

Collaborating to Connect Global Citizenship, Information Literacy, and Lifelong Learning in the Global Studies Classroom

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Abstract

Purpose - This paper critically examines the concepts of lifelong learning, information literacy, and global citizenship, making explicit connections among them via theories of social capital. It then presents a model of librarian-faculty collaboration that relies upon information literacy as a framework for fostering lifelong learning and global citizenship.

Design/methodology/approach – The paper begins with a theoretical analysis of lifelong learning, information literacy, global citizenship, and social capital in order to provide a conceptual framework for the case study that follows. The case study describes the librarian-faculty collaboration, which included the development of course goals, the syllabus, learning outcomes and objectives, assignments, course-integrated library instruction sessions, and assessment tools.

Findings – Social capital is a useful theoretical tool for conceptualizing pedagogical strategies for promoting information literacy and global citizenship. Pre and posttests, questionnaires, assignments, and student reflections indicate that the three primary goals of the collaboration were met. By the end of the course, 1) students' IL competencies improved, 2) students had developed a better understanding of their roles as global citizens, and 3) students were more aware of the connections among global citizenship, lifelong learning, and information literacy.

Practical Implications – Provides practical ideas for librarian-faculty collaboration and for integrating information literacy competencies into assignment sequences.

Originality/value – Uses social capital theory to make connections among lifelong learning, information literacy, and global citizenship as well as to argue for the value and import of librarian-faculty collaborations. Describes a successful librarian-faculty collaboration in the context of a Global Studies course.

Keywords – global citizenship, Global Studies, Information literacy, librarian-faculty collaboration, lifelong learning, social capital

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Introduction

“Information literacy,” “lifelong learning,” “global citizenship,” and “collaboration” have all become academic “buzzwords” that have made their way into the mission statements, program descriptions, and planning documents of higher education institutions across the United States. As such, they are increasingly used as “hooray words,” deployed to evoke a positive emotional response, to generate support, and/or to stimulate action rather than to incite empirical analysis[1]. For example, most administrators would be quick to assert that their institutions, programs, and courses promote lifelong learning and global citizenship, if only because they know that invoking such terms has the potential to create consensus, establish buy-in, and garner support from a variety of otherwise disparate constituencies. In contrast, imagine an institution coming out against lifelong learning, or publicly declaring that it actively discourages collaboration, or proudly asserting that each year it graduates thousands of information illiterate students who have no understanding of their position within the global community. Such declarations are virtually unimaginable because they mark a radical departure from cherished concepts that have come to be viewed as inherently good. However, academia’s collective “hooray” for lifelong learning, information literacy, global citizenship, and collaboration can ultimately obscure not only the meanings of these terms but also effective methods for implementing programs that would actually realize the goals and values we claim to hold so dear.

This paper critically examines the concepts of lifelong learning, information literacy, and global citizenship, making explicit connections among them via theories of social capital. It then presents a model for librarian-faculty collaboration that relies upon

information literacy as a framework for fostering lifelong learning and global citizenship. Specifically, this paper describes a successful librarian-faculty collaboration that infused information literacy into an Introduction to Global Studies course. One of the primary goals of the course was to foster students' understanding of "the global" as a complex web of local events and their sense of themselves as "global citizens," whose everyday decisions are inextricably linked to larger social, political, and economic forces and structures. Information literacy was configured as a set of competencies that would enhance students' abilities to make informed decisions throughout their lives about how their actions and/or inactions fit into the broader global context.

Defining/Exploring Our Terms

Lifelong Learning

Positioned as inclusive, democratic spaces and symbols of equality, opportunity, and self and civic improvement, libraries in the United States have long been associated with lifelong learning. In his *Autobiography*, Benjamin Franklin explicitly connected libraries with learning for the good of the self and society, claiming

libraries have improved the general conversation of the Americans, made the common tradesmen and farmers as intelligent as most gentlemen from other countries, and perhaps has contributed in some degree to the stand so generally made throughout the colonies in defense of their privileges (Augst, 2001, p. 7).

As Augst observes, "Franklin's comment epitomizes the myth and ideology" of the library as an important cultural agent of liberalism, positioning the "individual pursuit of self-interest" as extending to "the good of the civic enterprise" (p. 7). By providing common citizens with access to "cultural goods usually reserved for the well-born," libraries could "improve conversation and intelligence, crucial elements in the citizens' defense of their political privileges" (p. 7). Augst also notes that libraries were viewed as

positive agents of social change because they were “non-coercive, creating opportunities and rewarding individual initiative rather than prescribing lessons or enforcing dogma” (p. 7). The values of inclusion, opportunity, civic engagement, and lifelong learning that Franklin lauded continue to be critical components of libraries’ visions of themselves, as seen in the American Library Association’s (ALA) “Mission, Priority Areas, and Goals” document, which states that the organization “promotes the creation, maintenance, and enhancement of a learning society” and works with various community and governmental organizations “to ensure that school, public, academic, and special libraries in every community cooperate to provide lifelong learning services to all.”[2]

Despite the widespread acceptance of the concept of “lifelong learning” by librarians, educators, and policy makers as a general good, the term also has its critics. Some argue that neo-liberal economic approaches to lifelong learning emphasize “the vocational, economic, and ‘skilling’ aspects of learning” at the expense of how learning can “benefit the individual, the community and society in general, enriching lives in a cultural sense” (Jones and Symon, 2001, p. 269). Social and economic mobility afforded through education and access to books have long been central tenets of the liberal ideology of lifelong learning, but critics argue that the idea of learning for learning’s sake, without the expectation of “career advancement or enhancement, nor a financial return for their efforts” (p. 270) was eclipsed in the last decade of the twentieth century by a campaign to retrain workers for employment in a capitalist economy. Medel-Anonuevo argues that “lifelong education in the early seventies was associated with the more comprehensive and integrated goal of developing more humane individuals and communities in the face of rapid social change” (2001, p. 4). For example, “Learning to

Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow,” Edgar Faure’s influential 1972 report to UNESCO, focused on a humanistic view of lifelong learning as a process that benefits individuals, communities, and societies and functions as a potential anecdote to inequalities, privations and suffering, and other dehumanizing forces (1972, p. xxi). By the 1990s, however, the more idealistic notions of self-improvement and civic engagement were replaced by fiscal concerns linked “to retraining and learning new skills that would enable individuals to cope with the demands of the rapidly changing workplace” (Medel-Anonuevo, 2001, p. 4).

Lifelong Learning and Social Capital

The difference between the two conceptions of lifelong learning can be understood in terms of their disparate focuses on human capital versus social capital (Jones and Symon, 2001, p. 270). The vocational approach to lifelong learning focuses on human capital, and the “perceived need to skill the workforce so that industry can operate in an increasingly competitive global market” (p. 269). Human capital is similar to physical capital in the sense that both are created through changes that facilitate production. Physical capital is produced through changes in materials to form tools while human capital is the result of changes in people who have been equipped with new skills (Coleman, 1988, p. 100). The human capital approach to lifelong learning is about “servicing industry” and “making the population viable economic units” (Jones and Symon, 2001, p. 279).

In contrast with human capital and its corresponding emphasis on economic output, social capital “concentrates more on civic society and networks in the family and community” (Jones and Symon, 2001, p. 275). Recognizing that economic prosperity is

linked to social cohesion, the World Bank describes social capital as “institutions, relationships, and norms that shape the quality and quantity of a society’s social interactions...Social capital is not just the sum of the institutions which underpin a society—it is the glue that holds them together.”[3] Robert Putnam, whose book *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community* brought the term social capital to a wider audience, puts it this way:

the core idea of social capital theory is that social networks have value. Just as a screwdriver (physical capital) or a college education (human capital) can increase productivity (both individual and collective), so too social contacts affect the productivity of individuals and groups (2000, pp. 18-19).

In short, social capital refers to features of social life (such as trust and social norms) and connections among individuals that make their lives more productive, fostering cooperation and the “achievement of certain ends that in its absence would not be possible” (Coleman, 1988, p. 98). Putnam points out that social capital is closely related to “civic virtue,” but that it implicitly recognizes that civic virtue “is most powerful when embedded in a dense network of reciprocal social relations” (p. 19). Similarly, Jones and Symon observe that social capital “has been found to have the capacity to enhance quality of life and increase levels of participative and democratic activity” (2001, p. 275).

Social capital conceptions of lifelong learning emphasize the creation of learning societies, in which continual learning enhances connections among individuals and engenders civic participation. Many studies have shown that adult education and lifelong learning foster the creation of social capital (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 2000; Field, 1997; Schuller, 2000). Jones and Symon argue that participation in lifelong learning strengthens “the fabric of communities” and encourages “citizenship, critical awareness and understanding” (2001, p. 276). This relationship between social capital and lifelong

learning appears to involve some degree of symbiosis, in the sense that the presence of one establishes the conditions for the potential emergence or enhancement of the other. Field explains that as people establish networks of connections (social capital), their ability to exchange ideas and knowledge is increased. Similarly, the absence of social support mechanisms produces fewer opportunities to learn and acquire new knowledge (2005, p. 133).

When viewed through the lens of social capital theory, libraries, as cultural agencies, establish the conditions for the generation of social capital, lifelong learning, and the productive relationship between the two. Former American Library Association president Nancy Kranich describes libraries as institutions “rich in social capital” where “people of all ages can share interests and concerns, find information essential to civic participation, and connect with fellow citizens” (2001, p. 40). They are educational sites, providing access to knowledge, as well as social spaces, where people come together and establish networks of connections, both physical and virtual. As such, they have the potential to play a critical role in the development of learning societies, breaking down “the barriers of age, ethnicity, culture, economic status, language, and geography” (p. 41) and providing all citizens with access to social networks and the exchange of ideas and knowledge. And because libraries are places “where people can find differing opinions on controversial public questions and can experience dissent from current orthodoxies,” they also prepare and support citizens “for a lifetime of civic participation,” building “social capital as they encourage civic engagement” (p. 41).

However, libraries as both physical and virtual spaces are not always easy to navigate. Moreover, defining an information need, searching for information, and then

accessing, evaluating, and using it ethically for some specific purpose are complex skills that individuals develop over time. Library instruction, then, becomes an important means through which libraries can maximize their contribution to the development of social capital within the academic institutions and communities in which they are embedded. Although most discussions of libraries and social capital focus on public libraries (Bourke, 2005; Hillenbrand, 2005; Forsyth, 2005; Cox, 2000), academic librarians who teach students and community members how to find, evaluate, and use information are helping them develop essential skills that will affect the way those individuals live, learn, work, and govern themselves (Kranich, 2001, p. 41). As such, academic instruction librarians do much more than simply teach students how to conduct research for academic papers. They also contribute to the production of social capital, helping students learn how to learn and to develop the competencies necessary to engage as informed citizens in their communities and in the larger world. Kranich argues that in order to foster the development of social capital, librarians need to be “active facilitators and collaborators” who immerse themselves in civic life, expanding “partnerships that help connect citizens and bridge differences” (p. 41). In the academic library setting, librarians can enhance social capital by collaborating with faculty and other campus constituencies, immersing themselves in campus and community life, bridging the gaps that divide academic departments and other campus units, and working in classrooms to create authentic learning experiences in which students’ development of information literacy competencies is inextricably linked to learning about the world and ways of participating productively in it.

Information Literacy

Information literacy (IL) is another important term to explore, as it has emerged as an instructional framework through which librarians and faculty can collaborate to enhance students' research, critical thinking, and writing competencies. According to the Association of College and Research Libraries' (ACRL) "Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education," "Information literacy is a set of abilities requiring individuals to recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information." [4] In addition to outlining the various components of information literacy, ACRL and ALA documents also attempt to link IL to lifelong learning. In 1989, the American Library Association issued the document "Presidential Committee on Information Literacy: Final Report," which made the connection explicit: "Ultimately, information literate people are those who have learned how to learn...They are people prepared for lifelong learning, because they can always find the information needed for any task or decision at hand." [5] The document also claims that IL is a "means of personal empowerment" that prepares and motivates individuals to be lifelong learners (American Library Association, 1989). Similarly, the "Information Literacy Competency Standards" claim IL "forms the basis for lifelong learning" and that "it is common to all disciplines" (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2000, p. 2). Elsewhere the document states that "by ensuring that individuals have the intellectual abilities of reasoning and critical thinking, and by helping them construct a framework for learning how to learn, colleges and universities provide the foundation for continued growth throughout their careers, as well as in their roles as informed citizens and members of communities" (p. 4).

These key information literacy documents invoke the human capital and social capital discourses of lifelong learning, positioning IL as a foundation for both civic engagement and success in the workplace. In other words, these documents suggest that information literacy can transform individuals into better workers, increasing their economic output, and better citizens, increasing their participation in social and political arenas. Pawley's (2003) observations about the types of discourses employed in IL literature are relevant here. She argues that though many librarians view information literacy as a means for promoting citizen empowerment and democracy (social capital), their use of "conventional techno-administrative discourse" and their focus on economic justifications for the existence of IL programs can sometimes work against these aims (p. 426). By way of example, she contrasts the goal stated in the Standards of creating "a more informed citizenry," with the "techno-managerial" language inscribed in sentences promoting "effective and efficient" information access and prescribing specific evaluation criteria (p. 426). Pawley maintains that the latter tradition reinforces "a hierarchical system wherein expert authorities determine what counts as 'knowledge'" rather than "opening up possibilities for social, cultural, and economic participation in knowledge production by all citizens" (p. 426). Instead of focusing on the "best techniques for transmitting agreed-upon skills," she argues that librarians need to draw upon scholarship in "education, epistemology, ethics, politics, and social theory, to ask questions like: 'What is information literacy for and who is it for?' 'In what social and institutional circumstances does it take place?' 'What consequences does information literacy have for the distribution of social and cultural goods in society as a whole?'" (p. 445).

One way to begin addressing these kinds of questions in an academic setting is to look at the ways that information literacy competencies can both foster lifelong learning practices and generate social capital. Specifically, we advocate for an IL pedagogy that explicitly highlights the relationships between information literacy and lifelong learning in a global context. Assignments that ask students to explore connections between the local and the global foreground the necessity of research in discovering and exploring these linkages, thus creating an authentic learning context for the development of IL competencies. Moreover, asking students to reflect upon not only what they learned but also how they learned it, explicitly discussing the role of the research process in the development of papers and presentations, also highlights the importance of research in developing an understanding of contemporary global issues. Finally, “making it personal” by asking students to examine the ways that they affect and are affected by global issues has the potential to generate not only knowledge about the issues themselves, but also social capital, in the sense that students begin to see the impact of their previously unexamined economic, social, and political decisions—as well as the possibility of making different ones. In short, information literacy can function as a framework for fostering students’ sense of themselves as global citizens. Or put another way, IL fosters the conditions necessary for global citizenship and lifelong learning to emerge for students as compelling ways to look at and live in the world.

Global Citizenship

But what specifically do we mean by “global citizenship”? In *The Political Theory of Global Citizenship*, Carter explores the historical and theoretical roots of global citizenship, linking it to the concept of “cosmopolitanism,” a term used by political

theorists to “denote a model of global politics in which relations between individuals transcend state boundaries, and in which an order based on relations between states is giving way to an order based at least partly on universal laws and institutions” (2001, p. 2). In the traditions of the Stoics and Kant, cosmopolitanism involves a moral position as well, valuing individuals as autonomous beings and demonstrating “active concern for others in need or distress,” while also “stressing the dignity of those to whom one is offering aid” (p. 2). Cosmopolitanism, then, is clearly aligned with liberal humanism and its commitment to basic human rights and the ideal of a world community (p. 2). However, rather than suggesting that all individuals are the same, cosmopolitanism promotes cultural diversity and peaceful coexistence (p. 2).

Current conceptions of “global citizenship” share these basic tenets of cosmopolitanism, though the collocation of “global” with “citizenship” had additional legal and theoretical implications. For example, some critics of the phrase have seized upon the use of the word “citizenship,” noting that the term refers to “a legally and politically defined status, involving both rights (guaranteed by custom or law) and corresponding responsibilities” (Carter, 2001, p. 6). As such, they argue that global citizenship cannot be coherently expressed in a traditional legal sense because citizenship is generally understood as a legal relationship to a specific sovereign state (p. 5). Others point out that built into the concept of citizenship is a logic of exclusion that depends upon an insider/outsider binary, defining the citizen in opposition to the foreigner. Carter notes that though this element of exclusivity may “suggest that global citizenship is an oxymoron...the development of international law and the pressures of migration have challenged the exclusivity of the nation state and therefore the old concept of citizenship”

(pp. 6-7). The rights and responsibilities accompanying citizenship in general, then, are broader in the context of global citizenship. As a result, Carter argues that the phrase “global citizenship” does denote a coherent understanding of the relationships among human rights, human duties, and cosmopolitan beliefs. It also points to an awareness of the kinds of complex linkages among individuals, international laws, and political institutions that emerge in a globalizing world (p. 8).

With the above definitions in mind, individuals who participate in and/or support transnational movements working for peace, human rights, environmental preservation, and economic equality can be considered “global citizens” (Carter, 2001, p. 7). Global citizens are also people who are aware of complex connections between the local and the global and who seek to understand the webs that link local actions (such as consumption patterns) to international outcomes (such as resource-based conflicts). In short, global citizens seek out information about the world so that they can make well-informed, ethical, and responsible decisions.

Information literacy is directly linked to global citizenship in that IL instruction focuses on the development of competencies that enable individuals to better understand their world and the role their choices and actions have in shaping that world. As such, IL has the potential to enhance social capital. By fostering the information literacy skills and habits of mind that are foundational for lifelong learning, students develop an increased critical awareness and understanding of themselves as members of a global community. This in turn has the potential to engender civic engagement and commitment to “social justice, diversity, sustainable economic development respecting the environment, and to a peaceful world” (Carter, 2001, p. 96).

Collaboration

Collaboration, our final term to define/explore, has dominated the pages of library literature focusing on instruction. Although instruction librarians have been working with faculty for years (Rockman, 2002; Farber, 1999)[6], the “collaborative imperative” emerged as a major focus for instruction librarians after the publication of the Standards in 2000[7]. In addition to various articles advocating for an “integrated model of librarian-faculty working relationships” (Julien and Given, 2002/2003, p. 70; D’Angelo and Maid, 2004; Mackey and Jacobson, 2005)[8], several books have also been published foregrounding the importance of collaboration (Miller and Pellen, 2005; Rockman, 2004; Raspa and Ward, 2000). One of the more successful strategies discussed in library literature for infusing IL Standards into non-library curriculum involves the formation of one-on-one informal contacts between disciplinary faculty and librarians (Hardesty, 1995; Booth and Fabian, 2002). Because many of the performance indicators and outcomes delineated in the Standards fall outside the traditional purview of librarians, while others are outside that of subject faculty, the Standards have reinforced the importance of librarians and faculty working together to realize IL learning outcomes. They call upon both parties to bring their respective knowledge and experience to bear on the development of course-integrated IL curricula.

One example of an effective collaborative model is Mackey and Jacobson’s (2005) discussion of librarian-faculty “teaching alliances.” Teaching alliances can involve faculty and librarians working together in the course planning, classroom delivery, and assessment stages of the instructional process. Mackey and Jacobson describe teaching alliances as involving “conversations about the syllabus, specific

assignments, and the use of educational technology. This work takes place over time and may lead to innovative approaches to teaching” (p. 141).

Case Study

Our project took as its starting point the idea that librarian-faculty collaboration is a potentially productive means through which to explore and develop a pedagogy that enhances social capital by making connections among information literacy, lifelong learning, and global citizenship. Built on an informal friendship characterized by ongoing discussions about teaching and learning, our collaboration began with conversations about how integrating information literacy into political science and global studies courses might function as a solution to problems Dr. Campbell had identified in students’ work. Ultimately, we decided to work collaboratively on an Introduction to Global Studies course. Using a model that is similar to Mackey and Jacobson’s description of “teaching alliances,” we worked together in the planning, classroom delivery, and assessment stages of the instructional process. Specifically, our collaboration involved the development of course goals and objectives, the syllabus, assignments, course-integrated library instruction sessions, and assessment tools, including an IL competency pre and posttest. The three major goals guiding our collaboration were 1) developing students’ IL competencies, 2) fostering students’ sense of themselves as global citizens, and 3) facilitating students’ awareness of the connections among lifelong learning, global citizenship, and information literacy.

The Setting

The University of West Georgia (UWG) is a co-educational, residential, liberal arts institution located in Carrollton, Georgia, approximately 50 miles west of Atlanta.

Ninety-seven percent of the 10,000+ students enrolled at UWG are Georgia residents, the majority of whom come from within a one-hundred mile radius of the campus.

Undergraduates make up 81 percent of student enrollment. The remaining are graduate students studying towards the Master's degree in over two dozen areas. Recently, the first doctoral program (in School Improvement) was established. Other doctoral programs are under review.

The Global Studies Program

Although UWG was once a small, rural institution with a focus on producing competent graduates whose careers were unlikely to take them outside of Georgia, the institution has redefined its mission, aligning it with the increasing demands of a globalized world. UWG's Global Studies program was developed to meet several newly defined institutional goals, including internationalizing the curriculum and promoting interdisciplinary studies. The educational mission of the Global Studies program is to promote global awareness. It does so by challenging students to examine global issues in an interdisciplinary, analytical framework that focuses on the role of individuals in local communities and their relationship to the global society. Students who graduate from UWG's Global Studies program are expected to demonstrate their achievement of the following learning outcomes:

- Students will demonstrate an understanding of the interconnectedness of local and global events by producing a research project in the Capstone course that makes these connections explicit.
- Students will demonstrate an understanding of the individual's role in local and global events by participating in service learning, study abroad, and/or internship

programs that are designed to make this linkage explicit and to encourage lifelong learning.

- Students will demonstrate that they are information literate through a series of pre and posttests as well as specifically designed assignments that target each of ACRL's Information Literacy Standards.
- Students will communicate their knowledge about the key tenets of Global Studies orally and in writing by maintaining and presenting an academic portfolio.

Assignments

Our social capital driven conceptualization of lifelong learning informed our construction of a series of assignments that developed students' information literacy competencies through the exploration of the webs of connectivity that link individuals to each other and to larger political, social, and economic forces. Students were assigned a resource conflict that they were responsible for researching throughout the course of the semester. Assigned resource conflict topics included oil, diamonds, coltan, drugs, and timber. These resources were selected because each is an "everyday" item that students are either familiar with or reliant upon. By helping students make the connection between individual purchasing choices, the demands these choices create in the global market, and the impact of this demand on the local community at the resources' point of extraction, we hoped to make explicit the web of connectivity that undergirds our definition of global citizenship.

Students were required to narrow their research focus further by selecting a relevant "interested party" from a preapproved list. Interested parties approved for further research included non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or intergovernmental

organizations (IGOs); international businesses involved in the trade of the commodity; consumers; people affected at the point of extraction; local governments or resistance/rebel groups active in the conflict; and US government/politicians. Students completed a series of scaffolded assignments that asked them to explore how their selected interested party affects and/or is affected by the resource conflict. Each of the assignments provided opportunities for the librarian-faculty team to assess the students' work and to provide feedback at various steps in the research process. Opportunities for revision and resubmission of work allowed students to hone their IL skills.

Assignment One: The Research Proposal

The research proposal was designed to familiarize students with their resource, its connection to a specific conflict, and the roles various international actors play in the conflict. It also was designed to enhance students' IL competencies by requiring them to determine "the nature and extent of the information needed" (ACRL Standard I) and to develop a clear and appropriately narrow research focus in accordance with the requirements of the assignment (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2000, p. 8). The first part of the research proposal asked students to list their resource and interested party, and to indicate what specific geographic conflict zone their research would explore. One class period, conducted in a computer lab, was set aside for students to work together on this section of the assignment. This in-class collaborative activity was designed to develop IL competencies relevant to both Standard I, and its emphasis on conferring with others to identify an information need and exploring general information sources to become more familiar with a topic, and Standard II, and its focus on searching for and accessing needed information. Students focusing on the same resource were

required to conduct online research to identify conflict zones relevant to their topic, to discuss their findings as a group, and then to collectively decide upon a specific geographic area where the resource conflict was most acute. They were also asked to brainstorm terms and search queries that they could type into Google that would be the most effective in retrieving reputable information sources that link their general topic to conflicts in specific geographic areas. After listing keyterms and constructing and implementing search queries, students working on coltan chose to focus on the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), the group working on oil focused on the Sudan, students focusing on timber selected Brazil, the group researching drugs chose Colombia, and students focusing on diamonds selected Sierra Leone.

Students worked independently on the next section of the Research Proposal, which also was designed to develop competencies outlined under Standards I and II. They were asked to use the web to locate additional information that would provide them with some background information on the resource conflict. Specifically, they were asked to address the following questions:

- What does the conflict look like and what problems have emerged because of it?
- How does the specific resource you're investigating fuel a conflict in this area?
- Who are the key players that take positions on the issue in your specific region? List at least four key players followed by a brief description of their position.

The final sections of the Research Proposal asked students to use the background information they had located to help them construct a research question that addressed their resource, their interested party, and a specific conflict zone. Students were told that workable questions for this assignment could not be answered with a simple fact or a

“yes” or a “no.” Rather, the kinds of questions we were after were those that point to issues about which reasonable people disagree. For example, a person working on the role of NGOs in relationship to conflicts revolving around small arms within the DRC might formulate the following research question: “What role might the NGO Human Rights Watch play in advocating for restrictions on small arms trafficking in the DRC?”

The formulation of a research question was designed to assist students in their initial attempts to construct an arguable thesis. Specifically, students were required to turn their research question into a tentative thesis that explicitly acknowledged the connections between their resource, the conflict, and the subgroup they were assigned. For example, a student working on the aforementioned small arms conflict in the DRC might construct the following thesis: “NGO’s such as Human Rights Watch should work with the international community to impose an embargo on small arms sales to the DRC.” The thesis is not only arguable but also points to a potential solution to the resource conflict. In this way, students are encouraged to see that these conflicts are neither inevitable nor unsolvable; rather, groups, made up of individuals, must brainstorm, and research, and ultimately act in order to initiate change.

After the students submitted their Research Proposals, we graded them together, providing students with extensive feedback. Students were then allowed, and indeed encouraged, to rework and resubmit their research question and thesis.

Assignment Two: The Annotated Bibliography

After the team provided instruction on the use and purpose of various databases and resources, students were asked to complete an annotated bibliography. Because the annotated bibliography required students to identify, distinguish among, and locate a

variety of types of sources relevant to their research, this assignment also focused on improving IL competencies related to Standards I and II. Specifically, students were required to choose five different reputable and appropriate sources (a political magazine, a newspaper, a scholarly journal, a monograph, and an article from an international organization) that explicitly focused on their conflict and the role their interested party plays in the conflict. The various types of sources students were asked to annotate exposed them to a wide variety of positions on their issue. For many students, this was their first exposure to a scholarly journal, while for others, it was the first time they wrestled with the differences among various types of sources.

The assignment also targeted Standard III competencies, which focus on the evaluation of information and sources, by requiring students to identify and summarize the argument of each text; to assess the piece for bias and reliability, making sure to address why the source was authoritative; and to reflect upon how the text might contribute generally to their research and specifically to the development of their own argument. Standard V competencies, such as documenting sources using a specific citation style, were also addressed via the students' construction of APSA citations for each source.

Assignment Three: The Research Paper

The third and fourth assignments provided an opportunity for students to pull together their research and to present it using the conventions of academic discourse. These assignments specifically targeted Standard IV (which focuses on the use and communication of information) and Standard V (which focuses on the ethical issues revolving around information), as they required students to ethically integrate relevant

material from their sources into their papers and presentations. Specifically, the third assignment asked students to write a research paper, albeit an untraditional one. This assignment asked students to begin their paper with an overview of the resource conflict and the role played in the conflict by their specific interested party. Students were required to explain how their interested party is linked to other interested parties in the context of the resource conflict. After completing this general section, students were asked to present their thesis (substantially revised from their initial attempt on the Research Proposal assignment) followed by a 200-250 word description of their reasons for holding that position. In this section, students were required to use and appropriately document at least three relevant sources in support of their position.

The final section of this atypical research paper assignment asked students to reflect upon the research process. Specifically, they were instructed to address the following questions:

- What did all of this have to do with you? In other words, how does this resource conflict affect you? How do you affect it? How has researching it made you aware of the connections between the local and the global?
- What has your research taught you about global citizenship and what are your responsibilities as a global citizen?
- How are research skills linked to your understanding of global citizenship?

Assignment Four: Research Presentation

The final assignment, which provided students with the opportunity to be creative in the presentation of their research to their classmates and professors, consisted of the following components:

- A general introduction, describing the resource conflict.
- A description of their interested party relationship to/involvement in the conflict.
- A description of the field research they conducted.
- Use of appropriate visual aids that enhance the presentation.

Students were encouraged to be creative, using audio, multimedia, video, or the web to enhance their presentation. All presentations were video recorded and students were encouraged to ask each other questions.

This assignment was also significantly different in that each student was required to present on fieldwork relevant to the interested party that they had conducted during the semester. The purpose of exposing students to this type of research methodology is directly related to our desire to foster lifelong learning and global citizenship, in that field research has the potential to engender a more personalized experience that is likely to remain with students long after the class is over. As such, students were required to engage in one of the following activities:

- Interview a person in an NGO or IO about their resource conflict.
- Interview an immigrant who was originally from the conflict zone about their experiences.
- Contact one of the local corporations involved with the commodity to get their position on the conflict.
- Create a survey to ascertain their peers' knowledge about the issue and the degree to which that knowledge might affect purchasing behavior.
- Contact a politician or an embassy to inquire about their position on the issue.

Results

Goal One: Enhance Students' IL Competencies

In order to assess our effectiveness at reaching this goal, we administered a pre and posttest to determine whether our methods of IL instruction led to improved IL competencies. This twenty-four item questionnaire was administered on the first and last days of the semester. The percentage of correct answers on the posttest indicates that students' IL competencies did improve:

- Pretest: 67% correct;
- Posttest: 75% correct
- Improvement 12%

Table I illustrates how these scores break down by academic level.

Take in Table I.

Of the 17 students who completed both the pre and posttests, one was a senior who scored the highest on both the pre and the post. Although other studies have shown a relationship between increased academic experience and advanced IL competencies (Marfleet and Dille, 2005; Stevens and Campbell, forthcoming), we cannot make any generalizations regarding this link because of the small sample. Our sample of juniors was also too small to analyze in terms of broad patterns, though we did note that the two juniors scored lower than the sophomores on both the pre and the post, contradicting the expected pattern of increased academic experience leading to higher performance on the IL test. Nevertheless, the juniors did show the greatest improvement, with a gain of 14 percent, narrowing the junior/sophomore performance gap from 8 percent in the pre to three percent in the post.

Due to low freshmen scores on the pre and posttests in other classes, we were surprised by the high scores for the freshmen on both the pre and the posttests. Several factors may account for these relatively high scores, including the fact that the sample was again rather small (three students). Moreover, the sample consists of those few freshmen who chose to remain in the course (a number of freshmen who were weaker academically dropped the course), and they may have done so because of their intrinsic motivation and advanced levels of academic preparedness in comparison with many of their freshmen peers. Overall, because of the small sample, little statistical significance can be attributed to the data linking academic level with performance on the IL test. However, what is clear is that students at all levels performed much better on the posttest, suggesting IL instruction was successful.

Past experience and research (Stevens and Campbell, forthcoming) indicate that UWG students demonstrate different levels of mastery for different IL Standards, performance indicators, and learning outcomes. For example, constructing search queries and finding relevant information is generally not as difficult for students as evaluating the information they find. To get a better sense of which IL competencies were the easiest and most difficult for students, we coded the questions to the Standards and analyzed the students' answers accordingly (See Table II). Standard III (evaluation) proved to be the most difficult for students, which is to be expected given that evaluation is one of Bloom's (1956) "higher order thinking skills," while Standard V (ethical use of information) appeared to be the least difficult.

In some cases, the assignments students completed during the course of the semester appear to have led to improved scores on posttest questions that isolated

corresponding competencies. For example, the Research Proposal assignment was instructive to the team because many students struggled with creating a workable thesis that effectively linked the resource conflict to a geographic area and a specific interested party. Further instruction was provided for this Standard I skill, and some students revised and resubmitted their theses eight to ten times before producing one that was workable for the course. The repeated work with students on their thesis statements likely played a role in the almost seventeen percent improvement on posttest questions focusing on Standard I. Surprisingly, the results for IL competencies related to Standard IV indicate that students' overall scores on the posttest decreased. Because of the small sample, one student's scores significantly affected the overall totals. Nevertheless, improved instructional methods for this Standard are needed. In short, while we see overall improvement in IL competencies, this data also helps us see where additional instruction is needed for future courses.

Take in Table II.

In addition to measuring students' IL competencies, the pre and posttests contained a questionnaire designed to assess students' general comfort with the library and its resources. Specifically, we were interested in determining if a correlation existed between student confidence in their library research skills and their IL competencies. The data tell us that those in the pretest who ranked themselves confident in their library skills demonstrated that their confidence was not well founded. After receiving IL instruction, not only were more students confident in their library research skills, but their results on the IL questionnaire indicate that the confidence was well-founded (See Table III).

Take in Table III.

In addition to measuring students' IL competencies via the pre and posttests, we also extracted and compiled IL competency data from the assignments, via the use of grading rubrics. Data collected from the final research paper is provided in Table IV. The data indicate that generally students mastered Standards I-III, given that at least 70 percent of the students completed each of the tasks successfully. However, while students' pre and posttest scores indicated that they understood issues revolving around Standard V, including documentation and plagiarism, they were unsuccessful in translating that knowledge into performance. Specifically, students only cited their sources in the thesis section of their research paper, which was also the section on the assignment sheet that explicitly told them to cite at least three sources in support of their thesis. The majority failed to cite their sources in the first section of the paper, in which they were required to provide background information on the resource conflict and their specific subgroup's relationship to it. This absence of documentation may be due to the fact that the corresponding section of the assignment sheet did not contain a note telling students explicitly to cite their sources. This raises a whole series of compelling questions. How well do students really understand Standard V competencies? Why can they correctly identify plagiarism and the circumstances that necessitate the documentation of sources in a multiple-choice quiz but then proceed to plagiarize and fail to document sources when writing a paper? What accounts for this apparent breakdown between knowledge and performance? Are students only likely to cite sources when explicitly told to do so, even within the context of one assignment with various segments? Further research is clearly necessary in order to understand the discrepancy

between what students say that they know and what they actually do when it comes to using sources ethically and responsibly.

Take in Table IV.

The research paper assignment also required students to reflect on their research experience. Table V charts their responses to questions about which sources they found most helpful. Most students indicated that they found websites (seven out of 17) helpful, while the least helpful were databases. It is reasonable to assume that many students are more comfortable with the web than with databases. However, the parameters of the assignment, which focused on current issues such as coltan, contributed to students' responses, since news and organizational websites are often the most current sources available on these resource conflicts. For example, WorldCat only contains one relevant record for a book (or more accurately, a chapter in a book) focusing on coltan in the DRC. In contrast, various reputable websites were able to provide students with both a plethora of facts and first-hand accounts chronicling the human side of these resource conflicts.

Take in Table V.

Many students also experienced problems gaining access to first hand information through their field research. Most students reported that this was their first time conducting research outside of the web and libraries, and many had simply waited too long before beginning to contact sources. While some experienced difficulty finding appropriate sources to interview, others were surprised at the sources that were available to them. For example, one student working on conflicts revolving around diamonds in Sierra Leone discovered that a refugee from Sierra Leone attended his church. The

student was further surprised by how excited and appreciative the interviewee was to have the opportunity to tell his story. Finally, finding and evaluating sources proved difficult for many students, which corresponds to their poor performance on the pre and posttests, while other students reported that the thesis formation process was very difficult for them.

Take in Table VI.

Overall, our goal of increasing students' IL competencies was met. However, there is clearly room for continued improvement in instructional strategies to enhance students' IL skills. It is also important to acknowledge that one course emphasizing IL skills will not produce information literate students with no further need for IL instruction. IL skills are not something that students "get" once and for all; rather, they are a set of skills that must be practiced and continually reinforced and refined throughout students' tenure at our institutions.

Goal Two: Help Students become Self-conscious Global Citizens

As part of the research paper, students were asked to reflect on the research process. Specifically, they were asked to answer the following questions:

- What did all of this have to do with you? In other words, how does this resource conflict affect you? How do you affect it? How has researching it made you aware of the connections between the local and the global?
- What has your research taught you about global citizenship and what are your responsibilities as a global citizen?

Sixteen out of seventeen students produced meaningful discussions regarding their understanding of and relationship to the concept of global citizenship. For example,

students who had the opportunity to interview migrants who had been directly affected by the violence fueled by the resource they were researching reported that they could never again think about that resource without remembering the stories of the migrants. The research experience was personalized, their connections to others heightened, and their sense of themselves as global citizens enhanced. Students who conducted surveys of their colleagues expressed astonishment, even outrage, that information about how their actions may be leading to violence and suffering did not cause some respondents to consider changing their consumption patterns. One student summed up how he had become a self-conscious global citizen this way: “The demand aspect of economics was never something I gave much attention. The research I did into coltan has destroyed that safe position. I am no longer able to assume that my consumer choices do not have life-threatening consequences...The direct link between the demand for new cell phones and coltan mining shows that my actions, despite how small I think they are, have global consequences.”

Goal 3: Facilitate Students’ Awareness of the Connections among Lifelong Learning, Global Citizenship, and IL

As part of both the research paper and the presentation, we asked students to consider the following questions:

- What has your research taught you about global citizenship and what are your responsibilities as a global citizen?
- How are research skills linked to your understanding of global citizenship?

In response to the first question, fifteen out of seventeen students produced meaningful discussions regarding their understanding of the connections between global citizenship

and information literacy/research. For example, one student wrote: “Through research, we can gather a better understanding as to how we fit into this global matrix of people, of life, and of culture.” Another shared the following: “I plan... to study abroad in a Latin American country, and due to my research into the deforestation of the Amazon, I think that Brazil will be my first choice. It would be interesting to see how the research stands up to real life and how effective my thesis would have actually been... apathy and ignorance are not an excuse for inaction.”

The presentations were another avenue for students to demonstrate their understanding of and relationship to the concept of global citizenship. Examples include students who explicitly acknowledged how their own consumption patterns were changed by having become aware of the conflict produced by their resources, while other students mentioned how moved they were by the interviews they conducted as part of their field research. This kind of personalizing of the research experience is likely to remain with the students throughout their lives. Finally, some students were so moved by their research experience that they changed to, or declared Global Studies as their major program of study.

Conclusion

This study documented the efforts of an instruction librarian and a Political Science professor to transcend disciplinary boundaries in a collaborative effort to generate social capital by integrating information literacy into an undergraduate Global Studies class. Information literacy was used as a framework for inciting students to explore a resource conflict and the ways a variety of institutions and individuals affect and are affected by the conflict. In the process, students explored connections between

the local and the global and began to see how their own consumption patterns and desires for specific goods can have far-ranging and devastating effects on individuals, communities, and eco-systems thousands of miles away.

Our use of IL assessment tools (pre and posttests and assignments analyzed via grading rubrics) and student reflections indicate that our project was successful in enhancing students' IL competencies and heightening their awareness of the potential roles they can play as global citizens. Additionally, our questionnaire suggests that students feel more confident about using the library and its resources than they did at the beginning of the semester, which increases the likelihood that they will turn to libraries in the future to meet their information needs. This is important because libraries can potentially "help create the values and social networks that enable the coordination and cooperation that strengthen civil society" (Kranich, 2001, p. 41). However, in order to reach their potential in terms of the generation of social capital, libraries must be places where people feel comfortable coming and asking for help when they need it. Academic librarians can facilitate students' comfort level with libraries not only by teaching library and information literacy skills, but also by getting out of the library and into classrooms in a more involved and sustained way than the traditional "one-shot" session. By doing so, librarians make stronger connections with students and position both libraries and librarians as integral to the social networks of their campuses and communities, or as the World Bank puts it, as part of the "glue" that holds individuals and institutions together.

While student reflections indicate that the course challenged them to explore their place in and responsibility to the global society, it remains unclear what students will do with the information literacy skills they gained and their burgeoning understanding of

global citizenship. When planning to get married and purchase a diamond ring, will they ask the diamond retailer about their policy about blood diamonds in order to ensure that their purchase is not contributing to the bloody conflict in Sierra Leone, as one student suggested in a presentation? When working on a household project, will they ask the manager at the Home Depot about where the timber they intend to purchase was harvested from, so as to avoid contributing to the devastation of the Amazonian rainforest and the indigenous populations who reside therein, as another student urged his classmates to do? Will students continue to explore and evaluate information sources in order to keep abreast of global problems and the decisions they can make that may contribute in some small way to their solutions? Will they pursue the path of lifelong learning in an effort to be informed and responsible citizens not only of Carrollton, Georgia, or the United States but also of the larger global community? Obviously, we can't know the answers to those questions. What we do know, however, is that the students in our class explored their own relationship to selected global issues and learned some IL skills that can facilitate lifelong learning. We count that as a good start. However, more librarians and faculty need to work together to foster components of information literacy, lifelong learning, and global citizenship across the curriculum in order to ensure that they have a lasting impact in the lives of our students and on the social capital of our institutions and communities.

Notes

[1] “Boo-Hooray” theory is a nickname for Ayer’s assertion in *Language, Truth, and Logic* that moral and ethical judgments are emotive, “used to express feelings about certain objects, but not to make any assertion about them” (Ayers, 1952, p. 108). He claims that they are “calculated also to arouse feeling, and so to stimulate action,” but they “have no objective validity whatsoever” (p. 108). “Hooray” or “hurray” words are the kinds of terms then that evoke positive emotional responses. Pawley, for example, in her discussion of the term “literacy,” claims that it is a “hurray” word, because “like democracy and apple pie, who can be against it?” (Pawley, 2003, p. 424).

[2] American Library Association (1986), “Mission”, available at:

<http://www.ala.org/ala/ourassociation/governingdocs/policymanual/mission.htm>

(accessed May 24, 2006).

[3] World Bank Group (2002), “Social capital for development”, available at:

<http://www1.worldbank.org/prem/poverty/scapital/whatsc.htm> (accessed June 1, 2006).

[4] Association of College and Research Libraries (2000), "Information literacy competency standards for higher education", American Library Association, available at:

<http://www.ala.org/acrl/ilcomstan.html> (accessed March 7, 2006).

[5] American Library Association (1989), “Presidential committee on information literacy: final report”, available at <http://www.ala.org/acrl/legalis.html> (accessed May 25, 2006).

[6] Rockman (2002) highlights “pioneering efforts” to advance library instruction goals by partnering with classroom faculty, citing Farber’s “Librarian Instruction throughout the Curriculum: Earlham College Program” (1974); Dittmar’s “Library Service

Enhancement Program” (1977); and Ball State’s “First Annual Progress Report on the Course-Related Library Instruction Program” (1979).

[7] Rockman (2002) observes that “at the beginning of the twenty-first century” library literature evinced an “increased focus on faculty partnerships” bringing a “renewed emphasis” to the topic (p. 187). Julien and Given (2002/2003) state, “faculty-librarian collaboration is one of the most prevalent solutions offered in the LIS literature, to the problem of faculty members’ disengagement from the IL imperative” (p. 70).

[8] For example, D’Angelo and Maid (2004) make the oft-repeated claim “faculty across the campus must understand they all have a shared responsibility in injecting IL into their curriculum. However, they can only do so meaningfully in close collaboration with the experts in the library” (p. 216). Mackey and Jacobson (2005) begin their article on IL collaborations with the assertion, “collaboration among faculty and librarians is essential for Information Literacy (IL) initiatives to be successful” (p. 140).

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