

Law School Libraries

Richard A. Danner
Senior Associate Dean for Information Technology
Duke University School of Law

[Prepared for *Encyclopedia of Library and Information Science*, Second Edition
(forthcoming, 2002)]

Purpose and Role

The primary mission of the law school library is to meet the information needs of the faculty and students of the institution it supports. In addition to their role in educating future lawyers, law schools are the major producers of scholarly literature in law and rely on academic law libraries for both the primary and secondary materials needed for research and publication. Beyond support for the core functions of legal education and research, the specific missions of law school libraries vary depending on the size and missions of law schools of different types. Differences among law schools result in differences among their libraries in collection size and composition, staffing and services offered, and additional clientele served. In the United States, libraries at publicly-supported law schools are likely to provide a fuller range of services to local or state attorneys than privately-funded law schools, while libraries at urban law schools are more likely than others to provide services to the general public. The range of services an academic law library provides to others than its own students and faculty depends as well on its proximity to other types of law libraries (court, bar association, law firm, or public) established to meet the information needs of practicing lawyers and the public. The presence of large numbers of a law school's own graduates in the area also normally results in greater library services for the local bar.

Organization and Administration

In the United States, the professional degree in law, the Juris Doctor (or J.D.) is attained after three years of study and training beyond the baccalaureate degree. Lawyers are educated in separate schools or colleges within the university, rather than in departments of graduate schools or other units. Law schools are normally housed in their own physical facilities and a law school's control over its physical plant is among the factors considered by the American Bar Association in its accreditation processes. (1)

These factors, in addition to the specialized nature of primary source legal collections, have contributed to the administrative autonomy from university library systems that has traditionally characterized most law school libraries in the United States. (2,3) Only a handful of the libraries at the 180 plus law schools accredited by the American Bar Association are administered directly through their university library systems. The ABA standards require that the law library have sufficient autonomy to direct the growth and development of the library collections, and that the dean of the law school and the library director determine law library policies (in consultation with the faculty).(1) In practice,

therefore, the budgets of most academic law libraries are constructed as part of the law school's budget rather than as part of the overall budget of the university library. If the law library budget must be justified to higher authority than the law school dean, it is typically the dean or the dean and law library director together who defend the budget at the university level. Similarly, the law library director normally hires and supervises law library staff without the involvement of the university library, and is responsible for all typical library operations and services, including selection, ordering, cataloging and processing of library materials.

Although there are a number of variations in internal administrative structure among law school libraries, most U.S. law school libraries are organized in some form of division between technical and public services, with an administrative unit, often consisting of the law library director, an associate director and administrative staff providing support for the library's operations. (4) Variations on the basic organizational model depend on the size of the law school, the number of library staff, and the ratio of professional to support staff members. Increasingly, organizational structures also depend on the role played by the library in supporting the law school's use of information technology and other media. (5,6) Some law schools place significant overall responsibility for technology within the library's jurisdiction; others maintain separate units for law school technology, which may support the specialized needs of the library as well.

As a practical matter, the traditionally autonomous administration of academic law libraries at U.S. universities campuses has been affected by the development of more cooperative administrative arrangements with the growth in university-wide automated systems for ordering and processing library materials, campus-level online catalogs, and the need to develop new structures to share costs and support access to shared databases and other forms of networked information. Law libraries also increasingly share remote storage facilities for lesser used materials with other campus libraries, and law librarians at some universities are included in the coverage of shared systems for rank and job security that cover staff at all campus libraries. As more of the traditional forms of legal publication move from print to electronic formats and require less in the way of manual filing and other labor-intensive means to be kept current and up-to-date, some of the long-standing justifications for separate law library processing staffs might be called into question.

In a number of countries outside the United States, law is taught as an undergraduate subject and the library support for legal study is likely to be less autonomous than in the United States. In the United Kingdom, for example, only slightly more than a third of law libraries are housed in locations separate from collections in other subjects, and the law faculty typically does not have direct control over budget and policy. (7)

History and Development

The history of academic law libraries is closely tied to the history of the development of formal legal education within the university setting. In the United States, the College of William and Mary lays claim to founding of the first professorship in law and the

beginnings of a small collection of law books within the confines of the college library in 1779. (8) The Harvard Law Library, the largest academic law library in the United States, was established in 1817. Yet, until the primary locus for legal education moved in the late nineteenth century from the law office, where aspiring lawyers clerked and read the law under the tutelage of established practitioners, to the university, few law school libraries (other than Harvard's) compared in size and breadth of collections with bar association libraries or membership libraries developed to meet the needs of the practicing bar. (9,10)

With the changes in legal education that followed the appointment of Christopher Langdell (a former student librarian) as dean of the Harvard Law School in 1870, the perceived role and importance of the academic law library changed significantly. Under Langdell's case method of instruction (which soon came to characterize legal education throughout the U.S.), reading, analysis, and application of the law found in selected court opinions became the focus of the law school classroom, and the books containing the opinions took on new prominence as the sources of legal knowledge. (11) While Langdell's focus on the importance of the judge-made law found in published cases may have had an initially limiting effect on the breadth of academic law library collections, the twentieth century growth in importance of other sources of domestic, foreign and international legal authority (statutes, administrative regulations and rulings, treaties and other international agreements) soon broadened the scope of the law library's collections of primary source research materials. The entry of commercial publishers such as the West Publishing Company into the legal publishing market helped increase the amount of primary source material available for lawyers to use and for law libraries to collect, while contributing to the need for a variety of finding tools to enable lawyers and other researchers to locate sources of legal authority and to evaluate their usefulness. The solidification of the university law school's role in educating lawyers also contributed to an expansion of the secondary literature in law. Spurred by the establishment of the *Harvard Law Review* in 1887, law professors and law students began writing and editing articles for publication in reviews and journals published at the law schools themselves. Although initially consisting primarily of doctrinal articles aimed in large part at the needs of practicing lawyers, the early law reviews began the development of a scholarly literature in law (in journals, monographs, and treatises), which would grow to become a significant component of academic law library collections, as would materials written for practicing attorneys. The increasingly scholarly emphasis of law school faculty writing led also to pressures on law school libraries to collect domestic materials beyond the strictly legal, and to make at least selective forays into collecting materials of foreign jurisdictions.

The history of academic law libraries in the twentieth century is yet to be written, but it is clear that its major focuses will be on such topics as the growth in numbers of law schools (and law libraries) as the value of a legal education has been seen to extend beyond traditional legal practice; the challenges posed in collecting and preserving growing amounts of primary source materials; the expansion of the scope of collections to include larger components of multi-disciplinary materials; the effects of globalization on the need for access to foreign and international legal materials, and staff skilled in using them; the dramatic impacts of information technology on collections and services

in the last quarter of the century, and the development of academic law librarianship as a professional specialty. These and other topics are treated briefly in the following sections of this article, and more exhaustively in the literature of the field. In addition, articles about the history and development of individual law school libraries can be found in *Law Library Journal*, *The Law Librarian*, and other journals in law librarianship.

Standards and Statistics

The collections and services offered by the modern academic library, as well as other aspects of its operation, are influenced by the standards developed by the law school's external accrediting bodies and other agencies. In the United States, over 180 law schools are accredited by the American Bar Association (ABA) through its Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar. In nearly all states, graduation from an ABA-approved law school is a prerequisite for taking the bar examination and qualifying for a license to practice law. As part of its approval and ongoing review processes, the ABA sets forth standards for law school libraries and gathers extensive statistical data about libraries at approved schools. The law library standards speak to such matters as: administrative structures, personnel and services, and collections. (1) Approved schools (and their libraries) are visited and re-evaluated at seven-year intervals. Library data from the ABA's annual questionnaires for law schools are compiled annually into comparative tables, and made available to law schools and library directors. Although distribution of the compiled comprehensive questionnaire data is limited, some of it appears in the ABA's annual *Guide to Approved Law Schools*. (2) Selected comparative data about law school libraries also appear in unofficial guides to law schools (3) and are available through the Association of Research Libraries. (4) Historical comparative data from the ABA questionnaires for the years 1969-1993 can be found in the 1970-1994 annual volumes of *Law Library Journal*.

The Association of American Law Schools is a membership organization for law schools, which promulgates standards in the forms of bylaws and associated regulations for its members' libraries. The AALS library regulations are similar in coverage to the ABA standards. (5) The AALS conducts inspections of its member schools in conjunction with re-accreditation visits by the ABA. Standards for university law libraries in England and Wales are promulgated by the Society of Public Teachers of Law. (6)

Law School Library Collections

The core collections of all law school libraries include the primary sources of legal authority produced by the major branches of government: reported court opinions (or cases); statutes enacted by legislatures; and executive or administrative materials (regulations and quasi-judicial rulings). Academic law libraries in the United States typically include comprehensive collections of primary materials from the federal government and from each of the fifty states. Although the states each have their own legal systems, each is a "common law" legal system, in which the law has developed historically largely through judicial decisions and written opinions. Under the common law, decisions from courts outside a jurisdiction will not control the results of a case, but

can be cited and used as the basis for lawyers' arguments and can influence a court's decision. As a result, U.S. law school libraries often collect materials from common law jurisdictions outside the United States, such as England, Canada, and Australia, even if they do not generally collect foreign law materials. Because controlling judicial precedents for a current case may be found in cases as old as the jurisdiction itself law school library collections of primary source materials are usually deep in their coverage, as well as broad.

Reported decisions, as well as legislation and administrative law materials (each of which grew in importance during the twentieth century) provide the raw materials for legal research, and make the law library into the lawyer's laboratory that Dean Langdell foresaw at Harvard in the 1870s. Finding the law applicable to a research problem, however, becomes increasingly difficult as the body of potential useful material grows in volume and complexity. In addition to primary materials, therefore, law library collections include large holdings of secondary materials—treatises, journals, encyclopedias, and a number of specialized forms of publications written to guide the researcher through the law on a topic, as well as indexes, digests, and other more typical finding tools. Some secondary sources are designed primarily for practicing lawyers and serve primarily to organize and provide access to the body of primary authorities on a topic, providing little in the way of detailed analysis or evaluation; others, including the journal articles and monographs produced by law professors and other legal scholars are more analytical, critical, and prescriptive in their approaches.

Because of the researcher's usual need to have the most up-to-date version of the law and to be certain that an apparently applicable case has not been overturned by a higher court, or that a statute has not been amended, repealed, or found to be unconstitutional, legal publications of all types rely on a variety of means for regular supplementation and updating. New court opinions and statutes usually are published as quickly as possible in pamphlets that are eventually compiled into bound volumes. Some materials are published in looseleaf formats so that new information can be easily added as older information is replaced and discarded; other sets that require less frequent updating may provide supplemental materials in "pocket parts" inserted inside the back covers of the volumes. Historically, although the bodies (courts, legislatures, and agencies) with the authority to make law have published the materials they issue in official versions, official publication has always been slow and usually lacks sophisticated finding tools and integration with specialized secondary sources. Since the late 1800s, therefore, commercial publishers in the United States have competed for lawyers' (and law libraries') dollars with their own versions of primary source materials, which are likely to appear before the official versions and usually link to the publisher's own finding tools and other products. As a result, academic law libraries have typically offered several commercially published versions of court reports and other important publications, as well as the official versions. Most law school libraries also have depository status for federal documents and maintain substantial selective collections of government documents, some of which also are duplicated in commercial publications. (17)

While the common image of academic and other law libraries filled with row after row of stacks packed with tan colored volumes, neatly arranged in numerical order, is still an accurate picture for most law school libraries, the impact of electronic databases on legal research and the law library has been as strong as in any discipline. The advantages of full-text electronic access to the materials of law for research are apparent, and large databases of primary source materials have been commercially available to lawyers and law libraries since the mid 1970s. (18) The potential size of the law market created significant competition between the two major database suppliers, which led to rapid expansion to the databases to the point where coverage of important U.S. primary sources is essentially complete. The database vendors have also viewed law schools as important areas of competition for future users of their services, and have generally provided low cost access to the databases for law school faculty and students, and have often given law libraries computer equipment and printers to support training and use of the products for research. After first providing limited access to the databases through dedicated terminals in the law school library, the vendors now provide students and faculty 24 hour access using personal equipment within the law school building or from home. In the 1990s, the world wide web has also increased the direct availability of primary source legal materials over the Internet, both through new web-based commercial services and on official sites offered by courts, and by the state and federal governments.

The growth in the amount of accessible on-line legal information has allowed many law school libraries to reduce the numbers needed of duplicate print copies of court reports and other heavily used sets of primary source materials. Like the primary sources, many specialized secondary legal materials and finding tools are published both in print and in electronic formats, leaving law librarians with ongoing decisions about choices of appropriate format for their user communities, and whether to bear the costs of providing information in multiple formats. Much of the scholarly literature in law remains available primarily or exclusively in print, as does much of the material for foreign jurisdictions.

As increasing accessibility of domestic primary sources in networked electronic formats continues to make local availability of large print collections less important to legal researchers, the distinctiveness of individual academic law library collections will be increasingly dependent on their current and retrospective collections of secondary sources and foreign law materials. Current collection development in academic law libraries is normally based on a written plan (1), which must take into account the importance of electronic formats, the needs of faculty researchers for specialized non-legal materials, the extent to which the library serves constituencies beyond its own faculty and students, and the library's proximity to and ongoing relationships with other libraries, on its campus and beyond. (19) Academic law libraries' interests in cooperative collection development have been major factors in the development of regional consortia of law libraries. (20,21,22)

Historically, major foreign and international law collections developed at the largest academic law libraries, and were supported by lawyer-librarians who immigrate to the U.S. from foreign countries. (23) During the latter half of the twentieth century, U.S. legal scholars' increased interest in foreign and international law and the law schools'

efforts to recruit visiting scholars and attract advanced degree students from outside the U.S. have caused a broader range of law schools to devote significant resources to their foreign and international law collections. As interest in foreign and international law has expanded, academic law libraries have faced major challenges in obtaining qualified staff to manage and support finding growing collections, as well as the financial resources to develop and maintain them. (24,25) In foreign and international law, as for domestic law, academic law librarians have produced major bibliographic works and research texts to support the efforts of scholars. (26,27) To support research in foreign law, the American Association of Law Libraries publishes the *Index to Foreign Legal Periodicals* (1960-).

Because access to older, sometimes rare, materials is often an essential part of a comprehensive legal research project, most law school libraries have historically deep collections of both primary and secondary source materials. Law library selectors have available a variety of sources for developing retrospective research collections, ranging from recommended lists of titles to printed catalogs of large research collections in law.(19) Much retrospective material for the U.S. and for other common law jurisdictions is available in microformats from commercial publishers and through such long-standing cooperative efforts as the Law Library Microform Consortium. (28) Research law libraries have long depended on microform to develop collections of hard-to-obtain and less-used materials such as appellate briefs and congressional documents, and to maintain historical collections of older primary sources and legal journals.

Many academic libraries maintain at least small rare books collections both to support research and to demonstrate the importance of the historical record to the development of the law. Morris L. Cohen is the major figure in American rare books librarianship, and is the author of the *Bibliography of Early American Law* (29) and other works in the field.(30,31) In most law school library collections, materials old enough to suggest their classification as rare books must be shelved in open stacks, leading to academic law librarians' ongoing concerns with preservation of print materials. (32,33) As increasing amounts of primary legal research materials are issued primarily or exclusively in electronic formats, academic law libraries will be increasingly challenged to define their role in ensuring that those materials are preserved for future researchers. (34,35)

Because many of the core primary source materials of the law library (court reports, volumes of statutes, journals, etc.) have been published as serials, and are to some extent self-organizing by numbered volume and date, organization by subject classification was a relatively late development for law library collections. (36) Subject organization has become increasingly important with the growth of a significant secondary literature for law. The first fully-developed Library of Congress schedule for legal materials (KF for U.S. law) was published in 1969. Since that time, schedules have been completed for all foreign jurisdictions and international law. (37) While many academic law libraries still do not classify all U.S. primary source materials, most use the L.C. schedules to organize their treatise and monograph collections, and collections in foreign law. Because of the need for frequent supplementation and updating, as well as the nature of the materials themselves, primary sources, finding tools, and many secondary sources are non-circulating in most academic law libraries. The need for ready access to information

housed in large, complicated collections makes sophisticated collection management systems essential to the successful operation of the academic law library. (38)

Law School Librarians

Nearly all academic law librarians in the United States hold master's degrees in library or information sciences; reference librarians and administrators typically hold law degrees in addition to their credentials in librarianship. The American Bar Association standards for law schools and the membership requirements of the Association of American Law Schools state that the law library director should have both law and library degrees, and the ABA standards require that the director hold an appointment on the law school faculty. (1,15) Depending on practices at individual law schools, and, in part, on whether they teach in the law school, other law librarians may also have faculty status at some level.

Within the law school curriculum, law-trained librarians typically provide formal or informal instruction in legal research techniques and the literature of the law. Legal research courses take a variety of forms: most programs focus on introducing the sources of law and legal research to first year law students; some law schools offer advanced legal research courses in either U.S. or foreign and international law as electives in the upperclass curriculum. (39) Law school librarians have also figured prominently in the writing of the standard legal research textbooks, a number of which have gone through several editions. (40,41,42,43) A listing of the major law librarian textbook writers: Robert C. Berring, Harry Bitner, Morris Cohen, Frederick C. Hicks, J. Myron Jacobstein, Roy M. Mersky, Miles O. Price, and William R. Roalfe serves as well as a list of some of the major figures in modern academic law librarianship in the United States.

In part because of law library directors' usual status as members of law school faculties, academic law librarians as a group have been major contributors to the professional and scholarly literature of law librarianship. Most of that literature is published in such specialized journals as *Law Library Journal* (1908-) and *Legal References Services Quarterly* (1981-) in the U.S.; *The Law Librarian* (1970-) and *Canadian Law Libraries* (1990-) published abroad; and the *International Journal of Legal Information* (1982-), as well as in publications sponsored by the American Association of Law Libraries and other law library organizations outside the U.S. Some law library literature is published in more general journals of library and information science; and some is also published in scholarly journals of law, bar association journals, or other specialized legal periodicals.

The importance of the law degree as a credential, the faculty status accorded to academic law library directors and other librarians, and the tendency to write for legal audiences all provide evidence of the strength and durability of the academic law librarian's connections with the legal profession. The history of the development of academic law librarianship in the twentieth century indicates that, through the 1950s, many head librarians at U.S. law schools did not hold library degrees and those who did have both degrees thought of themselves first as lawyers and secondarily as librarians. Because of the positions of influence that academic law librarians have traditionally held within the

profession, it is possible that the emphasis on the importance of “law” to law librarianship impeded the impacts of developments in librarianship generally on the overall development of law librarianship as a profession. (10,44) As noted above, the law school accreditation standards now emphasize the desirability for library directors to hold both degrees and the need for qualified staff in all positions; there are now few directors who do not hold advanced degrees in law and librarianship, and few law librarians who are not professionally educated in library and information science.

There are a number of schools of library and information science that offer specialized courses for prospective law librarians in legal research, law library administration, and information policy. In recognition of the need for specialized law library training within the context of graduate education in librarianship, the American Association of Law Libraries has established Guidelines for Graduate Programs in Law Librarianship.(45) The University of Washington Information School has offered a specialized program in law librarianship since 1939. (46) Graduates of the program currently are awarded a master of library and information science degree with a special certificate in law librarianship

Like librarianship generally, law librarianship and the academic law library specialty are overwhelmingly female in composition. Studies of the role and status of women in the profession have noted historical disparities in salaries between male and female law librarians, as well as the disproportionate numbers of males in academic library directorships. (47,48,49) Recent studies indicate a continuing trend toward gender balance between males and females in academic law library directorships, but not a distribution proportionate to the numbers of women working in academic law libraries (47,50) The most recent salary surveys show a disparity in salaries for male and female directors, but are less clear for other positions in academic law libraries. (51)

Professional Associations

The primary professional association for U.S. law librarians is the American Association of Law Libraries, which was founded in 1906 at the annual meeting of the American Library Association. (52,53,54) AALL’s stated purpose is to promote and enhance the value of law libraries to the legal and public communities, to foster the profession of law librarianship, and to provide leadership in the field of legal information. Its current membership of over 4,800 members includes law librarians and related professionals affiliated with law firms, corporate legal departments, courts, and government agencies, as well as with law schools. (55,56). AALL provides law librarians opportunities for professional development through its annual meeting programs, educational workshops, and institutes; provides scholarships and grants for members requiring assistance to further their formal education or to attend AALL educational programs; supports an active publications program; and provides placement services.

Throughout its history, AALL and its members have been involved in public policy activities, focusing on issues of national information policy, copyright, and public access to legal information. (57) Since 1990, the association’s Washington Affairs Office has

monitored legislative, judicial and regulatory activities and represents the views of AALL through Congressional testimony and legal briefs, frequently working in concert with other library associations and information policy groups.

Since 1976, AALL has encouraged the creation of special interest sections (or SISs), organized by subject matter or professional specialty (e.g., Foreign, Comparative & International Law, Technical Services), or by type of library. The Academic Law Libraries SIS was established in 1979 and serves as an umbrella organization for all law school librarians, sponsoring educational programs, providing discussion forums and workshops for directors and middle managers, and publishing a newsletter. AALL also has a number of local and regional chapters, in which academic law librarians are active participants.

Academic law librarians have played significant roles in the development and activities of AALL. Over half of AALL's presidents were affiliated with law school libraries at the time they served, and all of the major figures in academic law librarianship in the U.S. have been heavily involved in AALL activities. The personalities of a number of prominent and historically significant academic law librarians have been profiled in a number of AALL publications (58,59,60,61,62,63) Biographical information about academic law librarians can also be found in occasional directories published by AALL (AALL Biographical Directory); information about academic law library directors can be found in the annual *Directory of Law Teachers* published by the Association of American Law Schools. (65) Memorials for deceased law librarians, which normally include biographical information and personal reminiscences, are published in *Law Library Journal* (66), as well as in the publications of other law library organizations.

The International Association of Law Libraries (IALL) was founded in 1959 through the efforts of a special committee of the American Association of Law Libraries led by former AALL president William C. Roalfe, who became IALL's first president. Since its founding, IALL has provided a significant focus of professional activity for academic law librarians interested both in substantive areas of international and comparative law and research, and in matters of cooperation among academic law schools and their libraries. (67,68,69) IALL publishes the *International Journal of Legal Information*, and sponsors annual educational conferences.

U.S. academic law librarians are also active in national legal organizations. The Association of American Law Schools includes a section on law libraries and maintains a standing committee on libraries and technology. The law libraries committee of the American Bar Association Section of Legal Education and Admission to the Bar is charged with periodic review of the accreditation standards relating to law libraries and the law library sections of ABA questionnaires. Law school library directors frequently serve as members of ABA/AALS site evaluation teams established for law school accreditation reviews, and are usually represented on the ABA accreditation committee and on the AALS membership review committee, as well as on the committees devoted primarily to library matters.

Outside the U.S., there are a number of other national and regional associations of law librarians, each of which provides a venue for professional activity and continuing education for academic law librarians, as well as for their colleagues in other types of law libraries. A list of known law library organizations (some of which may not be currently active) includes: Arbeitsgemeinschaft für Juristisches Bibliotheks-und Dokumentationswesen/Association for Law Librarianship and Documentation in German-speaking countries; Association Belge des Bibliothecaires et des Documentalistes Juridiques; the Association of Scandinavian Law Librarians; the Australian Law Librarians' Group; Association des Bibliothèques Juridiques Suisses (Switzerland); the British and Irish Association of Law Librarians; the Canadian Association of Law Libraries; the Caribbean Association of Law Libraries; Groep Juridische Bibliothecarissen, Documentalisten en Literatuuronderzoekers (the Netherlands); the New Zealand Law Librarians' Group; the Nigerian Association for Law Libraries; the Scottish Law Librarians' Group; and the Organization of South African Law Libraries/Organisasie van Suid-Afrikaanse Regsbiblioteke. (70,71)

21st Century Roles

As legal education enters the twenty-first century, the law school library, like other institutions faces a variety of challenges from the impacts of technology and globalization, as well as from the rapid rate of continuous change on all fronts. In many ways, the law library's long-standing mission remains similar to what it has been, while the means to accomplishing that mission have changed. The responses of academic law libraries to a changing environment can be seen both in the increased attention given to building stronger collections in foreign and international law and in non-law materials, and in efforts to improve access to digital information through electronic publication projects (72) and development of domestic mirror sites for legal information held outside the U.S.(73). In addition, many academic law librarians have taken leadership roles for general technology development and implementation within their law schools. (5)

Yet, because technology-based solutions to information storage and technological advances in information access and retrieval serve to provide ubiquitous access to information, they can be characterized as challenging the future value of the library as a physical place. If books are less important to legal research, and if students (and faculty) prefer to work with on-line information sources, why should law schools devote significant areas of their physical plants to collections of books? If the Internet makes legal information available anywhere a network connection is available, why is a designated library space needed at all? How important will an institution centered on the acquisition and preservation of information be in an increasingly digital information environment in which less information is acquired in physical formats? Is the role of the law librarian so tied to the law book and to physical library collections that the profession itself is no longer relevant to the information needs of law faculty and students? What kinds of new skills will be needed. (74,75)

In light of these and similar questions, it will be essential for law librarians to think hard about core values and the services they and the law library itself provide. (76) Is the law

library a place only for the storage of books for students to study and perform research, or does the law school library provide an important (or perhaps the only) shared space in the law school for students to work and learn collaboratively with each other and with faculty, and to work with librarians to develop skills in information literacy skills? It is likely that the future of the academic law library will be shaped in large part law librarians' answers to questions like these, as well as on the library's ability to reshape its role in a new information environment.

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