are dedicated to commercial companies and are theoretical in nature. However, arguments are raised that similar models should be designed for non-commercial organisations [100, p. 136]. The available measuring tools focus on evaluating the condition of those resources rather than their economic worth. Practical experience in measuring resources, especially intangible, is very limited. Thus, there are no generally accepted and recognised standards. Traditional balance sheet reporting of mainly tangible assets and intellectual property rights (patents, licences, copyright) results in disparities between financial statements and market evaluation. Similar results are rare. Another problem is that most measuring methods focus on the analysis of the existing condition of institutions, whereas the measuring of intangible resources should be future-oriented. That is, it should evaluate the possibilities of development granted by the intangible resources available to an organisation.

Even more difficult is measuring and evaluating non-profit organisations. Because they are not oriented towards generating profit, it is sometimes claimed that their evaluation is unnecessary. On the other hand, evaluation of institutions of science and culture, such as libraries, could reveal their potential and huge social role. Evaluation could also improve management of resources and stimulate conscious development of such organisations.

Using various methods to measure intangible organisational resources in libraries can serve two purposes. First, as an internal system of information, it supports internal managerial decisions. Second, it supplements libraries' external reporting addressed to external stakeholders that are interested in the condition of institutions that they relate to organisationally, financially, or socially. However, measuring intangible organisational resources of libraries may be problematic and associated with the risk of errors caused by:

- not knowing which intangible resources are of key importance for a library and which are incidental, and consequently making the measurements too detailed and extending it to insignificant indicators
- using various measuring tools that hinder verification and comparison of data (e.g., from different branches or departments of a library)
- not clearly defining the object of the measurements and measuring units
- not being able to identify the cause and effect relationships between resources
- using a measuring model that is too simple or too extensive, and is not appropriate for the size and rank of the object of the measurements and nature of the library
- not being able to develop objective measuring tools for things that are important for a library
- high instability of the object of measurements
- manipulating the data generated by the measurements to achieve the desired result, such as improved reputation or positive opinion
- measurements being costly and time consuming

4.3 Protection of Intangible Resources

As has already been mentioned, intangible resources are a specific form of property that is hard to identify, measure, and protect. Insofar as the market of tangible assets is stable and the rules governing it are transparent and unequivocal (every librarian knows the mechanism of purchasing books and devices necessary for library work), the market of intangible resources is highly imperfect. This is due to the fact that most intangible resources do not have a clear legal status (ownership status) and it is hard to say precisely who owns them in the formal and legal sense. Thus, most transactions on the intangible assets market are limited to intellectual property, namely copyright, inventions, utility models, trademarks, utility models, and industrial designs. A separate issue is the protection and security of information.[4]

[4] The problem is addressed in relevant legal regulations and ISO standards (e.g., ISO/IEC 27002:2007 Information Security Management System) and I am not going to discuss it in this book.

It is believed that the protection of intangible resources requires a security concept integrated with all the management levels of the entire organisation, since every level of management needs a different approach. On the highest level, an overall vision of protection should be defined. On lower the level, it should get more detailed. According to one of the models, the strategic level corresponds to the security philosophy. Subsequently, this philosophy is defined by the principles of security and the security policy, which in turn is implemented through procedures developed through practice (see Fig. 4.9).

It is possible to protect all types of goods available to a library if certain conditions are met. In the case of intangible resources, complying with all the conditions is problematic. The conditions are:

1. a resource is identifiable (i.e., it is possible to identify, describe, and evaluate its nature, limits, and size)
2. the owner or user of a given resource is identifiable
3. there are legal regulations governing the protection of a specific resource

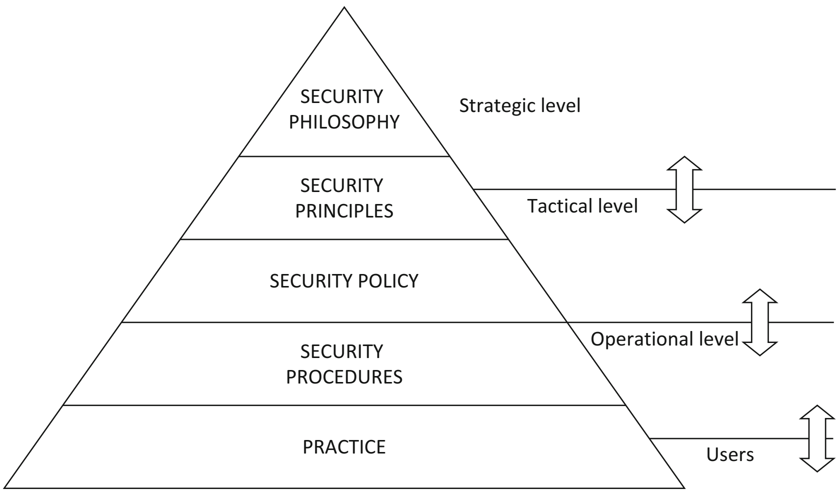

Fig. 4.9 Hierarchy of the protection of intangible resources. *Source*: Adapted from C. OLSZAK, E. ZIEMBA (ed.). *Strategie i modele gospodarki elektronicznej.* Warszawa, 2007, p. 412

Intangible resources may be divided into assets that can be associated with formal property rights, and those that, even though they are used by a specific institution, are not their formal or legal property (i.e., a library does not have a formal title of ownership to them). The first group includes, among other things:

- objects of copyright (works expressed through words, mathematical symbols, or graphical signs)
- inventions
- utility models
- trademarks
- industrial designs
- utility patterns
- databases

On the other hand, intangible resources that are not the property of libraries include, among other things:

- employee skills
- knowledge and skills of the entire organisation
- organisational culture
- reputation
- adaptability and innovation
- communication and relationships

Resources that are not the property of an organisation cannot be traded, which means that they cannot be purchased on the market but must be developed through various means.

Wiesław Kotarba proposed a similar division of goods depending on whether or not they are protected. The first group includes goods that are not subject to any protection (i.e., are in the public domain), such as general knowledge, knowledge available in manuals or taught in schools, and goods that used to be protected in the past but no longer are due to expiration or cancelation of protection [195, p. 17]. The other group comprises goods that are subject to protection and is further subdivided into goods where protection is contingent on compliance with certain procedures and goods that are protected the moment they are generated, without any formalities.

Since it is difficult to analyse the protection of intangible resources that are not formally owned by a library but only used by it (in the legal sense), I will discuss here the goods whose protection is provided for in legal regulations. In particular, I will discuss works covered by copyright and industrial rights. Figure 4.10 presents division of intangible resources on the basis of the form of their legal protection.

The first legal regulations in this area were formulated in the nineteenth century. In 1883, the Paris Convention was signed, which governed the protection of industrial property. In 1886, the Berlin Convention was signed, which concerned copyright. In subsequent years, copyright laws were adopted in various countries. These laws were regularly updated and annexed. Apart from national, legal regulations governing copyright and industrial property rights, there are international conventions associated mainly with acceptance of the EU law. They may be grouped into three categories:

1. regulations governing the protection of intangible goods associated with intellectual property (copyright)
2. regulations governing the protection of intangible goods associated with industrial property (industrial laws)

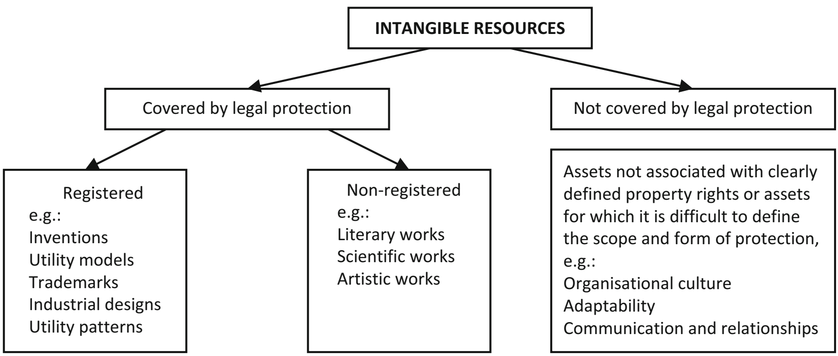

Fig. 4.10 Classification of intangible resources by type of legal protection. *Source*: Own elaboration

3. regulations governing the protection of intangible goods associated with intellectual property and industrial property

The first group includes:

- Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works of 9 September 1886
- Universal Copyright Convention of 24 July 1971
- International Convention for the Protection of Performers, Producers of Phonograms and Broadcasting Organisations of 26 October 1961
- WIPO Copyright Treaty of 1996

The other group comprises:

- Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property of 20 March 1883
- Nice Agreement Concerning the International Classification of Goods and Services for the Purposes of the Registration of Marks of 15 June 1957
- Strasbourg Agreement Concerning the International Patent Classification of 24 March 1971
- Madrid Agreement Concerning the International Registration of Marks of 14 April 1891
- Patent Cooperation Treaty of 19 June 1993

Regulations governing both copyright and industrial property rights include:

- Convention Establishing the World Intellectual Property Organisation of 14 July 1967
- Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) of 15 April 1994[5]

[5] The above dates are the dates when the respective regulations were first adopted. The regulations were ratified at different dates in respective countries.

There are many more legal regulations governing the protection of various types of intangible resources. However, unlike legislation concerning copyright, they are of little relevance for libraries and will not be analysed in this book.

According to copyright laws, a work is every manifestation of individual creativity in any form and regardless of its value, designation, or means of expression. In particular, the objects of copyright are works expressed through words, mathematical symbols, or graphical signs (literary, journalistic, scientific, cartographic and computer programs), plastic, photographic, violin-making, industrial design, architectural, urban or musical works, stage plays, musicals, choreographic and pantomimic works, and audio and video works (including films). Works are protected by copyright, if they are original, individual, and unique and are not reproductions or copies of an existing concept or form. Copyright usually does not extend to legal regulations or drafts thereof, official documents, materials, signs or symbols, published patent or protective descriptions, and simple press releases. Thus, in the case of libraries, library regulations and other documents are not subject to protection.

Industrial property rights define, among other things, the protection of inventions, utility models, industrial designs, and trademarks. Protection usually does not extend to technology improvements or know-how. Other unprotected items are discoveries; scientific theories and mathematical methods; works of purely aesthetic character; plans, principles, and methods concerning intellectual or economic activity and games; works that can be proven unusable in accordance with the approved and accepted principles of science; and digital machine programs.

The legislation of many European countries makes a clear distinction between rights associated with copyrighted works into moral rights and economic rights. Moral rights mean a non-transferable and perpetual bond between an author and his work. They include his right to sign the work with his name or pseudonym, or to publish it anonymously; the integrity of the content and form of the work and its proper use; to decide to publicly disclose the work for the first time; and to supervise the use of the work. Economic rights are limited in time. The period of their validity differs depending on the type of the protected work. The periods of validity of economic rights for various types of intangible goods according to the Polish legislation are presented in Table 4.2.

If an invention, utility model, or industrial design is created under an employment contract or another contractual relationship, the right

Table 4.2 Periods of validity of economic rights to intangible goods

Intangible good	Period of validity	Event marking the commencement of protection
Goods covered by intellectual property rights		
Works	70 years	As a rule, the end of the year when the author dies
Artistic performances	50 years	The end of the year when the performance was recorded
Phonograms and videograms	50 years	The end of the year when the phonogram or videogram was recorded
Radio or television broadcasts	50 years	The end of the year of the first broadcast
The first editions	25 years	The date of first publication or distribution
Scientific or critical publications	30 years	The date of publication
Databases subject to special protection	15 years	The end of the year when the database was created
Goods covered by industrial property rights		
Inventions	20 years	Application to the Patent Office
Utility models	10 years	Application to the Patent Office
Industrial designs	25 years (divided into 5-year periods)	Application to the Patent Office
Integrated circuit topographies	10 years	The end of the year when the circuit containing a topography was entered on the market or when a relevant application was submitted to the Patent Office
Trademarks	10 years (extendable by subsequent 10-year periods)	Application to the Patent Office

Source: Adapted from R. GOLAT. *Dobra niematerialne.* Bydgoszcz; Warszawa, 2006, p. 84

to apply for a patent for an invention, right of protection of a utility model, or rights associated with the registration of an industrial design belong to the employer or contractor unless the parties agree otherwise. A similar rule applies in the case of copyrighted works. If an employee creates a work in association with his contractual obligations, the employer acquires, along with that work, the economic rights stipulated in the employment contract and the mutual intent of the parties.

Even though it is not the purpose of libraries to create intangible works, such works are in fact developed in association with their operation. Librarians often publish, in print or in electronic format, teaching materials that they use in their professional work, instructions, catalogues, scientific articles, or larger research papers. In such cases, the above principles apply. The protection of industrial property rarely applies to libraries, which is due to the nature of their activity not associated with industry or trade. However, it may not be entirely excluded (as is shown by my surveys, according to which approximately 2 % of libraries generate industry and trade-related works through their activity).

The purpose of such legal regulations is to protect the interests of an employer who ensures proper conditions for his employee to create a work. Thus, a librarian may engage in creative work during his normal working hours, using the facilities, software, hardware, and book collections of the employer. One example of this type of work is studies concerning historical collections that involve both renovation in the library and historical research. On the other hand, worksheets created by a school librarian for library classes and published in a separate publication may also be regarded as creative work resulting from an employment contract. There are many similar examples. It should be noted that the intensity of scientific and creative work depends to some extent on the nature of a library and the role of research and publications in its statutory provisions. In some libraries, scientific activity and creative work are ancillary to the main areas of the library's activity. However, research libraries are obliged to engage in various studies and analyses and many of them have jobs that involve the creation of various "works."

Some countries use the concept of "work for hire." Such work is created by an employee as part of his job. If an employee creates a work in association with his contractual obligations, the employer acquires, along with that work, the economic rights stipulated in the employment contract and through the mutual intent of the parties. Thus, if the above conditions are met, economic rights associated with a copyrighted work belong to the employer, while moral rights belong to the author of the work. The latter cannot be renounced or transferred. Accordingly, a library worker whose job includes the creation of works (e.g., creative derivative works concerning library collections) has the right to sign a work with his own name, while the employer is entitled to receive financial benefits associated with the creation of the work. There also exist so-called borderline creations of the intellect, such as bibliographies. They are often produced in libraries. Because of their low level of creativity, they may be not recognised as works within the meaning of copyright laws.

In most cases, libraries, archives and school are authorised to:

- provide free access to copies of publications, within the scope of their statutory activity
- make or commission copies of publications to supplement, maintain, or protect their own collections
- provide access to collections for the purpose of research or studies via terminals

To increase protection of intellectual property in accordance with the abovementioned legal regulations, accounting practice provides for various types of records. It should be noted that a library may resign from issuing such internal records. Internal records of changes in the ownership of intangible assets include:

1. proof of purchase of an intangible asset (issued on the basis of an invoice, sales contract, notarial deed, licence agreement)
2. proof of gratuitous transfer of an intangible asset (issued on the basis of an invoice, protocol of evaluation, protocol of acceptance)
3. proof of liquidation of an intangible asset (issued on the basis of a report of a liquidation committee)
4. proof of change of the place of use of an intangible asset (issued on the basis of an acceptance report) (see [336, p. 131–141])

Protection of intangible property provides for penal sanctions for the violation of exclusive rights to copyrighted works. It should be noted that the protection of intellectual property is different than the protection of industrial property. Depending on the scale of violation and its intent (conscious or unconscious, done for commercial purposes or non-commercial purposes), different types of punishment apply. Punishments can range from stopping the violation and transferring to the author the profit gained from the sale of his work to paying several times the price of the work and imprisonment.

The provisions of copyright and industrial property laws list many more rights, principles, and sanctions associated with intangible creativity than I discuss in this book. Detailed legal interpretations of these issues are available in publications concerning copyright laws of respective countries.

As has already been mentioned, legal protection is limited to a narrow group of the intangible resources of a library—namely, to intellectual property. A library may implement procedures to support the protection of other intangible resources, but they are laborious, not very effective, and rarely used in library practice.

4.4 Intangible Organisational Resource Management in Polish Libraries: Research Results

The sources of the success and competitive advantage of organisations in a specific industry have been the topic of analyses for a long time, probably ever since commerce started developing. Complex scientific research in this field commenced in the twentieth century, when the positioning school, according to which organisations succeeded by making use of market opportunities, was replaced by resource-based theory. Case studies and market analyses revealed major differences between organisations from the same industries [134; 232]. Despite comparable external conditions (the same market, clients, services, products), companies implemented different strategies, offered different quality of products and services, and had different HR policies. Earlier, it had been believed that such differences resulted from the specificity of and differences between the industries in which organisations operated. Resource-based theory was the first to show a correlation between the resources and skills of an organisation and its effectiveness.

Until recently, it was believed that the source of success and user satisfaction in libraries was rich collections. However, as the technology developed and e-documents became popular, attention shifted to the accessibility of information. The physical location of the source of information (material resources) became of secondary importance. Since the late twentieth century, there has been extensive research in library science on library management and the role of intangible resources in shaping the level of library services. However, no comprehensive analyses are available that would integrate the respective assets and their overall impact on the success of libraries.

The following questions should be asked to verify the impact of intangible resources on libraries:

- Do libraries appreciate the role of intangible resources?
- Do they know which assets they have at their disposal?
- Do they prioritise and evaluate their resources?
- Do they try to build, consciously develop, and effectively use their intangible resources?
- Do the resources libraries actually have affect the management and the planning and implementation of strategy?

Analysis of intangible resources may be based on quantitative indicators associated with elements of those resources. For example, "alliances" may cover the number of alliances, the number of partners in alliances, or the number of marketing agreements the library has entered into. In the literature, there are many different metrics to identify intangible resources. Each institution should select the method that best reflects its needs, diagnostic possibilities, and the purpose of measurements. It is also possible to tailor the available methodologies to the individual needs of a given institution. Because of organisational and financial obstacles, developing an independent measuring model seems possible only for large scientific libraries. Models analysing the respective elements of intangible resources were proposed by Göran Roos [349], Leif Edvinsson and Michael S. Malone [100], and Jay Liebowitz and Ching Y. Suen [247], among others. However, not all of them focused on a specific type of organisation. On the other hand, the recent literature emphasises the need to carefully select a measuring model that disregards the factors that are useless (insignificant) in a given organisation. It should be tailored to the unique processes and interdependencies within its structure. Measuring all the aspects of the functioning of an organisation (instead of only those that are of core importance) generates unnecessary costs and time waste. Trying to control all the elements, even those of marginal importance, may cause informational chaos [121, p. 68].

1. User-related elements:

   (a) databases associated with users (e.g., library system databases, customer relationship management [CRM] databases)
   (b) basic data associated with library users (e.g., number of users, number of new users in a certain period of time, number of users per librarian, number of users lost in a given period of time, number of items borrowed per user in a given period of time, number of active users, average number of auxiliary services used by a user[6])
   (c) types of relationships with users (e.g., level of user satisfaction, user loyalty, degree to which user needs are satisfied, period of user activity,[7] duration of relationships,[8] frequency of interactions,[9]

[6] Auxiliary services not associated with the provision of collections or information (e.g., participation in presentations, courses, meetings, and other events organised by a library).

[7] It is assumed that every user is alternately active or passive. A period of increased activity may be followed by a passive period when a user has no contacts with a library. The frequency and duration of these periods determines the quality of user-library relationships.

[8] The duration of a relationship is one of the determinants of library user loyalty. Long relationships are typical of loyal users, whereas short and irregular relationships are typical of infrequent users.

[9] Intensive user contacts with a library may result from loyalty to the institution or temporary increased demand for information (e.g., during an examination session, when writing a dissertation or performing research). The intensity of a relationship is judged on the basis of such data as the number of user visits to a library in a given period of time, the number of visits to the library website, or the frequency of using electronic services.

regularity of interactions,[10] quality of relationships,[11] degree of user engagement in subsequent interactions with the library,[12] level of user's trust in the library,[13] average duration of a user's relationship with the library, users' ability to use specific tools,[14] average investment in user training[15])

(d) distribution channels

2. Human-capital-related assets (trained personnel):

   (a) number of employees
   (b) employee structure by education (librarians and auxiliary staff)
   (c) average age of employees
   (d) average length of employment
   (e) average duration of employment
   (f) Number of librarians (broken down into librarians with university diplomas and with academic titles);
   (g) percentage of management personnel
   (h) percentage of employees with extensive experience
   (i) stability of employment (number of employees with longer than average length of employment/number of employees × 100)
   (j) number of employees made redundant (on the initiative of managers, on the initiative of an employee)
   (k) worker fluctuation rate (number of employees made redundant/number of all employees × 100)

[10] Regular user contacts with a library over a long period of time may prove user satisfaction with library services or they may result from the lack of choice between other institutions offering similar services (e.g., in small towns with only one library).

[11] Relationships may be superficial or they may be the source of internal user satisfaction, which also builds loyalty to a library.

[12] Committed users are more valuable for a library than those who prefer superficial relationships. Librarians should strive to transform superficial relationships into committed relationships.

[13] User trust in an institution reflects its reputation and public image.

[14] Users' ability to use specific library services (e.g., electronic databases or catalogues) often result from the quality of user-librarian relationships and the time invested in individual and group training.

[15] Understood both as financial investment and the time and effort invested.

(l) worker mobility rate (number of employees engaged and made redundant/number of employees × 100)
(m) number of days of absence on sick leaves
(n) employee participation in trainings, courses, conferences, studies (including funds invested therein, number of hours of training per employee, total number of trainings, number of employees with a planned path of professional development)
(o) HR structure by competencies (e.g., linguistic, organisational, computer skills)
(p) costs of raising employee qualifications (e.g., subsequent levels of professional career, academic degree, or title)
(q) employee satisfaction index

3. Organisational (structural) elements:

(a) computer software and networks, databases, digital libraries, and library computer systems
(b) membership in networks, consortia, clusters, and so on
(c) management systems and methods (including quality management systems, ISO certificates)
(d) intellectual assets (e.g., copyrights, patents, licences, knowledge bases)
(e) R&D investment
(f) organisational and marketing investment
(g) investment in services
(h) number of hours devoted to organisational activities (meetings, debates)
(i) administrative costs
(j) duration of cooperation with suppliers or wholesalers

The elements that may be important for library activity include:

The intangible resources of a library, and in particular its intellectual capital, may be measured using the model proposed in the Polish context by Agnieszka Sopińska and Piotr Wachowiak [378; 379]. The model uses and expands the abovementioned lists. It is based on the point-weighted technique of measurements combined with the evaluation profile and enables gathering the information required for library resource management. The authors suggest comparing the results of measurements with the performance of other institutions from the same sector. The subsequent stages of this method are:

1. listing and prioritising criteria to evaluate the solutions of a given problem (by means of estimation or expert methods)
2. determining a scale of points to evaluate each solution in terms of compliance with a given criterion (usually from 1 to 5 or from 1 to 3)
3. evaluating each solution for compliance with the criteria of evaluation and point-weighting the respective criteria (the weight of a criterion multiplied by the number of points awarded to a given solution)
4. compiling a synthetic evaluation consisting of the sum of point-weighted evaluations of all criteria and selecting the solution that received the most points [378]

The point evaluation may be supported by evaluation profiles (i.e., fragmentary evaluations on the basis of a set of criteria and their graphical presentation, such as a chart with a broken line connecting the points of fragmentary evaluations). Table 4.3 presents a possible set of criteria based on L. Edvinsson's model of intellectual capital.

The authors of this method assume that the core elements determining the development of a library are the following:

- constantly updated and solidified knowledge
- effective communication
- innovation
- extensive knowledge of clients (library users)
- durable relations with clients
- broad range and high quality of services
- competent, committed, and effective workers

They also conclude that for an organisation to be recognised as having high intellectual potential, it must meet at least three of the criteria with the highest weight in the three areas listed in the table—human capital, organisational capital, and customer capital.

Selection of the methodology for the management of intangible library resources depends on a number of factors, such as its profile, size, information collection methods, management tools, research competencies of the management personnel and workers, and many other aspects. It is crucial that the data gathered by a library enable evaluation of the prospects and directions of the library's development rather than illustrate its existing profile and methods of operation on the basis of historical data. Analyses should support the strategy for development by providing information on the types of fixed assets, intangible resources, and competencies available to the library and how they can be used to make it more successful.

In 2014, I conducted surveys among library directors and managers to illustrate some aspects of the management of the intangible organisational resources of Polish libraries. The survey covered a group of 375 persons (190 general directors and 185 managers) from public, scientific, academic, pedagogical, and professional/technical libraries. The size of the libraries varied from small (up to 10 workers), to medium (11–50 workers), to large (more than 50 workers). School libraries were excluded from the survey due to a limited number of personnel, simple organisational structure, and limited profile of activity. I sent an electronic survey to respondents in the first quarter of the year 2014.

One of the goals of the survey was to determine which of the intangible resources of libraries are considered to be the most important and valuable by directors and managers. By identifying these resources, it is possible to show the areas of activity that the management personnel of respective libraries focus on. Respondents scored, on a scale from 1 to 5, such assets, resources, and competencies as:

1. human capital (knowledge, competencies, employee skills)
2. leadership skills of library directors and managers
3. strategies of activity
4. organisational culture
5. ability to communicate; relationships between employees
6. ability to communicate; relationships with the library environment and, in particular, its users
7. library reputation (including its image and identity)

Table 4.3 Measuring the intellectual potential of libraries with the method proposed by A. Sopińska and P. Wachowiak

Criteria	Description	Weight
Human-capital-related criteria		
The time spent on training one employee (broken down into directors, managers, and librarians)	Librarian training helps increase the intellectual capital of a library. The number of hours or days of training may suggest whether librarians are delegated to various kinds of training often enough.	3 points
Funds allocated to increasing librarian qualifications (including trainings, courses, conferences), broken down into employee groups	Sufficient funds should be secured to make it possible to increase professional qualifications of library workers. If library workers are asked to bear the full costs of all forms of professional education, the effect may be contrary. They may stop developing and the atmosphere at work may become destructive.	1 point
The ratio of highly qualified employees (specialist university degree, university diploma in librarianship) to the total number of library staff	Extensive knowledge and qualifications of employees help build the intellectual capital of a library. Analysis in the respective department will show a possible shortage or surplus of such employees.	3 points
Age of employees (broken down into directors, managers, and librarians)	This criterion helps identify possible threats associated with the loss of employees who are likely to retire or take a leave or sick leave, and the areas where librarians do not have sufficient professional experience.	2 points
Length of employment in a library (broken down into directors, managers, and librarians)	This criterion helps diagnose possible threats associated with insufficient experience or occupational burnout of the staff.	1 point
Age of employees (broken down into directors, managers, and librarians)	This criterion shows whether the library team is relatively stable and may build a relatively lasting intellectual capital.	3 points
The ratio of employees (broken down into directors, managers, and librarians) covered by a mentoring or coaching programme	Mentoring and coaching help develop the employee potential and increase their competencies. It helps employees better understand the processes in the library (usually as a result of master-disciple relationships).	3 points

Table 4.3 (continued)

Criteria	Description	Weight
The number of initiatives proposed in a certain period of time (e.g., a year) per employee (broken down into directors, managers, and librarians)	The level of employee innovation reflects both the organisational climate in a library and the competencies of librarians. It is particularly valuable if changes are proposed not only by managers but also by librarians who are at the bottom of the organisational structure and know best the practical aspects of work in the library.	2 points
The rate of implemented initiatives per employee	High innovation of the team and implementation of the proposed initiatives prove that the library makes good use of the employee potential.	1 point
Awareness of the library mission, vision, and strategy among the management personnel and librarians	The rate of employees who can define the main assumptions of the library strategy and mission reflects the purposefulness of their everyday decisions and their work. Not knowing the mission and strategy, employees are not aware of the library priorities and limit their work to performing their ongoing duties.	2 points
Managerial experience	May be measured by the number of managerial positions previously occupied by the current management personnel per library manager. Managerial experience helps multiply intellectual capital.	2 points
Computer skills (broken down into directors, managers, and librarians)	This is essential for effective work in every kind of library. This criterion may be measured by the number of computer trainings per library employee, the number of hours spent in training, or the rate of employees who completed at least one computer course (broken down into general and specialist library courses).	2 points
Foreign language skills of employees (broken down into directors, managers, and librarians)	Computer skills are necessary for efficient user service and library development. They can be measured on the basis of the rate of employees who can speak and write at least one foreign language at a proficient level.	1 point

(*continued*)

Table 4.3 (continued)

Criteria	Description	Weight
Internal communication	Vertical collaboration and communication is a condition of dynamic development of a library. If only formal channels of communication are used, the library development is hindered and employees are isolated.	3 points
…		
Organisational-capital-related criteria		
Formulation of the library development strategy	A strategy should be formulated in writing and include the strategic goals of the library and how to achieve them. Transparent goals are a framework for daily work and help identify the priorities.	3 points
Availability of computers in a library	The availability of computers and electronic devices in a library improves the speed and quality of user services, as well as the effectiveness and cost-efficiency of the librarians' work. This concerns both software dedicated to libraries and non-specialist programs used in a library.	3 points
Organisational structure	The type of organisational structure affects the library's adaptability. Vertical and very formal structures may be an obstacle for certain non-standard tasks and functions of a library.	2 points
Level of standardisation (broken down into general organisational standards and purely library standards)	Excessive standardisation may be an obstacle to certain projects or innovation. On the other hand, insufficient standardisation, especially in the area of traditional librarianship (e.g., cataloguing) causes chaos and prevents harmonious provision of services.	3 points
A system of motivating and rewarding employees	A good system increases motivation and innovation, substantially helping build the library's organisational capital. On the other hand, a wrong system or lack of any system causes organisational stagnation and dysfunctional behaviour.	3 points

Table 4.3 (continued)

Criteria	Description	Weight
Character of organisational culture	The organisational culture of a library may help build intangible resources or, to the contrary, cause the reluctance of employees and make them care only for their personal benefits. Organisational culture is to a large extent influenced by library managers and directors.	3 points
…		
User-related criteria		
Forms of contacts with users	The more communication channels a library offers, the higher the trust and satisfaction of its users.	2 points
Accessibility to users (broken down into access on the site and remote access)	Easy contact with the librarian (direct or indirect) encourages users to choose the services of a specific library. The criterion of accessibility may be measured by the number of hours in a day or week or the number of days in a week when a library worker may be contacted.	2 points
The percentage rate of new users gained in one year to the total number of library users	Assuming that the core activity of a library is to provide services to users, the rate of new users shows the effectiveness of a library and its condition in the environment.	3 points
The percentage rate of users lost in one year to the total number of library users	A high rate of lost users and a low rate of new users is a warning that should trigger a thorough analysis of all of the library areas.	3 points
Forms of cooperation with library users	The purpose of this criterion is to determine the nature of cooperation with library users: whether it is founded only on one-time provision of information services or the library tries to tighten the bonds with its users and increase their loyalty.	2 points
Level of library user satisfaction	The criterion of user satisfaction is one of the most important in the functioning of libraries, as satisfaction with one service is usually followed by subsequent visits to the library. User satisfaction represents an overall evaluation of the condition of a library in the eyes of its clients.	3 points

(*continued*)

Table 4.3 (continued)

Criteria	Description	Weight
Innovation of library services	The purpose of this criterion is to identify the frequency of introducing new library services in a given period of time (e.g., five years). The number of new services shows whether a library tries to be attractive for its users and actively develops its service portfolio dedicated to various target groups.	3 points
…		

Source: Own elaboration based on A. SOPIŃSKA, P. WACHOWIAK. Istota kapitału intelektualnego przedsiębiorstwa – model pomiaru. In R. BOROWIECKI, M. KWIECIŃSKI (ed.). *Informacja w zarządzaniu przedsiębiorstwem.* Kraków, 2003, p. 101–129

8. brand or brands developed by the library
9. innovation of the library and the ability to adapt to changes in and expectations from the environment
10. library's ability to cooperate with other institutions (e.g., in networks or consortia)
11. ability to use and operate new technologies and to implement new technologies in the library
12. ability to create and acquire intellectual property (e.g., copyright, licences, registered marks)

The respondents were asked to identify the intangible assets/resources they considered most important for a library. These assets should be decisive for its success in the environment. The responses are presented in Table 4.4. According to library directors, the most important factors affecting the competitive advantage of a library are those that are directly linked with competencies and relationships, namely human capital (4.9) and the ability to communicate and establish relationships with the environment (4.9). The lowest score was given to the ability of library workers to create and acquire intellectual property (3.6) and the ability to create a brand (4.0). The answers did not differ much between the respective types of libraries: for the directors of public libraries, the most valuable asset is human capital (4.9) and the ability to communicate with the

Table 4.4 Rank of intangible resources according to the management personnel of libraries

Type of resource (asset, competency)	Average score given by library directors (on a scale from 1 to 5)	Average score given by medium-level library managers (on a scale from 1 to 5)
Human capital	4.9	4.9
Leadership skills of library directors and managers	4.3	4.5
Strategies of activity	4.3	4.5
Organisational culture	4.4	4.4
Ability to communicate; relationships between employees	4.7	4.6
Ability to communicate; relationships with the library environment	4.9	4.7
Library reputation	4.6	4.3
Library brand	4.0	4.0
Innovation	4.5	4.6
Library's ability to cooperate with other institutions	4.2	4.1
Ability to use and operate new technologies and to implement new technologies in the library	4.4	4.4
Ability to create and acquire intellectual property	3.6	3.7

Source: Own elaboration

environment (4.9). Nearly the same scores were given by the directors of academic libraries (4.9 and 4.9, respectively) and pedagogical libraries (5.0 and 4.6, respectively). It should be noted that all the intangible resources were highly evaluated, and only one of them scored below 4. Thus, it seems that intangible resources are indeed high in the hierarchy of organisational resources. Managers' responses to the same survey were similar (Table 4.5).

As has already been mentioned, intangible resources are high in the hierarchy of the organisational resources of libraries. According to 67 % of directors and 79 % of managers, intangible resources are equally as important as tangible resources (e.g., collections, devices, buildings). In the opinion of 26 % of directors and 20 % of managers, intangible

Table 4.5 Rank of intangible resources according to the management personnel of libraries, broken down by library type

Type of resource (asset, competency)	Average score given by the management personnel of public libraries (on a scale from 1 to 5)	Average score given by the management personnel of scientific and academic libraries (on a scale from 1 to 5)	Average score given by the management personnel of pedagogical libraries (on a scale from 1 to 5)
Human capital	4.9	4.9	5.0
Leadership skills of library directors and managers	4.5	4.0	4.5
Strategies of activity	4.4	4.1	4.3
Organisational culture	4.4	4.4	4.2
Ability to communicate; relationships between employees	4.7	4.7	4.5
Ability to communicate; relationships with the library environment	4.9	4.9	4.6
Library reputation	4.7	4.3	4.5
Library brand	4.1	3.7	3.9
Innovation	4.5	4.4	4.6
Library's ability to cooperate with other institutions	4.2	4	4.1
Ability to use and operate new technologies and to implement new technologies in the library	4.4	4.4	4.4
Ability to create and acquire intellectual property	3.6	3.6	3.5

Source: Own elaboration

Table 4.6 Intangible organisational resources in the opinion of library directors and in managerial practice (selected results of the 2014 survey)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
Does your library have a formal incentive system?	Yes No	22 78
Does your library have a formal system for professional development/employee training?	Yes No	23 77
Does your library undertake measures aimed at creating stronger bonds between employees and the institution (e.g., taking into account the family situation when determining the form of employment, delegating authority to lower level staff)?	Yes No	52 48
In your library, do the persons nominated to managerial positions get trained in managerial skills?	Yes No	15 85
In your library, are the candidates to managerial positions required to have managerial skills confirmed by university diplomas or training certificates?	Yes No	25 75
Is there a system in your library to assign a mentor to take care of new employees?	Yes No	58 42

(*continued*)

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
Does your library have a system of delegating employees to various jobs to gain professional experience?	Yes No	36 64
How long have you been in your current managerial position?	5, 6 years, on average	n/a
Do you have a managerial degree?	Yes No	28 72
Did you have any team management experience before taking on your current position?	Yes No	33 67
What traits should a library director have?	Ability to work in a team, ability to manage people, ability to communicate and negotiate, know-how, openness to new organisational and technical solutions, innovativeness, creativity, ability to build library strategy, diligence, ability to make quick decisions and work under time pressure [for more information, see Sect. 2.2]	n/a
What traits do you lack as a library director?	None Assertiveness, a "go get it" attitude and resolution, managerial education, and the attributes of a visionary leader, such as being a blockbuster, having authority, and being able to influence employees and the external environment	21 n/a
When you were looking for work as a librarian, did it matter to you who the director was and what kind of organisational culture was promoted?	Yes No	26 74

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
Is your library implementing any strategy at the moment?	Yes	48
	No	18
	Hard to say	34
How are strategies of action developed in your library? [concerns only the libraries that declare having a strategy]	We act intuitively, everyone knows what they should do and what the library's goals are	25
	All libraries implemented similar strategies, so there is no need to differentiate them and develop any special strategies	8
	Strategy follows from an analysis of the needs of the environment and the library potential	67
Are employees informed about new strategies? [concerns only the libraries that declare having a strategy]	No, there is no need to do that	10
	Only managers are informed	3
	Yes, through formal documents	10
	Yes, through superiors	21
	Yes, at meetings	55
	In other ways (through informal conversations, employees co-create strategies)	1
How would you define the strategy currently implemented at your library? [concerns only the libraries that declare having a strategy]	Offensive strategy	42
	Stability strategy	57
	Defensive strategy	1
Has your library ever surveyed…?	Organisational culture of the library	10
	Organisational climate	8
	Employee opinions on the quality of work	23
	None of the above	59

(*continued*)

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
Do you think that the relationships between your library and the environment are sufficient?	Yes, our relationships with the environment, especially users, are strong and positive	40
	Our relationships with the environment, especially users, are satisfactory but could be improved	58
	Our relationships with the environment and users are fading	2
Do you see any possibility of solidifying user relationships with the library?	No, nothing will stop the outflow of users from libraries	3
	Yes, through adjusting our services to user needs	50
	Yes, through a more individualised approach to users	15
	Yes, through provision of new services (e.g., courses, trainings, library cafés)	11
	Yes, by developing electronic communication	3
	Yes, by asking schools that they oblige students to use library services	6
	Yes, by starting relationships with new groups of previously inactive or excluded users (e.g., to activate senior citizens or difficult young adults)	12
Are you satisfied with your relationships with your colleagues?	Yes	65
	No	10
	Hard to say	25
When did your library last survey the opinions on its reputation/image (among librarians, users, or other groups from the environment)?	In the last year	21
	In the last five years	30
	More than five years ago	5
	Never	25
	I don't remember	19

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
Who in your library is actively responsible for shaping the library reputation? [a multiple choice question]	Director/manager	52
	PR/marketing department	3
	Dedicated team	3
	All department managers	24
	Delegated worker	3
	No one	27
How often does your library survey the needs and/or preferences of users?	At least once a year	32
	At least once every five years	24
	Less than once every five years	5
	I don't remember	9
	Never	29
What is your overall evaluation of the profession of librarian?	Very good	24
	Good	53
	Average	20
	Bad	3
	Very bad	0
How would you score the following aspects of the profession of librarian on a scale from 1 to 5, with 5 being the highest score?	Atmosphere at work: 3.9	n/a
	Attractiveness of duties: 3.8	n/a
	Sense of stability: 3.7	n/a
	Challenges: 3.7	n/a
	Possibilities of professional development: 3.6	n/a
	Innovation: 3.5	n/a
	Reputation of the profession among friends and relatives: 3.0	n/a
	Career possibilities: 2.7	n/a
	Salary: 2.2	n/a
List three features/ situations/behaviours that in your opinion negatively influence the library's reputation.	Non-conformity of services with user needs, isolation of the library and lack of cooperation with the environment, resistance to changes, limited funds to develop the infrastructure and book collections, incompetent or ill-disposed personnel	n/a

(*continued*)

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
List three features/situations/behaviours that in your opinion negatively influence the librarian's reputation.	Low qualifications, impoliteness and untidiness, indolence, negative attitude to users, lack of innovation	n/a
Does your library have a separate library brand (a name or graphical sign)?	Yes	24
	No	76
How do you compare the innovation of your library to other libraries?	We are much more innovative than other libraries	19
	We are on a similar level to other libraries	70
	We are less innovative than other libraries	11
Does your library have a system to initiate innovation (e.g., proposed by librarians or users)?	Yes, we have a formal innovation management system	1
	Yes, we have an informal innovation management system	37
	We have no innovation management system	62
When was the last time your library introduced an innovation?	In the last year	60
	In the last five years	26
	In the last ten years	3
	I don't remember when	11
What kind of innovation was it? [a multiple choice question]	New services	68
	Improved services	52
	Improved internal structure of the library or organisational changes	28
	Technical changes	52
	Marketing/promotional activity	33
Who is the main source of innovation at your library?	The administering authority (e.g., university, school, local authorities)	6
	Management personnel	58
	Library workers	30
	Users	6

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
What are the main obstacles to innovation at your library?	Economic barriers	66
	Psychosocial barriers caused by lack of motivation or unawareness of the need for change	9
	Opportunistic barriers, if the personnel adopt a conformist attitude and limit their professional activity to what is necessary only	9
	Organisational barriers manifested in a lack of relevant structures and methods of management, and a rigid organisational structure	3
	Technical barriers caused by a lack of adequate technology (e.g., computer hardware and software and other facilities)	8
	Informational barriers caused by a lack of know-how and information about the library environment and the needs of library users	3
	Legal barriers imposed by the existing legal provisions and standards	3
What could make your library more innovative?	Increased project financing	69
	Better access to information about innovations introduced by more modern libraries	9
	Closer cooperation with library science institutions in the area of designing innovation	1
	More pressure from users and the environment	5
	Better training of librarians to enable them to design innovations	6
	More possibilities for librarians to go on foreign scholarships	1
	Cooperation with institutions from other sectors to share experiences	2
	Closer cooperation between libraries through networks, clusters, or consortia	5
	Other	2

(*continued*)

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
Does your library participate in any formal interinstitutional agreements?	Yes	45
	No	55
What kind of agreements are they? [multiple choice question, applies only to libraries that declare participation in interinstitutional agreements]	Networks	38
	Consortia	49
	Strategic alliances	15
	Associations	28
	Clusters	6
	Federations	12
How many institutions does your library permanently cooperate with under the abovementioned agreements? [applies only to libraries that declare participation in interinstitutional agreements]	25 on average	n/a
What kinds of organisations does your library cooperate with under these agreements? [multiple choice question, applies only to libraries that declare participation in interinstitutional agreements]	Other libraries	87
	Cultural institutions	46
	Scientific institutions	39
	Suppliers	33
	Other commercial institutions than library suppliers	20
	Other institutions (e.g., regional societies, schools, parishes, choirs, voluntary fire brigades, NGOs, custody centres)	1

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
What are the reasons for your library's engagement in interinstitutional cooperation? [multiple choice question, applies only to libraries that declare participation in interinstitutional agreements]	Creating an added value that the library could not generate on its own	58
	Strengthening innovation	32
	Sharing project costs	42
	Sharing premises, facilities, and human resources required to implement certain projects	25
	Sharing the risk of decision-making	2
	Learning from each other and building new competencies	25
	Adopting new solutions, technologies, knowledge, or skills from partners	12
	Establishing common standards (e.g., concerning processing formats, technology, quality)	13
	Enabling some libraries to specialise in certain fields and sharing work in line with such specialties	2
	Extending the service portfolio	39
	Acquiring new groups of recipients of library services	17
	Changing image	16
Are you satisfied with this cooperation? [multiple choice question, applies only to libraries that declare participation in interinstitutional agreements]	Yes	86
	No	2
	Hard to say	13

(*continued*)

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
What are the goals of your library's engagement in interinstitutional cooperation? [multiple choice question, applies only to libraries that declare participation in interinstitutional agreements]	Jointly creating databases (including central catalogues and digital libraries)	61
	Exchanging duplicates and items published by libraries and their administrating authorities	25
	Interlibrary exchange	55
	Book lending to the users of partner libraries	25
	Employee exchange and training (e.g., under the Erasmus programme)	15
	Sharing equipment (e.g., scanners in digital libraries)	10
	Implementing joint research projects (e.g., co-organising conferences, grant sharing)	28
	Jointly procuring goods or services from suppliers on preferential terms (e.g., jointly purchasing books or periodicals to obtain a discount)	19
When you introduce new technologies in your library (software or hardware), do you plan a system of trainings?	Yes, we train all employees	44
	Yes, we train those employees who will operate new technologies	37
	No, workers learn themselves from manufacturer's instructions and advice	7
	No, workers learn how to use new technologies from practice	12
When planning to purchase new technology, do you also plan the process or service associated with that technology (how it will change)?	Yes, because new technologies require changes in work organisation	56
	No, things will come up on their own	30
	No, because these technologies will only improve some of library activities and will not affect the work process as such	14

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
When did you last introduce a new technology or IT solution in your library?	In the last year	45
	In the last five years	43
	In the last ten years	7
	I don't remember	5
Are you planning to introduce any new technologies?	Yes, within a year	29
	Yes, within the next five years	46
	Yes, but not in the next five years	9
	No, we are not	16
Does your library (including branches) own any intellectual property rights or did it own any in the past? [a multiple choice question]	Yes, the library owned marketing property (trademarks, commercial names, logos, visual identification systems)	21
	Yes, the library owned technological property (product and process patents, industrial designs)	2
	Yes, the library owned artistic and scientific property (e.g., literary, artistic, and journalistic works and the rights related thereto; music and film works; plastic works; photography) [excluding book collections]	16
	Yes, the library owned data-processing-related property (e.g., rights to computer software, computer applications)	24
	Yes, the library owned architectural property (e.g., designs of library buildings, interiors, green and leisure areas)	9
	No, none	55
Does your library engage in scientific research?	Yes	20
	No	80
Does your library have separate jobs dedicated to scientific research?	Yes	3
	No	97
How many jobs like that are there in your library? [applies only to libraries that have separate jobs dedicated to scientific research]	1 on average	n/a

(*continued*)

Table 4.6 (continued)

Question	Response	Percentage distribution
In your library, are there workers who are obliged, under employment contract or other documents, to engage in scientific research or create works?	Yes	9
	No	91
Are the workers obliged to engage in scientific research or create works (books, articles, derivative works) entitled to extra benefits?	Yes	62
	No	38
What kind of benefits are they? [a multiple choice question]	Performing research during working hours	54
	Using the premises, hardware, and software of the library	54
	Extra days off work to prepare a publication	8
	Other (higher tax deductible expenses, higher salary, possibility to go on conferences, fixed working hours)	3
Does your library support librarians who publish or distribute their works?	No, librarians have to publish and distribute their works themselves	58
	Yes, financially	9
	Yes, the library publishes their works	31
	Yes, in other ways (by promoting the works of librarians, motivating them, or helping them find a publisher)	2

Source: Own elaboration

resources are the most important because with them it is possible to create new, interesting library services, attract the interest of the environment, and enable access to information that is scattered over the Internet. Only 6 % of directors and 1 % of managers believe that the most important activity in library work is to accumulate collections. The responses prove that the model of a library whose only task is to increase its collections is being replaced with a library that offers services and information, which is often scattered and can be accessed remotely.

The interest of librarians in intangible resources is manifested through various activities undertaken to build, consciously develop, and effectively use those resources, as declared by nearly half (43 %) of the surveyed library directors.

Even though the high value of intangible resources has been acknowledged, relevant research and measurements activities are still rare. Only 22 % of directors declare such activities, of which 62 % concern hierarchizing or evaluating those resources. Only 11 % of libraries possess documents with comprehensive information (reports) on the available intangible resources. Such documents include library development plans, various kinds of reports, analyses, managerial audit reports, personal files of employees, evaluation reports, and user satisfaction survey results.

Finally, I would like to present the opinions of library directors associated with the management of the respective intangible resources discussed in the previous chapters of this book. Table 4.6 presents the percentage distribution of responses associated with the former 11 values.

The above surveys prove that there is a growing interest in intangible resources and their use in libraries. The perception of libraries changes from static institutions to organisations that increasingly cooperate with the environment. The resources and competencies that used to be reserved for commercial enterprises are now becoming popular among and appreciated by library management personnel. Reputation and brand management, as well as competencies in the areas of establishing cooperation, developing relationships, creating strategies, or HR management prove to be crucial in solidifying the position of libraries in the informational, educational, and leisure services markets. Accordingly, these resources will need professional diagnosing, measuring, and managing tools, which will have to be systematic rather than random and accidental, as they are now.

Conclusion

In the context of a permanently evolving economic, social, and cultural environment, libraries are forced to constantly change their organisation. New trends associated with implementing flexible structures, maximising user satisfaction, and increasing quality are gradually becoming the everyday reality of library managers. To be attractive, libraries have to be able to change quickly and effectively to meet the expectations of their dynamic environments. Innovation through cooperation with the environment is possible as a result of building and effectively using intangible organisational resources. These "hidden" resources often determine the future of a library. Thus, competencies associated with the evaluation and measurement of intangible organisational resources seem essential. They help determine the condition of a library and make various managerial decisions. Knowledge about the intangible assets of a library enables better planning for future investment related to a library's core activity, as well as implementing changes that are urgently needed.

Resource-based theory may become the foundation for a library's philosophy of activity. However, there are also other trends, not all of

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which are helpful for non-business organisations because they focus on economic profit more than the human factor. Many researchers ponder how management will develop and whether this development will be good for libraries and other cultural institutions.

In this book, I tried to prove, on the basis of the available literature and my own research, the relevance of resource-based theory to library management. I illustrated some applications of intangible organisational resources in Polish libraries. I also emphasised the specific nature of library management and the need to adapt resource-based theory and its tools to the context of libraries. After all, libraries exist in a different context than the commercial institutions, for which the theory was initially developed.

To prove the relevance of resource-based theory to library management, I presented intangible resources and analysed their role in developing core competencies and ensuring a library's stable position in its environment. I also discussed the problem of measuring and protecting intangible resources.

Most certainly, my book does not exhaust the topic of the application of resource-based theory in libraries. Methods for identifying, measuring, and managing intangible resources still need to be elaborated. Nonetheless, I have proven the basic research thesis, namely that resource-based theory is relevant to libraries, and my deliberations may serve as a starting point for further research.

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