THE SCOPE AND METHODS OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING AND DESIGNING PUBLIC LIBRARY FACILITIES

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
University of North Texas in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Angela Washington-Blair, B.A., M.S.
Denton, Texas
August, 1992

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A questionnaire survey was conducted to ascertain the scope and methods used to involve citizens in public library facility planning and design. Because of the paucity of written material on this subject in the literatures of both library science and architecture, this descriptive study was undertaken. The first chapter provides an introduction to the study by laying the foundation of libraries designed for citizens. An extensive literature review which provides the theoretical basis for participation is given in chapter two. Chapter three describes the methodology of the survey which was sent to a purposive sample of public library directors, architects who have designed public libraries, and library building consultants. In chapter four, the results are presented including quotes from the respondents. The findings indicated that the respondents felt that there was merit to citizen participation, but its actual use is limited. Chapter five contains a case study of the Denver Public Library which discusses the many types of citizen involvement, including that of children. Finally, chapter six provides summation and recommendations for further research.

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Angela Washington-Blair

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Libraries Designed for Citizens

Planning public library facilities is a complex task. The planner and designer must have a thorough knowledge of what the roles of public libraries are and how they function. They must be aware that public libraries are planned for the use of all of the inhabitants or citizens in a community, even though many do not avail themselves of the services; that many of the services offered are free to those citizens; and that public libraries are viewed and valued as educational facilities, as social, cultural, entertainment and information centers. There are many factors to consider in public library facility planning and design.

Public libraries are dependent upon local taxation as the primary source of financial support, but may also obtain federal funds for a variety of purposes. The physical sizes and budgets of public libraries vary, as do the number and type of printed materials, non-print media, computers and other technologies they contain. They also serve diverse clients who vary in educational attainment level; by racial and ethnic group memberships; in age; sex; marital status; in political and religious beliefs; and in

socioeconomic background. Public libraries in America number in the thousands and are located in rural, suburban, and busy urban areas. They are often dependent on local government, voting taxpayers, library boards and friends of the library groups for policies and governance. Public library facilities vary from storefront sites, converted church buildings, and historical monumental forms to new innovatively designed buildings. They vary from large central branches to the smaller satellite branches. Some combine the best qualities of flexibility and functionality, and some are considered to be attractive in form as well. Many municipalities successfully pass library bond programs which demonstrate citizens' support of public libraries; with the result being that many new public libraries are being built each year and older libraries are being remodeled or expanded. Each year Library Journal publishes lists of new library building projects and newly completed facilities, which includes public libraries designed for citizens.

Veatch (1979, 1987) has written exclusively on the application of environmental design factors to the design of library buildings to make them more functional and useful. "Environmental design is the aspect of architecture and building planning concerned with the proper planning and design of built environments to accommodate the social, physical, psychological, and behavioral needs of people..." (Veatch 1987, 361). Veatch also stresses the application of environmental psychology concepts of privacy, personal space,

territoriality, and ergonomics (the interaction between people and physical things) during furniture selection, layout and space planning, and seating arrangements to effectively utilize space and remove barriers. While these studies do not deal directly with citizen participation in design, the citizen or user is taken into account. It was suggested that the librarians and consultants planning a new library facility provide input regarding library user behavior and activity.

According to Cohen and Cohen (1979), there exist problems with many library structures. Many are uncomfortable, sterile, inhuman, have service and behavioral problems, and are not attractive or functional, even though some of them are award-winning, famous buildings. The Cohens, who are library building consultants, suggested careful planning and a knowledge of the behavioral aspects of design for a functional and attractive facility to be created. The library user must additionally be considered. The following quote supports that view: "A common mistake in planning—not just in libraries, but in many institutions—is planning buildings for the professionals and not for the users" (Rohlf 1986, 104).

A study by Campbell and Shlechter (1979) suggested that the physical design of a library may influence user behavior and satisfaction. This study of behavior in a library setting focused on a university library. Three different methods were employed to obtain information on library use and satisfaction with the library.

Telephone interviews with users and nonusers of the library, student-kept diary records of routine visits to the library, and direct observation of the public areas of the library resulting in the production of detailed behavioral maps led the researchers to tentative conclusions. Student comments on unfavorable aspects of the library were, in general, focused on the physical environment of the building, and not on the staff or materials (Campbell and Shlechter 1979, 38). The researchers concluded that libraries can be better designed to meet the needs of users, and that the library staff, with daily contact with the users, can provide architects with "informed estimates" to meet those needs.

Describing the use of library space is necessary for solving library space problems. Each library will have its own unique location, environment and goals. Therefore, the findings available in the literature on various libraries' space usage, problems, and solutions cannot be generalized to other libraries (Potthoff and Montanelli 1990, 58). Several methods can be used to analyze library physical facilities and use by patrons. Questionnaires, interviews, behavioral mapping, and the behavioral diary (also called a time budget), are frequently used according to Potthoff and Montanelli (1990) as determined by a content analysis on articles dealing with environmental behavioral social science and the evaluation of library design in relation to personnel and patron use.

Planning and design of public library facilities involves a variety of personnel, and may include the library director, library board, a

building committee, the staff, a consultant, the architect, interior designers, engineers and contractors. These are usually the key players. The question that arises about the eventual users of the library, who are the citizens, is: "Shouldn't they have input regarding the design?" Some architects feel they should, and use a method called participatory design to gain citizen input and open the channels of communication so that a library which truly meets the citizens' needs will be designed and built. Or, conversely, the citizens may suggest that they are content with the present library facilities in their community after a formal building evaluation process has been completed; they may desire that their tax dollars be spent for more materials instead. This information can readily be gained by allowing citizen participants in the evaluation/ planning/design process.

Rohlf (1986, 102) suggested that communication problems are the most common problems associated with planning library buildings because of the crucial role communication plays in the practice of architecture. This communication between the architect and the library staff, planning committee, and lay citizens can be facilitated if professional jargon and terminology are clarified for understanding among the participants. There are three types of communication which are commonly identified in the architecture field: people/people, people/machines, and people/environment (Laseau 1984, 257). In the area of people/people (interpersonal) communication, Laseau (1984, 258), an architect, suggested a need

for better development of such interpersonal communication within the practice of architecture, and listed several crucial areas where research was needed. Of those listed, two are quite applicable and are addressed in this present study:

1. "Community review of or participation in the design process. Whether through the architect's suggestion or client mandate, community members are more often being brought into the design process. Even if one assumes a willingness to communicate, there are nevertheless many potential obstacles to effective communication: differences in values held, differences in verbal and visual literacy, other nonverbal communication, the environment" (Laseau 1984, 260).
2. "Public education. It is often said that architecture is neither understood nor appreciated in our society. But how many of us have broken out of the verbal and visual jargon of the profession to communicate with the public? Are we listening to the public's questions? Do we try to use language they can understand?" (Laseau 1984, 261).

In 1990, PBS broadcast a special entitled, "Design Wars." This documentary was about the drama unfolding in the competition to win the design contract for the now finished Harold Washington Library in Chicago. This publicly sponsored design/build competition was the method the City of Chicago used to obtain a completed design at a guaranteed cost. Five architectural teams

were finalists and their schemes were publicly displayed. What was interesting to note was that the citizens were able to vote on their favorite designs, but it was a jury which finally selected the winning design by the firm of Hammond Beeby and Babka. Problems in functional layout became apparent to the library staff and the interior of the building had to be completely replanned (Weese 1991, 9).

Writings on Library Design and Citizen Participation

There are many excellent books on planning library facilities. These books outline program requirements and the planning process. Indeed, there is a large body of literature on the design of library buildings/facilities of all types: university, public, school library media centers, and special. Guides by building consultants Ellsworth (1973), Mason (1980), Leighton (1986), and Metcalf (1965) are considered standards for college and university library buildings. Dahlgren (1985) has written about the planning of public library buildings. The American Library Association, Library Administration and Management Association, Buildings and Equipment Section, published a Checklist of Library Building Design Considerations (1991) as a planning and evaluative guide to library design. These are all basically how-to guides. The Cohens have lectured and written a guide on behavioral aspects of design and space planning. A recent book by Lushington and Kusack (1991) covers the areas of planning and design of public libraries, the topic

of post-occupancy evaluation, and relates the concepts of library roles and goals to the planning process. There are also pictorial works which photographically document library buildings of various types. Countless journal articles have been written on a variety of aspects of library architecture, both in library and architecture literature.

In spite of countless works on library buildings, systematic research in the area of library architecture has been minimal. Fewer than 20 dissertations have library architecture as the subject matter, as evidenced in a comprehensive UMI search dating back to 1861. Topics in those dissertations included Carnegie libraries; academic library buildings; Hellenistic and Roman Libraries; small public library buildings; seismic safety in public libraries; the Angus Snead MacDonald bookstack; and library architecture and environmental design. There is a need for more research on a variety of facets of library architecture. There is a wealth of information on citizen participation in general. Citizen participation in education, business, politics, urban renewal, health care policy-making, transit planning, city planning, and building design are all topics covered in over 100 theses and dissertations, and countless journal articles on the subject, although much of the material was twenty years or older. There was a problem of access to the subject. Many indices use the term "political participation" instead of citizen participation and relate it more to voting and other formal political processes. In Library Literature, participation was cross referenced to "friends of

the library," and very minimal information was located. Other library citizen participation information was found in a serendipitous fashion of physically browsing through library stacks and skimming through magazines. Architecture Index had no heading for "citizen participation," while in the Avery Index to Architectural Periodicals and the Architectural Periodicals Index articles could be located using the terms "participatory design" and "citizen participation," and "community design centers."

In the literature of architecture there is less being currently written on citizen participation in planning and design. Much more was written in the decade of the sixties and seventies when citizen participation appeared to be a more popular concept and practiced more often. Many types of buildings have been planned and/or designed by participatory methods. These buildings have included community centers, public schools, public and private housing, recreational facilities, and libraries. Power plant sites have also been selected using participatory methods. Most documentations of participation are written in the professional literature as case studies, while many are not documented for public perusal.

Statement of the Problem

There appears to be a paucity of material on citizen participation in the literature of library science. Only two monographs in this discipline were located on the subject of citizen participation, including citizen input in library planning and design.

These works by Marshall (1984) and Robbins (1975) are research and case studies.

There lacked an in-depth study which described the methods of citizen participation in public library design; the perceived benefits of such participation; examples of such participation; how often participation is used; how architects, public library directors and library building consultants feel about citizen participation; and what methods were used to alleviate the communication problems inherent in planning public library buildings. Because of this lack of information, research on citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities was undertaken in this study.

Purpose of the Study

The objective of this study was to investigate and describe the extent and forms of citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities; their impact on the planning and design of public library facilities; the means of communication during the participatory process; and to exemplify successful public library participatory design projects.

Research Questions

1. What are some of the participatory design strategies (methods) used in the planning and design of public library facilities?

2. How widespread is the practice of citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities?
3. Who are the citizens who participate in the planning and design of public library facilities? (Which user groups are participants?)
4. What examples of public library buildings have been successfully planned, designed, or remodeled with active input from citizens?
5. What are some of the reasons perceived by architects, library directors, and library building consultants who want to involve citizens in the planning and design of public library facilities?
6. What are the attitudes of library directors, architects, and library building consultants toward allowing citizens to participate in planning and design?
7. What are common factors in successful participatory design projects?
8. What problems might inhibit the participatory process?

Limitations

This study did not attempt to support a hypothesis to establish causality or demonstrate correlation between citizen participation and a better designed library facility, or between participation and user satisfaction. The researcher did not attempt to identify every case of public library design using citizen participation because of

the unwieldy population of almost 10,000 public libraries in the United States. A much smaller sample of public libraries which had been built, expanded, or remodeled in the last five years was used in a questionnaire survey. The complexity of the phenomena of participatory design placed restraints on research design.

Citizens were not surveyed in this research study. Because one objective of the study was to identify some specific cases of citizen participation in public library planning and design, it was considered to be a mammoth task to additionally locate the population of citizens who had participated in such projects.

Since the forms of participatory design vary, and since public libraries vary in terms of local governance, goals and objectives, financing, and constituents, generalization of the findings was not an objective of this research study.

Finally, since this study was a descriptive, qualitative study using a questionnaire survey and a case study as data collection methods, it was limited by all the limitations inherent in a non-experimental, qualitative research study.

Operational Definitions

Architect: a licensed professional who performs architectural services including analysis of project requirements, creation of project design, preparation of drawings, specifications and bidding requirements, and administration of the construction contract (American Institute of Architects 1988).

Architecture: the set of processes associated with creating, inhabiting, and modifying the built environment (Laseau 1984, 257).

Citizen: inhabitants of a city or town. [While Smith (1978, 3) defined "citizen" as being a taxpayer, voter, legal citizen, homeowner, wage earner, and preferred the broader term "public" which was all inclusive of citizens, non-citizens, users and non-users of an existing or proposed facility, for the purpose of the current study, the simple above operational definition was used with the understanding that it, too, was all inclusive].

Citizen participation: often used interchangeably with user or public participation. It is citizen power (Arnstein 1969). Activities which involve the community as a whole. Citizen activism. Citizens actively involved in planning and who share in the decision making.

Community design: (or community architecture) is architecture for diverse clients including the poor. The process which helps people gain control over their environment. Participation of lay citizens in design (Hester 1989).

Library building consultant: a professional, usually a librarian, architect, or interior designer, who has the expertise and experience in such functions as preparing library building programs and feasibility studies; site and architect selection; budgeting; evaluation of building design; performing community surveys; and selection and specification of furniture and equipment.

Participatory design: the design process by which the user/ client or citizen is a partner in the design process with the architect.

Public library: a library which has as its potential clientele the inhabitants or citizens of a community, town, or city.

Organization of the Study

The introduction to the study, which included a section on libraries designed for citizens, the purpose of the study, the research questions, limitations, and operational definitions, are presented in Chapter I. The relevant literature which deals with the theoretical basis for citizen participation, participatory design, participation and design strategies, library citizen participation, and participation by children is reviewed in Chapter II. The research methodology and discussion of the questionnaire survey are presented in Chapter III. Descriptive statistical analysis and qualitative data are discussed in Chapter IV. A holistic case study of the Denver Public Library is presented in Chapter V. The final chapter is a presentation of the findings, implications and conclusions, including recommendations for further research.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Theoretical Basis for Citizen Participation

Citizen participation is not a new concept. It has a long history in the political and social sciences. It has been seen as a solution to many social and political problems. Etzioni theorized that in an active society "All major groups actively participate in public life...," and societal values are pursued and achieved (Etzioni 1968, 12). The active society is additionally responsive to its members' values. Etzioni defined an active public as "citizens who are politically informed and act politically" (Etzioni 1968, 667). Some proponents of citizen participation believe its values are: "an affirmation of democracy," a source of both creative and corrective knowledge, a method to tap unused resources, and an expression of faith in the individual's worth and dignity (Cahn 1971, 16, 31). Citizen or public participation has been used as a strategy in planning, design, and management (Iacofano 1985). It has been used to defend cultural pluralism and to attack elitist positions in architecture (Albrecht 1988, 24). There is a wealth of information on citizen participation, participatory theory, and group decision making to be found in the literatures of a variety of disciplines.

The decade of the 1960's in America with equality as one of its aims, fomented a movement of participation as a way of achieving social justice. There were even some governmental mandates for citizen participation which had explicit requirements to involve citizens, such as the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (EOA), and the Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966, also called the Model Cities Act (Robbins 1975). In addition, the Housing and Community Development Act of 1974, also legally mandates citizen participation.

One cannot mention participation without mentioning representation, because in fact, citizen participants can be considered representative of their communities. According to Pitkin in the classic research study focusing on the concept of representation, the term means "the making present of something which is nevertheless not literally present" and "acting in the interest of the represented, in a manner responsive to them" (Pitkin 1972, 144, 209). The concept of representation is frequently theorized in the fields of political science and urban studies. The representative, whether an elected government official or an appointed board or committee member, has been given the authority to act in behalf of others. The methods and degree of representation vary depending on who or what is being represented (Pitkin 1972, 227).

Alternate theoretical views suggest that a representative should "stand for" and "mirror," that is, be as much like, those that are

represented (Pitkin 1972, 77). Herein lies the justification for the push for more "representative" committees and boards which demographically reflect the ethnic, economic, and sex composition of a community. Legally mandated citizen participation processes have been researched to determine if in fact, the citizens who participate are really representative of the general public's needs and demands.

In a research study which analyzed four aspects of representativeness: social background; lifestyle and cultural values; perceptions of the severity of community problems; and local public policy preferences, a sample group from the general public was compared to two formally organized citizen groups. The citizen groups were found to have had more education and higher incomes than the group from the general public, and were considered to be operating under elitism and self-interests. It was concluded that these citizen groups did not "consistently represent public perceptions and preferences as the various federal statutes intended..." (Redburn et al. 1980, 350). The need for further evaluative research on the representativeness of citizen participation processes was strongly stressed.

Without a doubt, a key work in planning literature on citizen participation is the oft-cited "A ladder of citizen participation" by Arnstein (1969). Arnstein defines citizen participation as citizen power. This participation theoretically gives power to the poor citizens as well as the rich. It is a strategy whereby the poor, or

have-nots, can bring about changes which will allow them to share the benefits of that society. Citizen participation allows those who typically have been excluded from economic and political decision making to be included. Arnstein's model of citizen participation has eight levels or rungs on a ladder. Starting at the lowest level of non-participation to the higher degrees of citizen power, those eight levels are: manipulation and therapy, which, as the two bottom rungs, are considered to be non-participation involving educating and "curing" the citizens; informing, consultation, and placation, the next three rungs on the ladder which are degrees of tokenism whereby the citizens have a voice, but no decision; and the final three rungs of partnership, delegated power, and citizen control which are degrees of citizen power (Arnstein 1969, 217). According to Arnstein, these are the means in which government and bureaucracies allow citizens to participate. She asserts that what is labeled participation often isn't, but merely a means to placate citizens while not really giving them any power to make decisions.

Aleshire (1970) has written about the costs and benefits of citizen participation in planning. Citizen participation costs include the extra time and money required; it can be an inefficient way to make decisions; it arouses expectations and leads to frustrations when those expectations are not met; it can lead to irrational, political decisions; it raises questions on who the citizen really is and does the target group really want to participate; and the unrepresented must be considered. The benefits of citizen

participation include a forum for priority setting of crucial issues; it provides the opportunity for leadership development among the participants; it provides a sense of community; citizens gain information; false assumptions about the desires of citizens are identified; and decision making power is shared. Planners want to be efficient and save both time and money, and often hesitate to include citizens in planning activities, but because the benefits can outweigh the costs, "no institution can expect to operate on the assumption that it has the God-given right to make decisions without involving the people it affects" (Aleshire 1974, 393).

An interdisciplinary perspective on participation can be found in the literature of behavioral science. Wandersman (1981) found that participation was seen as a solution to various social problems, but noted that the arguments for participation were often not research-based. Wandersman (1981) attempted to delineate a framework of participation in order to characterize the major components of participation, and to provide a means for researchers of the phenomenon of participation to systematically analyze and conceptualize research problems. There are many interdependent elements involved in a participatory process. The suggested framework for researching participation in community organizations has five major categories:

1. Environmental, ecological, and social characteristics of the community before participation has occurred.

2. Individual differences in population before participation takes place.
3. Parameters of participation including types of participants, types of participation, and settings.
4. Effects of participation on individual, organization, community levels, including evaluation of participation by all groups involved.
5. Mediators. Why does participation have the effects it has? (Wandersman 1981, 31).

The categories dealing with parameters and effects were used as a framework in this study on citizen participation in the planning and design of public libraries.

From a dissertation by Smith (1978), it was stated that participation enhances the management of complex environments; facilitates decision and communication systems; encourages cooperative behavior and dialogue; allows individuals to pursue and achieve personal and community goals; and leads to a more equitable distribution of resources and opportunities.

Some of the assumed beneficial consequences of participatory decision making as hypothesized by several disciplines, were summarized by Iacofano (1985).

Discipline	Assumed Consequences of Participatory Decision Making
Psychology	Enhancement of self-esteem and control over life.
Environmental Social Sciences	Control over environment and thus production of environments with higher perceived environmental quality.
Social Psychology	Development of personal values and an increase in the individual's ability to relate to the larger society.
Sociology	Reduction of social alienation and isolation and the building of community.
Organizational Development	Increase in an organization's resilience and survival ability by living with uncertainty, embracing error, setting goals, evaluating alternative futures, coping with role stress and being open to change.
Political Science	Development of a sense of political efficacy in individuals resulting in a more democratic, healthier society.

(Iacofano 1985, 261)

Iacofano (1985) additionally suggested that there were many methodological difficulties in establishing causality in participatory decision making, such as a large number of variables, interactions among variables, and extraneous factors which are difficult to control. Suggestions for further research included focus on key factors of success or failure of participatory decision making projects, analysis and development of appropriate techniques, and "post-participation evaluations" to be conducted by someone not involved in the participation process (Iacofano 1985, 264).

Participatory Design

The central assumption in the field of environment-behavior studies that user involvement results in a better facility (Becker 1977) and user satisfaction has been highly debated by proponents and opponents of participatory design.

Sanoff (1988), provided a collective review of the theories and practices of participatory planning and design by concluding that:

1. There is no "best solution" to design problems.
2. "Expert decisions" are not necessarily better than "lay" decisions.
3. The design of a planning task can be made "transparent."
4. All individuals and interest groups should come together in an open forum.
5. The process is continuous and ever changing (Sanoff 1988, 39, 42).

Sanoff summed this by stating that "Architecture in the future should be characterized by an increasing participation of the user in its organizational and formal definition. In order to respond to this situation, professionals will need to do everything possible to make design solutions less the representation of its designers and more the representation of its users" (Sanoff 1988, 42).

The meaning of participation as it relates to design has been defined as "any process by which the users of an environment help to shape it" (Alexander and others 1975, 39). These users, if allowed participatory involvement in their communities, are given a

sense of ownership and some measure of control. Users of a building have a stake in that building, and those users "know more about their needs than anyone else; ...it is virtually impossible to get a building which is well adapted to these needs if the people who are the actual users do not design it" (Alexander and others 1975, 41-43).

Wooley (1985), from his research which surveyed housing tenants in the United Kingdom to ascertain if tenants who participated in the design of housing projects were more satisfied than tenants who had not, concluded that there was not enough evidence to support the hypothesis that user participation results in more satisfaction for the users. Also noted were problems of communication between architects and tenants and a lack of trust displayed by the tenants toward the architects. The amount of control the tenants exercised over the projects did appear to be related to their satisfaction. The researcher concluded with a warning that participation in design is not a short, easy method to design a successful building. That architects still have problems designing buildings which satisfy users in spite of user studies and design methodology is a fact (Wooley 1985). Including the users, thereby sharing responsibility for the design was suggested by Wooley as a means for architects to alleviate some design problems, confirming the notion espoused by Alexander and others (1975).

A study undertaken by researchers at the Program in Urban and Regional Studies at Cornell had as its objective to increase the

understanding of the "meaning and social-psychological consequences that different types of user involvement, occurring at different stages in the design process and life of a building, may have on a building's occupants" (Becker 1977, 1). The research design included a survey and a field experiment. The research settings included public and single family housing, dormitories and a small hospital.

Three areas of focus in that study were environmental meaning, user participation, and personalization. Facility designs have been shown to affect our attitudes and behavior. How we interpret the physical environment forms the basis of environmental messages communicated to us nonverbally. For example, the nonverbal messages communicated to occupants of certain institutional settings lead them to feel ignored, neglected or treated impersonally (Becker 1977, 3). User participation involves actual or prospective users of a facility into the planning and design of that facility. This participation should involve the control of decisions. It is considered to be a very effective means for creating environments that are responsive to individual and group needs and values (Becker 1977).

Personalization is how the occupant or user modifies, changes or adds to an environment as a form of expression or communication of the self to the others (Becker 1977, 14). Personalization may include adding flower beds to a public housing project, painting and rearranging the furnishings.

Using chi square, correlation analysis, behavioral mapping, questionnaires, and interviews to collect and analyze the data, the researchers concluded that there were significant positive correlations between user participation by personalization and user satisfaction, self-esteem and pride (Becker 1977)

A project sponsored by the Department of Architecture at the Pennsylvania State University in the years 1973 to 1974, was discussed and evaluated in a prepared report. Because of some problems which faced some rural municipalities such as: "declining population, lack of employment, dilapidated public buildings..." and inadequately coordinated community groups to deal with and make decisions about those problems, the research was undertaken "toward the development and implementation of a methodology for choosing facilities applicable to all communities" (Potter et al 1974, 3). The developed process, called the Community Development Process (CDP), required community participation so that community needs would be objectively determined. What the process reflected was a structured method to eliminate the communication problems which stem from the lack of interaction or feedback between designer and citizens. The process had five phases. In the first phase, community planners and designers stimulated community participation. The second phase included the meeting of community members and community leaders to generate ideas. Those ideas were formulated into schematic design concepts in the third phase. Those design concepts were shared with the

community participants in the fourth phase. In the fifth phase, concepts were finalized or the process was repeated. The whole process allowed for dialogue and feedback.

In the case study portion of the Penn State report, the community development process was tested and applied to two communities in Pennsylvania. One community planned a community center which included a library as an essential element. The other community planned a recreation center. The process was determined to be useful, but needing improvements and refining to increase its effectiveness as a participatory planning process (Potter et al, 1974, 59).

Hatch (1984), in writing about a theory of social architecture, stated that participation is not used to create good buildings, but good citizens. In other words, participation is important because of its effects on the participants, such as giving them opportunities for creativity, collective work, and instilling in them the competence to question the built environment. It further allows the participants to control the built environment.

Albrecht (1988) was critical toward the architecture profession because of its lack of a theoretical base for participatory design. He suggested that humanistic planning theories could serve as "models for participatory design" (1988, 25). He further suggested that a participatory design theory include the notion of authority, because the architect, as a professional cannot function without authority and should do more than merely facilitate or coordinate (1988, 29,

24). He argued that participatory design was both a political and creative act, and that participation cannot be practiced equally in all aspects of the architectural process. According to Albrecht, "writings about participatory design have been focused on justifying its use or on presenting individual projects in a case study manner. No attempts have been made to establish a theoretical foundation for participation in architecture" (1988, 24). Other architects who have indeed borrowed theories and philosophies from the fields of sociology and urban planning, and have actually applied them in practice, would beg to differ.

Wulz (1986) described seven forms or stages of participation in architectural design. These are highly reminiscent of Arnstein's "ladder of participation." These range from the least to the most involvement by the building user in both the design and the decision making processes. These forms of participation can be active or passive. On the ends of the scales are two other stages of nonparticipation. These stages or forms of participation are:

1. Expert autonomous - in which the architect alone makes the decisions.
2. Representation - which is the most passive form of participation. The architect represents the client by putting himself/herself in the client's place.
3. Questionary - which utilizes user surveys and statistical data to find a common ground.

4. Regionalism - takes care of a specific cultural heritage of a geographic area by questioning local residents.
5. Dialogue - allows informational conversations to take place between the architect and local residents in a two-way communication process, but the architect makes the final decision.
6. Alternative - gives the residents choices of alternatives.
7. Co-decision - is the direct and active participation of the users/citizens, who are motivated for participation.
8. Self-decision - in which the influence of the architect is reduced. Citizens themselves are creative and independent. Includes self-build projects.
9. User autonomous - the architect is eliminated from planning, design and construction (Wulz 1986).

These forms were suggested as a means to classify architects based on the degree to which they involve citizens in the design process. It is apparent that these forms can be similarly used the way the various management styles in the field of business management are used to describe how managers manage; these profiles, then, may be considered as participation styles to describe how architects participate. These are not mutually exclusive categories; the architect may use any combination of these stages in practice. A "participation profile" can be developed to describe an architect's participatory philosophy and graphically represented with a bar diagram (Wulz 1986).

Participation and Design Strategies

Participation strategies are methods or techniques in which people are organized to participate. Design strategies concern how the ideas, information and decisions are obtained and organized during the planning and design of a facility (Smith 1978). Participation strategies include such workshops as the short, intense charrette sessions, gaming, role playing, nominal group technique, structured debate, delphi survey, and interactive electronic media, all used in a group situation.

In a planning process known as "strategic assumption surfacing and testing" (SAST) devised by Mason and Mitroff (1981) there are four principles including one which deals with the aspect of participation. Assumptions are "facts" whose certainty or accuracy is doubtful (Mason and Mitroff 1981, 103). Managers of all types face complex problems, that is a multitude of interrelated problems and issues for which they must devise strategies and make policies. These strategies are the set of assumptions about the current and future behavior of an organization's stakeholders, who are "...all those claimants both inside and outside the organization who have a vested interest in the problem and the solution" (Mason and Mitroff 1981, 43).

Stakeholders can be identified by asking the following questions: "Who is affected by the strategy?, Who has an interest in the strategy?, Who is in a position to effect its adoption or execution?, Who has expressed an opinion on the matter?, and Who,

because of their demographic or other characteristics, ought to care about the outcome?" (Mason and Mitroff 1981, 43). Identifying stakeholders should be considered crucial in any participatory endeavor.

The SAST is a useful participatory strategy because it allows for creativity and risk-taking and the "chance to explore novel assumptions and ideas" (Mason and Mitroff 1981, 89). In addition, its participative principle is "based on the premise that the relevant knowledge necessary to solve a complex problem is distributed among a group of individuals and that the relevant resources necessary to implement the solution are also distributed among a group" (Mason and Mitroff 1981, 37).

Several other participation strategies include:

1. the charrette, a process in which the participants meet in intense interactive meetings for the purpose of problem solving which can last from several days to several weeks;
2. citizen advisory committees to represent the ideas and attitudes of various groups or communities;
3. elected or appointed citizens may be represented on public policy-making bodies;
4. citizen review boards may be formed in which members have the delegated authority to review alternative plans of action and to decide which plan should be implemented;
5. citizen surveys of attitudes and opinions which are a useful strategy to gain statistical representation of all citizens, but

allow for no interaction or feedback between planners or architects and the citizens;

6. structured debate in which the problem is logically examined from two points of view with a plan and a counterplan both argued for, then a third new plan is synthesized;
7. focused group interviews, used especially by those in the marketing field, are guided interview sessions involving groups of six to ten participants exposing them to each others' ideas;
8. nominal group technique in which participants individually write down and rank their ideas only allowing discussion for clarification purposes;
9. role playing which focuses on simulations to discover individual impacts; and
10. game simulations which focus on experimentation of simulated environments or scenarios to discover and define the impacts on the community as a whole.

Neighborhood meetings, workshops, public hearings, balloting, and committee formation are all techniques or strategies for citizen participation (Smith 1978). Any and all of these strategies may use a variety of media and technologies such as computers, slides, and videos to supplement the interpersonal communication which occurs during the participatory process. Additionally, the participation strategies may vary in the degrees of participation.

Some allow for more participation, others are merely informative sessions.

Design strategies are problem solving techniques which deal with the creative processes of architectural design and generation of alternatives (Smith 1978). These design strategies may be used in conjunction with the different participation strategies. Smith's comprehensive dissertation defined ten design strategies for generating alternatives, four designated as analytic strategies and six designated as holistic strategies. The four analytic strategies are:

1. attribute listing - qualities or characteristics of a whole are selected.
2. relevance tree - a graphical model which identifies the relationships among different parts of a problem and identifies the parts. Similar to an organizational chart.
3. morphological process - an effective means to identify problematic components. The entity being studied is "decomposed" using a technique such as the relevance tree. Alternative compositions can be evaluated for deficiencies.
4. decomposition by mis-fit variables - mis-fits between form and context are identified and diagrammed. Interactions between components are studied to determine which interactions are necessary; then a new entity is formed (Smith 1978, 182-191).

The six holistic design strategies are:

1. idea checklist - unstructured gathering of ideas gleaned from such activities as browsing through a department store or looking through a catalog.
2. brainstorming - a conference technique for group idea generation and problem solving by collecting all of the ideas contributed by the participants.
3. bionics - systems analysis; the study and design of systems which function in a manner resembling living systems.
4. synectics - similar to brainstorming, but is more directed and guided by an expert to provide information. The strange is made familiar and the familiar made strange to provide news ways of perceiving problems and arriving at solutions.
5. sketch planning - a traditional method used in architectural design. Utilizes conceptual diagrams in the problem solving session. Participants are allowed to identify potential solutions.
6. scenario writing - word pictures to narrate and illustrate problems and solutions (Smith 1978, 191-205).

From the review of the literature, it would appear that although the terminology may be different, holistic design strategies are mentioned more often as being used in actual practice during a participatory design process.

Helgeson (1988) developed a theory of a participatory design process using visualization in order to help practicing architects meet the design needs of their clients. According to this theory, clients have dreams or visions of an environment which they desire. The architect must take that vision and translate it into a built environment. The two general areas of focus of this design process or strategy are exploration and resolution. Exploration involves the pursuit of new information and the development of new ideas. Resolution is the collating and refining of the solutions (Helgeson 1988, 69). Three steps which are needed to transform the client's vision into built form from an abstract dream within this process are using the client's visualized desired intentions or preferences; specifying conditions using preliminary architectural specifications; and deriving solutions to reflect those intentions leading to the final built form (Helgeson 1988, 69-70). That research used a case study approach with actual design projects of single family homes. While this process was used with individuals, it could be relevant to a group participatory design process.

Behavior mapping is a tool or strategy used for participatory planning and design. "Behavior mapping refers to the systematic gathering of data regarding both: 1) spatial use, types and locations of activities, and 2) users, age groups and turf conflicts" (Oberdorfer 1985, 267). Behavior mapping is an information gathering and decision making tool and can generate useful comments and

feedback from the participants which might not have otherwise surfaced (Oberdorfer 1985, 274).

Community design is a design strategy which involves the extensive participation of lay citizens, including the poor for the creation of everyday environments where people spend a great deal of time (and this could conceivably include public libraries); helping citizens to gain more control over their lives; and the contribution to environmental justice by equalizing resources, accessibility, and quality (Hester 1989, 136). Community design differs from traditional design practices. It is typically small-scale, local and inclusive of user needs. It is more concerned with meaning, context, and appropriateness. It is a bottom up design approach which is inclusive and democratic (Francis 1983, 15).

Community design centers, which numbered eighty in 1977, are non-profit centers which currently number twelve, and are located in large urban areas to work on such projects as communal housing and neighborhood development for clients who are unable to pay for such services. The Association for Community Design is an organization composed of those "dedicated to finding an alternate form of community planning and architectural practice that combats racism and policies that contribute to the persistence of poverty" (Curry 1992, 4).

There is a formalized participatory design strategy called the design review board. Design review boards are established for a variety of reasons such as historic preservation or maintaining the

natural environment. Board composition generally includes design professionals, often citizens, and possibly members from the city planning department. In some communities citizen involvement is limited to selecting review board members or attending public hearings. Of the sixty-six responding communities surveyed in one research study, approximately 25% promoted active citizen participation in the design review process (Habe 1989, 215). Design review allows the participants to evaluate a planned building against city standards, ordinances, goals and objectives, and design guidelines. All design review boards do not work well; some are controversial and have resulted in canceled projects; and some architects feel that they stifle creativity (Zotti 1987).

No matter which strategies are used, there are certain conditions which have been found to be essential to the success of the participatory process. There must be: clearly articulated goals at the beginning of the process; effective leadership; continuity; dialogue and open forums; clear understanding by the architects and planners of their technical roles, but they should not operate dictatorially; and a beginning and an end of the process so that participants know where they are within the process (Lewis and Gindroz 1974, 30-31).

Post-Occupancy Evaluation

Post occupancy evaluation (POE), also known as post-design or post-construction evaluation can be a participatory design strategy

in which the occupants of a building make evaluations and recommendations for change and provide information for environmental decision making. Finding information in the literature on the topic of POEs was difficult. Writings on the topic are scarce and difficult to access.

One such POE was detailed in a case study (Marans and Spreckelmeyer 1981). That case focused on evaluation of a federal office building by the users of that building, both community residents and employees who worked in the building. Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect the needed information.

Post occupancy evaluation research, which is an applied research process, as documented in the literature of architecture has been criticized because of the lack of systematic approaches to data collection, poorly developed research designs, and poor planning in relation to stating what the desired outcomes or successes of a building should be, and failure in determining how to measure those outcomes (Marans 1984, 118-120).

Since the Marans study several researchers have detailed the theoretical background of POEs in a monograph entitled Post-Occupancy Evaluation. They additionally provided a review of the evolution of the field, exemplified actual cases of POEs (none of which were public libraries), and outlined the benefits, steps, methods, activities, and resources necessary for conducting building

performance evaluations, both quantitatively and qualitatively (Preiser, Rabinowitz, and White 1988).

They delineated three levels of effort for the post-occupancy evaluations: indicative, to find major successes and failures of a building; investigative, which requires greater effort after the indicative POE has disclosed any problems; and the diagnostic POE on large scale projects which includes a variety of methods, may take a year to complete, and was likened to the scientific method in its methodological approach (Preiser, Rabinowitz, and White 1988, 53-57).

POE benefits were stratified into short-term, medium-term, and long-term. Short-term benefits were stated to be: the identification of a building's successes or failures and solutions to the problems; increased awareness of the consequences of the various budgetary alternatives in design decision-making, and better attitudes of the occupants of the building because of their involvement in the evaluation process. Medium-term benefits include the garnering of information to use in decision making for reuse, remodeling or new construction as methods to solve identified building problems. Long-term benefits occur from application of POE information to design of future buildings, and lead to the establishment of building type standards and quantifiable building performance appraisals (Preiser, Rabinowitz, and White 1988, 5-7).

Building performance or how a building works is evaluated in a POE. Buildings in a post-occupancy evaluation are evaluated by

their technical elements, that is, the safety, security and health aspects of the building; the functional elements of how efficiently and effectively the building occupants operate; and the behavioral elements which include the social and psychological considerations of user satisfaction and well-being (Preiser, Rabinowitz, and White 1988, 17).

"To date, there is little standardization of measurement technology and methods in POE, posing long-term problems for the area" (Preiser et al 1988, 48). Currently, methods used for POE measurement are questionnaires, interviews, observation, behavioral mapping, video recordings, photography, measurement of light and acoustic levels (Preiser Rabinowitz and White 1988, 48).

Library Citizen Participation

Sager (1982, 123) in writing about participatory management in libraries, suggested that users of a library may offer alternative solutions which management, trustees, and library staff may not have considered or have disregarded. Although Sager viewed the governing board as a surrogate and advocate for the user, he suggested that there were "occasions when public or user opinion should be sought on the impact of a policy change" (1982, 123).

"Since a public library belongs to its entire community, library boards have been created by law to act as citizen control or governing body of the library" (Young 1988, 9). Library boards are a formal means of allowing citizen participation. It is a limited

means in that trustees are either appointed by a city or county official or elected by voters; and traditionally, boards have not always been representative of their communities.

Trustees have the responsibility and authority for managing all aspects of a library building project. The board members have dual roles of both representing library needs to the public, and community needs to the library (Dahlgren and Reid 1988, 87). In planning a public library facility, the board may establish a building committee, and appoint some of its members to it.

Related to the trustees are the volunteers known as Friends of the Library. They also represent the entire community. Those groups are most noted for fund-raising and public relations. There was not much evidence in the literature that Friends' groups had much participation with actual library building planning and design. Fugleberg (1988, 36-38) gave an example of a library building project which was first suggested by a friends of the library group. Throughout the whole process, friends' members were involved, even as members on the planning committee.

Robbins (1975) conducted a study to ascertain whether the American public library has a participatory decision-making structure, and to describe the forms of citizen participation in library decision making. This study also sought to determine if libraries which include citizen input in the decision-making process have different service goals than libraries which do not include citizen input. At that time it was reasonably concluded that libraries

tended to be "centralized in decision-making style; inactive in citizen participation matters; and oriented toward traditional library service goals" (Robbins 1975, 70).

This small study was undertaken during the years of 1971 and 1972, and has not since been updated by the researcher. The study used a questionnaire to collect data from a sample of 254 public libraries. The sample was stratified by the number of branches a library had: 0; 1-2; 3-8; 9-24; 25-91. The response rate was 52%. The survey identified nine libraries with very active citizen participation patterns. One of these sites was selected for a case study. It was a large urban library which was not identified per the staff's request. Interviews were conducted with the staff. The staff reported "active" citizen participation in all of the areas surveyed, except for the selection of lead librarian and the determination of facility design. In reality, upon investigation, Robbins found that the citizen involvement was minimal and indirect. It was felt that some respondents were so eager to espouse the philosophy of citizen participation so as to "look good" that they reported citizen involvement when, in reality, there was not much true input by the citizens.

Traditional library boards of trustees were concluded to be the almost exclusive form of citizen participation in public libraries. Library boards were present in all but 10 libraries surveyed. Of those library boards, 50% had members who were appointed by city councils. Trustee members were not representative of the

communities they represented in terms of race, occupation, sex, or age. This fact correlates with the conclusions of the Redburn (1980) study; that organized or formal citizen groups are not truly representative of the communities they supposedly represent. Since "today's library has a new and increasing importance to the total community," and since "a well-balanced board should represent a cross section of the community" (Young 1988, 14), it is important that library boards today represent the needs and desires of the diversity of groups which make up our society. At the time of the Robbins study, that was not the case. In fact, the trustees were primarily older (over 40) white males, in white collar occupations.

The Robbins (1975) study briefly addressed the issue of citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities. It was determined that library boards have a large involvement in the decision areas of facility design (80% of boards) and building site selection (77.9% of boards) (Robbins 1975, 50). According to the survey results, the participation by citizens was only 9% for site selection decisions, and 7% for building design decisions (Robbins 1975, 39). Only 32% of the libraries surveyed had Friends of the Library groups, and no question was asked on the survey about their participation in building planning and design (Robbins 1975, 51).

Robbins also assessed librarians' attitudes toward citizen participation. 52.3% of the librarians surveyed were resistant to citizen participation; 18.4% were hesitant; while 29.3% were

receptive (Robbins 1975, 59). It was also reported that more librarians expressed receptive attitudes who worked for systems with twenty-five or more branches; and whose libraries provided more opportunities for citizen participation (Robbins 1975, 60-61).

Recommendations from this study included experimentation with different forms of citizen participation in the policy making processes of public libraries. Some of these "experiments" may have taken place since then. In depth investigation of other cases of citizen participation in public libraries was also suggested. This current study on citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities did provide such an investigation.

While the Robbins study did not place any emphasis on library design participation, a case study set in Toronto did (Marshall 1984). Written as an informal case study of actual events which took place between the years of 1974 and 1979 at the Toronto Public Library System, the work provides a necessary subjective accounting of deliberate citizen involvement in many different public library operations. Described therein was the political background of Toronto whose history included an urban reform movement and evidences of prior commitment to citizen involvement. Toronto Public Library had established policies and means for citizen involvement. Discussion of the involvement of citizens in the planning and design of several library branch renovations/expansions was of relevance to the present study and is now summarized.

Library users in Toronto demanded improved library facilities and services (Dudeck 1984). This demand led to capital expansion and renovation projects. Project planning and design was decentralized by the establishment of branch building committees, with the majority of members being local residents. The committees consisted of those residents, a library board member, and library employees, both administrative and staff. Citizens were recruited by posted library notices and staff contacts. It was noted by the planner that this was a "limited base of recruitment" (Dudeck 1984, 170). Each branch had its own building committee of 10 to 15 members. Members were involved in the selection of an architect and the approval of schematic and final designs. Decisions were reached by a "double majority" voting system in which the resident or citizen component had to reach a majority vote and the library staff/board member component additionally had to reach a majority vote. A consultant with planning experience involving citizens was hired to facilitate the process of building planning and design. Building programs were prepared after library facility evaluations, demographic data, and all other relevant information was analyzed. Public meetings were then held to attract both users and non-users of the library to the design proposal selections, and to recruit new members to the building committees.

The account of citizen involvement in library facility renovation in Toronto concluded with positive summations of "satisfaction of the public with renovations to date..." and "progress towards its

objectives of equalizing library services within the city..." (Dudeck 1984, 180). The library building projects were viewed as ambitious, but having flaws. The planner also concluded by stating that "...the deliberate involvement of citizens in the determination of priorities for the design and implementation of capital projects is the only possible stance for a library concerned to maintain its integrity as a truly public institution" (Dudeck 1984, 180).

Although not explicitly discussed but alluded to were issues of the relationships among members on the committee. Group dynamics, communication, and issues of roles come into play as being very important in a citizen participation process. Each member of the group may have a different agenda or plan. The citizens, architects, and staff are each stakeholders with perceptions, problems, and solutions which vary due to their different roles on the committee. The architect has a professional jargon and status which may intimidate the lay citizen. Citizens have both personal and communal needs and desires. The library staff may display a possessive attitude and feel that they are the main users of the library, when in reality, it is their workplace, for the use of the public, according to Dudeck (1984, 179). All of these issues must be taken into account in a library design project which involves citizens in order to facilitate cooperation and understanding.

According to one of the architects in Toronto's library renovation/expansion projects, inevitable conflicts arose due to differing perceptions of what "a library ought to be" (Stinson 1984,

182). Citizens, or the library "user public" as they were labeled, often did not feel they had skills or competence to provide input which led to "conservative or timid" committee members (Stinson 1984, 185).

Stinson (1984) felt that new strategies for outreach to the non-user public would be necessary, because their participation was crucial as part of the library's commitment to serve a wide range of people. The architect's role on a building committee, according to the Toronto architect, is to "profit from a wide range of opinions;" "help clarify;" "coordinate ambitions;" and "make the final decisions" (Stinson 1984, 187).

Another case study was found in the architecture literature as a journal article, and it concerned the Boulder Creek Branch Library in Santa Cruz, California. This 4,600 square feet facility opened in 1985. The case study written by the architect of the project, Jeff Oberdorfer (1988), described the incorporation of citizen input into the design process. In that case, the request for proposals (RFP) clearly stated that "the selected architect shall conduct a community participation process to ensure responsiveness to the needs and desires of the community" (Oberdorfer 1988, 5). A library advisory committee composed of library staff, citizens, and city/county officials selected Oberdorfer's firm because of its demonstrated commitment to citizen participation.

The primary methods for citizen participation were workshops using a graphic approach. At each of three workshops, there were

seven to ten small groups with five to seven participants in each group. One of the workshops was held to establish and define the goals of the library. In addition, participants were to write down or draw concepts or descriptions of desired physical attributes, called "patterns" based on an approach suggested by architect Christopher Alexander (1977) in his book A Pattern Language. This pattern language philosophy focuses on a new architectural language that is understood by everyone. A constantly evolving language, the pattern language has units called patterns. "Each pattern describes a problem which occurs over and over again in our environment, and then describes the core of the solution to that problem" (Alexander and others 1977, x).

Oberdorfer allowed participants to develop their own patterns rather than using pre-defined patterns. Examples of patterns used in Santa Cruz were "a big front door" and "steps that you can sit on" (Oberdorfer 1988, 6). By using these patterns, participants were able to convey the homelike atmosphere they desired in their library. Brainstorming was used to develop forty-three library goals for the facility. Other methods used to create library site and floor plans were sketches made by the participants and slide presentations. Information from all of the workshops provided input for the building design. The library in Santa Cruz received local media attention and won an American Institute of Architects award. Of course, that is not to say that citizen participation in the planning and design of a public library facility will result in an

award-winning building; there are far too many variables to support such a hypothesis.

The Santa Cruz study is an example of a participation project which was deemed successful according to the participants. The architect of the project cited several reasons for the success of the participation process. These included a strong sense of community; the isolation of the community of Boulder Creek from the urban services provided in Santa Cruz; the architects lived in the area; the architects were perceived as allies; the process was gradual; the process did not include spatial programming; excellent press coverage of the enthusiasm of the participants was provided; no participants were intimidated by the design of a public library and understood the functioning of such a public facility; and there was an emphasis on citizen participation made by the county (Oberdorfer 1988, 12, 13).

Involving citizens in public library planning is the subject of an article written by Stephens (1991). This fairly recent article described two libraries' use of a public library planning process, A Planning Process for Public Libraries (1980), which emphasized including lay citizens on library planning committees; their efforts to involve the citizens; and the benefits that resulted. The current version of the planning process, Planning and Role Setting for Public Libraries (1987), does not place emphasis on lay citizen involvement in planning.

The two libraries in the Stephens' paper study were kept anonymous and described in a case study. One library included fourteen citizens who were not members of the trustee board or library staff on the planning committee. They met over a period of two years and gained much useful information about the library system and its problems (Stephens 1991, 151). The other library had sixteen lay citizens on its planning committee which met five times. Both libraries' planning committee formed subcommittees of which the lay citizens were a part.

Capital improvements and building projects were not mentioned in this study. The results from the use of the planning process involving citizens were: increased citizen knowledge about public libraries in general and about the needs and problems of their local library; and increased willingness to support their libraries (Stephens 1991, 154).

The Loudoun County Public Library in Virginia used the earlier version of the public library planning process to involve its citizens. Diverse talents, ideas, and opinions were gained, but the efforts were time-consuming, unpredictable though exciting. A variety of ways were outlined in which the citizens were involved in the library planning. Again, facility planning and design was not discussed. It was concluded that for any participatory planning process to be successful, effective, continual communication among all of the participants is the key (Hunt 1982, 151).

In a library facility planning process suggested by Lushington and Kusack (1991, 5-6), two of the twenty-two steps involve participation by citizens. One of these steps is to identify user and staff needs; the library consultant should interview and conduct focus group meetings with members of these groups. Additionally, after the building has been used by the public for a year or longer, a post occupancy evaluation is suggested.

A post-occupancy evaluation of the Lucy Robbins Welles Library which is located in Newington, Connecticut was completed in 1989, approximately one year and a half after the completion of a major renovation and expansion project. The POE used the combined methods of: library performance measures before and after the renovation; an adult questionnaire survey sent to 100 registered borrowers; interviews with users of the children's room, both adults and children; focus group meetings with a variety of users, including a group of library staff members; and evaluation by both the library planner and the architect. The library staff set the goals of the POE "to test a variety of methods for post-occupancy evaluation; to achieve positive feedback from the public; to improve the library building; to have a basis for long term planning" (Lushington and Kusack 1991, 163). Many of the goals were achieved and the library received much publicity on its prototype evaluation. Some improvements were suggested such as a director to guide the evaluation, better planning prior to administration of the survey, more objectivity on the part of those involved in the

evaluation, and careful survey design to make sure that only relevant and useful questions be asked, and that information which can be obtained by observation should be done so (Lushington and Kusack 1991, 180-182).

The literature does not provide many examples of unsuccessful participation projects. Most evaluation is done and reported by the participants. It could be possible that proponents of participatory design only want to report the successful projects. One library design project which did not successfully incorporate citizen input into the planning and site selection was the John Fitzgerald Kennedy Library. This presidential archival library was initially proposed for a location in Cambridge, Massachusetts, but was not built there because of negative results of an urban impact assessment. This assessment was mandated by a congressional act, passed by Congress in 1969. The National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) "requires an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) for any federal action which would significantly affect the quality of the human environment" (Francis 1975, 373).

The public participation project involved different groups who would be impacted by the placement of the library within the community. The number of visitors, amount of traffic, proposed parking, and the effects of the new development on the community were all areas of concern for the residents of the community. Much debate ensued, and when the draft EIS was completed by an engineering firm, it was over 600 pages. The findings that the

community would not be significantly altered or impacted by the placement of the library were strongly opposed by the community. The Kennedy Library Corporation, a non-profit corporation representing the interests of the Kennedy family, decided not to place the library in Cambridge so as to avoid the public hearings which were demanded by the community. Citizen concerns and inputs were apparently not accommodated in the EIS. Francis (1975, 403) concluded that for urban impact assessments to survive, the process must truly become a shared effort by involving the community so as to respond to diverse concerns.

One dissertation on a participatory design process (Henson 1980) was a study of the Delphi technique to generate building program data for a university library. Three rounds of questionnaires involving the entire library community, including the alumni, were administered to ascertain which facilities and services were rated as desirable and/or feasible. The Delphi is a technique which was developed by the Rand Corporation and can be used as a means of reaching consensus. Consensus was achieved and the technique proved useful in providing necessary data for the library building program at the Florida Institute of Technology.

Design competitions are a method organizations use to acquire design services of artists, architects, and landscape architects. Many professionals enter design competitions, hoping to obtain a design contract. Library design competitions have also become popular. The city of Chicago used a design competition for its Harold

Washington Library, as did Denver Public library. The Evanston, Illinois Public Library competition had over 1250 entrants. The Matteson, Illinois Public Library also sponsored a design competition. The library board in Matteson felt that a competition would provide a "wide variety of solutions to their specific design challenge" (Willis 1991, 29). The library design competition increased community interest in the library and "contributed to a sense of community pride" (Willis 1991, 29).

The jurors who evaluate the submitted designs in a design competition and then select the winning design team usually are architects, artists, and local government officials. Citizens or community representatives may also be included, but often, lay citizens are not considered to have the design expertise necessary to objectively judge a design. The local government official, then, is considered to be representing community interests and concerns. Many of the public library design competitions have included the library director on the jury, including Matteson and Evanston.

"A charrette brings together librarians, library users, city officials, and architects in a planning marathon" (Healey 1991, 302). The Superior, Wisconsin public library facility was planned using the participation strategy of a charrette. The city invited citizens to participate in this intense one week planning session. The charrette did not take place until after the preparation of a building statement and the selection of a supermarket building as the site for the new library. The architects additionally met with

library staff, director and board; city planning commission; commission for the disabled; public works, planning and development departments; library building committee; public access cable television; economic development corporation; and building improvement district representatives (Healey 1991, 304). Those groups were asked to voice any concerns and to participate in the charrette to see how the architects addressed those concerns.

Floor and site plans and other details were presented to the public and to the trustees for final acceptance. Healey concluded that charrettes are good for public relations; those working in the media find them exciting; and participants learn more about the design and increase their support of the project (1991, 304). The Newton (Iowa) Public Library and the Cedar Rapids Public Library both used the charrette process to plan new facilities. The same architecture firm of Brown Healey Stone Sauer which planned and designed the Superior Public Library also used the charrette on those two projects (Healey 1991, 302).

From these actual examples of citizen participation in public library planning; and planning and designing libraries of different types, it was apparent that citizen involvement can be an integral part of the design process, but further research is needed because there were too few examples, and too little documentation. Such research was therefore undertaken in this study, with the results described in Chapter IV.

Participation by Children

The sharing of power as in a participatory planning and design process, may very well include children and teenagers. This may be theoretically a sound idea, but in actual practice it is a rare activity. While in nonindustrialized countries, children are working and assuming responsibilities, in industrialized countries such as the United States, children are excluded by means of an invention of culture called "childhood" (Hart 1987, 217). Children are "generally denied direct participation in society until sixteen years of age..." (Hart 1987, 218).

Children create and design many types of environments for themselves, even children as young as three years of age. Some are imagined spaces, others are physical spaces. Some are "found," others are "built." This spontaneous design by children as they play has been researched by both architects and psychologists. It has been suggested that children benefit from designing spaces for themselves. The social and psychological benefits of such "building" as children play are: learning adult roles; dealing with emotional conflict by symbolizing phenomena; understanding architecture and spatial relationships; gaining knowledge, skills, and confidence to use the environment to achieve goals; and putting order and giving meaning to the physical environment (Hart 1987, 223). If children actually participate in a real-life planning and design project, they gain the added benefits of a better quality project and a sense of responsibility towards its maintenance. In

addition, children develop a sense of societal responsibility and learn what it is to be meaningfully involved (Hart 1987, 225, 226).

Children's participation is necessarily limited by several factors: their language ability, their ability to take the perspective of others, that is, having an awareness of others' points of view, and their confidence to express themselves around adults. Understanding these limitations will aid those working with a group of children participants to effectively communicate with them; which may require other forms of nonverbal media (Hart 1987, 230).

In practice, there have been a few cases in which children have been allowed to participate in the planning and design of schools and play areas. For example, in a Fort Lauderdale planned community of Weston, the builders asked thirty-six children what they did or did not like about living in the community. By conducting focus groups of children ages five to fifteen, the builders and developers found that the children wanted such amenities as bike paths with hills, playing fields, and a club with a stage. While they were not able to accommodate all of the requests, the builders did add bike racks and a children's activity room at the athletic club (Fletcher 1990, 38).

Another example of children's participation involved Bob Leathers, an architect who has designed many playgrounds and insisted on community effort when working on such projects. The participants have included the children themselves, the parents, teachers and other community residents. Not only have they helped

design the playgrounds, but actually built them. The children provided ideas as to what they wanted in a playground. The finished projects were reported to be enjoyed by all, and the pride that they have helped makes the participants take good care of the playgrounds (Wolkomir 1985).

In the case study portion of this paper there is a detailed description of the Denver Public Library's involvement by children in the planning and design of the new central library. Using focus groups, the librarians gained information provided by the children, and in turn communicated that information to the architects. The staff had a commitment to "provide a library environment that is designed for children and respects their need for information, comfort, and a bit of frivolity" (Sandlian and Walters 1991, 29) and by actively seeking children as participants in the design process they were able to honor that commitment.

Summary

The use of citizens in planning and design processes is highly touted by many planners and designers and resisted by others. Most of the literature in planning and architecture indicates an endorsement of the process. Theoretical foundations have been borrowed from the fields of planning, sociology, management, and communications because the phenomena of citizen participation is so complex.

The literature shows that participatory processes can be a viable adjunct to other planning and design processes, or can be used as the primary planning and design tool. The majority of the literature which was examined revealed favorable attitudes toward using citizen participants; and provided examples of actual participatory experiences which were deemed favorable. Problems in communication were shown to be lessened by a willingness on the part of the planners and architects for dialogue with the participants.

Library citizen participation including public library facilities planning and design, has been minimally written about or researched. The actual practice of involving citizens in public library planning and design appears to be undocumented and underrated; yet the cases which were found in the literature have demonstrated that the process and the outcome of library design citizen participation were successful according to all of the participants.

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CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study employed a non-experimental design. The study of citizen participation in the planning and design of public library buildings was exploratory, descriptive, and evaluative in nature. Descriptive research was necessary in order to investigate, evaluate, and qualitatively characterize the phenomena of citizen participation in design as it relates to public library facilities as an exploratory step toward theory development. This non-experimental research design had as its objective to describe, not correlate nor prove causality, and employed the methods of a questionnaire survey and a case study, methods commonly utilized in both architecture and library science research. According to Blalock, "clearly there are many research questions, settings, and circumstances that do not lend themselves to the use of experimental design" (1982, 77).

"Research methodologies should be assessed in terms of their appropriateness to a given stage of the total research strategy" (Grover and Glazier 1985, 250). At this exploratory, descriptive stage of research concerning citizen participation a non-experimental methodology was chosen. Because of economic,

political, design, legal, time, and zoning constraints impinging upon the planning and design of public library facilities, an experiment would not have been feasible. Many other variables would not have been controllable so that generalization to other library building projects would still not have been possible. Indeed, what city or municipality would have welcomed such outside manipulation in such building matters? In the future, a researcher could possibly have two randomly selected groups of citizens and merely inform one group, while allowing and actually using input from the other group to design a pubic library. A measure of both groups' satisfaction with both the process and with the building could be determined to see if there is any significant difference between the two groups.

According to Rogers (1984, 85), qualitative research is "another way of knowing." The basic function of the researcher in this case is to provide "rich description" of a phenomena which is studied holistically (Rogers 1984, 87). The approach then, can be as rigorous and systematic a form of empirical inquiry as quantitative research. Many techniques can be used in qualitative research. Additionally, "Qualitative data consists of detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviors; direct quotations from people about their experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts; and excerpts or entire passages from documents, correspondence, records, and case histories" (Patton

1980, 22). These are then "balanced by analysis and interpretation" (Patton 1980, 343).

Evaluative research focuses on the effects of a "program (a service or a product)" on a "consumer (client or customer)" and is a problem solving tool (Childers 1989, 251, 265). "In the ideal, evaluative research seeks to discover how a particular program has affected people" (Childers 1989, 264). Childers recommended further studies in the library and information science field to study the impacts of library programs and services on library users and evaluate alternate strategies. Individual libraries have the opportunity to perform their own evaluative studies, but not all libraries have a commitment to such studies.

This type of evaluative research has its place in the practice of architecture as well. Architectural research can be viewed as a challenge to design assumptions in order to encourage architects and others to question and evaluate the validity of various design approaches. Architects often balk at this type of questioning. One architect and planner, Herbert McLaughlin, suggested a research methodology which "emphasizes analysis of general patterns of use and user opinion" so that the architect/researcher can understand "differences in viewpoints, attitudes, and outlooks" of the users for practical applications to real design problems (Bender and Parman 1984, 55). Such an instance of this type of evaluative research in both library and architecture milieus occurred when the Denver Public Library utilized focused group discussions to garner

exceptionally useful information for planning and designing the new central library, especially the new children's library. The results of this research are reported in Chapter V of this paper.

Design professionals, including architects, require research for both the creation and application of knowledge according to Snyder (1984, 8) because of the failures in the built environment. The built environment "too often fails—in aesthetic, functional, social, and economic performance...." (Snyder 1984, 8).

Communication of architectural research has been limited due to the scarcity of refereed journals and research symposia in that field. Some architectural research projects have been described in more popular type magazines. Practicing architects rarely are "oriented toward providing research services; fewer attempt to disseminate findings to the larger design community" (Snyder 1984, 6). A few larger firms have included research activities as a part of their architectural practice, while some firms call research activities "technical development" (King 1984, 31-32).

Most architectural research occurs in the schools of architecture which are located on university campuses, but the tradition in these schools has not been on knowledge development—but "precedent and adaptation" (Snyder 1984, 7).

It is desired that this research study on citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities provides the springboard on which to base larger, more elaborate studies which will add to the knowledge base of both the discipline of library

science and architecture and shift the architecture practice paradigm from architect led design to client led design.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

The instrument used in this study was a mailed questionnaire survey which consisted of twenty-three items of both factual nature and those which required opinion responses. Nine of the questionnaire items required simple yes/no responses. Ten items provided multiple choices, and the respondents were instructed to answer all that were applicable. For two items, the respondents were instructed to check only one response. Of those two items, one used a Likert type scale to garner opinion responses. The complete survey dealt with the single variable of citizen participation in public library facility planning and design. Some items were open ended, contingency questions. Space was given for any explanatory information for many of the questions. Some items were multiple choice, but not mutually exclusive, thereby allowing for a variety of responses and opportunity for explanation. Respondents were instructed to include such explanatory documentation.

The survey questions were designed with parsimony and specificity in mind. That is, only explicit questions were asked whose responses could not readily be obtained elsewhere. The terminology on the questionnaire survey would presume a prior knowledge of the library building process and some awareness of participatory methods. Because of the educational background,

experience and expertise of the architects, library directors and building consultants, the terminology should not have been foreign to the respondents. For most items, an "other, explain" response option was given if the provided responses were not applicable to nor understood by the respondent.

The questionnaire survey was designed after information about citizen participation in architecture was obtained from the literature review. The survey was submitted to a jury of four to locate and remove any ambiguities, and to provide suggestions for any revisions and additions. The jury consisted of one public library director who holds a Ph.D in Library Science and has provided library building consulting services; one library consultant who also holds a Ph.D in Library Science; one vice president of an architectural firm who holds a Masters Degree in Architecture from Harvard; and one licensed practicing architect with a Bachelor of Architecture degree from Texas Tech and fifteen years of professional experience.

The jurors provided a variety of viewpoints, experience, and expertise and gave helpful advice for removing confusing language and unclear questions; and provided input for adding pertinent questions which had been shortsightedly omitted by the researcher. Each juror also read the research proposal and provided comments and suggestions in that as well.

After the questionnaire was finalized, a letter of transmittal which briefly explained the purpose of the study, the rationale for

the study, and the time limit for the completion of the survey was mailed along with the survey to 150 respondents. Self-addressed stamped envelopes were provided for convenience of the respondents in mailing the completed survey back to the researcher. The respondents included architects, public library directors, and library building consultants. The survey was mailed in November 1991. It was felt that the respondents would have a potential interest in the topic, which would increase the response rate, because according to Orlich (1978, 25) if the potential interest in the topic is low, the response rate will be low. According to Babbie, "...a response rate of at least 50 percent is adequate for analysis and reporting. A response rate of at least 60 percent is good. And a response rate of 70 percent is very good" (1989, 242).

Population

Because no generalizations were to be made from this study, a nonprobability sampling method was selected. Because information on citizen participation in the planning and design of public library buildings is scarce, the researcher turned first to those experts on the library building process who might also have experience with citizen participation. To reiterate, the respondents to the questionnaire were architects, library building consultants, and public library directors.

The purposive (also known as the experience sample) (Carpenter and Vasu 1978, 37) sample of library building

consultants was taken from the American Library Association's Library Administration and Management Association, Buildings and Equipment Section's publication: Library Building Consultants List 1991. Those building consultants who were listed as having worked on public library projects were selected. Names were also selected from the Northeast Texas Library System's (NETLS) list for a total sample of fifty public library building consultants. All of the projects they had worked on were not provided on those lists. Library building consultants were selected for this research study because of their experience working on public library building programs and the resulting information such experience would provide. They were considered to be a good gauge for ascertaining the existence or lack thereof of the phenomena of citizen participation in public library design.

The architects surveyed were selected from the December issues of Library Journal for the years 1987-1991. The December issues are the "architectural issues" which contained lists of completed library building projects and those in progress; each entry provided the name of the architect who designed the library. The projects listed included academic and public libraries. After identifying the architects which designed public libraries, a purposive sample was selected. Other architects were located from the Texas State Library and the Northeast Texas Library System which both maintain lists of architects who have designed public library buildings. The lists all overlapped in coverage, but fifty total architects were purposively

sampled from the architects who were documented to have designed public library facilities.

Finally, a purposive sample of public library directors was surveyed. From the lists of public libraries which were built, expanded or remodeled in the last five years, a sample of public libraries from the same aforementioned issues of Library Journal were selected. Addresses and names of the directors of those libraries was located using Bowker's American Library Directory. Fifty public library directors from libraries which were built, expanded, or remodeled were sent the survey. The total number of respondents who were mailed the survey was one-hundred and fifty. The number was limited by financial and time constraints.

The Case Study

While it was hoped that the survey would provide information to locate several cases of citizen participation in library design, only one case study was undertaken. The library, the Denver Public Library, was brought to the researcher's attention by one of the jurors. The case study involved travel to the site, interviews with the marketing director, children's library director, the assistant to the city librarian, the library consultant, and analysis of all relevant documents as sources of evidence. These documents included the library history, public relations materials, letters, notes from meetings, and the library building program. The case study is

detailed in Chapter V. The results of the participation by citizens of Denver, Colorado are described therein.

The idea to do a case study of the Denver Public Library originated after the researcher read of that library involving children in the design process. A query letter to obtain permission to use Denver Public as a case study and to solicit further information was written to the City Librarian Rick Ashton and answered via phone by the Assistant to the City Librarian, Rich Patton. Patton briefly mentioned active citizen involvement in design; focus groups; design competitions; and children's involvement. Information was obtained through phone interviews and mailed responses to letters. The staff was eager and excited to be included in the case study. The researcher was invited to Denver to interview the key personnel in the planning/design process. On November 7, 1991, interviews were held at the Denver Public Library in Denver, Colorado. Interviewed were Rich Patton, Pamela Sandlian, Children's Library Manager, and Suzanne Walters, former Director of Marketing for the Denver Public Library and now president of her own marketing consulting firm.

The case study method was selected to further investigate the complex nature of citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities. The single unit of analysis was the Denver Public Library. The findings of such a case study are not generalizable to other libraries, or useful for making predictions about the successes of citizen participation in design. That is not to

say that it was not a useful research design, because it fulfilled its purpose of being an exploratory tool to enhance the understanding of the phenomena of citizen participation in the planning and design of public library buildings by providing information on processes which successfully worked in that particular setting. Some of the methods used to involve citizens in Denver certainly may have applicability and usefulness in other library settings.

Data Representation

Simple descriptive statistics were used for quantification purposes in order to characterize and summarize the collected data concerning citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities. The data on the survey used nominal scaling. Using LOTUS 1-2-3, the data was input into a table and then the calculations were made. Total responses and responses given by each of the three groups of respondents: library directors, architects, and building consultants were tabulated with corresponding percentages being additionally calculated. Some of these data were graphically represented by pie diagrams and bar histograms designed by using PFS: First Graphics software. Select respondent comments from some of the surveys were restated as quotes in this descriptive, qualitative study in order to provide a more holistic interpretation of the results.

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CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The objective of this study was to investigate and describe the extent and forms of citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities. To further this objective a questionnaire survey was mailed to a purposive sample of 150 architects, library directors, and library building consultants. In addition, the researcher sought to gain information on the respondents' knowledge and opinions about the participatory process.

Eighty-three surveys were actually used to tabulate the data. From the 150 surveys mailed, this calculates into a response rate of 55.3%, which is considered adequate for analysis and reporting. Of 150 surveys mailed, sixteen were returned unopened due to wrong addresses and no forwarding addresses. Of the 134 which presumably reached their destinations, eighty-five were mailed back to the researcher. Of those, eighty-three had useable responses. Two were not used because they were returned blank. Due to financial and time constraints, and the anonymity of the survey, nonrespondents were not contacted.

The distribution of the eighty-three respondents is as follows: seventeen library building consultants (librarian) returned surveys (20.7%); architects returned twenty-seven of the surveys (32.9%) (including four respondents who also classified themselves as library building consultant-architect); library directors returned thirty-three surveys (39.0%). For six surveys (7.3%), the respondents identified themselves as: an interior designer, a construction program manager, a library trustee, a public involvement consultant, and two library employees who were not library directors, suggesting that the original recipient of the survey forwarded it to someone else. (see fig. 1 in appendix)

Library building projects ranged in size from 5,200 square feet to over 400,000 square feet. Projects included renovations, expansions, and new facilities. Project costs ranged from $165,000 to $115,000,000. A variety of geographic areas were covered; from Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, to Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, Texas and Utah, for example. Some of the projects were completed, some were still in progress, others still on the drawing board. The project dates were from 1982 to the present.

Familiarity with Citizen Participation

The first item on the survey was asked to assess respondents' familiarity with citizen participation in planning and designing a building. Seventy-nine (95.18%) of the respondents were familiar

with citizen participation in this context. Four (4.82%) respondents were not. (see fig. 2 in appendix) One library director and three architects were not familiar with the practice.

The next question assessed respondents' actual experience with citizen participation in the planning and design of a public library building. Fifty-eight (69.88%) respondents had actually participated in a public library building design program which included citizen participation. Twenty-two (26.51%) respondents had no experience of this sort. (see fig. 3 in appendix)

Recent Public Library Building Projects

The next sixteen questionnaire items dealt with a specific library project. Respondents were instructed to answer the questions for the most recent library project which may or may not have included citizen participation. Respondents were first asked to identify the library and give its location. Then they were asked what event prompted the new building or renovation project and to check all applicable responses. Twenty-seven (32.53%) identified citizen pressure; fifty-two (62.65%) checked long range planning study; thirteen (15.66%) answered citizen survey results; ten (12.05%) selected gift/endowment as the event which led to the building project. (see fig. 4 in appendix)

Those who checked "other" listed the following reasons the building project was initiated: the board had the money from matching funds; staff and trustee action because of overcrowding

(listed many times); a threat to withdraw from the library system; a bond issue (listed many times); a need to move out of a rented facility; to provide handicapped access; fire damage; deterioration of library; severe roof leaks; politics; action by county commissioners; action by state legislation; LSCA grant; and a master plan which was completed.

Those who participated in the planning and design of the identified library facility: eighty-two (98.80%) projects included participation by a registered architect; eighty-one (97.59%) building projects involved the library director/administration; fifty (60.24%) involved library building consultants; sixty-nine (83.1%) involved the library board; forty (48.19%) involved friends of the library groups; sixty-eight (81.93%) involved librarians; fifty-five (66.27%) included participation by other library employees; twenty-nine (34.94%) included city council involvement; forty-four (53.01%) projects included citizens/public/library users; fifteen (18.07%) used a design review board; and thirty-five (42.17%) building projects included an interior designer. (see fig. 5 in appendix) One respondent added that the library board had members "Who happen to be citizens not employed by the library." Other participants in some of the building projects included an architectural historian, a county architect, a city planning director, an engineering firm, a city library advisory committee, county commissioners, state representatives, school teachers, school children, library furnishings consultant, county employees and the

General Services Administration, consulting architects, a city manager, and citizens appointed by a mayor for their expertise in certain areas such as legal, business, construction, and engineering.

In answer to the question "was a library building committee formed?" Fifty-nine (71.08%) of the respondents answered "yes." Twenty-two (26.51%) answered "no." (see fig. 6 in appendix) Forty (48.19%) of the respondents answered that the building committee included citizens. Twenty-two (26.51%) said the building committee did not include citizens. (see fig. 7 in appendix) Three respondents added comments, all stating that board/trustee members made up the building committee.

Citizen involvement is usually implemented because of a federal mandate or an administrator whose philosophy includes citizen involvement. In the recent library building projects the library board initiated citizen participation for forty projects (48.19%). For thirty-seven projects (44.58%), library directors or administration implemented citizen participation. For six projects (7.23%) citizens themselves sought involvement. For nine projects (10.84%) architects sought citizen involvement. Additionally, for nine projects (10.84%), it was a local government requirement. (see fig. 8 in appendix) One respondent stated that "local interest by community movers and shakers" was the reason citizens became involved. Another respondent stated that "the board did not want the citizens to participate."

Of the libraries which used citizen participation, citizens were notified of the opportunity to participate by the following methods. twenty libraries (24.10%) used mailed notifications. Twenty-eight libraries (33.73%) used posted public notices or displays. (see fig. 9 in appendix) Other methods to enlist citizen involvement included: radio, television, and newspaper coverage; word of mouth; meetings; regular library users were asked for input; informal contact with potential members; board meeting agendas posted; personal invitation from trustee board president; specific groups selected at random; presentations at local womens' clubs and friends of libraries groups; telephone contact; and open meetings requirements.

Participation by Diverse Groups

To ascertain whether groups from a diverse population were specifically included in the planning and design process, respondents were asked if they involved children, ethnic groups, and disabled citizens. (see fig. 10 in appendix) Fourteen libraries (16.87%) included children. Comments included that the children were asked for input, or that the children's librarian was involved in the process. One respondent stated that children "looked over furniture, color schemes, floor plan." Another respondent "talked with library users about their desires and dreams." One respondent stated that a wall mural was painted by a children's book illustrator, but this remark shows more what was done for the children in the

design of the library, not necessarily what their involvement entailed. The other respondents did not supply specifics for this question.

Eighteen libraries (21.69%) specifically included ethnic groups in the planning/design process. Comments which respondents listed about ethnic group participation include:

- "Part of citizen's committee."
- "On building committee."
- "Hispanic and Afro-American at focus groups."
- "All citizens invited."
- "Members of citizen planning group."
- "General participation at meetings."
- "Members of library board, friends, county commission."
- "Open public hearing."
- "Head librarian was a Black lady."
- "Chairman of the library board at the time was Afro-American."
- "Invitation to participate."
- "Special focus on multi-ethnic studies."
- "Translated surveys."
- "On building committee."

One respondent who checked "no" to this item commented that their community was "homogeneous." Representation on committees and boards, attending meetings, and holding a professional librarian position appear to be methods by which

ethnic groups participated in actual library building processes. The focus groups were used by one library to solicit ethnic involvement. Other than that, no special solicitation efforts were made. By attending meetings and hearings ethnic group members were considered to be involved.

Twenty-three (27.71%) libraries specifically included disabled citizens. Respondent comments included:

- "Invitation to participate."
- "Mayor's committee on the handicapped reviewed document."
- "Direct input from group concerning all phases—restrooms, door openings, etc."
- "Using ADA rules."
- "Talked with handicapped users...asked what was needed for their accessibility."
- "They reviewed plan as to handicapped accessibility."
- "On building committee."
- "Disabled person on building committee."
- "Library staff included handicapped persons."
- "Visually impaired reading programs and equipment were carefully planned."
- "Member of planning committee."
- "The librarian has some disabilities."
- "Physical accessibility code requirements."
- "General participation."

As with the other two groups above, some respondents confused what was done for specific groups in the library design with how children, ethnic groups, and disabled persons actually were themselves involved in the planning/design process. Not only should more functional and inviting libraries be built, but by encouraging participation, libraries are also encouraging continued library use by those participants. The purpose for designing and building a library is not to establish a monument or a warehouse for materials or an attractive workplace. Those who plan and design public libraries, because they are indeed public institutions, need to keep in mind who the real and potential users of that facility are going to be. It has been documented that America has a growing segment of people who are information poor. There are also those who do not actively use their local library. It could be they have no transportation, they may find the collection hard to use or not meeting their informational needs. The library could be difficult to move around in, or the library may be physically unappealing and uninviting. By making special effort to reach the nonusers, or those who do not have strong advocacy or representation, library managers would find answers to what these groups of people need to make access and use of the library a viable option.

In general, little special emphasis was given to include diverse citizen groups, but the groups were not purposefully disregarded either. Two respondents summed the joint question succinctly by stating that the three groups were "not specifically included or

excluded—as I recall none of these groups were represented at public meetings." Still another respondent commented "members of these three groups participated, though I don't recall special or focus efforts to solicit their participation."

Library Building Participatory Methods

There are many different methods which can be used to involve citizens in the planning/design process as discussed at length in chapter II of this paper. Of the actual public library projects which involved citizens, fifteen (18.07%) projects used the focus group method. Seven (8.43%) used the charrette. For seven (8.43%) libraries, citizens voted in a library design competition. Forty (48.19%) of the library projects used building committee participation as the citizen involvement. Two (2.41%) library projects used gaming as a citizen participation strategy. Seventeen (20.48%) libraries used three dimensional models in the participatory process. Fifteen (18.07%) libraries utilized a citizen survey to gain input from citizens. One (1.2%) library used the Delphi technique. (see fig. 11 in appendix)

Other methods used to involve the citizens which were listed by respondents as comments were:

- "Open hearings and letters."
- "Regular users were asked to review plans."
- "Review and comment on plans."

- "Survey conducted at high school only. 3-D model was created after building design was finalized; it was used as a tool to raise funds for materials."
- "Informal chats with patrons to get their comments and suggestions."
- "At public meetings, citizens were asked their opinions on usage and construction."
- "Regular meetings of Library Advisory Committee."
- "Community meetings in specific areas."
- "Public meetings announced in newspaper."
- "Public meetings for verbal comments on fixtures, spaces, programming issues."
- "Lots and lots of committees."
- "Renderings."
- "Public review of plans."
- "Simple presentation by architects to community groups."
- "Lots of outreach, getting on agendas of community councils, etc. Major public forums."
- "Frequent discussions with regular library users as they used the 'old' library."
- "Gaming used to establish program requirements."

Meetings and public presentations to review plans appear to be the predominate strategy or means by which citizens participate in public library building processes. One respondent was "not sure that a formal public meeting is the best environment for creative thinking."

Citizens were involved in the site selection for twenty-eight libraries (33.73%). Forty-six libraries (55.42%) involved citizens in the building design. Thirty-nine libraries (46.99%) involved citizens in space planning. Twenty-two libraries (26.51%) involved citizens in furnishings selection. Twenty-one libraries (25.30%) involved citizens in landscaping design. Sixteen libraries (19.28%) involved citizens in post-occupancy evaluation. (see fig. 12 in appendix) At the time the survey was returned to the researcher, many of the projects were still in progress, so some of the survey response items were not yet applicable.

Respondent comments on specifics of citizen involvement:

- "Citizens were only involved with the preliminary plans created for referendum vote."
- "Informal post-occupancy evaluation."
- "Citizen involvement in the schematic phase gave user insight as to the way in which the library would be used and the approach to the building design and space planning."
- "Due to bureaucratic nature of the library system, we had more than enough input from wide range of sources.
- "Community input on each project limited to 3-4 presentations."
- "Citizen input was in the form of reaction to design progress."
- "Concept presented for review and basic approval with understanding of cost."
- [No citizen participants] "There was, however, citizen participation in long-range planning process prior to project, as well as citizen input into building program document."

- "Only staff and architect involved."
- "Large committee included separate committees for site, funding."
- "Citizens used the letters to the editor to air their opinions—especially about the original designs."
- "We continually received feedback from citizens as site was selected and survey provided information for space planning. Everything was planned according to community standards and expectations."
- "When I say citizens, I'm referring to the 7 member library board."
- "It is less and less clear to me who is a citizen and who is not. Citizen boards approved all design matters."

Citizen Input and its Use

Citizen input in library design matters in actual building projects may have been used; acknowledged, but not used; or disregarded. Forty-seven respondents (56.63%) checked that citizen input was used to make decisions on library design matters. Fourteen respondents (16.87%) answered that citizen input was acknowledged, but not used in decision making. Three respondents (3.61%) stated that citizen input was disregarded. (see fig. 13 in appendix)

Citizen Input - Library Building Consultants' Views

Library building consultant comments on how citizen input was used include the following:

- "We plan to use a broad range of mechanisms."
- "Citizens participated in charrette, discussed their goals and their direction was used in later planning."
- "Tentative plans from architect were discussed at public meetings."
- "But only with heavy scrutiny. Citizen input was tested against the basic parameters of the project design/program cost and schedule. If it did not violate one or more, or if it simply was a good idea it was adopted. Very few ideas from general project were useable."
- "Citizens' report used as a basis for assessing space needs. Ongoing effort is likely to extend to other roles."
- "Several planning meetings to approve building program, to select sites, to evaluate preliminary schematics."
- "Provided demographic data, expressed community needs."
- "Members of library board provided citizen input which was used in making final decisions for all matters checked yes in question 11."
- "Comments received during the charrette were reviewed and incorporated as appropriate."
- "Survey of wishes to help decide on services."
- "Amount of input used depends on assertiveness of citizen board."
- "Presentations made, reactions used by architects to modify plans."
- "Participated in design conferences."

Citizen Input - Library Directors' Views

Responses from library directors on the question of how citizen input was used included:

- "A citizen committee and board of trustees reviewed plans developed by librarians and architects. Their comments were used in the plan."
- "Site selection, collection size, contract approval, zoning permission."
- "Color schemes, floor layout, seating, furniture, etc. was evaluated by regular users and this information was used in the final bid document."
- "Landscaping and state history room were a direct result of citizen input."
- "The building committee comprised primarily of citizens worked with the architect and consultant on library design."
- "The library board was involved throughout; from selection of architect, concept and design phases, through furniture, colors, fabrics, etc., selection, open house planning."
- "Some ideas were unrealistic."
- "Citizen reactions to consolidation/closing of facilities led to new building."
- "Results of survey indicated kinds of services and building features wanted, used to formulate design program."
- "The library director alone made the decisions."
- "Many suggestions were put into the design of the interior."
- "Design committee had representation from many areas. Helped with preliminary design. Along with library board, approved final design."
- "Ideas were pooled, discussed, and reviewed. Most feasible were incorporated."

- "Space planning decisions in particular were largely made using citizen input."
- "Citizens served on the building committee and their comments were listened to and utilized when appropriate."
- "Not formally used; all suggestions were given to architect, interior designer's swatches posted."
- "We consulted, listened, used input towards decision making. Citizen input was used to a degree."
- "Votes taken at building committee meetings."
- "Specific need groups were allowed to request space and design requirements."
- "Citizen input was primarily that of library advisory commission reviewing designs and issues at intervals through the process."

Citizen Input - Architects' Views

Comments made by architects on the specifics of citizen input, that is how they used the input are as follows:

- "Needs expressed for a public meeting space. This space was provided."
- "Needs were discussed."
- "Discussion of design issues, selection among alternatives, community perception of existing library building and desires for expansion."
- "The building committee had regular meetings. The committee included 5 citizens. The committee gave input on the design and we voted on issues that were not unanimous and took the direction from the majority."
- "Drawings prepared with their input, then revised as necessary."

- "A fixed seat auditorium for 160 seats was included in the project at suggestion of citizens although it was not in the original program by the library consultant."
- "Comments incorporated into the design."
- "For the most part, plans were issued and reviewed with citizen input, before final drawings were issued. Furniture selections were brought to site for approval."
- "City council and library director only made decisions."
- "Typically, input is channeled through the library staff, board, and director, who can more usefully sort through any comments and suggestions and pass it to the architect in a more productive way."
- "Public comments were not solicited, but noted by librarians and passed along during meetings."
- "Major design issues reviewed and accepted. Detailed user items were for the most part incorporated."
- "Most input was in reference to site and environmental issues (parking, traffic, landscaping) from surrounding areas."
- "Citizen input was invited on the site location of the building due to the traffic influence, police activity, and safety at adjacent park. The actual design of the building was not scrutinized by the public at large."
- "Minutes of meetings were taken and the architect was asked to consider the comments."
- "A problem, the city was very political."
- "Friends of the library group used as a sounding board, to dispense information, to help with referendum."

In many instances the respondents stated that citizen input was used in design decisions, and that certain features were a direct result of citizen suggestion. Architects, library directors, and

building consultants are also citizens. So are the members of boards of trustees. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this study, information was sought on the extent of participation by lay citizens. Many respondents, when referring to citizens, however, explained that they referred to board members as citizens and not the "average man or woman on the street."

Post-Occupancy Evaluation

The next two questions on the survey dealt with post-occupancy evaluation and a subjective assessment of the success of the design process and the finished building. Many respondents did not answer this question because the buildings were not yet complete. Citizens were formally surveyed after the library building was completed for an assessment of the design process for two (2.41%) libraries. Five (6.02%) libraries surveyed citizens for an assessment of the finished building. (see fig. 14 in appendix) Forty-seven (56.63%) of the respondents felt that the project was concluded to be successful by citizens. Forty-four (53.01%) of the respondents themselves concluded the project to be successful. Comments from the respondents are as follows:

- "We hope it will be successful!" (This comment is from a public involvement specialist who was hired by a public library to design a public participation project to be used as the library staff completes a long range facilities study.)

- "Many comments regarding the library's success from citizens, library staff, and designers. North Carolina/South Carolina IBD Gold Award Winner." (Interior Designer)
- "So far so good." (Building Consultant)
- "Project was needed, is well used and appreciated by public." (Architect)
- "Local publications and citizen usage indicated success." (Architect)
- "Great enthusiasm expressed by trustees, director, and participants." (Architect who used charrette.)
- "Also successful by informal survey of users and staff." (Architect)
- "Should survey before the building is started; after that it's too late!" (Architect)
- "Well used. Need additional space already." (Architect)
- "Best building for money $35/square foot." (Architect)
- "No formal evaluation. However, we have heard good comments." (Architect)
- "General reaction is favorable." (Architect)
- "They use it." (Architect from a project which did not include citizen participation.)
- "Renovation improved access to building and collection." (Branch Library Administrator)
- "People who never have come in before, came and raved about it. Everyone who enters compliments." (Library Director) [Concluded to be successful by] "The Library Board and the city which had the responsibility of accepting the building." (Library Director)
- "Rave reviews; architectural awards; review of guest book which patrons sign including comments." (Library Director)
- "Use, donations, awards." (Library Director)

- "The library has had no adverse comments." (Library Director)
- "Everyone who participated was pleased." (Library Director whose library added a 8,572 sq. ft. children's library. Children looked over furniture, color schemes and floor plan.)
- "Response since opening has been incredible. Very busy!" (Library Director)
- "Use increased by almost 3 times. Thousands of positive comments. Space planning worked for the most part." (Library Director)
- "But I feel that a new building would have been a wiser choice." (Library Director from a library which added on 5,600 sq. ft. and renovated 15,000 sq. ft.; citizens did not participate.)
- "We did not get the matching funds." (Library Director from a library not yet built. The library board had money, but did not get the matching funds they needed. In addition, the board did not want the citizens involved.)

A myriad of comments were received from the question of project success. Several buildings received awards. Those libraries whose use increased, however, should really be considered successes because libraries should be built and designed to be used and occupied; not to be pristine and pretty, but rarely used buildings. None of the respondents stated that they had participated in any substantive formal post-occupancy evaluation of the completed library facility.

Participation with Other Type Libraries

In order to ascertain whether other type libraries besides public libraries have been planned and designed with citizen participation,

respondents were asked if they had been involved with other libraries, of any type, in which citizens participated. Forty (48.19%) of the respondents had worked on other library projects involving citizens. Forty (48.19%) of the respondents had not been involved in a library project which included the participation of citizens. Three (3.61%) respondents did not answer this item. (see fig. 15 in appendix) The respondents were not asked what type of library or any other information, so this was merely a cursory question to potentially provide a basis for further investigation.

Difficulties and Benefits of Citizen Participation

The last three items to be discussed in this chapter are the three opinion questions asked to gain information on how the respondents feel about the whole participatory design philosophy. One multiple choice question dealt with the difficulties of involving citizens in the planning/design process of a public library. Another multiple choice question dealt with the benefits of involving citizens in the planning/design process of a public library. A final question dealing with attitudes and opinions instructed respondents to select one choice from the Likert-like scale which would best sum their philosophy on citizen participation.

The difficulties of using citizens in the planning and design process can potentially be many. Twenty-two (26.51%) of the respondents believe that citizen participation takes too much time. Twenty-five (30.12%) respondents believe that citizens are not

knowledgeable enough. Fifteen (18.07%) respondents believe that citizens have a hard time understanding professional jargon. Ten (12.05%) of the respondents believe that involving citizens requires procedural changes. Thirteen (15.66%) respondents believe that using citizen participants requires more money. Twenty-nine (34.94%) of the respondents believe that there were no difficulties in involving citizens in the planning/design process of a public library. (see fig. 16 in appendix) Specific comments on the difficulties of citizen participation are listed as follows:

- "Citizens lose interest fast, must keep up interest." (Architect)
- "Citizens are not knowledgeable about construction industry/ design process." (Architect)
- "Takes time, but should be included in fees." (Architect)
- "Varied opinions, could not focus." (Architect)
- "Takes more time, but not too much time." (Architect)
- "Citizen knowledge is difficult to translate from individual desire to common community good." (Architect)
- "The more people making a decision, the harder it is to make." (Architect)
- "Difficulties in arranging meeting times and selecting good people who are not self-serving." (Library Director)
- "Citizens think a little knowledge is the same as expertise. Citizens don't want to acknowledge library concerns." (Library Director)
- "Takes a lot of time, but this was not a problem." (Library Director)

- "Each one has a special interest, hard to get them to compromise." (Library Director from library whose participants were solely the 7 library board members.)
- "Limited knowledge of what works and what doesn't." (Library Director)
- "Increases wrangling over issues of library functionality, building equipment needs, architects' vision, and money." (Library Director)
- "Citizens don't understand features a building must have." (Library Director)
- "We didn't get enough citizen input on many phases of project." (Library Director)
- "Citizens don't understand political bureaucracy well enough." (Library Director)
- "Requires more money as it lengthens planning time." (Library Building Consultant)
- "Very few concrete ideas come from them, especially if you have restrictive budgets." (Construction Program Manager)
- "All of these are real problems, but they can be overcome." (Public Involvement Consultant)

The following is a breakdown of the respondents' opinions on the benefits of citizen participation in planning and designing public libraries. Fifty-three (63.86%) of the respondents believe that involving citizens in the design process has the benefit of more satisfied citizens. Forty-five (54.22%) respondents believe that the citizens gain an understanding of the planning and design process. Twenty-eight (33.73%) respondents believe that involving citizens yields a better designed library building. Sixty-eight (81.93%)

believe that the practice of citizen participation in the planning and design of public libraries is good public relations. Forty-nine (59.04%) of the respondents believe that a library building which meets the needs of a variety of users can be the resulting benefit of involving citizens. Only two (2.41%) respondents felt there were no benefits of using citizen participants in the library design process. (see fig. 17 in appendix)

Specific comments expressed by the respondents are detailed below:

- "Good public relations." (Architect)
- "Advantages outweigh disadvantages. Need to "ground" them in the beginning. [Provide with information to increase citizens' knowledge.] 'Joint authorship leads to joint ownership' (Val Schute 1984) We are currently working on an academic library in which student input (user) is a critical component." (Architect)
- "Have to do it. It is a political necessity." (Architect)
- "Benefits depend on who is the leader and how good they are at 'citizen relations;' and if there is a local interest in libraries. The citizens 'own' the thing. You have to work with them." (Architect)
- "Citizens can be informed if the time is taken. Participation is very important, but the architect must be paid his fees." (Architect)
- "The degree of citizen input was limited to program issues, which has simplified the process." (Architect)
- "No difficulties if handled correctly." (Architect)
- "Good public relations." (Library Director)

- "Site donation would not have been possible without citizen involvement and agreement." (Library Director)
  [Citizen participation is] "very important with the ADA laws and legislation now being implemented." (Library Director)
- "Board has vested interest; help 'sell' to public." (Library Director about board members as citizens)
- "Citizens helped to get the money." (Library Director)
- "We were blessed with active, interested citizens." (Library Director)
- "Builds coalition of support; broad based understanding." (Library Director)
- "More private funding potential. Citizen involvement in the funding is enhanced when they participate in the design. Their misconceptions and lack of training must be overcome. It's good public relations if things go well, but the worst if it does not." (Library Building Consultant)
- "An active library board is the best citizen involvement. They represent all aspects of the community served." (Library Building Consultant)
- "Good public relations" (Library Building Consultant)
- "Citizens have a stake in the library and are more apt to provide financial support." (Library Building Consultant)
- "Citizen participation is the preferred choice." (Library Building Consultant)

Importance of Citizen Participation

The final questionnaire item to be discussed is the Likert type scale attitude/opinion question. Respondents were instructed to check only one response about the importance of citizen participation in the planning and design of library facilities. The choices were: "critical," "very important," "important," "somewhat

important," and "not important." Seventy-four (89.16%) of the respondents answered the question. (see fig. 18 in appendix) Nine (10.84%) either did not answer the question or checked more than one choice. At one extreme end of the scale, nine (10.84%) respondents believe that citizen participation is "critical." The breakdown for that is three architects, two library directors, two building consultants, and one library employee, and one public involvement consultant.

None (0.0%) of the respondents believe that citizen participation in planning and design of public library facilities is "not important;" the other extreme end of the scale. Twenty-six (31.33%) of the respondents believe that citizen participation is "very important." That translates to eight architects, one library employee, four building consultants, and thirteen library directors sharing that view. Twenty-four (28.92%) respondents: eight library directors, six building consultants, seven architects, one interior designer, one library trustee, and one construction/program manager believe that citizen participation is "important." Finally, fifteen (18.07%) of the respondents believe that citizen participation is "somewhat important." Eight library directors, three building consultants, and four architects shared that opinion.

A few respondents summed up their philosophies on the merits of citizen participation by stating:

- "Depends on nature of project. Libraries are a lot like babies, all the same and all different. Citizens should be involved if the community is identifiable." (Architect)
- "Literature needs to focus on library staff. Most have never gone through such a process, yet they are best informed as to the spatial dynamics of their job/service/function. The need is to quickly train them to provide helpful guidance to architects. Much of what makes or breaks a project is if it is suited to its purpose. Does it work? Does the building lift the spirit? If it does, it is successful. Citizen input is important, but has little bearing on this critical question." (Library Director)
- "The importance and value is highly dependent on the nature of the library, the community; on the calendar, and on the type and level of involvement sought and obtained." (Library Building Consultant)

The survey results revealed a wide variety of viewpoints about the problems and benefits of citizen participation in public library planning and design. Most of the respondents share the perception that citizen participation is important, but its use depends on the political environment of the community, the extent of activism present in the community residents, and the management and participatory philosophies of the library director, library board members, building consultant, and the architect. Many of the respondents shared the view that improved public relations would be a positive end result if citizens were involved in public library planning and design. The most common problems of increased amount of time and money do not appear to be insurmountable and can be incorporated into long range planning and budget preparation. The other most frequently cited problem of

communication barriers and lack of knowledge displayed by ordinary citizens can additionally with time and effort be alleviated. Citizens can and should be informed and educated about library operations. Language which citizens can understand should be incorporated into architectural presentations in order to increase citizens' understanding and remove the troublesome nature of professional jargon. Respondents who stated that these problems could be overcome did not provide any substantive solutions. Nevertheless, in general, the survey provided interesting information which shed some light on the current state of citizen participation in library planning and design.

CHAPTER V

THE DENVER CASE STUDY

Introduction

In north central Colorado, nestled in the foothills of the Rocky Mountains, sits Colorado's mile-high capital city of Denver; the largest city in Colorado and the largest city in a 600 mile radius. In the heart of the city's Civic Center area lies the Denver Public Library. On that same site a new library will open in 1995 to better serve the residents of Denver and the surrounding metropolitan areas.

The project to plan, design, and build a new library facility for Denver Public has been an ongoing process for many years. The many stakeholders of Denver Public Library included the City Librarian, Rick Ashton and his administrative staff; the library department managers; the librarians; all other library staff; the Denver Public Library Friends Foundation; the Denver Public Library Commission; the City of Denver, with Mayor Frederico Peña at the helm; the benefactors who have contributed financially to the library; and especially, because the library is a tax supported institution, the citizens of Denver. Each of these had a vested interest in the library and the decisions related to its programs and services.

Historical Background

As with many other public libraries, the Denver Public Library throughout its history has been faced with the building concerns of where to house the book collection once it was established; where to relocate the collection once it outgrew that locale; when and where to build a new facility; how to fund it; what it's exterior and interior should look like; and what to do with those historical library buildings when they too have become too small or out of sync with modern library and communication technologies.

Before there was the current Denver Public Library system, there were two separate predecessor libraries which had their origins in the city of Denver during the nineteenth century. Because there was no free public library in Denver, a subscription library, called the Mercantile Library, opened in November 1886 with 3000 volumes. This library was supported by subscriptions, but borrowing privileges could be acquired by citizens paying a deposit or who were guaranteed by a subscriber (Yonce 1989, 2). The stacks to this library were closed to the users, and the books were classified using the Poole system. The Denver City Council budgeted yearly monies to the library beginning in 1891. The library was renamed City Library in 1893, and by 1898 the collection had grown to 30,000 volumes with annual circulation over 160,000 (Yonce 1989, 2).

A separate library which began as a reading room in 1874 was supported by memberships, but open to the pubic. It ran out of

funds in 1878, and the book collection was donated to the Denver School Board. The collection was then placed in the west wing of the newly built Denver High School. It was several years before the Public Library in this wing was opened in 1889. A property tax partially funded this library. John Cotton Dana, renowned in library history, was hired to be the librarian and interestingly enough, the secretary of the Denver School Board (Yonce 1989, 3). Dana was librarian from 1889 to 1897. In 1897, a general library law was passed by the Colorado General Assembly "which allowed municipalities to establish and maintain public libraries" (Yonce 1989, 6). While on duty as Denver's first city librarian, Dana actively publicized library services, opened the library's shelves to patrons, and established a separate children's library which opened in 1894, "complete with appropriately sized furniture" (Yonce 1989, 4). By 1898, Dana's assistant, John Parsons, was appointed to succeed him. The book collection had grown from 1,500 volumes to 40,000 volumes by that time, and annual circulation of the Public Library was 270,000.

Because of the duplication of the services between the Public Library and the City Library, the two libraries were consolidated in 1898. Charles Dudley, head librarian of the City Library, was appointed librarian of the consolidated library, with John Parsons as his assistant. Books from the City Library had to be reclassified and cataloged using the Dewey system, instead of the Poole system, because of the incompatibility of the catalogs of the two libraries.

With the library collection doubled, there was an urgent need to find larger facilities. A space was leased in a building owned by the Prudential Insurance Company, and was housed in this location for three years (Yonce 1989, 6-7).

By 1902, the lease was up, the library had amassed a great loss of books due to the open shelf system, and the space of the leased quarters was no longer adequate. A new building site, occupied by luxury residences, was purchased for $198,000. The library was relocated to four adjoining residences until a new library facility could be built there. The library remained in the converted residences from 1903 to 1910 (Yonce 1989, 7-8). The location was plagued with problems: bats, bugs, crowded rooms, lack of functional space, and inconvenience.

Subsequently, library philanthropist Andrew Carnegie offered $200,000 to the city of Denver to build a new public library in March of 1902. The gift was accepted in 1903. The ultimate library which the city leaders desired would have cost twice as much as Carnegie donated. An architectural competition was held and architect Albert Ross of New York won the competition and the commission to design the new library. Carnegie was less than happy with the proposed plan. He felt that it was not practical and had "too many pillars" (Yonce 1989, 9).

Groundbreaking took place in 1906 and the new building opened four years later in February of 1910. The final total cost of the project was $425,000. The library consisted of three floors, a

basement, and a book capacity of 300,000 volumes. The stacks off the main floor were open to the public (Yonce 1989, 11).

Carnegie gave an additional $160,000 for branches. There were eight designed and built by Denver architects between 1913 and 1918. Additional sub-branches were opened in community buildings. Once again the growing Denver Public Library was faced with building issues. By 1924, library leaders requested expansion for the main building. That request was not to come to fruition for many years. A trailer library which was replaced by traveling branches and later bookmobiles was introduced in 1938 (Yonce 1989, 13-17).

It was not until May of 1947 that voters passed a $2.5 million bond program. A new five story $3.3 million structure designed by Fisher and Fisher and Burnham Hoyt was opened in 1956 with five times the book capacity of the prior building. The former Carnegie building was sold to the city of Denver. The new facility had no fixed interior walls or built-in shelves to allow for flexibility and changes and was located at 1357 Broadway Street where it remains in operation today. It was built to allow for expansion on the southern half of the block, used then as a parking lot. Expansion bond issue requests for the main library were turned down by the mayor's office in 1972 and 1980, but several branches were opened during that period (Yonce 1989, 19-29).

A New Central Library

Once again, the Denver Public library experienced phenomenal growth in both resources and patron use and needed to expand its facilities. The library on Broadway "had reached its capacity for storage of materials, seating for customers, and staff work area" by 1967 (Denver Public Library Friends Foundation 1988, 4).

In 1985, Rick Ashton became the City Librarian of Denver; a position he still holds. He has demonstrated a strong customer service philosophy during his administration (Yonce 1988, 29). This is readily apparent as evidenced by the whole capital improvement process for the library and its branches.

By 1988 the Denver Public Library was one of the largest libraries in the country with a collection of 3.8 million items, 7.5 items per capita, second only to Boston with 9.8 items per capita. 51.7 percent of residents held library cards. More than 58,000 of the residents now holding library cards are children (Squibb 1991a, 4). The library system in Denver now includes the Central Library, twenty-one branch libraries, and one bookmobile; over 3.3 million items circulated annually by 1991 (Sandlian 1991a, 1). Planning studies done in 1988 forecast a need for 432,500 gross square feet of space to serve patrons and house a growing collection until the year 2010 (Denver Public Library Friends Foundation 1988, 4).

Voters in Denver approved the $91.6 million bond issue for the construction of a much needed new central library and renovations to the branch libraries in August 1990 by a 75 percent margin.

Participation by the citizens of Denver in the library building projects was a consideration from the outset. "The exhilarating task of building a twenty-first century public library system will offer many opportunities for participation. Citizens will help choose architects, advise on site selection, review designs, and celebrate many groundbreakings and ribbon-cuttings. We urge the many friends of the Denver Public Library to join us in whatever way they can" (Denver Public Library Friends Foundation 1990, 1).

The Denver Public Library system serves 505,000 residents of Denver and an extra 1.2 million people who live in the metropolitan area. The librarians answer approximately 770,000 reference questions annually (Denver Public Library 1990, 1). The online public access catalog is offered by the Colorado Alliance of Research Libraries (CARL). The library holds over 2,000 magazines, 3,000 records and tapes, scripts to over 6,000 plays, and over 1,000 business directories. The Western History Department is a highly regarded collection of information in varying forms on the U.S. West. Outreach is a priority as evidenced by the children's library which has the Magic Bus that takes materials and programming to preschools, Head Start centers, and other day care facilities (Denver Public Library 1990, 2-3).

The facility of the Central Library currently measures approximately 170,000 square feet. The new addition which is slated to be completed in 1995 will measure approximately 547,751

square feet (Denver Public Library Friends Foundation 1990, 1, Patton 1991).

A Library Competition

A four month competition process to select an architect for the $64 million addition/expansion to the Denver Public Library culminated in the selection of Michael Graves of Princeton, New Jersey teamed with the Klipp Partnership of Denver as the winner (Competition Project 1991, 1). In August of 1990, shortly after the $91.6 million bond issue to build the new library and renovate the branches was passed, and shortly after focus groups had met, Denver Mayor Frederico Peña announced a competition. Even though some architects were at first resistant to the idea of a design competition, a competition was deemed necessary because of the complex design problems and requirements associated with the library: the historic Hoyt library design was to be preserved and incorporated into the new design; a facility three times the size of the present library was going to be placed on a site which was one city block in size; the design had to be compatible with the variety of architectural styles in the Denver Civic Center area; and the design had to meet the carefully planned space and program requirements of the library while working within the $64 million budget.

The idea of a competition to choose an architect for designing a facility has a long history, but it is a seldom used method for

choosing architects to design libraries. The emphasis in Denver was on selecting an architect, not an award winning design. The competition was considered to be client-centered, that is, the City of Denver, as the client would maintain active involvement and open communication with the finalists (Squibb 1991b, 1-2, Competition Project 1991, 1).

A Central Library Architect Selection Committee made the selection instead of the typical competition jury comprised mainly of architects. This "broad based committee of citizens" selected by the mayor was a diverse twelve member group with representatives from the "library, library commission, city council, mayor's office, and the public." Also included were architects and urban designers. Roger Schluntz, AIA, of Phoenix, Arizona was the professional advisor to the selection committee. There was also an advisory committee to the selection committee comprised of architects, planners and librarians (Squibb 1991b, 2, Competition Project 1991, 1).

In late September of 1990, the City of Denver issued requests for qualifications to 118 architecture firms across the nation. These firms were considered to be "top-notch" with "national and international reputations" (Squibb 1991b, 3). Firms which were not local Denver firms were required to associate with an architectural firm from Denver to form a "design team." The pool of potential candidates was eventually narrowed. After personal interviews, the selection committee chose three design teams to prepare design

proposals. The three design teams which were finalists were Robert A.M. Stern Architects (New York) teamed with Urban Design Group (Denver); Klipp Partnership (Denver) in association with Michael Graves Architect (New Jersey); and Hoover Berg Desmond Architects (Denver) paired with F & S Partners (Dallas) (Competition Project 1991, 1). Contracts were signed and each team received $50,000 in fees for the competition.

In early 1991, a series of workshops involving only the design teams, the selection committee, and several library staffers were held. The workshops allowed active communication between the client (City of Denver) and the three competitor teams. The workshops were also problem solving sessions. Movable blocks were used by the architects to help committee members and library staffers visualize the functional relationship of library spaces. The selection committee used the workshops to glean information about how the design teams would combine library program requirements, budgetary constraints, a confining site, and historical preservation into a final workable and attractive design (Squibb 1991b, 3). Also held were public committee meetings. Participation by the community was encouraged, ideas could be voiced at these meetings. At the final design proposal presentation, the committee welcomed written feedback from the community members.

At the final design proposal presentation, drawings, models, and slides from the three design teams were displayed while each team explained its design. With over 600 spectators crowded in

attendance the presentations were made. The history making presentation was televised as well. On March 5, 1991 the Klipp/Graves team was selected as the winner because its design preserved the historic Hoyt facility; had the "feel" of several smaller buildings instead of one massive structure; provided for future urban development; met interior functional requirements; and was attractive. The other two teams had quite different but workable facilities as well (Squibb 1991b, 4). City Librarian Rick Ashton, was quoted as saying "The new Central Library will not only be a Denver landmark, it will set the standard for major public library projects for the next 100 years" (Squibb 1991b, 2).

The Denver Public Library Commission

The legal guiding force behind the Denver Public Library is the Denver Public Library Commission, whose President is Laura Christensen. The Library Commission had an active role in the building planning process. The Denver Public Library Commission is the library's governing board, whose authority is defined by city charter. The Library Commission was the expending authority for the $91.6 million bond issue and took and continues to take a very active role in all aspects of the building process (Christensen 1991).

The Library Commission is a citizen governing board comprised of community members who represent the citizens of Denver. The members are appointed by the mayor and have staggered four-year terms. Its ethnic/gender make-up consists of a white female

business executive, three white female volunteers, a black female school administrator, a Hispanic female retired school administrator, a white male corporate executive, and a white male state legislator/educator. They are all college graduates and some hold graduate degrees (Christensen 1991). Even though they appear to have a higher educational attainment level than the masses of citizens, like most library governing bodies, the Library Commission members consider themselves to be representatives of the community in which they serve, by acting in the interest of the citizens of Denver as advocates and surrogates.

The Library Commission was the body which initiated the planning and design process at the beginning of 1988. It retained the library planning and consulting firm of HBW Associates from Denton, Texas to conduct a space needs assessment. This initial planning study was supplemented by several other consultant studies such as the site study prepared by HBW and the Denver architectural/planning firm of Pouw and Associates. This team recommended that the existing site on Broadway was the right location for the new library facility. Other planning studies undertaken in 1989 and 1990 included evaluating the potential for historic preservation of the library's present Hoyt facility. In all these endeavors the Library Commission was the client who engaged consultants to facilitate the decision making process (Christensen 1991).

In early 1990, the Library Commission took the initiative to form a special task force appointed by Mayor Peña. This task force recommended to the city council that the library bond issue be placed on the city's August 1990 primary election ballot. The Library Commission members actively participated in the election campaign. To reiterate, the bond issue passed by a 75 percent margin (Christensen 1991).

The legal expending authority for the $91.6 bond money was and is the Library Commission. They have the responsibility for careful and prudent expenditures for the good of the residents of Denver. Again, they took an active role in the planning and design process. Two of the Library Commission members were involved in the previously discussed design competition. The same two members also serve on the Citizen's Design Review Committee, which is an advisory committee to the Library Commission. The Library Commission has formally reviewed and approved schematic design work and has also reviewed and approved design development work. The project could not progress without their approval (Christensen 1991).

The library bond issue also included branch renovations. Library Commission members actively participated in architect selection for a dozen branch construction and renovation projects. They additionally attended many community meetings which were called for program development and design review, and also communicated with the various architects of those projects. The

Library Commission actively reviewed and approved the designs at each stage, provided careful regard to those matters as they did with the Central Library project. In summary, the Denver Public Library Commission is the formal legal governing body of the Denver Public Library, representing the people of Denver. The group is considered to be a proactive citizen board, the only stance a governing board for a public library in a democratic society should take (Christensen 1991).

The Denver Public Library Friends Foundation

Not only does the community need representative members to provide input to the library for planing programming of services and resources, the library needs its representatives as well. Most public libraries have these representatives vis a vis friends groups. The group which represents the Denver Public Library in the community is the 2,500 member strong friends group known as the Denver Public Library Friends Foundation. The group was organized in 1940 as the Friends of the Denver Public Library, and recently celebrated its 50th anniversary. It was started to "enrich the resources of the library and promote its services to the community" (Yonce 1989, 30). The Denver Public Library Foundation was formed in 1962. They promoted building the library's capital resources and acted as recipient for the private donations to the library which they actively encouraged. The Friends of the Denver Public Library and the Denver Public Library

Foundation merged in 1981. The merged group has sponsored many events including book fairs and other fund raising activities.

In 1990, the Friends of the Denver Public Library actively campaigned for the library capital improvement bond issue and solicited votes using the campaign theme "A library says a lot about a city" (Denver Public Library 1990, 2-5). Though this was not participating in the design process, raising money and campaigning for capital improvements during the library's planning process was a needed form of participation by the Friends' group.

Focus Groups and Denver Public Library

As stated previously in chapter two, focus groups are a participatory strategy. Focused group discussions or interviews, as they are also called in the business field of marketing, "provide the qualitative and directional information needed to understand the various needs, beliefs, attitudes and sensitivities of the targeted audiences" (Walters 1988, 1). It is a market research methodology used to gain a wealth of data, to allow a sharing of information, and to provide insight and direction on an issue. Group dynamics are important in focus groups because the small group provides a comfortable setting for people to communicate freely, and some conformity and group influence on individuals, otherwise known as peer pressure, also comes into play. These effects provide areas for further research. Focus groups are intended to provide the researchers with information on the participants' opinions and

knowledge about a particular product, service, or operation. Information on diverse groups can also be obtained in this manner.

Many non-profit cultural organizations have adopted the "marketing concept" as the means of fulfilling organizational missions, goals and objectives. This marketing concept allows the needs of the current or potential consumers to lead product or service development (Walters 1988, 1). The first public library in the United States to establish a marketing department was the Denver Public Library (Sandlian and Walters 1991, 28). According to Baker (1991, 377), focus groups "have been used by marketing researchers since the early 1970s" but only in the last five years has their usage increased in libraries. Baker also listed advantages to using focused group discussions instead of surveys to obtain community information. They provide insight as to why a library service is used or not used, they are generally less expensive, they allow library patrons to make suggestions, and are great public relations tools (1991, 377-378, 382).

There are four key elements which must be present for a focused group discussion to be considered successful according to Walters, who is a marketing expert. Eight to twelve participants who are chosen for their similarity or homogeneity on "characteristics related to the subject matter to be discussed," a facility with necessary equipment such as tape recorders, a moderator to lead the approximately two hour session, and a discussion outline based on clearly identified objectives are all critical for this participatory

process (Walters 1988, 2-3). Professionally administered focus groups led by marketing specialists eliminate the potential staff bias and influence on the group, but this may cost more. Costs can be saved by holding the discussions in community or library facilities (Walters 1988, 3).

Denver Public Library has a strong marketing approach in its philosophy of service to its patrons. Denver Public ranks community needs as a top priority and actively listens to the community residents in order to understand the library patrons' needs and perceptions of library services and materials. Prior to the current use of focus groups for designing the new central library, Denver Public Library had a Director of Marketing and Development and used the focus group technique to identify the needs of minority communities in 1988. Three different groups were interviewed using focus groups: Hispanics, African-Americans, and Southeast Asians. Community leaders from within those groups were selected as participants. Assumptions and stereotypes held by the staff and management were overcome through the use of focus groups. The demand for services, alternatives to the library, current perceptions of the library, special programs and services issues, and suggestions for the future were all discussed in the moderated sessions. The staff became motivated to develop services and programs to meet patron needs due to the use of the focus groups (Walters 1988, 5-12).

Children Design a Library

Two years after Suzanne Walters had completed the focus groups on the needs of adult library patrons, the same marketing research/participatory strategy was used to glean information about library services and environments for children, in order to make the best use of the financial investment needed to support the information needs of a diverse group of children. Walters and Children's Library Manager Pamela Sandlian solicited volunteer services from Gloria Farler and Carey McMann of U.S. West Strategic Marketing Group; Dr. Bruce Hutton, Dean of the College of Business at the University of Denver; and Teri Marle, president of Marle Research. These professionals volunteered their time and expertise because of the partnership formed with the Denver Public Library. Many public organizations, such as the Denver Public Library, are short on funds for needed, but costly marketing and other research projects. An alternate feasible method to obtain these services is for the non-profit organization to form partnerships with private industries which might also benefit from the research, and with faculty members from colleges of business administration (Squibb 1991a, 2, Sandlian and Walters 1991, 27, Walters 1988, 4).

The initial plan was to interview library staff and parents about services and facilities for children. The researchers decided to interview the children themselves. Before the research could begin, the researchers attended the 40th International Design Conference in Aspen (IDCA) held in June of 1990. The theme that year was

"Growing by Design." This particular conference focused on a variety of design issues relating to designing environments for children. It was multidisciplinary in its scope with specialists in education, design, the arts, writing, and multimedia as conferees and speakers. At this conference children were invited as actual design participants (Sandlian and Walters 1991, 27, Sandlian 1991b, Walters 1991). The conference supported the researchers' prior observations about children needing to manipulate their environments, to be allowed creativity, and to have fun within their environments. The conference added to their zeal to create "wonderful spaces for children throughout Denver's libraries" (Sandlian and Walters 1991, 27).

"The goal of the Denver Public Library is to create a model program which promotes awareness of and appreciation for reading and the services of the public library among children and their parents, and which measurably increases the number of Denver area children using the materials and services of the Library" (Farler et al 1990, 5). To support this goal, the following objectives were formulated:

1. Identify what kinds of materials and services children need in order to learn to read early and to continue to read throughout their childhood and young adulthood.

2. Determine what is necessary to get children to a library or what outreach programs are necessary to get library materials and services to children.
3. Determine what materials the Denver Public Library needs immediately and in the future to best encourage continued reading and learning among the greatest number of children in Denver.
4. Determine what technologies and associated equipment (such as video/audio/computerized catalogues, etc.) are necessary to gain and hold children's attention over time.
5. Understand current levels of satisfaction with DPL materials and services and the gaps from the ideal in order to identify key drivers of superior performance and satisfaction upon which reading enhancement programs can be based (Farler et al 1990, 6).

One research objective of the focus group moderators was to "understand how children currently use the library and what materials, environments, personnel and technologies held the greatest appeal" (Farler et al 1990, 7). Furthermore, the researchers wanted to assess what patrons found lacking in the library and to explore interest in new technologies or innovative services (Farler et al 1990, 7). They also wanted to determine how children were transported to the library and the limitations to their greater use of

the library. This was clearly an evaluative type of research endeavor, focusing on user opinion and patterns of use.

To garner interest in the focus groups, notices were posted in the library and participants were recruited. Demographically diverse groups were sought. Additionally, branch managers identified articulate children to participate. Participants were mailed postcards with the Denver Public Library logo to verify the authenticity, locations, and times of the meetings. Free pizza, refreshments and other incentives were given to the participants at the meetings (Patton 1991, Sandlian 1991, Walters 1991).

In July 1990, the focused group discussions took place at five library locations: Central, Woodbury, Hampden, Montbello, and Cherry Creek branches. There were twenty groups conducted with children. These groups were segregated by sex; there were small groups with five to ten girls, and similarly sized groups of boys. The groups were further sorted by age: seven and eight-years old together, and nine and ten-years old together. Approximately 125 children were interviewed altogether. Approximately 75 adults were interviewed in separate rooms. Dr. Hutton led the parent discussions, while Farler, Marle, and McMann, dressed as children, led the children's groups. There were twenty groups conducted with children and five with the parents. (Farler et al 1990, 7). The meetings were informal and the child participants were able to sit on the floor, or furniture, or at tables. To help them express themselves, books, large sheets of paper, markers and stuffed

animals were used as props and tools (Sandlian and Walters 1991, 28).

The parents were asked the following questions: Why do you come to the library? If it's important, why don't more people use it? Who makes the decision to come? When do you come? Where do you go? How are the schools involved? How do you use the library now? Do you participate in any special programs? What is your evaluation of the library?

Answers varied, as would be expected because of the subjective nature of the study. Answers varied by location as well. Many parents felt that the physical surroundings were uncomfortable and uninviting. Many parents liked the carousel in the Children's Room of the Central Library and felt that the space was really built and organized for children. A personal tour of that location led the researcher to the same, albeit subjective, conclusion. Parent suggestions for future improvements to the facilities included: nooks and crannies for the children to get away and read; counters scaled to child-sized; computers for use of the children only; visual stimulation; lots of displays; separate sections of books and displays by age categories; natural light; more space; shelves that are less crowded; storage facilities for the children to place their belongings; a separate entrance for the children, but with security measures; and an outdoor pavilion (Farler et al 1990, 14).

The children's discussion groups were led to ascertain the children's prior experience with libraries; the role of reading in the

child's life; what the ideal collection should be; and what the ideal layout and physical environment of the children's library should be. In designing their ideal library, the children suggested a fun entrance such as a slide; special places to read; bright colors, both primary and fluorescent; wall hangings and posters of cartoon characters and celebrities; fun animal shaped furniture; soft furniture like sofas and bean bag chairs; smaller desks; rooms for arts and crafts; a science laboratory for experiments; listening rooms; a separate area from the adults; quiet places; places where noise and conversation would be allowed; multilevel facilities; lots of windows; interior transportation system like a mini train; an outdoor play area; rooms that do not look like classrooms, but look like the insides of castles, rockets, or tree houses; ladders and stools to reach the books; storage areas for shoes and books; bins to put books back into; and separate areas for the older children (Farler et al 1990, 16-27, Sandlian and Walters 1991, 28-29, Squibb 1991a). In expressing themselves using their own concepts and vocabularies, the children were participating in a process similar to that suggested by architect Christopher Alexander in the "pattern language" approach.

The conclusions of the focus group project was that the parents basically wanted what the children wanted. Better communication to the parents on children's programming and activities was requested. Children emphasized that they wanted to be treated with respect by librarians who were not grumpy. "Children have

different needs than adults. We need to value these differences and design spaces that meet the needs of children, not just design a miniature adult library" (Farler et al 1990, 28). Children need visual stimulation and comfortable areas. High tech devices for learning are needed, as not all children have access to these at home and school. Materials need to be easier to locate. Libraries need to be arranged so that the children can find materials with ease. "In rethinking library environments for children, planners cannot limit themselves to the external only. To support the kind of environment that would excite and stimulate children will require support processes such as improved cataloging, new computer interfaces, etc., for which there is a cost" (Farler et al 1990, 28-29).

Of course not all of the children's ideas could be used in an actual library design, but the children were encouraged to use their imaginations so that the "essence" of their ideal library would be communicated (Farler et al 1990, 29). The researchers concluded on the process, "To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time a public library has gone straight to children for ideas on services and future environments" (Sandlian and Walters 1991, 28).

The limitations of the focus group findings is that they were qualitative in nature and were based on a small number of respondents. The results were not intended to represent the entire population of library patrons. Additionally, despite efforts to recruit minority families to participate, "their voice was not a

predominant one." More information is needed to reflect the needs of Black, Asian and Hispanic communities (Farler et al 1990, 8).

Clearly, the participation strategy used to involve citizens in the planning and design process for the children's library was the focused group discussions. Within that context, several design strategies were used. These included brainstorming, sketch planning, visualization, and a modification of the pattern language approach to allow the children to express their thoughts as relating to library services and design.

An Environmental Rating Scale for Public Library Children's Services developed by Willett (1989) was used to analyze the current Denver Public Library children's space. The assessment tool consisted of 44 scaled items on a seven-point scale, ranging from "inadequate" and "minimal" to "good" and "excellent." The first ten items on the scale specifically dealt with personal comfort, furnishings, and displays for children. The items which were related to design are: staff visibility by patrons upon entering the area, restrooms, water fountains, provisions for storage of personal belongings, heights of furnishings, climate control, lighting, and ventilation, materials and space for activities and access, furniture and rugs for comfort and relaxation, room arranged for traffic flow, visual supervision, flexibility, signage, and child-related bulletin boards and exhibit cases (Willett 1989). For each scaled item, Willett's scale provided useful operational definitions as to what constitutes inadequate, minimal, good, and excellent.

While the Environment Rating Scale was not formally used in planning and designing the new children's library, Sandlian intuitively kept the instrument's desirable physical elements in mind which did influence the design decisions. She plans to eventually use the scale to do a post-assessment of the new children's library.

When the time arrived for the library staff of the children's library to meet with the architects, they found that communicating with the architects was a challenge as well as a learning experience. For example, because the library staff was unable to verbally communicate all of the desirable elements of the children's library based on the information obtained from the focus groups, Willett's scale, and their own creativity, they used photos, pictures and a map to represent what they had in mind (Sandlian 1992, 6). The library staff spent time "trying to understand architectural information." In addition, the architecture team had to learn about libraries and children's libraries in particular (Sandlian 1992, 5). The design process was an eight-month process involving the children's library staff and architect John Diebboll of Michael Graves Architects.

The new Children's Library will be approximately 17,000 square feet and will be located on the first floor, as it is now. The entry to the children's library will be a display hall/art gallery. Storage spaces for coats and backpacks will be provided near the restrooms. A large semi-circle of two rows of parallel shelving forms the picture

book area. Facing the picture books will be a floor to ceiling screen upon which picture book images will be projected. This area will contain easy readers, folktales, and picture books. Picture book and toy displays will be incorporated into the colorful, joyous area, complete with rocking chairs and movable furniture.

Along one wall will be audio/visual listening stations and computer terminals. Beginners will be separated from advanced A/V users. The librarians are designing an interface to the current CARL online catalog which will ease the children's use of the catalog, thereby making the collection more accessible.

The non-fiction area, while utilizing Dewey Decimal classification as it currently does, will have special subject groupings. Books will be located in their own alcoves with animal books together, dinosaur books together, history books together, craft books together, and space books together, for example. To help the children identify the book groupings, certain "visual cues" such as displays and large colorful wooden pictures will be located in each alcove. This will make the collection both fun and accessible. The reference collection will be incorporated into the non-fiction area with periodicals nearby.

The fiction area with its comfortable window seating which overlooks the Civic Center Park, will provide a space for reading and relaxing. The shelves will be arranged in a semi-circle in a "sun-burst" pattern. This section will also include visual displays.

The arts and crafts room will provide a space for older children to have privacy as well as a place to work on craft projects. This area will be close to adult workers to provide for security. Children will be allowed to draw on the giant, wall-sized dry marker board. Children will be allowed to talk in groups and have relaxing fun, without feeling they are disturbing patrons who want a quieter place.

A room for tutoring and a staff workroom are also to be included in the children's library. The service desk is to be located along the wall centered in between the two audio/visual sections of wall. New books will be strategically displayed near the entry.

A highlight of the children's library will be the exciting children's program pavilion. This multi-purpose room will be used for storytelling, puppet shows, science demonstrations, performing arts, and author presentations. When not being formally used for such programming, it will be a "casual, comfortable room." In the unique shape of an octagon, the pavilion will be surrounded by an outdoor garden. Patrons, children and adults alike, will be able to go outside to the enclosed terrace to eat, to read, or, in the case of the children, to run and play. Sunny reading places will be provided by the bay windows. Recreational video with special audio will also be available in this program pavilion (Diebboll 1992b, Sandlian 1992).

Details and ideas are still evolving although the design process is basically complete. The staff and residents of Denver will feel the

new library was worth waiting for when it opens in 1995. The children's library will have a role in developing lifetime library customers because "The Denver Public Library Children's Library is a space designed to enhance the image of a library and the library experience for children" (Sandlian 1992, 1).

An Architect's View

The architect from the firm of Michael Graves Architect who worked closely with those involved in the Denver library project was John Diebboll. When asked his attitude toward citizen participation in design and the process used at the Denver Public Library, he gave several cogent responses. The project in Denver was the only example of a library this architect had been involved with which included citizen participation. His attitude towards involving citizens: "The idea of involving citizens in the design process is a good one; the trick is making it work" (Diebboll 1992). He considered the Denver project successful - but tentatively attributed that to the "extraordinary staff they have" (Diebboll 1992).

Diebboll did not participate in the focus groups, but was given material which summarized the results of those guided discussion groups. In a letter to the researcher, he concluded, "With the advantage of hindsight, I doubt that library staff and our office could have designed such a unique facility without the seeds these children gave us...I would highly recommend this process and

attitude to any other library considering such an undertaking" (Diebboll 1992).

His other contact with citizens during the planning and design process was limited to the six presentations his firm made to the public during the library design competition, and the schematic and design development phases. Diebboll stated that all participants were "encouraged to ask questions and offer critical observations. Some did this orally while others chose to write out their comments. A potential danger in this arises if one overlooks the fact that these responses represent an extremely small percentage of the actual library users. Very few of these comments were useful" (Diebboll 1992).

In contrast, he felt that the focus groups, which met before the competition took place, and the determination of Denver Children's Library Manager, Pamela Sandlian, and her staff to make the Denver Children's Library a national prototype, should be a highly recommended process (Diebboll 1992).

Summary

Because of the Denver Public Library's commitment to public service and their appreciation and respect for library consumers, the planning and design process involving focus groups, design competitions, and active involvement by the Friends Foundation and the Library Commission, the City Librarian and the library staff, the drive to design and construct a new Central Library and

renovate several branches proceeded with active citizen involvement. Needs of disabled patrons were addressed by staffers and architects committed to barrier free access. Multiethnic populations needs were addressed to some extent, and children's needs were certainly evaluated. All of the library department managers were allowed to provide input as to the final design of "their" areas, but none to the extent of the children's library manager. The library staff has plans to provide feedback to focus group participants. Not only did the City of Denver, the Denver Public Library staffers, and the architects inform and consult with the citizens during the planning and design process, they in fact, became partners with the citizens of Denver in what would appear to be a co-decision form of design participation. In 1995, when the new library is slated to open, many patrons will feel some measure of satisfaction in knowing that the Denver Public Library listened to their desires and that they had an active part at some stage of the planning/design process.

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CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The State of Citizen Participation in Public Library Design

Because the public library is an institution owned by its constituents; and because public libraries are facing uphill struggles to maintain healthy budgets while saving services and programs from dreaded budgetary cuts, library managers must find creative ways to raise funds and increase the public's support of libraries. This is no less true when dealing with capital improvements of libraries because many public libraries are faced with a critical need for new facilities. Indeed, hundreds of libraries are designed and built, remodeled, or expanded each year according to Library Journal's annual architecture issues.

Those in charge of capital improvements such as boards of trustees, library directors, or city officials must often be frugal when handling the taxpayers' money, gifts, and any government grants. In some instances a bond issue or referendum must be voted on and passed by a majority before any capital improvements can take place.

There are many ways in which public libraries can solicit and gain a broad base of citizen support. One method would be to perform market research analyses and gain insight into what citizens find lacking in library services and materials, and what they really like about the library. This should be done to reach the nonusers of a library in addition to regular users. Citizen participation in planning and designing public library facilities in which all citizens have a stake should also be encouraged. Opportunities for participation should be provided. Yet, in many instances, public libraries are routinely planned and designed without input from community users. Many libraries have a lay library board in place. But typically these have been shown not to mirror the educational, economic, ethnic, and gender make-up of most communities. Because public libraries are not private organizations, they are "owned" by the public; therefore decision matters concerning the planning and design of a public library should be shared by all stakeholders: library employees, users, government officials, the architect and the citizens. Elitist thinking has no place in planning and design endeavors of public entities.

Many research studies have undertaken the subject of user needs, but few have dealt with citizen participation in libraries. Even fewer studies dealt with citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities, and the literature concerning citizen participation in libraries in the fields of architecture and library science has been minimal and difficult to access.

This study was designed to investigate the scope and methods of citizen participation in public library planning and design; to assess the attitudes of architects, library directors, and library building consultants concerning this practice; and to present a case study of library design involving citizens. A questionnaire survey of 23 items was distributed to a purposive sample of professionals with public library building planning experience. A qualitative, descriptive assessment was performed. The case study of the Denver Public Library described in detail actual and successful involvement of citizens.

Those respondents who recorded that they had used citizen participation for the library projects on which they worked, in general had more favorable perceptions of the practice. Most often, meetings were used as a method to involve citizens. In actual practice, from the respondent comments, there did not appear to be much use of some of the participatory strategies and design strategies listed in the literature and reviewed in Chapter II. A few respondents used the charrette; one architect has successfully used that method to design several public libraries. Respondents did face problems and communication barriers when citizens were involved in the design process. Several respondents felt that these could be overcome. Improved public relations was a benefit of having citizens participate in planning and design as recorded by an overwhelming majority of respondents. In addition, many libraries

experienced increased use subsequent to citizen involvement in planning and design.

The Denver Public Library had a community-wide participation program, from fund-raising and campaigning to planning and designing, there were many opportunities provided for the citizens of Denver to become involved. From the Friends' Foundation, the Library Commission, library employees, to the residents of Denver, there was a wealth of collective decision making. Children were even included in the planning and design process. It was deemed successful thus far by all who participated. The new facility is slated to open in 1995 and the many stakeholders should feel pride that they had an active role in its inception.

Recommendations

This research merely skimmed the surface of this important subject. Yet, the extensive literature review which brought together the writings in a variety of disciplines provided much needed information on the whole concept of citizen participation. Further research is needed on a broader scale to contact more public libraries in order to provide some generalizations and to establish prototypes for participatory design strategies for public libraries. Since there are variations in public library communities, modifications to these participatory design models can be made to fit local circumstances. The Denver Public Library should be considered one of many prototypes to be developed and mimicked.

The strong marketing emphasis which that particular library exhibited by its frequent use of focus groups is worth serious consideration by other public libraries.

A wide scale survey of all public libraries might be one potential method to gain this information. Some pre and post assessments of citizens involved in actual participatory design projects should be undertaken in order to tentatively make correlations between citizen participation and citizen satisfaction with both the participatory process and with the facility. In addition, the statistical correlation between participation and increased use of a library facility is another research topic to be pursued. This could be a very important investigative topic, because more nonusers of a library need to be reached in order to make them users, and to potentially decrease the gap between the information rich and the information poor. Opportunities for citizen participation by nonusers may lead to their increased use of the library. This hypothesis is suggested for further research.

Especially needed are more formal research endeavors involving post-occupancy evaluation of public libraries. Library employees and both users and nonusers of the facility would be participants in the evaluations. The information gained from these POEs could then be used when planning and designing other public library facilities. Additionally, a survey to determine the scope and methods of POEs in public libraries should be undertaken, and any examples of actual

library POEs need to be documented for both architecture and library professionals.

Until these topics are actually researched, librarians and architects need to continually report to professional journals all experiences involving citizens in the library design process, not just the good, but the less than successful should be reported as well, because valuable lessons can always be learned, even from mistakes made in the participatory planning and design process. Those planning public libraries must keep in mind that citizens do indeed have a vested interest as stakeholders in the library; and that participatory design can be practiced to the benefit of all involved, as demonstrated by some libraries which have already been planned and designed with significant citizen input.

Research dealing with library design matters need not be considered a trivial pursuit. The following analogy can be made to demonstrate its importance. Book packagers and publishers and many other types of businesses perform market research which involves "listening" to consumers, in order to make their products more attractive externally, and appealing internally in order to reach more buyers and users of their products. Libraries should adopt such a marketing stance as did the Denver Public Library. A library building which is aesthetically attractive not only should "lift the spirit," as stated by one survey respondent, but should draw potential library users. By involving citizens, by seeking their input, and ascertaining what their informational, recreational, physical,

and social needs are as related to the public library, will make library planning and design a holistic endeavor. How to gain that citizen input; finding what participatory processes work best should continually be pursued. A public library need not be designed in a vacuum. There are many considerations, but increasing library access and use should remain a top priority, even when planning and designing a public library facility.

With the advent of electronic texts and journals, remote access to collections, increasing numbers of home computer terminals, and the continued growth of the electronic database industry, many foresee libraries without walls as well as libraries without books. To these soothsayers, the study of library architecture is not important in the whole realm of the information field. Nevertheless, this researcher begs to differ. First, all citizens will not have access to the newer technologies, so they will not be able to readily avail themselves of the new decentralized information resources. Second, library facilities will continue to serve as recreational and social facilities. Finally, one cannot browse computers, nor take one to bed. Places to house good, fun fictional reading will continue. Designing public libraries to meet a wide variety of functions and roles will continue to provide a challenge to planners and, hopefully, to citizens.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE ON CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN PUBLIC LIBRARY FACILITY PLANNING AND DESIGN

Instructions

1. Before answering a question, please read all possible answers.

2. Please feel free to enclose any available documents, notes, etc., which will explain in greater detail the answers you have given.

Questions

1. Are you familiar with the practice of allowing citizens to participate in the planning and design of a building?
   _____ yes _____ no

2. Have you participated in a public library building design program which included citizen participation?
   _____ yes _____ no

Directions for questions 3 - 18. Give answers for the most recent public library building project you worked on which may or not have included citizen involvement.

Name of Library: _____
Location: City/State _____

3. What event led to the new building/renovation project? Check all that apply.

   _____ Citizen pressure
   _____ Long range planning study
   _____ Citizen survey results
   _____ Gift/endowment
   _____ Other, explain: _____

4. Who participated in the planning and design of the library facility? Check all that apply.

   _____ Registered Architect
   _____ Library Director/Administrator
   _____ Library building consultant
   _____ Library board
   _____ Friends of the library
   _____ Librarians
   _____ Other library employees
   _____ City council
   _____ Citizens/public/library users
   _____ Design review board
   _____ Interior designer
   _____ Other, explain: _____

5. Was a library building committee formed? _____ yes _____ no

6. If yes, did the library building committee include citizens
   _____ yes _____ no

7. Who initiated the citizen participation in the planning/design process? In other words, who sought citizen involvement? Check all that apply.

   _____ Library board
   _____ Citizens
   _____ Registered Architect
   _____ Library Director/Administrator
   _____ Local government requirement
   _____ Other, explain: _____

8. How were citizens notified of the opportunity to participate in the planning/design process? Check all that apply.

   _____ Mailed notifications
   _____ Posted public notices
   _____ Other, explain: _____

9. Which groups from a diverse population were specifically included in the planning/design process?

   a. Children _____ yes _____ no
      If yes, how? _____

   b. Ethnic groups _____ yes _____ no
      If yes, how? _____

   c. Disabled _____ yes _____ no
      If yes, how? _____

10. What methods were used to involve citizens in the planning/design process? Check all that apply.

    _____ Focus group
    _____ Charrette
    _____ Voting in library design competition
    _____ Building committee participation
    _____ Gaming
    _____ 3-D models
    _____ Citizen survey
    _____ Delphi technique
    _____ Other, explain: _____
    Comments: _____

11. Citizens were involved in the following:

    a. site selection _____ yes _____ no
    b. building design _____ yes _____ no
    c. space planning _____ yes _____ no
    d. furnishings selection _____ yes _____ no
    e. landscaping design _____ yes _____ no
    f. post-occupancy evaluation _____ yes _____ no
       Comments: _____

12. Citizen input was: (Check only one)

    _____ Used to make decisions on library design matters
    _____ Acknowledged, but not used in decision making
    _____ Disregarded

13. To fully understand your answer to question 12 above, explain how citizen input was used.

14. Citizens who participated in the planning/design process were formally surveyed after the building was completed for an assessment of:

    a. the design process _____ yes _____ no
    b. the finished building _____ yes _____ no

15. This project was concluded to be successful by:

    citizens _____ yes _____ no
    myself _____ yes _____ no

16. Give the inclusive dates for the building project from planning to completion.

    (19___ to 19___)

17. Total budget for the library building project. $_____

18. Size (Approximate square feet) of facility. _____

19. Have you worked on other libraries of any type, in which citizens were involved in the planning/design process?

    _____ yes _____ no

20. In your opinion, what are the difficulties of involving citizens in the planning/design process of a public library? Check all that apply.

    _____ takes too much time
    _____ citizens are not knowledgeable enough
    _____ citizens have a hard time understanding professional jargon
    _____ requires procedural changes
    _____ requires more money
    _____ no difficulties
    _____ other, explain _____

21. In your opinion, what are the benefits of involving citizens in the planning/design process of a public library? Check all that apply.

    _____ more satisfied citizens
    _____ citizens gain understanding of planning/design process
    _____ better designed library building
    _____ good public relations
    _____ library building which meets the needs of a variety of users
    _____ no benefits
    _____ other, explain: _____

22. Citizen participation in the planning and design of public library facilities is: (check only <u>one</u>)

    ____ Critical
    ____ Very Important
    ____ Important
    ____ Somewhat Important
    ____ Not Important

23. Your occupation/role: (for the recent library building project)
    ____ Registered Architect
    ____ Library Director
    ____ Library Building Consultant (Librarian)
    ____ Library Building Consultant (Architect)
    ____ Other, explain: _____

RETURN COMPLETED SURVEY NO LATER THAN
DECEMBER 1, 1991 TO:

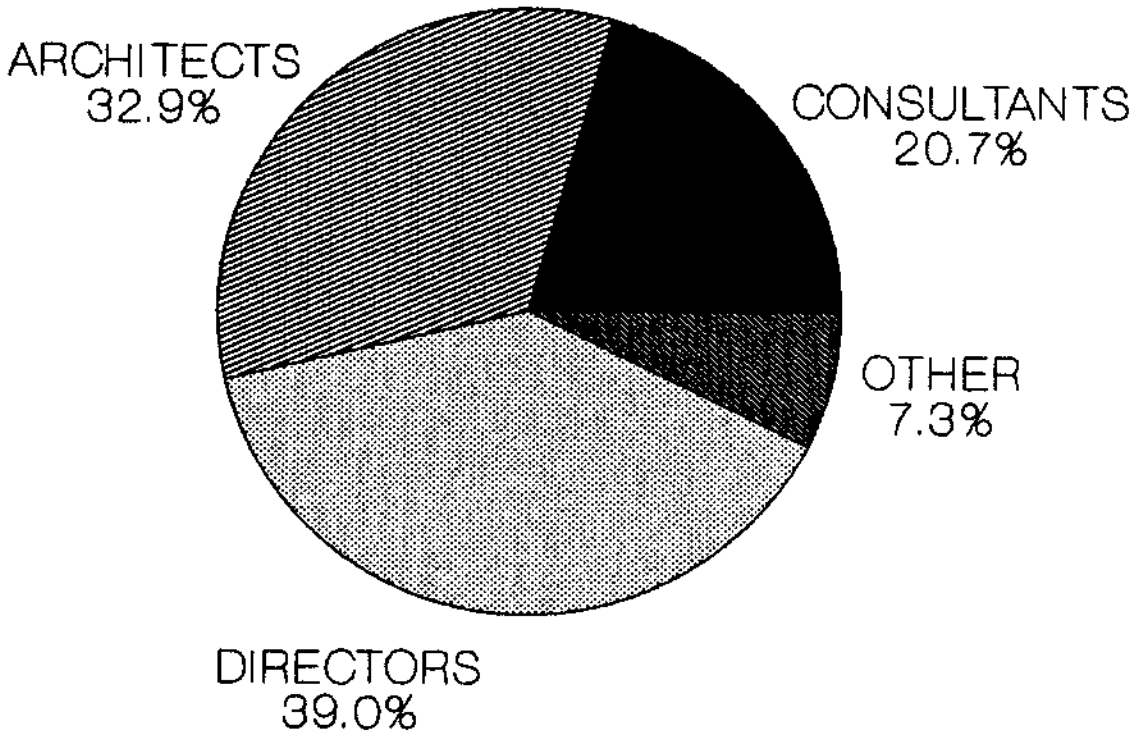
Angela Washington-Blair
10431 Cricket Drive
Dallas, Texas 75217
(214) 557-1888

APPENDIX B

FIGURES DEPICTING SURVEY RESULTS

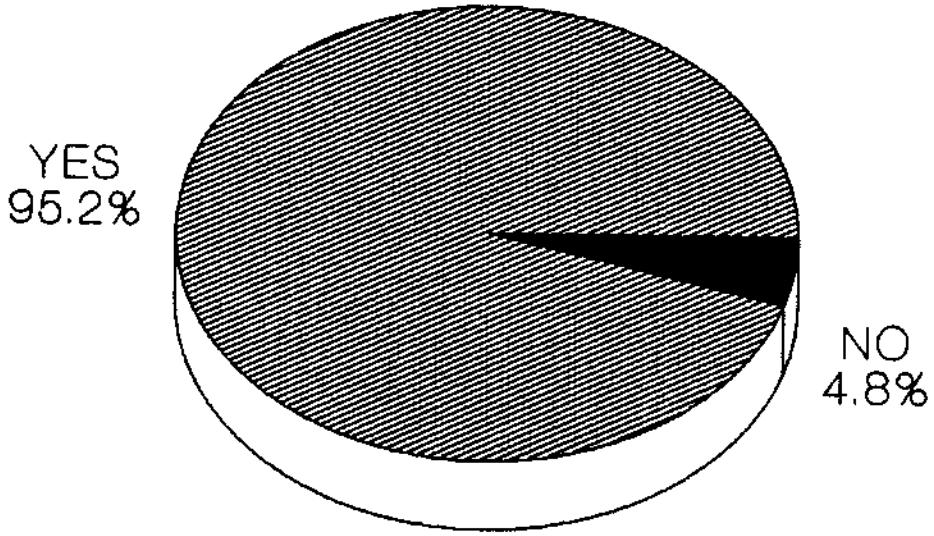
SURVEY RETURN DISTRIBUTION

Figure 1



83 SURVEYS CATEGORIZED

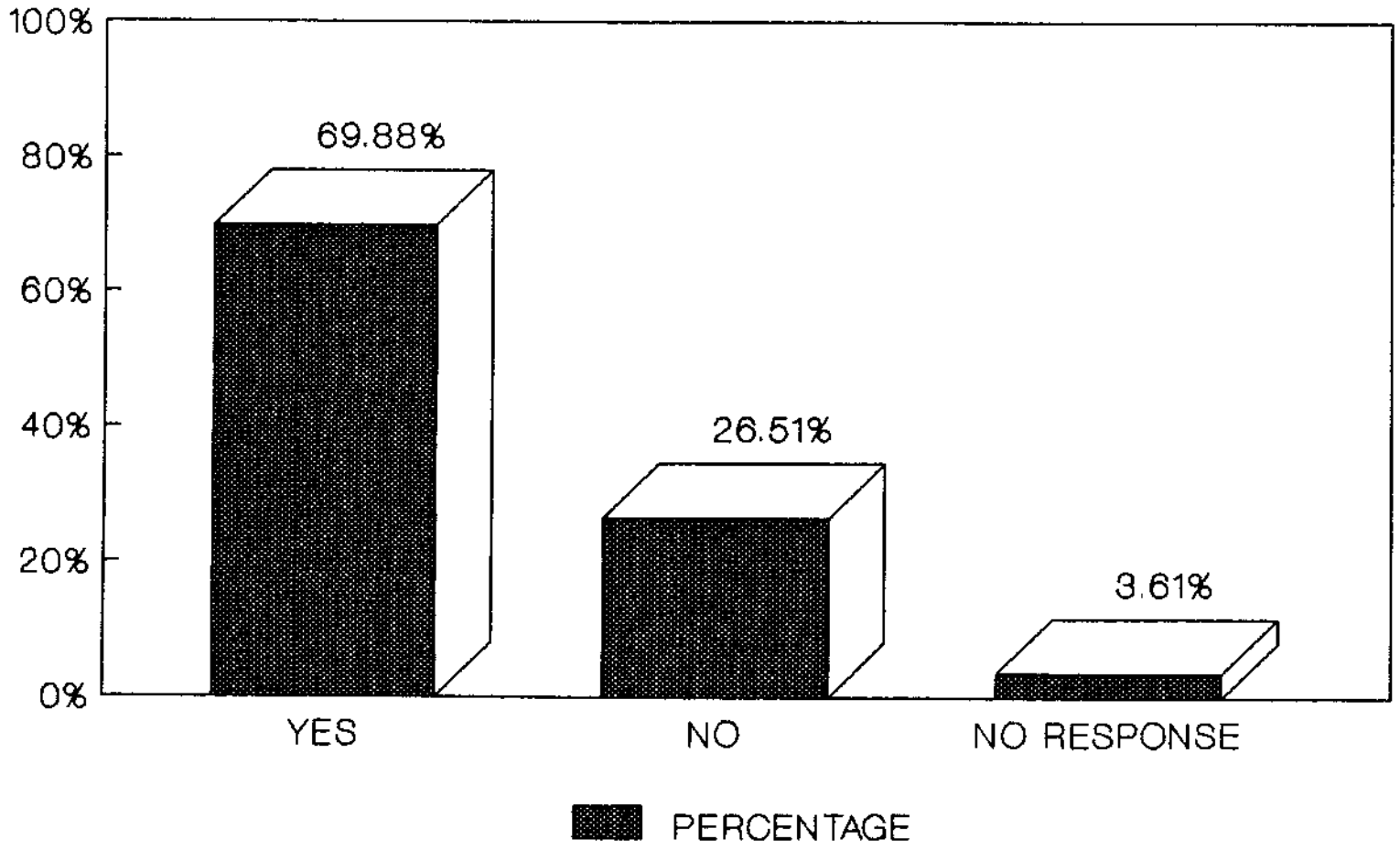
FAMILIARITY WITH "CP"
Figure 2



Percentage of respondents.

EXPERIENCE WITH "CP"

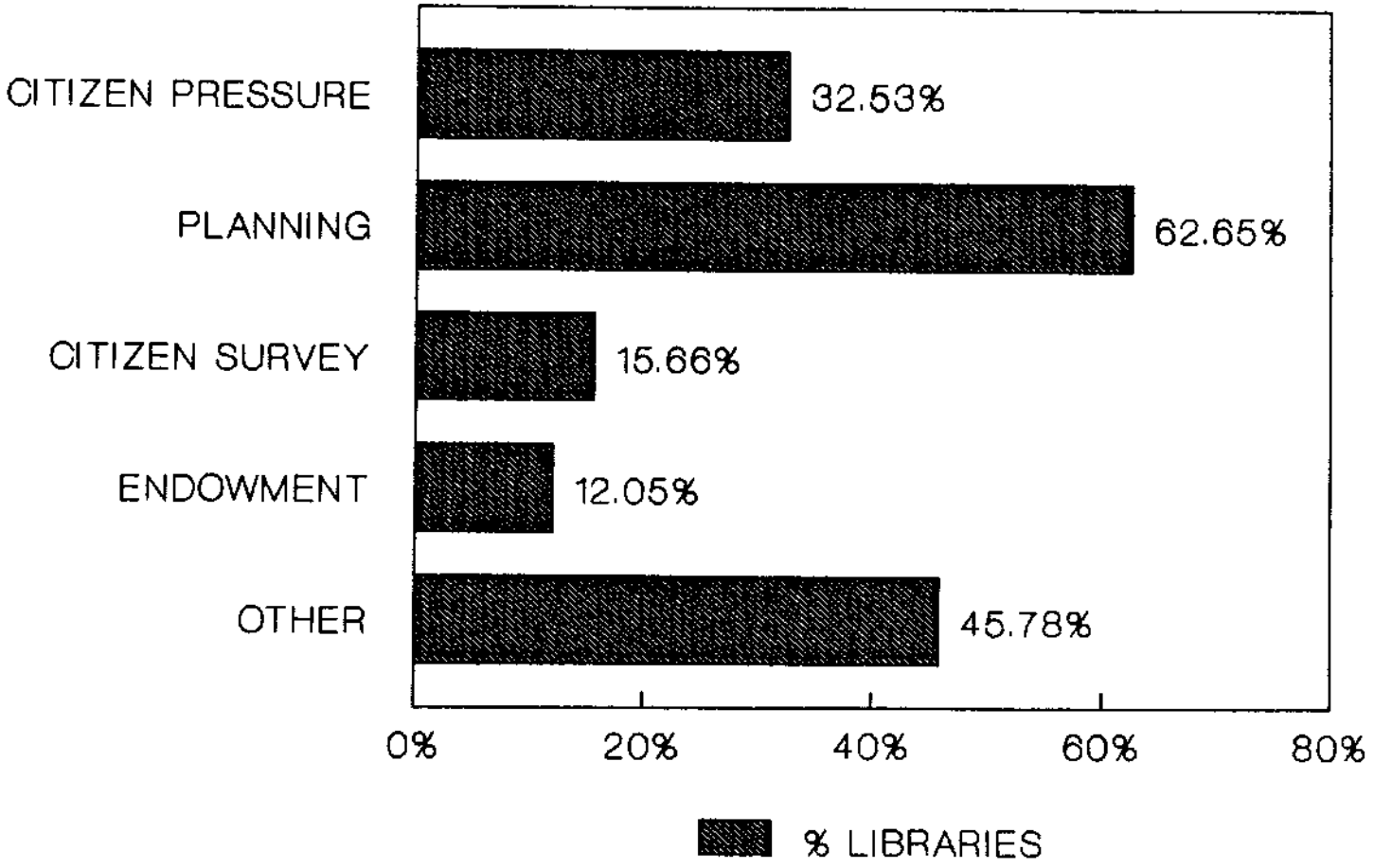
Figure 3



Citizen Participation Experience.

REASON FOR NEW LIBRARY

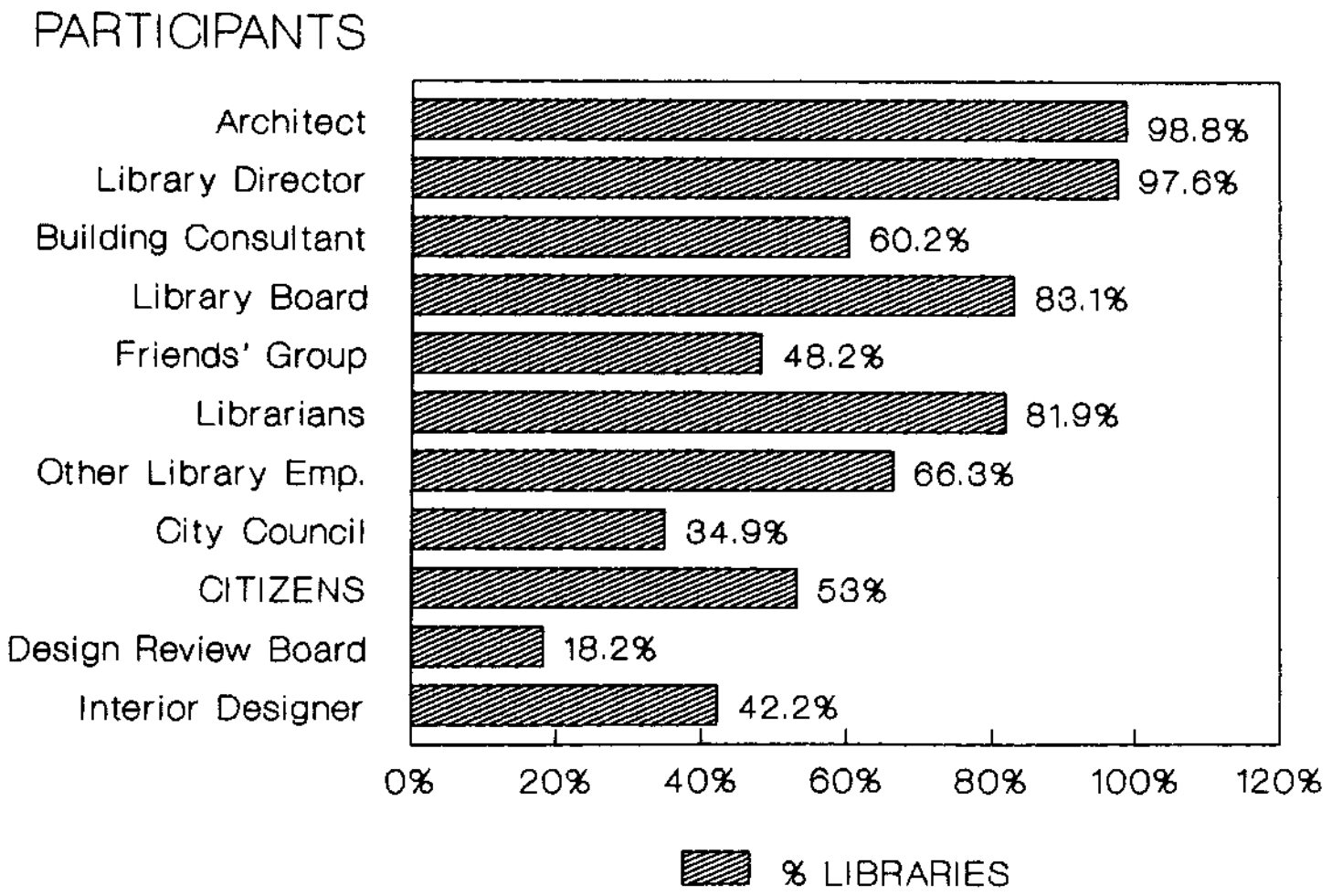
Figure 4



Event which prompted building program.

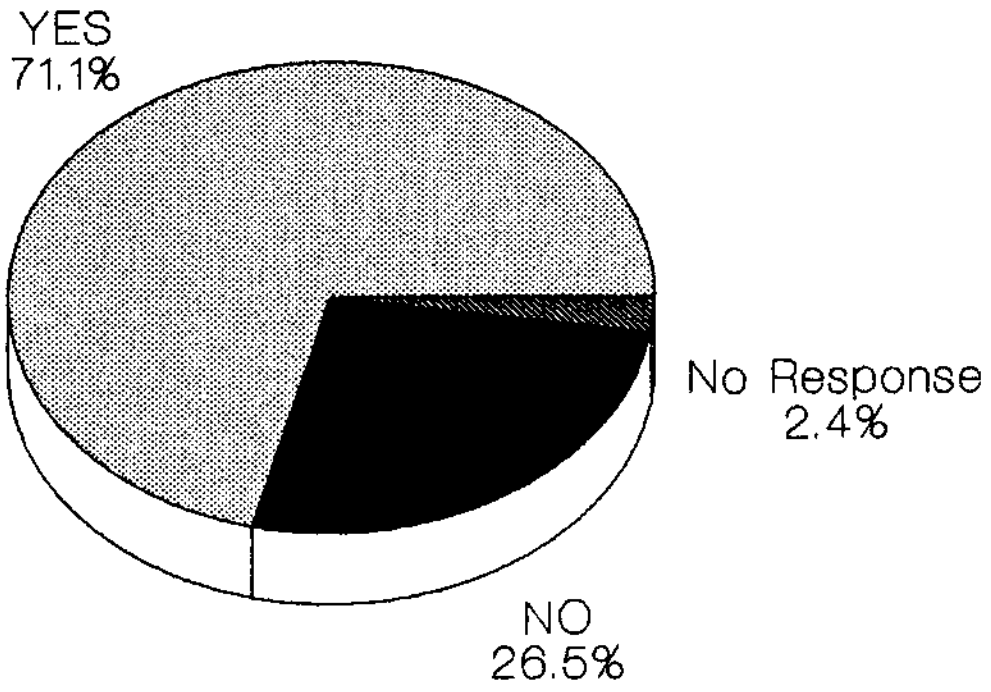
LIBRARY DESIGN PARTICIPANTS

Figure 5



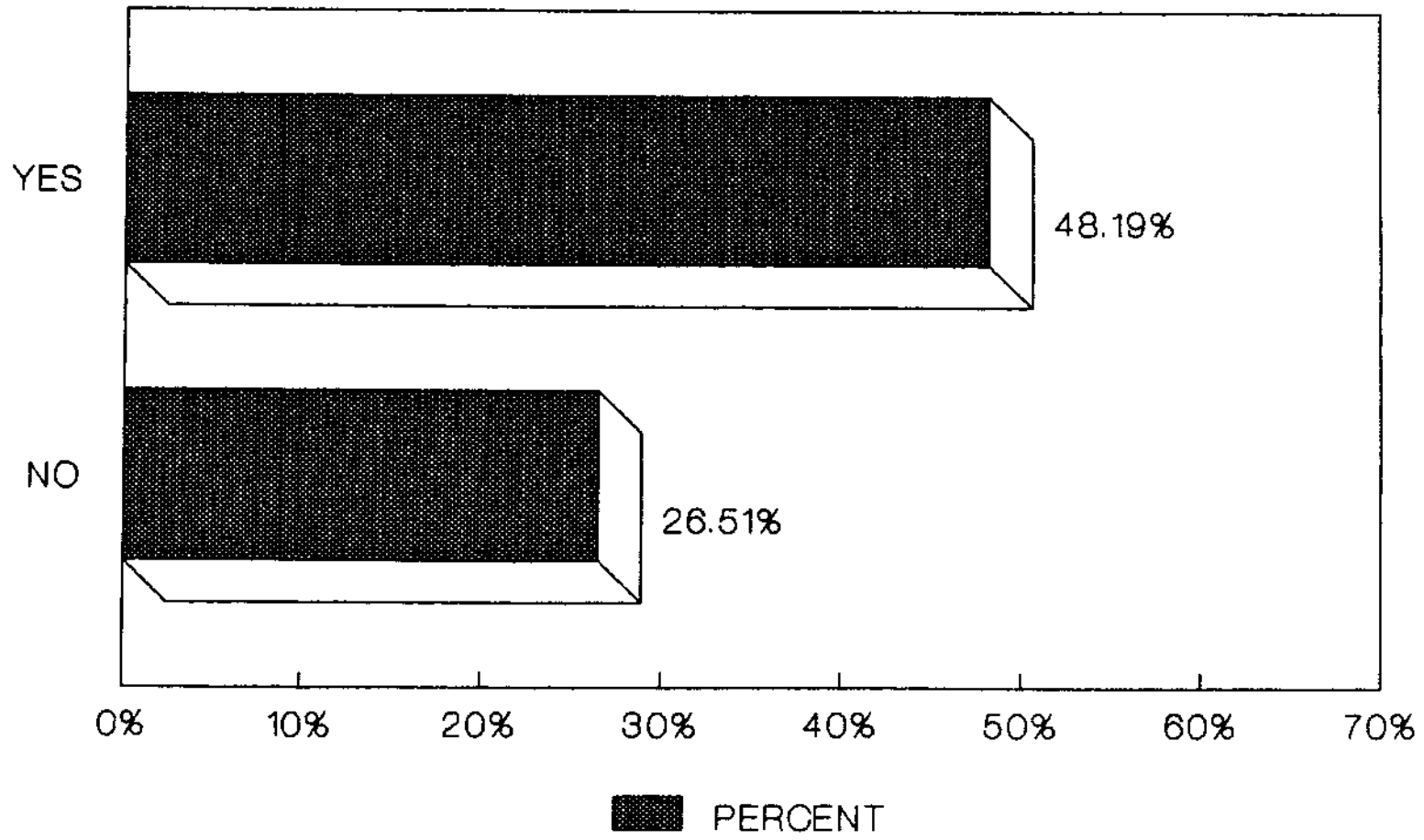
USE OF BUILDING COMMITTEE

Figure 6



CITIZENS ON BLDG COMMITTEE

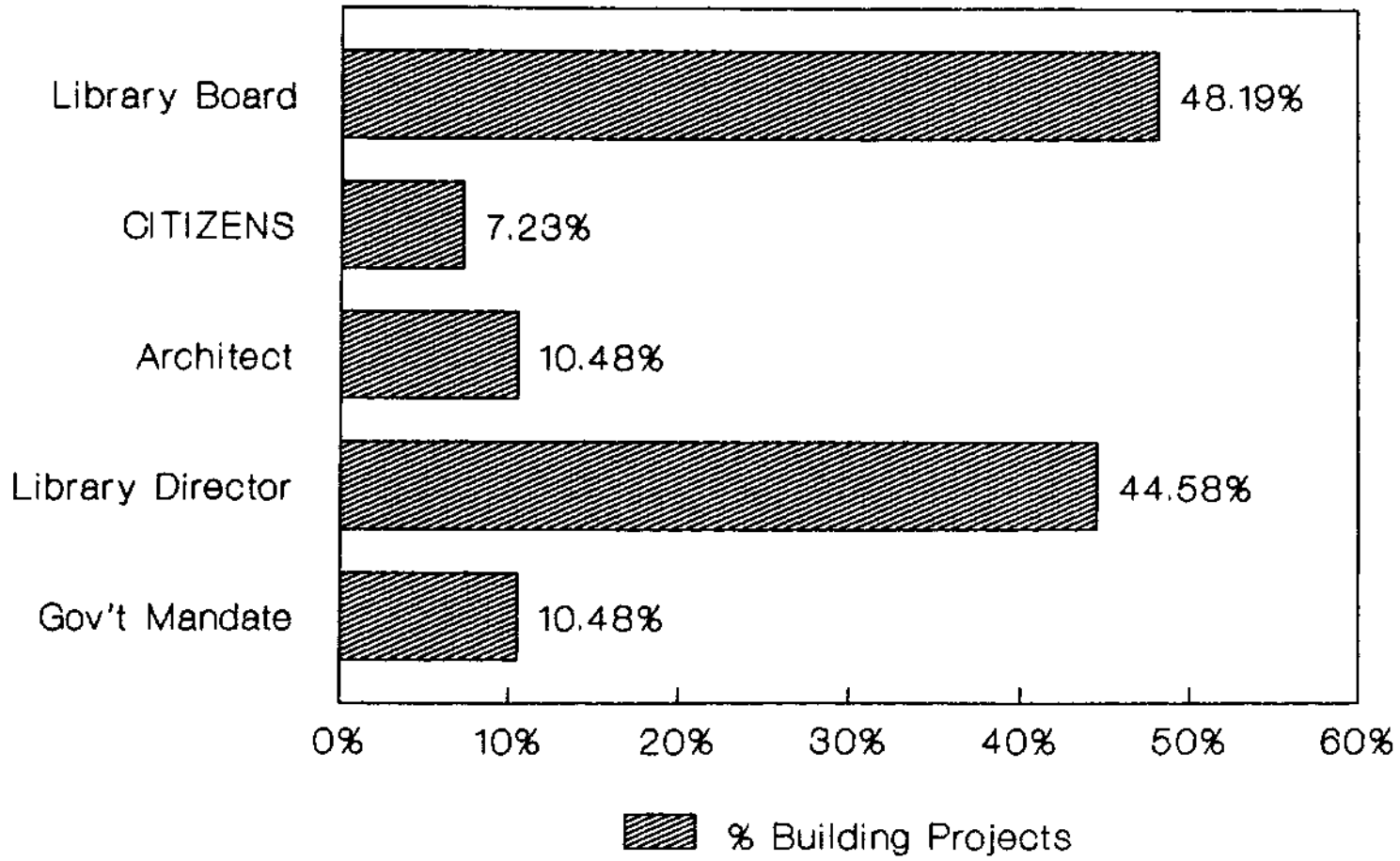
Figure 7



Libraries w/citizens on bldg committee.

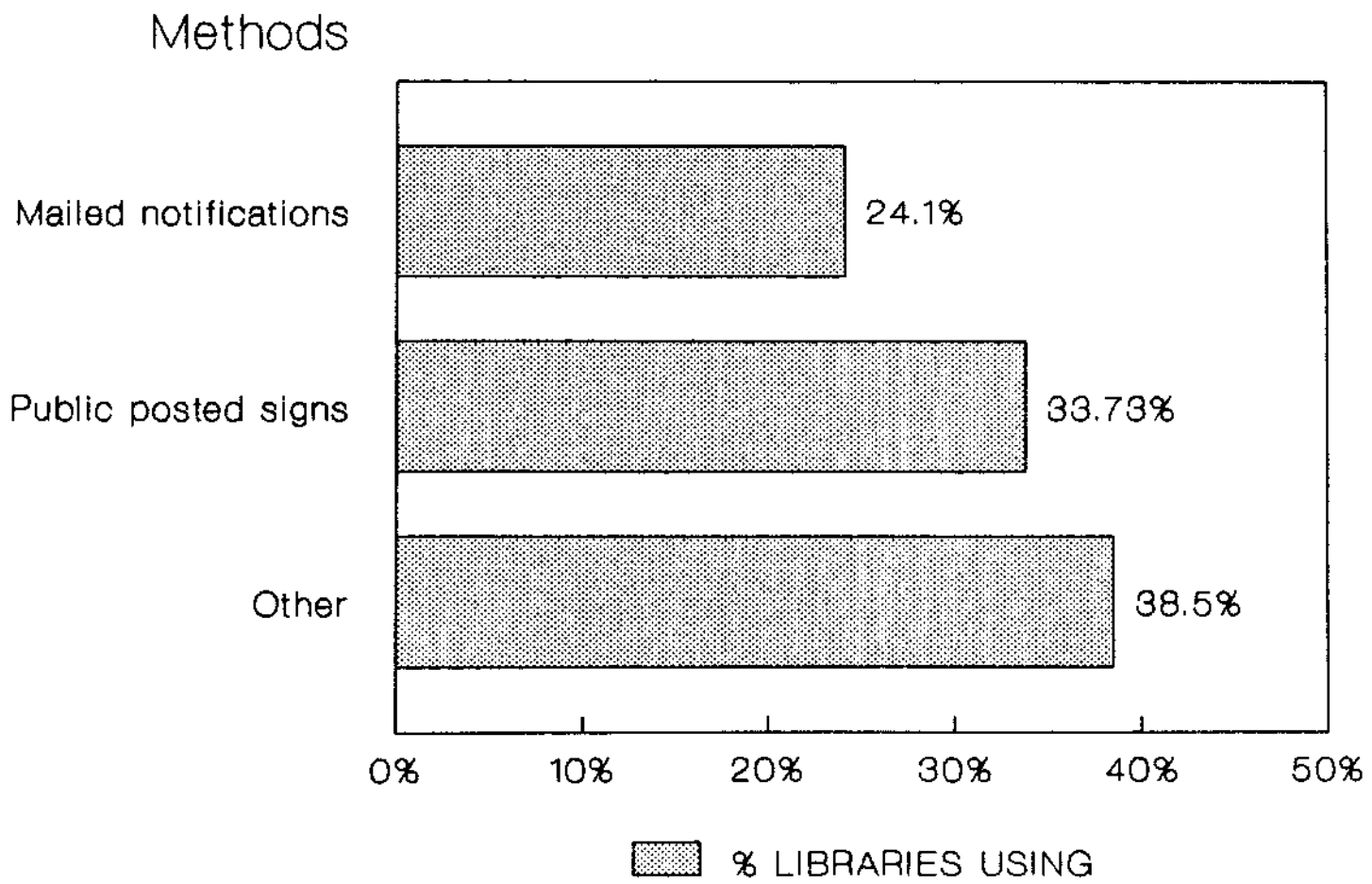
INITIATION OF CITIZEN INPUT

Figure 8



Who sought citizen participation?

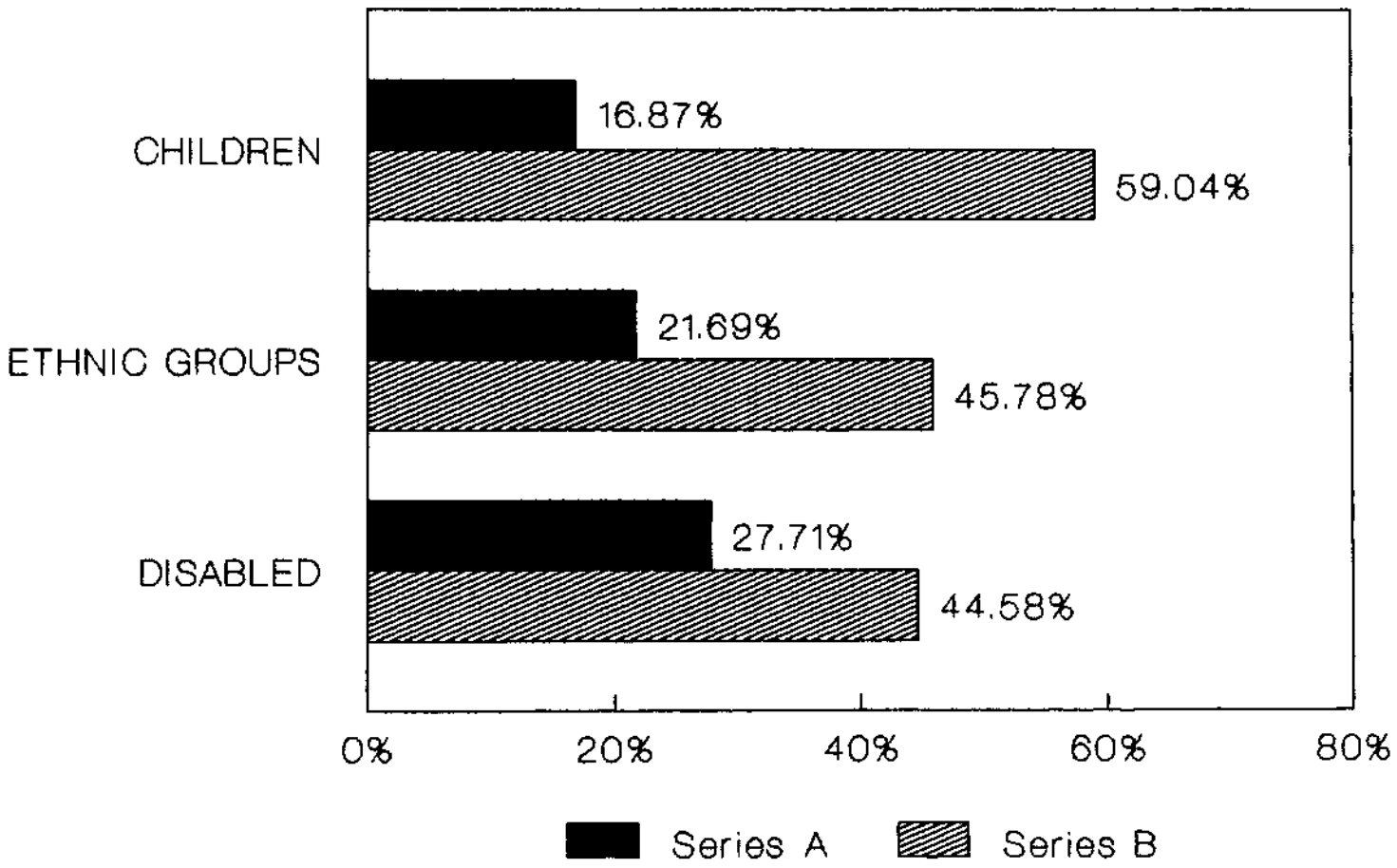
NOTIFICATION METHOD
Figure 9



Means to solicit citizen input.

DIVERSE GROUP PARTICIPATION

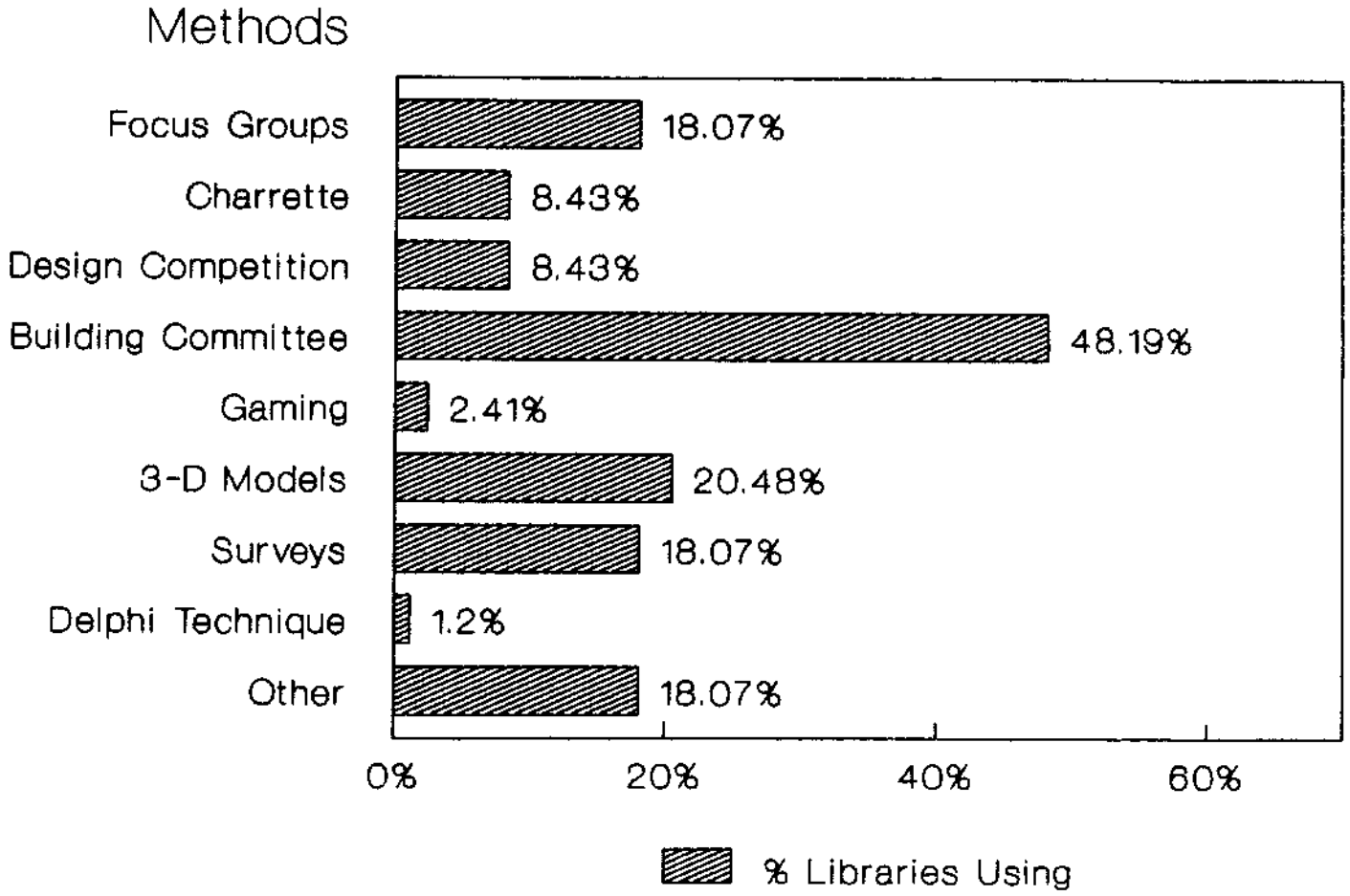
Figure 10



Libraries planned with diversity.

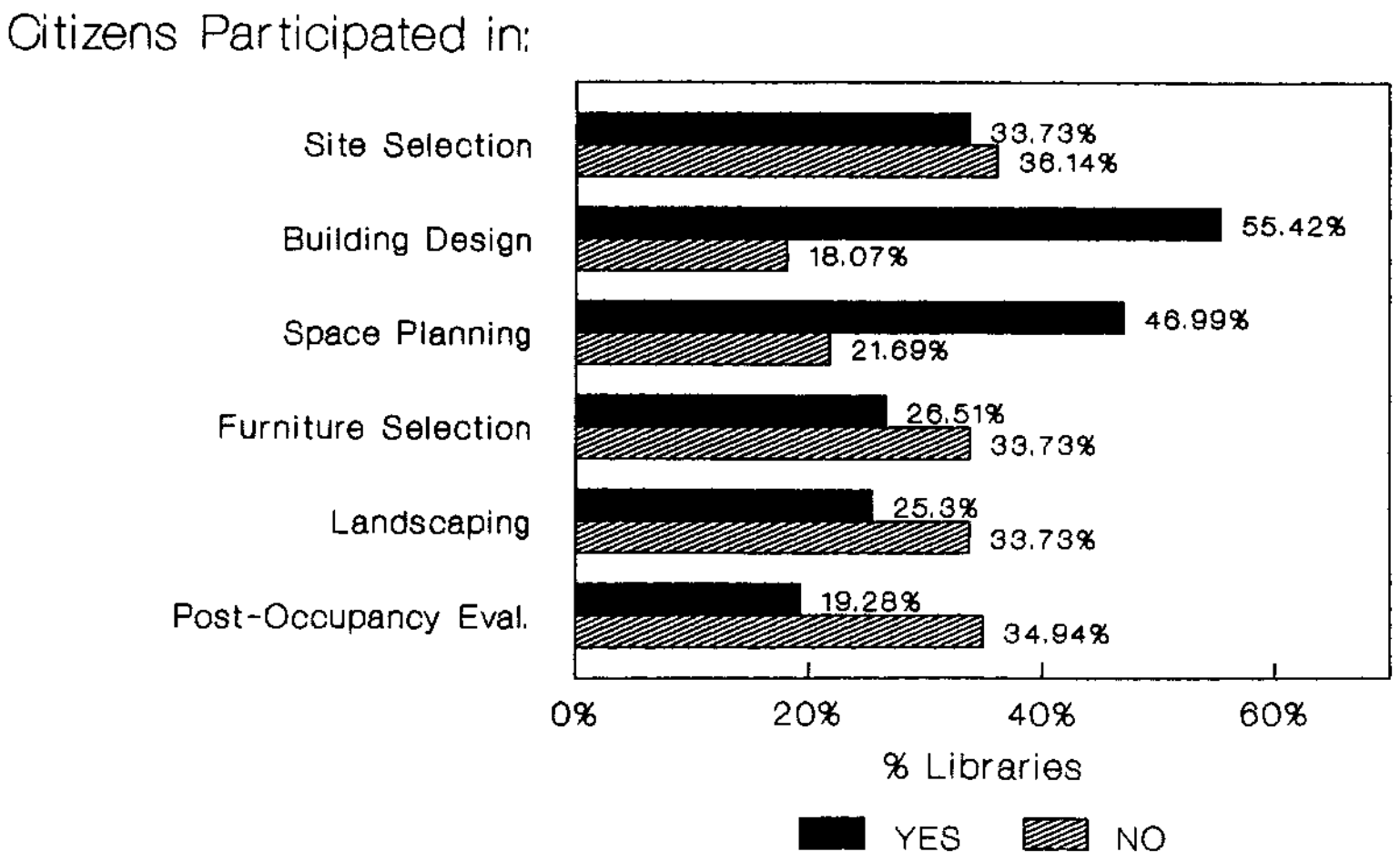
PARTICIPATORY METHODS

Figure 11



Planning/Design Methods Using Citizens.

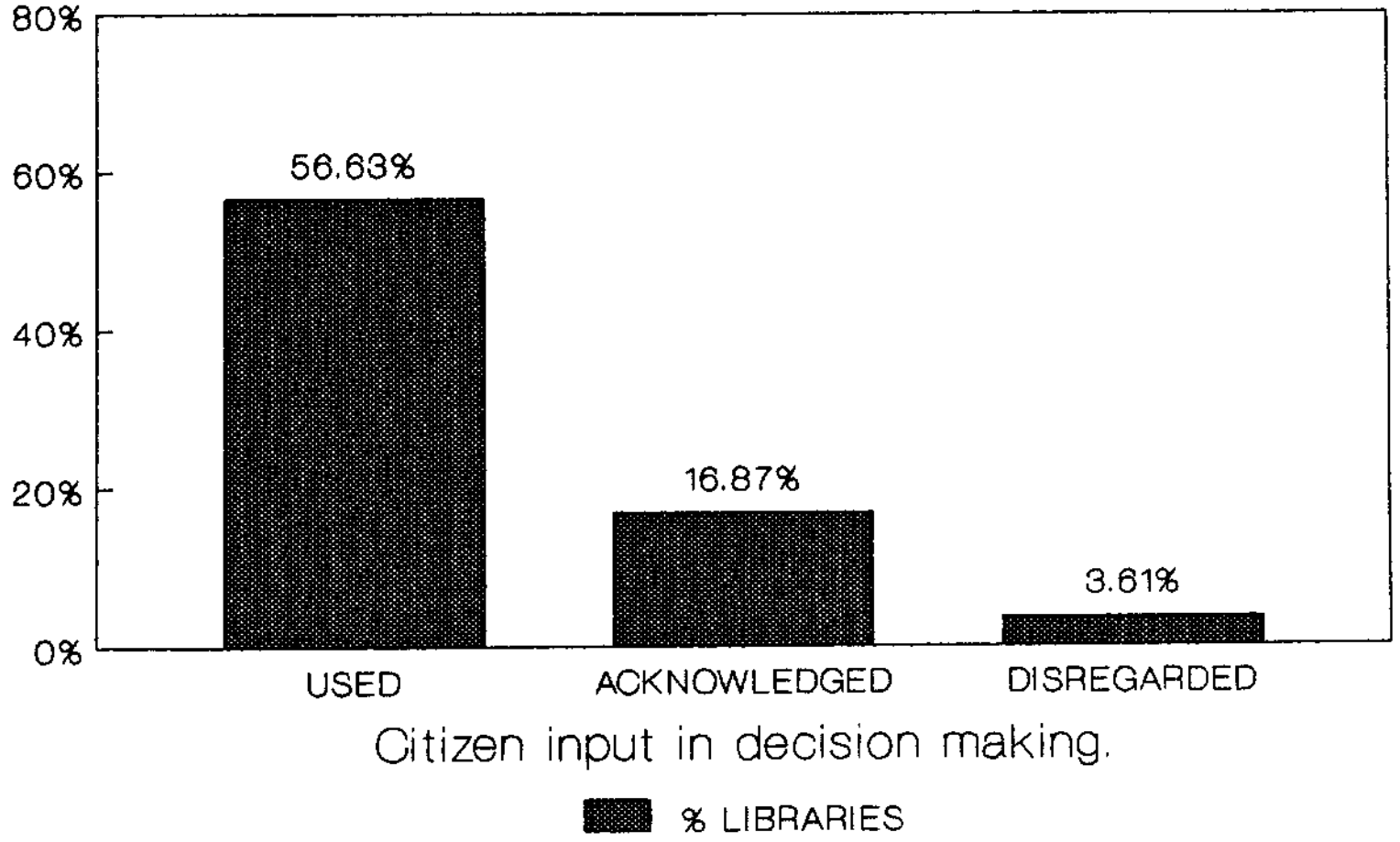
DESIGN ACTIVITIES
Figure 12



Specifics of citizen involvement.

USE OF CITIZEN INPUT

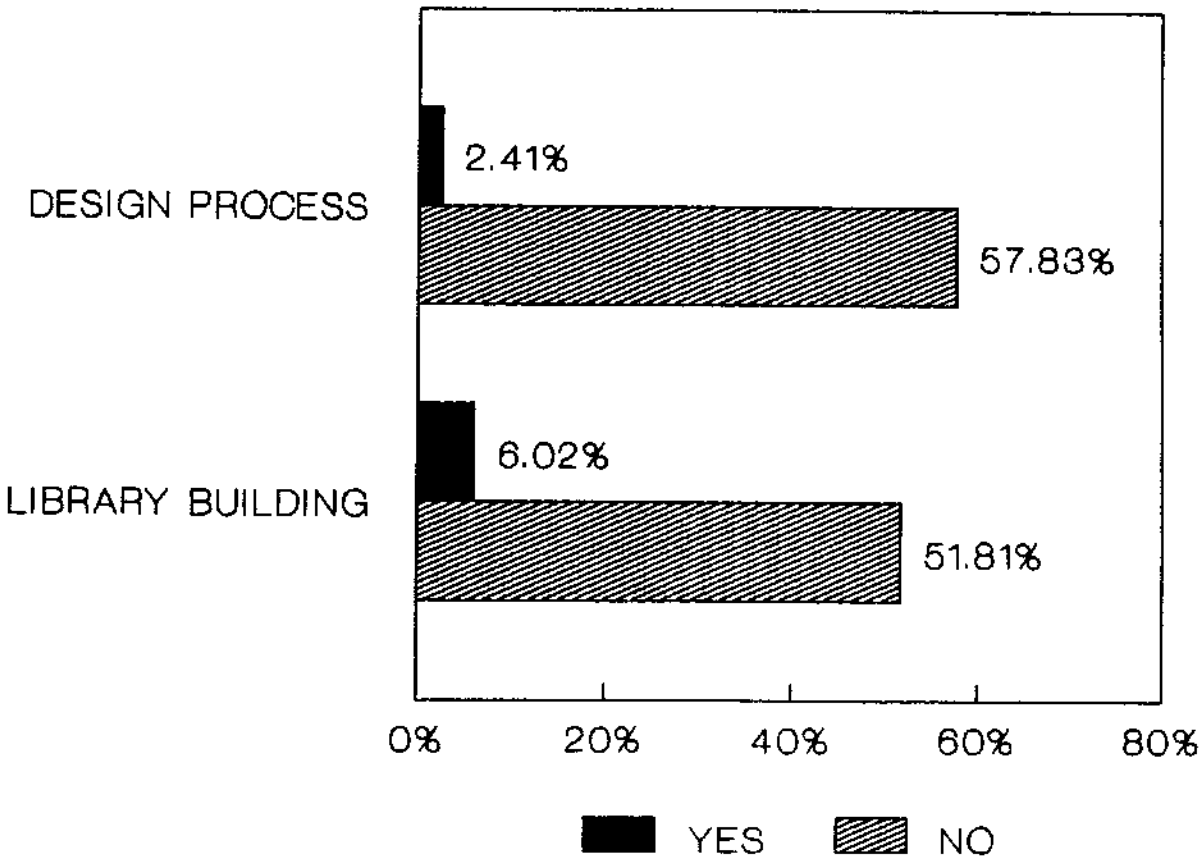
Figure 13



Input for planning/design matters.

SURVEY OF CITIZENS
Figure 14

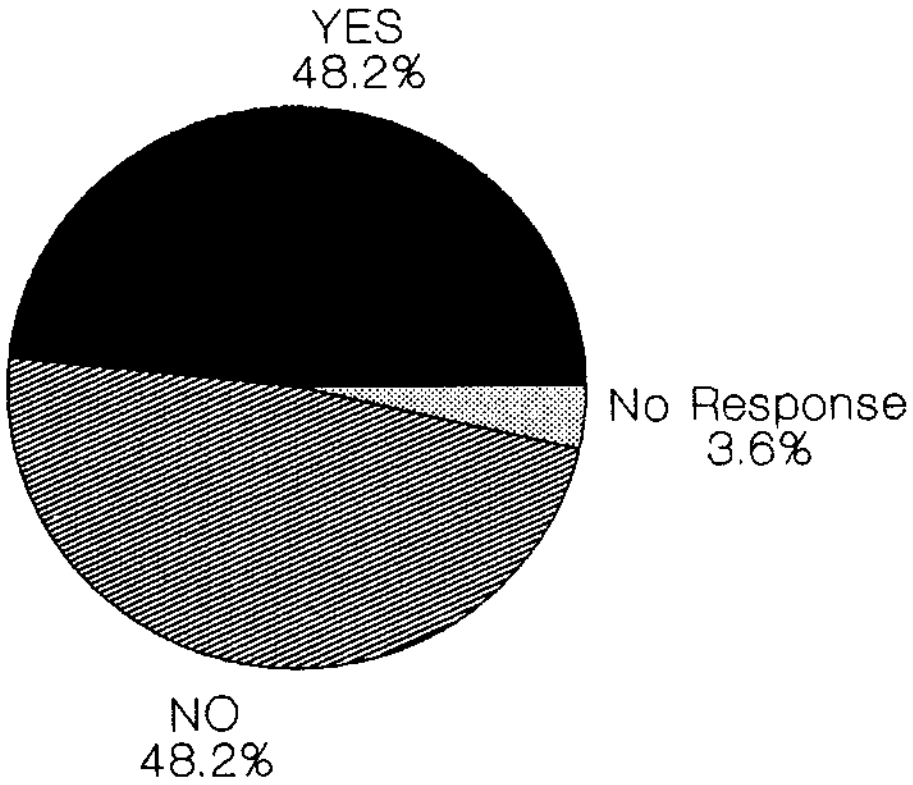
FOR CITIZEN OPINIONS ON:



(After completion of facility)

OTHER LIBRARY PROJECTS

Figure 15



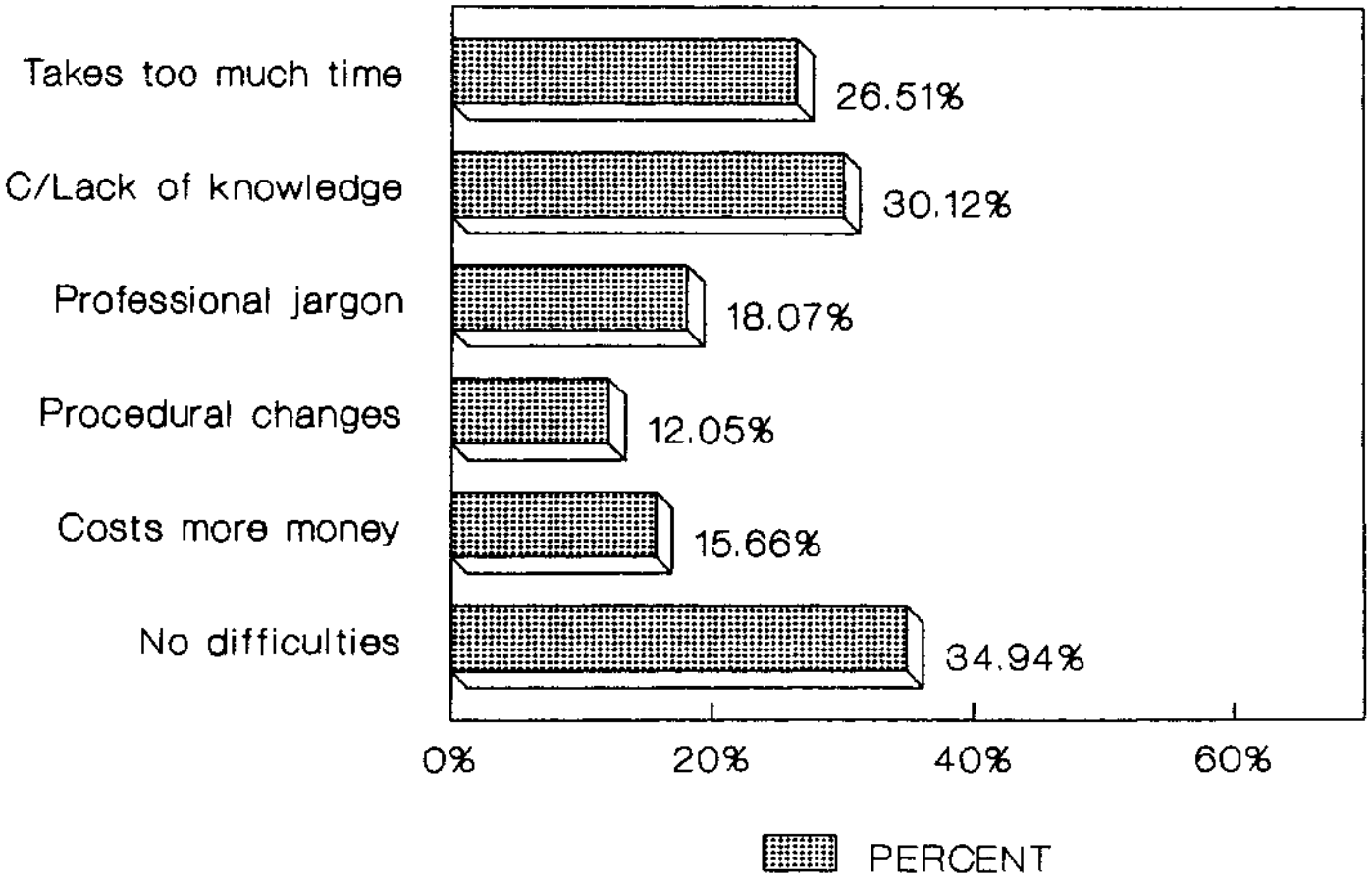
USE OF "CP" ON OTHER LIBRARIES

"CP" used on other library projects.

DIFFICULTIES OF "CP"

Figure 16

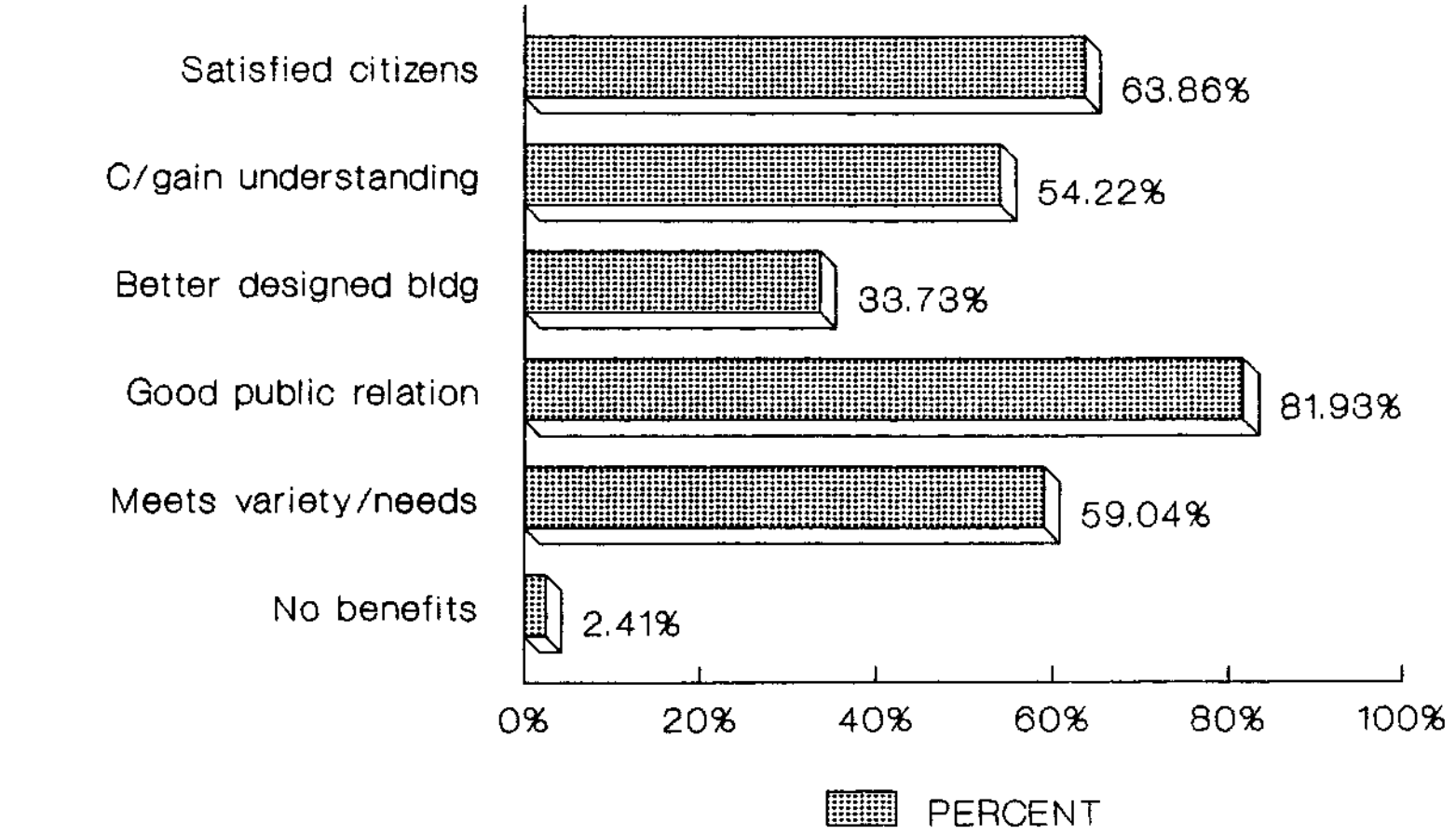
Respondent Opinion:



BENEFITS OF "CP"

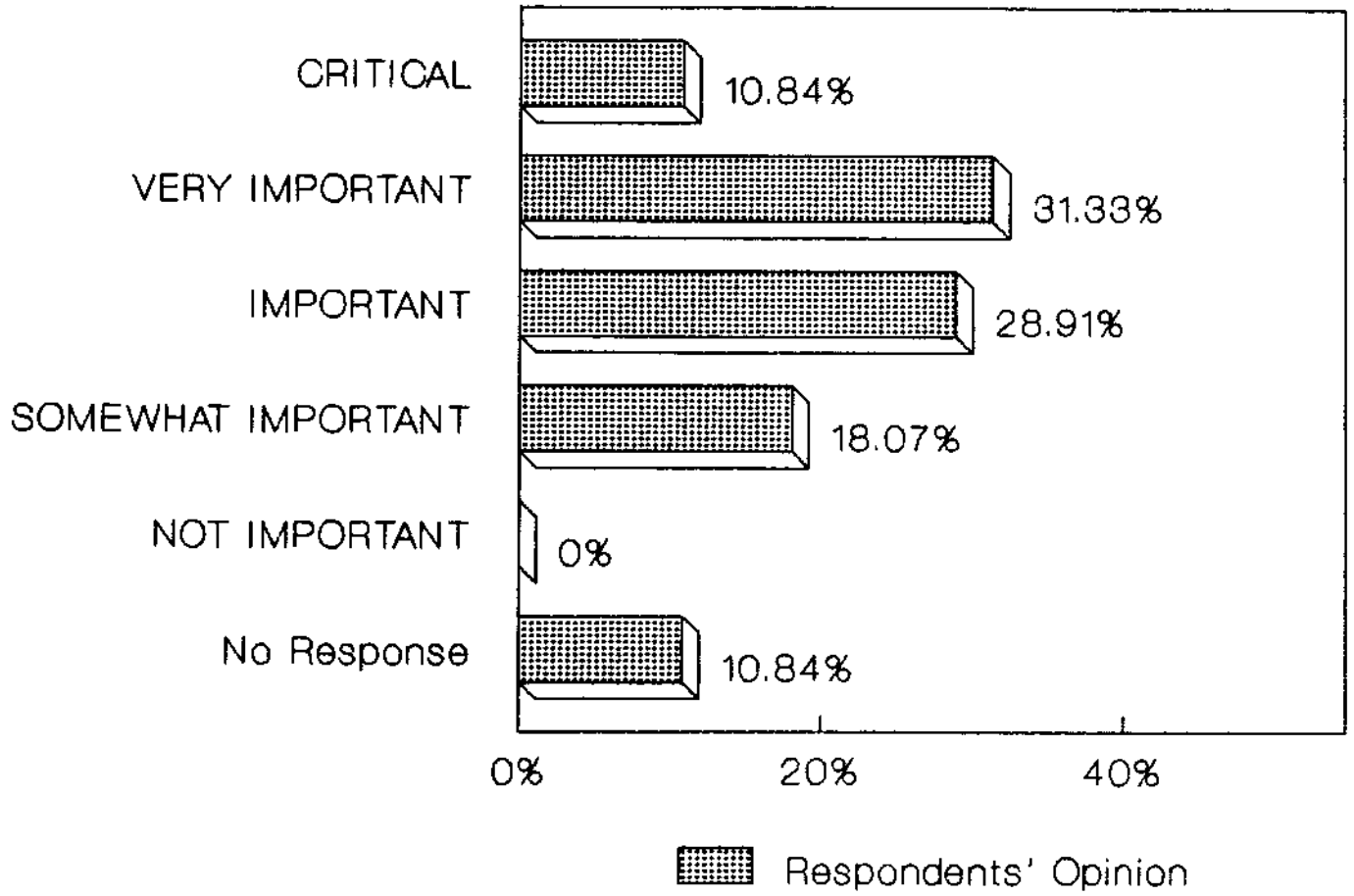
Figure 17

Respondent Opinion:



IMPORTANCE OF "CP"

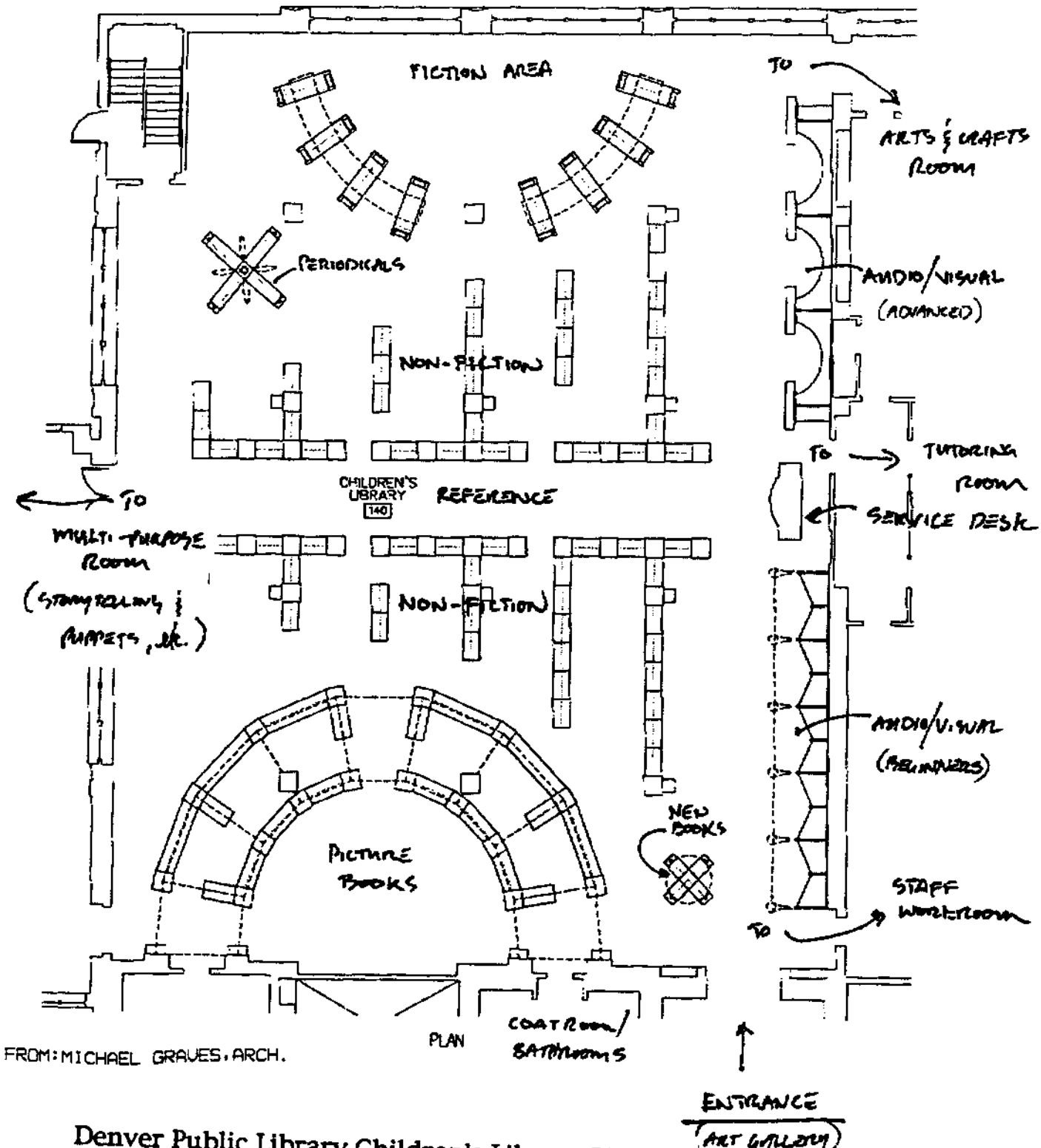
Figure 18



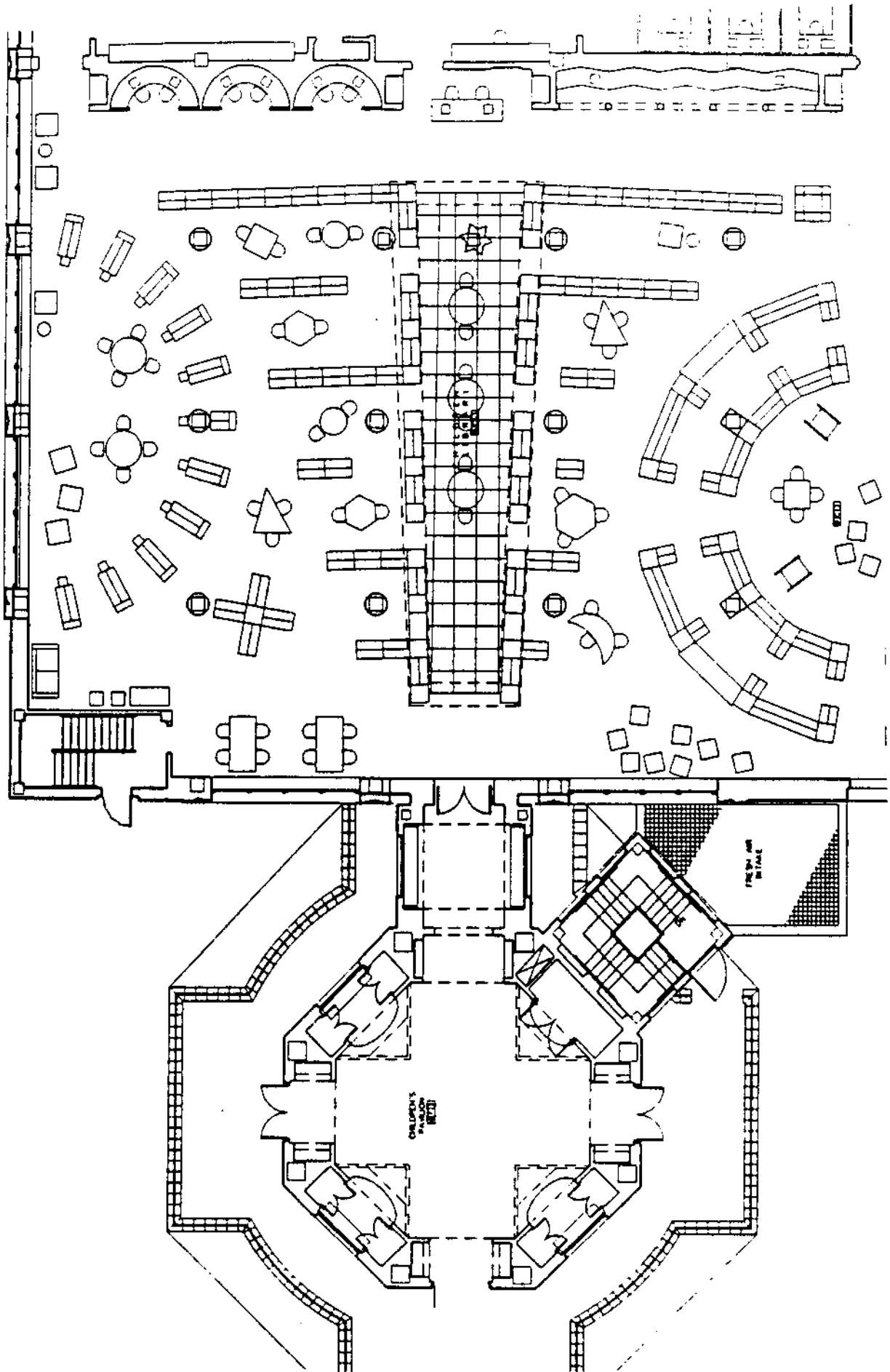
Respondents' opinions regarding "CP."

APPENDIX C

DENVER PUBLIC LIBRARY CHILDREN'S LIBRARY FLOOR PLAN



Denver Public Library Children's Library Floor Plan



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