

2012

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*The African Buffalo and the Oxpecker: An Acknowledgement of the Mutualism
between Academic Law Libraries and their Institutions, with a Prescription for
Future Coevolution*

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Submitted to
Professor Penny A. Hazelton
to fulfill course requirements for Current Issues in Law Librarianship, LIS 595,
and to fulfill the graduation requirement of the
Culminating Experience Project for MLIS
University of Washington Information School
Seattle, Washington

May 29, 2012

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I. Introduction

Sometimes the desire for survival creates curious bedfellows. In the natural world, one such example is the diminutive oxpecker (*buphagus africanus*) and his ally, the African buffalo (*syncerus caffer*). Oxpeckers relish a steady diet of ticks and other bugs, and the buffalo are teeming with them. In return, the oxpeckers keep the buffalo clean and alert them of imminent threats from predators on the savannah. In biological terms, this type of symbiosis is called ‘mutualism,’ and is characterized by its reciprocally beneficial nature. Plainly, both the oxpecker and the buffalo need each other to make life in a challenging world just a smidgeon easier. The relationship between law schools and the academic law libraries and librarians that serve alongside them is little different.

Academic law librarianship grew out of the rapid proliferation of legal materials, which began at the turn of the last century, and an early recognition by the American Bar Association that a dedicated librarian was an essential resource for offering a sound legal education.¹ Sprouting from tiny collections of books, housed in a single room without a discernible classification system, to the hundreds of thousands of print volumes and innumerable electronic resources of today, law libraries perform critical functions for their schools. But, to remain essential, academic law library professionals must make strategic adjustments to remain useful to their host institutions. This article discusses the entwined history of legal education and law libraries, then explores the sweeping pedagogical reforms being proposed and implemented in modern law schools and, finally, offers law librarians strategies for enriching these new environments.

II. A Brief History of Developments in Legal Pedagogy and Law Librarianship

A. *The Evolution of Law Schools*

A law student engaged in a course of study at a modern American law school would find the experiences and educational journey of their early counterparts quite bizarre:

In America circa 1800, a man (for all intents and purposes, an aspirant to the bar at this time was male--and a white male at that) who desired to prepare himself for a career in law had six options open to him. First, he could attend one of the few existing colleges in the newly formed United States and could select from the paucity of courses offered in law and related subjects such as politics, civil government, and international law. Second, the aspiring lawyer could attend one of the very few existing private law schools--that is, non-university-affiliated law schools-- and

¹ Michael J. Slinger & Rebecca M. Slinger, *The Law Librarian's Role in the Scholarly Enterprise: Historical Development of the Librarian/research Partnership in American Law Schools*, 39 J.L. & Educ. 387, 390-92 (2010).

pursue his courses there. Third, he could engage in the private, self-directed study of law. Fourth, he could clerk in the office of the clerk of a court of record in his jurisdiction. Fifth, if his resources afforded this luxury, he could pursue his legal studies in England at one of the Inns of Court, at which aspiring English barristers trained. Sixth--and, by far, most usually--the would-be American lawyer could serve an apprenticeship in the law office of a practicing lawyer.²

Prior to the advent of Christopher C. Langdell and his “case study” method, these were the prevailing ways of becoming an American lawyer. Nearly all modern legal education structures have roots in the educational theory created by Langdell, who became Dean of Harvard Law School in 1870.³ In fact, the very foundations of our contemporary legal education system are centered upon the Langdellian or Harvard template.⁴ Believing the prevailing apprenticeship model of legal education to be inadequate, due primarily to its inherent passivity and lack of uniformity, Langdell developed a new technique for legal study, “the case method.” The case method approach is premised upon a “scientific” view of law and emphasizes the reading of illustrative appellate cases, coupled with Socratic questioning, to teach law students static legal axioms.⁵ The application of this scientific veneer was a marked departure from any of the means of becoming a lawyer in existence at the time. Some of the deliberate cultivation of this distinction could be labeled as bald snobbery – a desire to differentiate and elevate the study of law from its common “trade school” origins.⁶

From the outset, Langdell had his detractors.⁷ For example, one unintended (and seemingly unanticipated) consequence of the case method was the subjugation of practical legal skills.⁸ Fairly quickly, critics began identifying this and other deficiencies in Langdell's model, while vociferously advocating alternative pedagogies.

One of Langdell's most notable critics was Jerome Frank. Beginning in the early 1930s, and continuing for several decades beyond, Frank heaped harsh

² Stephen R. Alton, *Roll over Langdell, Tell Llewellyn the News: A Brief History of American Legal Education*, 35 Okla. City U. L. Rev. 339, 342 (2010).

³ Peter Toll Hoffman, *Law Schools and the Changing Face of Practice*, 56 N.Y.L. Sch. L. Rev. 203, 209 (2012).

⁴ Robert W. Gordon, *The Geologic Strata of the Law School Curriculum*, 60 Vand. L. Rev. 339, 340 (2007).

⁵ *Id.* at 341.

⁶ Keith H. Hirokawa, *Critical Enculturation: Using Problems to Teach Law*, 2 Drexel L. Rev. 1 (2009).

⁷ Reed, bemoaning the “educational anomaly” that was [and still is] the legal education system structure.

⁸ Hoffman, *supra* n. 3.

and biting criticism upon Langdell's model (and Langdell himself⁹), while advancing the necessity of a "clinical lawyer-school."¹⁰ In lieu of the case method, Frank endorsed an almost entirely clinical experience, with only book-based training in torts and contract law. Significantly, he was among the first scholars to draw a parallel between the practice of medicine and that of law. Regrettably, and much to his obvious frustration,¹¹ Frank was far ahead of his time. During the 1920s and 1930s, Frank and his fellow legal realists became an influential force in American legal education. Legal realism is a school of thought based upon the idea that the study of law cannot be divorced from moral and political issues of its time. This was at odds with classical American legal thought that clung to the concept of law as an entity operating autonomously, unaffected by externalities. Nonetheless, nearly half a century would elapse before widespread adoption of elements of the legal realism educational approach by law schools.

Another criticism of Langdell's method is its insistence on the insular study of law. It is this characteristic that wholly divorces the case-method from the idiosyncratic facts underlying precedent and from the inescapable intersection between law and other disciplines. Famed legal historian Lawrence Friedman aptly describes this incongruity in terms of other disciplines, comparing Langdell's approach to "...a geology without rocks, an astronomy without stars."¹²

Professor Robert Gordon has traced the influence of social and political movements on legal education throughout the 20th century, decade-by-decade. He notes that a distinct pattern emerges – alterations to the structure of legal education are wrought by the socio-political events of a given era. However, Gordon cautions these changes are not usually foundational ones, but mere elective additions to the existing schema.¹³ Provocatively, Gordon blames the case method itself for acting as a 'brake,' effectively slowing innovation in legal education.¹⁴ After setting forth his timeline of change, Gordon touts the 1970s as a "new beginning" with its acknowledgment of the interconnectedness between law and other disciplines.¹⁵ He then identifies the 'motors' for lasting change to the legal education paradigm, highlighting the importance of topicality in tandem with the

⁹ Frank unapologetically refers to Langdell as a "brilliant neurotic" and "a cloistered, bookish man, and bookish, too, in a narrow sense." Jerome Frank, *A Plea for Lawyer-Schools*, 56 Yale L.J. 1303 (1947).

¹⁰ John J. Costonis, *The Maccratte Report: Of Loaves, Fishes, and the Future of American Legal Education*, 43 J. Legal Educ. 157 (1993).

¹¹ Frank, *supra* n. 9, at 1303.

¹² Lawrence M. Friedman, *A History of American Law*, note 4 at 617 (1985).

¹³ Gordon, *supra* n. 4, at 350.

¹⁴ *Id.* at 367.

¹⁵ *Id.* at 352.

openness of professors to outside disciplines and their ability “to assimilate [these outside disciplines] into conventional ways of legal thinking.”¹⁶

Yet, as of 2012, the Harvard template remains the center of virtually all American law school curricula.¹⁷ As the Carnegie Report observed, prior to 2007, efforts to enhance legal education have been “more piecemeal than comprehensive.”¹⁸ For the past forty years, American law schools have been operating an educational model that is fundamentally Langdellian, with a few legal realism components. Today, we are riding the crest of what promises to be a sea change in this antique paradigm. As we will examine later on, the revamping (and in some cases, reinvention) of law school curricula is leading to profound changes in American legal education methods.

B. The Origins of Academic Law Libraries and Librarians

Together with their institutions, academic law libraries and the roles assumed by their librarians have evolved over the past one hundred and fifty years. In formal legal education’s infancy, the academic law library and its library staff did not exist.¹⁹ Small, single-space, reading rooms were the norm and demand for professional librarians, nonexistent.²⁰ The earliest “law librarians” were typically law students who worked in exchange for free or discounted schooling.²¹ For several decades there was little acknowledgement of the need for a professional librarian within law school libraries. A transition began in the 1930s and 1940s with the inclusion of a requirement to employ a professional, full-time librarian in the accreditation standards forcing even reticent law schools to seriously reconsider the role and functions of their libraries.²² Around this time,

¹⁶ *Id.* at 367.

¹⁷ *Id.* at 349.

¹⁸ The Carnegie Foundation Report, *Educating Lawyers: Preparation for the Practice of Law*, 7 (2007).

¹⁹ Slinger, *supra* n. 1, at 389.

²⁰ *Id.* at 390-91.

²¹ *Id.* at 391.

²² Although passive resistance to the mandate can still be found in the cross-employment titles of some individuals selected for these “qualified librarian” positions in the early days, which included recruits from the schools’ janitorial and secretarial staff. *See e.g.*, *id.* at 392.

the profession's first preeminent figures began to emerge²³ and, shortly thereafter, professional law librarianship programs came into existence.²⁴

These professional law librarians did much more than simply “dust off the books;” they undertook the enormous task of systematically organizing collections to maximize usefulness for law faculty and students.²⁵ As time passed, this drive for utility blossomed into a commitment to day-to-day reference service in addition to more conventional functions. Simultaneously, there was an increased demand for librarian reference services from faculty whipped into a “publication frenzy” by rankings-focused administrations, and from law students desiring assistance in navigating the growing number of legal publications.²⁶ This precipitated a necessary specialization amongst the library staff, with a resulting increase in the number of staff members and compartmentalization of duties.²⁷

Additionally, as librarians began to assume greater responsibility for teaching legal research at many law schools, the number holding both library science and law degrees grew.²⁸ Librarians have commonly provided support to their law schools in a variety of ways: the creation of current awareness services; generating materials to support teaching, assisting faculty in finding resources for scholarly research; delivering research materials upon request; compiling bibliographies; and liaising with specific faculty members.²⁹

However, these are formulas for an aging model of legal education and, as law schools and their needs change, so must the services and approaches of their law librarians. In response to shifts in legal education, an expansion of the role of academic law librarians is already underway. Increasingly, credentialed law librarians are providing legal research instruction to first-year law students, as well as teaching upper-level advanced or specialized research courses (i.e., Foreign, Comparative and International Legal Research courses). While laudable and essential, these incremental improvements fall short of the holistic changes required to meet the evolving needs of law schools and their students.

²³ Notable law librarians and visionaries like Arthur Sydney Beardsley (1889-1950), Frederick Charles Hicks (1875-1956), Helen C. Newman (1904-1965), William R. Roalfe (1896–1979), Frederick William Schenk (1879–1948), and A.J. Small (1869–1937). For a more comprehensive listing, *see* the American Association of Law Libraries “Hall of Fame Pioneers.” (available at <http://www.aallnet.org/main-menu/Member-Resources/AALLawards/award-hof/Hall-of-Fame-Members-by-Year.html>).

²⁴ By way of limited example, the inaugural class of the University of Washington’s Law Librarianship program graduated in 1940.

²⁵ Slinger, *supra* n. 1, at 393-394.

²⁶ *Id.* at 397.

²⁷ This is the historical point where librarians began divvying up the labor – creating distinct reference, technical services, and circulation departments, with each having its own unique role.

²⁸ Slinger, *supra* n. 1, at 398.

²⁹ *Id.* at 399.

III. Shifting Gears: The Many Factors Overriding the Case-Dialogue Method “Handbrake”

Legal education in America has undergone several transitions since the Revolutionary War and its traditional form is shifting once again. These changes are being driven by a variety of factors including: escalating education costs,³⁰ the contraction of the legal field,³¹ a tremendous increase in the number of law degree recipients,³² the “rankings game,”³³ and a demand by legal employers and law school critics for specific practical skills.³⁴ Technological advances have also led to an exponential increase in the amount of information and resources to which legal professionals are exposed and expected to competently utilize. This raises issues of source selection, “information overload,” and resource quality assessment.³⁵ What legal sources are available for a given topic or practice area? How does one begin to cull the wheat from the chaff? Or, more precisely, distinguish between what is useful and what is not in an efficient, cost-effective manner? Now, arguably more than ever, there is a need for academic law librarians to find innovative ways to impart their knowledge to fledgling attorneys from the outset – law school.

Returning to Gordon, and his framework for identifying legal education change agents, there are five topical factors affecting and influencing the academic changes underway in present-day legal education: generational changes

³⁰ Law students are facing mounting student debt loads, as a result of increasing educational costs that are outpacing inflation and limited employment opportunities. See e.g., Alfred Lubrano, *Diminishing Returns: Expectations were high, go to college, get a degree, land a good job. But for Generation Y, the payoff has been frustrating, debt crushing*, *The Philadelphia Inquirer*, April 1, 2012, Internet.

³¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics, Occupational Outlook Handbook (Lawyers), accessed at: <http://www.bls.gov/ooh/Legal/Lawyers.htm>.

³² *Id.* See also, the American Bar Association’s statistics on the number of J.D. degrees awarded by year (available at: http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/administrative/legal_education_and_admissions_to_the_bar/statistics/jd_1lb_degrees_awarded.authcheckdam.pdf) (showing a 20% increase in the number of degrees awarded between 1981 – 2011).

³³ While a robust debate on the validity of rankings and their methodologies persists, it is generally accepted that today’s prospective law students rely heavily upon law school rankings, particularly those generated by U.S. News and World Reports, when choosing which school to attend. Thus, law schools actively compete with each other in the areas measured by these publications’ methodologies. See Richard A. Posner, *Law School Rankings*, 81 *Ind. L.J.* 13 (2006).

³⁴ See e.g., Ann Marie Cavazos, *Demands of the Marketplace Require Practical Skills: A Necessity for Emerging Practitioners, and its Clinical Impact on Society—A Paradigm for Change*, 37 *J. Legis.* 1 (2011).

³⁵ See e.g., Richard A. Danner, S. Blair Kauffman, and John G. Palfrey, *The Twenty-First Century Law Library*, 101 *Law Libr. J.* 143 (2009) (discussing the impact of electronic information sources and demographic shifts on observed research approaches).

in law student demographics; the introduction and development of new educational theories; technological advances; economic pressures, both within and outside of the legal services sector; and evolving professional considerations. Moreover, seemingly affirming Gordon's assertion that topicality alone is insufficient to effect change, there has been an accompanying outcry from within the legal academy for pedagogical change.

A. *The Generational Change in Law School Student Demographics*

For law students enrolling in autumn of 2010, the average age was twenty-five years old.³⁶ In 2010, a twenty-five year old would have been born in either 1984 or '85 placing them squarely within the Millennial generation.³⁷ Unquestionably, Millennials arrived on the scene at a unique time with respect to technological and informational advances. As Kaplan and Darvil astutely note, this is the first generation of law students raised with technology as a major, if not defining, component of their lives.³⁸ The authors go on to identify common group characteristics that require accommodation (broadly defined as a "student-centered" approach) in legal education and render old instructional paradigms insufficient.³⁹ Group attributes that have import in an educational environment include the Millennials' impressive technical savvy and their nearly universal misconception amongst the demographic that substantial legal research can be successfully performed using a "Google" style approach.⁴⁰

B. *The Advent of New Ideas Regarding Adult Education*

As greater attention has been paid to, and additional study undertaken of, the processes controlling how people learn and retain information, new ideas have emerged with respect to educational strategies. Using Malcolm Knowles' educational theory of "andragogy," which focuses upon the pedagogical concerns particular to educating adults, Frank S. Bloch honed in upon salient learning styles particularly applicable to legal education settings:

These points can be presented, in declining order of importance, as follows: (1) [l]earning should be through mutual inquiry by teacher and student (adults' self-concept as self-directing); (2) emphasis should be on active, experiential learning (role of experience in adult leaning); (3)

³⁶ Law School Admissions Council Official Guide. (Available at https://officialguide.lsac.org/release/OfficialGuide_Default.aspx).

³⁷ Neil Howe is credited with coining the phrase "Millennials" to describe individuals born between 1980 and 1999.

³⁸ Aliza B. Kaplan & Kathleen Darvil, *Think [And Practice] Like a Lawyer: Legal Research for the New Millennials*, 8 Legal Comm. & Rhetoric: JALWD 153, 154 (2011).

³⁹ *Id.* at 155.

⁴⁰ *Id.* at 163-64. See also, Richard A. Danner, S. Blair Kauffman, and John G. Palfrey, *The Twenty-First Century Law Library*, 101 Law Libr. J. 143 (2009).

learning should relate to concurrent changes in the students' social roles (readiness to learn); and (4) learning should be presented in the context of problems that students are likely to face (orientation to learning). These four central elements of andragogy and their related methodological implications provide a theoretical framework for examining the appropriateness of the methods by which law is taught to adult law students both in clinical programs and throughout legal education.⁴¹

As applied to the development of an improved law school curriculum, there is a growing acknowledgement that a law student should be empowered to select his or her own academic destiny, a destiny which is characterized by experiential learning opportunities, tailored to his or her developmental stage, and contextually grounded through practical application. Another scholar, Deborah Maranville, proposes the implementation of a “spiral curriculum,” a complementary method to Bloch’s, characterized by repeated exposure of students to foundational legal concepts and skills throughout their course of study to cement their understanding.⁴² Later, we shall employ these notions in our proposed integration of law librarians into the existing legal education models.

C. An Increased Awareness of the Ethical Implications of Inferior Legal Research

Ever since the 1983 ABA adoption of the Model Rules of Professional Conduct as the successor to the earlier Model Code of Professional Responsibility, ethical issues have been thrust to the forefront of lawyers’ education. Legal research is not removed from the ethical obligations placed upon lawyers. No fewer than four Model Rules of Professional Responsibility provisions have a nexus with competent execution of legal research. Professor Ellie Margolis identifies Model Rules 1.1 (duty to provide competent representation), 1.3 (duty of diligence), 3.3 (duty of candor to tribunals), and 3.3 (prohibition against bringing claims, defenses or proceedings not rooted in law or fact), as unequivocal ethical mandates for lawyers to develop adept legal research skills.⁴³ She also notes that many court rules, including Federal Rule of Civil Procedure 11 and appellate procedural rules, require proficient execution of legal research tasks.⁴⁴

Then there are the technical complications inherent in contemporary legal research. Even as early as 2006, an astonishing 93% of attorneys were conducting

⁴¹ Frank S. Bloch, *The Andragogical Basis of Clinical Legal Education*, 35 Vand. L. Rev. 321, 333-34 (1982).

⁴² Deborah Maranville, *Infusing Passion and Context into the Traditional Law Curriculum Through Experiential Learning*, 51 J. Legal Educ. 51, 61 (2001).

⁴³ Ellie Margolis, *Surfin' Safari-Why Competent Lawyers Should Research on the Web*, 10 Yale J. L. & Tech. 82 (2007).

⁴⁴ *Id.*

research primarily online.⁴⁵ The proliferation of information available on the Internet only exacerbates the risk of potential malpractice pitfalls. Most lawyers have not been sufficiently trained to identify reliable and appropriate online resources for use in legal advocacy, including for use in court filings.⁴⁶

D. Analyses and Proposed Changes to Legal Pedagogy

While attempts at reforming legal education have been ongoing since the early twentieth century, recently, a number of formal reviews have been conducted. The first of the modern critiques of law school curricula was the *Report of the Task Force on Law Schools and the Profession: Narrowing the Gap*, colloquially referred to as the “MacCrate Report” in honor of its chairman. At the heart of the MacCrate Report was the establishment of ten fundamental lawyering skills and four professional values.⁴⁷ This set of skills and values was intended by the drafters to create a lens through which to evaluate the efficacy of legal education.⁴⁸ From these, the MacCrate Report offered recommendations for changes to the legal education paradigm, emphasizing the acquisition of technical skills and endorsing experiential learning formats.⁴⁹

In 2007, *Educating Lawyers: Preparation for the Profession of Law*, popularly referred to as the “Carnegie Report” was released. The Carnegie Report was the product of intensive fieldwork at a representative cross-section of sixteen law schools over a period of years.⁵⁰ Within the Carnegie Report, its researchers isolate three core dimensions of professional work: knowledge, skills, and professional identity or purpose.⁵¹ In the view of the Carnegie committee, American law schools and the prevailing “case-dialogue method” of instruction achieve the cognitive goal but fail to adequately attend to the practical and socio-ethical aims.⁵² Significantly, there remains considerable disagreement among scholars as to whether any of these core components are being achieved in the

⁴⁵ *Id.* (citing the American Bar Association’s Legal Technology Resource Center survey, with 2500+ respondents).

⁴⁶ Cavazos, *supra* n. 34, at 5-6.

⁴⁷ Russell Engler, *The MacCrate Report Turns 10: Assessing Its Impact and Identifying Gaps We Should Seek to Narrow*, 8 *Clinical L. Rev.* 109, 113 (2001).

⁴⁸ *Id.* at 114.

⁴⁹ *Id.* at 116.

⁵⁰ The Carnegie Foundation’s survey and analysis of legal education in the United States (and Canada) was undertaken as part of its “Preparation for the Professions Program,” which has also looked at professional education in the medical and business fields. See e.g., James R. Maxeiner, *Educating Lawyers Now and Then: An Essay Comparing the 2007 and 1914 Carnegie Foundation Reports on Legal Education*, 1 (2007).

⁵¹ *Id.* at 3.

⁵² *Id.*

current legal pedagogy.⁵³ Regardless, the Carnegie Foundation viewed the primary failings of legal education to be in the instruction of practice-based skills and setting the social context for lawyering. As a cure, the Carnegie Report recommended that law schools expend efforts facilitating the development of practical skills and provide opportunities for hands-on training while still in school, with an emphasis on offering an *integrative* curriculum.

On the heels of the Carnegie Report, and in response to concerns raised by both Carnegie and MacCrate, the American Bar Association undertook a comprehensive review of its standards for law school accreditation.⁵⁴ It is this 2008 review that led to the current iteration of Standard 302 (Curriculum), which states that “...(b) [a] law school shall offer substantial opportunities for: (1) live-client or other real-life practice experiences, appropriately supervised and designed to encourage reflection by students on their experiences and on the values and responsibilities of the legal profession, and the development of one’s ability to assess his or her performance and level of competence....”⁵⁵ Unambiguously, both the Carnegie Report findings and the ABA standards mightily stress the importance of comprehensive skills-focused training for law students. The Carnegie Report went a step further and dispensed advice for how to best incorporate the teaching of these skills in law school, but the real response of the legal academy remains unclear.

IV. An Overview of Contemporary Curricular Approaches of the American Bar Association Accredited Law Schools

As discussed, law schools are caught up in a period of transition. Pressures both from within the profession and external forces are acting as change agents on an antiquated educational paradigm. Here, we will examine the ways in which law schools are addressing these dynamisms. Then, armed with the knowledge that legal research professionals need to increase their involvement in legal education, the next section will explore how to effectively integrate law librarianship into these changing educational models.

Five years have passed since the Carnegie Report was published. While some premature attempts were made to determine its real impact, the question of whether widespread reform has taken place (and, if so, in what forms) remains an open question.⁵⁶ This data is a necessary precursor to the development of truly

⁵³ See e.g., Kristen Holmquist, *Challenging Carnegie*, 61 J. Legal Educ. 343, 353 (2012).

⁵⁴ “In September 2008, the Council of the Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar will begin a comprehensive review of the ABA *Standards for the Approval of Law Schools* and the associated *Rules of Procedure for the Approval of Law Schools*.” See *Memorandum: Comprehensive Review of the ABA Standards for the Approval of Law Schools*, by Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar (2008).

⁵⁵ The ABA Standards for Approval of Law Schools 2011–2012, page 20.

⁵⁶ But not for much longer – the ABA’s Standards Review Committee’s Comprehensive Review has just wrapped up a survey of law school curriculums: *A Survey of Law School Curriculum: 2002-2010*, which is due to be published in June of 2012.

facilitative law librarianship policies, thus a review of the curricula at a representative selection of law schools was conducted for this paper.

To assess present methods for educating lawyers, I examined 2011-2012 academic year curricula at fifty-six American Bar Association-approved law schools. My school selection methodology was comprised of five subcategories: (1) the top twenty-five law schools (as ranked by U.S. News and World Reports 2013); (2) the ten law schools with the largest J.D. student populations; (3) the ten law schools with the smallest J.D. student bodies; (4) the ten oldest law schools; and (5) the ten newest.⁵⁷ With the unavoidable overlap in categories, this sampling accounts for 28% of the ABA-accredited law schools. After a preliminary review of a select group of curricula and analysis of press releases announcing curriculum changes for a handful of law schools, I developed a list of recurring trends. Subsequently, for each institution in the previously described cohort, I reviewed the following curricular components: the coursework required for graduation; the opportunities available for pursuing a dual degree, if any; the existence of interdisciplinary institutes, if any; any option(s) for earning a certificate in a specialized course of legal study;⁵⁸ the availability of experiential study, including traditional clinics and problem-based/simulative offerings; and whether practical skills training, independent of experiential contexts, was mandated.

Through this assessment one thing became evident—this time around law schools have heard, and responded to, the clamor for change.^{59, 60} From this review, four major trends in law school curricular reforms emerged: (1) a renewed

⁵⁷ This yielded the following schools (listed alphabetically): University of Alabama, Appalachian, Brooklyn, California – Berkeley, California – Irvine, California - Los Angeles, Charleston, Charlotte Law, University of Chicago, Cincinnati, Columbia, Cornell, District of Columbia, Drexel, Duke, Elon University, Emory, Faulkner, Florida Coastal, Fordham, Georgetown University, George Washington, Harvard, Indiana – Bloomington, The John Marshall Law School, LaVerne, Liberty, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, New York Law School, New York University, North Dakota, Northern Illinois, Northwestern, Notre Dame, Ohio Northern, Pennsylvania, Penn State, Phoenix, South Dakota, Southern, California, Stanford, Suffolk, University of Texas, Thomas M. Cooley School of Law, Vanderbilt, Virginia, Washington and Lee University, University of Washington, Washington University – Saint Louis, William and Mary, Wyoming, and Yale University.

⁵⁸ With respect to specialized legal coursework, I also looked at prescribed combinations of coursework designated by law schools as leading to specialization within an area that did not lead to the earning of a certificate.

⁵⁹ Arguably, this had less to do with the Carnegie Foundation and its somewhat hackneyed observations about the legal pedagogy, and more to do with the state of the legal profession at the time of its publication.

⁶⁰ Significantly, this response has been accompanied by a marked uptick in the use of scholarly publications by law school faculty members to trumpet the particular innovations of their respective institutions. *See e.g.*, Gregory M. Duhl, *Equipping Our Lawyers: Mitchell's Outcomes-Based Approach to Legal Education*, 38 Wm. Mitchell L. Rev. 906 (2012).

commitment to interdisciplinary studies; (2) improved opportunities for specialization within specific areas of law; (3) expansion of experiential learning programs; and (4) the supplementation of traditional coursework with skills-based offerings. Upon close analysis, a strong stratification of pedagogies materialized that has implications for schools, students, and, of course, law librarians. Next, we will address the particulars of each in turn.

A. *Interdisciplinary Studies – Joint Degrees and Learning Centers*⁶¹

The inclusion of interdisciplinary studies is not a new innovation in legal education.⁶² Several curricular features are encompassed by this rubric, including cross-disciplinary classes and, the more traditional dual-degree programs. Dual degree programs have been around for decades, with the J.D./Masters in Business Administration being the single most popular dual-degree offered at American law schools.⁶³

Generally, it is the ‘elites’ that have chosen to embrace the interdisciplinary approaches.⁶⁴ Of the top twenty-five schools, all offer interdisciplinary opportunities to students, in the form of a joint degree and at least one cross-disciplinary institute or center. Moreover, these schools emphasize and heavily market these opportunities. In stark contrast, the remaining law schools evaluated were far more likely to have adopted reforms closely related to traditional legal coursework and clinical offerings; few had any interdisciplinary offerings beyond joint degree programs. Newer and smaller schools were less likely to have gone beyond basic joint degree offerings (usually J.D./M.B.A.) in their curriculums. There were also few comparable “Centers” or “Institutes,” implemented at these schools.⁶⁵ The discernible differences in approaches likely boil down to two things: financial constraints and student constituencies. But this divergence creates a definite demarcation and underscores the differing support needs from these law school’s libraries and librarians.

⁶¹ A number of educational scholars distinguish between “interdisciplinary” and “cross-disciplinary” studies – the former being associated with two or more disciplines merging in pursuit of a common goal, and the latter merely referring to the involvement of two or more disciplines, without the same level of collaboration. Here, the term “interdisciplinary” is used as an umbrella term encompassing both approaches, as the subtle distinction between the two terms is irrelevant to the themes within the article.

⁶² Robert Stevens, *Law School: Legal Education in America from the 1850s to the 1980s*, 214 (1983).

⁶³ As of 2009, there were forty-two J.D./M.B.A. dual degree programs at ABA-accredited law schools. See e.g., Diana Middleton, *Creating a shorter path to a J.D./M.B.A.*, *The Wall Street Journal*, May 20, 2009.

⁶⁴ One could pontificate for a long time on the ‘why’ of this phenomenon. Suffice it to say, it appears to be multi-factored and includes, but is not limited to, the greater relative financial resources of these institutions, their collocation with other prominent university departments, and the largely resource-rich metropolitan geography.

⁶⁵ A notable exception being the University of California—Irvine Law School.

B. Specialization Tracks by Areas of Law

Citing globalization⁶⁶ and the increasing complexities of law, many law schools have created curricular pathways designed for law students to cultivate a specialty in an area of law. Concentrations, or alternatively “tracks” or “treks,” were ubiquitous among the law schools evaluated for this paper. The level of structure varies widely, with some schools merely offering suggested courses on a specific topic or course selection guidance, while others have established formal certificate programs in specified areas.⁶⁷ Any degree of specialized program of coursework undertaken in law school will require the knowledge and use of resources beyond “Wexis,”⁶⁸ which likely entails the assistance of the law library staff and other specialized databases such as BNA, CCH and their ilk.

C. Experiential Education – Clinical, Practicum-based and Simulative

A keystone of experiential learning in law schools is the legal clinic⁶⁹ and the notion of using this format in legal education is far from novel.⁷⁰ As early as the late eighteenth hundreds, legal organizations had begun experimenting with this form of training.⁷¹ 1932 marked the first time a clinical course was incorporated into the curriculum of a law school.⁷² However, this method of legal education did not gain widespread acceptance until the establishment of the Council on Legal Education for Professional Responsibility [“CLEPR”] in 1968.⁷³ Through a combination of advocacy and generous educational grants from the Ford Foundation, clinical opportunities began to be established at law schools nationwide. Over the past forty years, there has been an explosive increase in the number of legal clinics at American law schools. In order to defray institutional costs and/or offer alternatives to in-school practical experiences, many law schools have also established relationships with local private firms and

⁶⁶ Or its fraternal twin, “transnationalism.”

⁶⁷ The areas of certificate specialties were highly idiosyncratic and included, but were not limited to, the following areas of law: aviation, business, criminal, Native American, international and intellectual property.

⁶⁸ A widely used portmanteau of “WestLaw” and “Lexis.”

⁶⁹ As of 2012, every ABA-accredited law school had at least one clinical experience available to students. See Law School Admissions Council Official Guide (available at https://officialguide.lsac.org/release/OfficialGuide_Default.aspx).

⁷⁰ Hoffman, *supra* at n. 3.

⁷¹ *Id.* at 212-13.

⁷² *Id.* at 213.

⁷³ *Id.*

government agencies for the purpose of creating externship opportunities for their students.⁷⁴

There is an ongoing recognition of the limitations of the Langdellian model as getting students to merely "think like a lawyer" is insufficient preparation to enter legal practice.⁷⁵ In response, some scholars are now pushing for mandatory inclusion of a clinical experience in the law school curriculum and a few schools have adopted such a mandate.^{76, 77} Professor Ann Marie Cavazos advances an economic argument for this pedagogical change, citing a public outcry for competent lawyers and the obligation of law schools to produce the same.⁷⁸ In these challenging economic times, law schools must also consider the marketability of their graduates. Employers are less willing to undertake the task of training nascent lawyers on the job. Thus, law schools must ensure that their graduates are skilled and competent enough to immediately contribute upon entry into the profession.⁷⁹ This reluctance on the part of employers is a consequence of the economic realities facing their clients.⁸⁰

As Neetal Parekh notes in her blog devoted to clinical law issues, law students engaged in a clinical setting "...learn how to issue spot; experience what a small to midsize firm is like; draft legal documents, meet with clients, and propose further legal recourse; work on your 'bedside manner'; experience a niche field of law; work with professor attorneys in the field; understand why legal ethics is such a big deal; for the twofer: course credit and practical experience; serve the underserved; and collaborate with fellow law students, any of whom could become your future law firm partners."⁸¹ Of these compelling reasons to participate in a clinical experience, four directly implicate legal research and its associated skills. First, effective spotting of legal issues requires not only a sound grasp of doctrinal legal concepts but also the ability to acquire additional legal information through research. Next, a key element of small to midsize firm experience is the time and material resource limitations of daily practice. Third, drafting of legal documents and a thorough analysis of available avenues of legal recourse necessitate the development of solid research skills. Finally, a niche experience can familiarize a student with specialized legal research sources previously unexplored.

⁷⁴ See e.g., Appalachian State Law School.

⁷⁵ Cavazos, *supra* n. 34, at 2.

⁷⁶ For example, Appalachian State School of Law, University of California-Irvine, Washington & Lee University.

⁷⁷ Cavazos, *supra* n. 34, at 4.

⁷⁸ *Id.* at 5.

⁷⁹ *Id.* at 6.

⁸⁰ *Id.*

⁸¹ Neetal Parekh, *Top 10 Reasons to Enroll in a Law School Clinic in 2010* (January 6, 2010) (available at http://blogs.findlaw.com/greedy_associates/2010/01/top-10-reasons-to-enroll-in-a-law-school-clinic-in-2010.html).

D. Formalized “Practical Skills” Coursework

Assessing this particular educational innovation was tricky. A number of law schools have designated previously existing courses as “skills” courses⁸² and required completion of the same to graduate. But, for our purposes, that is primarily a mere “rebranding” of a traditional coursework (i.e., advanced legal research and writing classes). Here, the discussion of skill-specific offerings will be confined to classes designated as “lawyering skills” or “practical skills,” with a more holistic emphasis than elective skills courses.

The elites that implemented “skills” courses almost uniformly confined them to the first year⁸³ or integrated them into another setting, usually an experiential one.⁸⁴ Other law schools, mostly the newer ones, are using discrete “practice skills” courses.⁸⁵ These are nearly unvaryingly additive (something the Carnegie Report rails against) rather than integrative, and are wholly unincorporated into any larger context. The limitations of this approach are readily apparent. When taught in this manner, legal research becomes sequestered in a faux world. Legal research and writing classes subtly convey the message that legal research resides in the marginalia of legal practice. To be engaged in only in the context of a brief or memorandum, instead of the pervasive, dynamic and ongoing process it is in the practice of law.⁸⁶ Their necessity may be reflective of the employment realities facing graduates from some schools. As a third variation, a number of law schools have taken a seminar-based approach for teaching “lawyering skills.”⁸⁷

E. A Prospective Model – Borden & Rhee’s “Law School Firm” Concept

Increasingly, legal education scholars in law schools are looking outward, beyond traditional approaches within the legal academy, to other professional schools—most notably, medical and business schools—for innovative ideas to

⁸² Presumably to meet the ABA standards compelling the inclusion of “skills” courses in the curriculum.

⁸³ See e.g., Vanderbilt University’s mandatory 1L lawyering context and skills training.

⁸⁴ See e.g., Stanford’s interdisciplinary skills offering.

⁸⁵ See e.g., Ohio Northern’s legal accounting course (for an orthodox upper level skills offering).

⁸⁶ See Gary Bellow & Bea Moulton, *The Lawyering Process: Materials for Clinical Instruction in Advocacy*, 357 (1978) (discussing students aptitude at undertaking intensive legal research in the context of brief or memoranda writing, but reduced capability to research less discrete issues, such as in preparation for a deposition or client counseling session).

⁸⁷ See e.g., Charleston School of Law (requiring attendance at mandatory professional series, three seminars per semester).

improve legal education.⁸⁸ Numerous scholars have noted the obvious analog between educating doctors and lawyers, but the manner in which each is taught their profession remains remarkably different.⁸⁹

Responding to issues raised in the Carnegie Report, as well as the financial crisis beginning in 2008 and its corresponding adverse effects on the legal industry, the Bradley T. Borden and Robert J. Rhee developed a proposed response to the push amongst both legal academics and legal professionals for legal education reform.⁹⁰ Between these groups they believe a consensus has arisen that there is an untenable disconnect between the education and the practice of law and advocate for abandonment of the outmoded model in favor of a business school form of approach to these reforms.⁹¹

Borden and Rhee begin by identifying three ways to bring legal education and practice closer together. First, they advocate for pedagogical change and more interdisciplinary training. Second, through modifications to teaching methods they endorse tweaking the legal education model to more closely align it with the business school case study model. Finally, they encourage law schools to place greater emphasis on experiential learning achieved through clinical and/or externship opportunities.⁹² Within the framework of these overarching suggestions, the authors propose a new model in detail in this article: the law school firm.

This new model would establish a law firm operating separately and distinctly from the law school itself. The authors envision it as a "professionally managed, revenue-generating, nonprofit law firm."⁹³ The law school firm would be headed by a CEO, described as an attorney with both legal and business development skills, committed to the practice of law and active within the legal community.⁹⁴ The firm would have several different practice groups each headed by a senior attorney. The skill sets and disposition of these in your attorneys should be similar to those of the CEO:

⁸⁸ Cavazos, *supra* n. 34, at 9.

⁸⁹ See e.g., Jennifer S. Bard, *What We in the Law Can Learn from our Colleagues in Medicine About Teaching Students How to Practice Their Chosen Profession*, 36 J.L. Med. & Ethics 841 (2008).

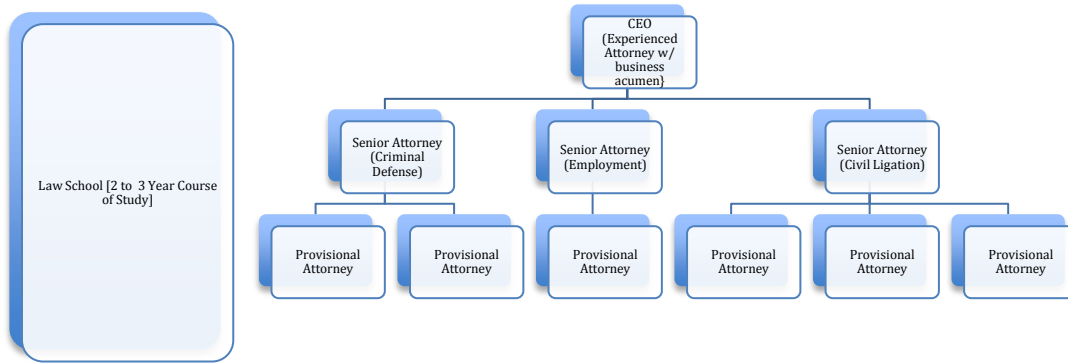
⁹⁰ Bradley T. Borden & Robert J. Rhee, *The Law School Firm*, 63 S.C. L. Rev. 1, 1 (2011).

⁹¹ *Id.* at 2.

⁹² *Id.*

⁹³ *Id.*

⁹⁴ *Id.*



The model allows for the hiring of attorneys at a level below the senior attorneys on an "as needed" basis. The authors further envision this law school law firm operating just as any private law firm, except it would be a nonprofit organization owned and controlled by its law school affiliate. However, the authors believe it should also be self-funding and generate revenue.

Law students would undertake a two-year or three-year (with the addition of electives) curriculum, extraordinarily similar to the one required today at most law schools, and then transition to the law school firm to work under contract for a fixed period of time. After a period of three to six years, it is anticipated that a law student then be prepared to begin a law practice or join a different firm. The law school firm would not be a permanent employment option for students.⁹⁵ Borden and Rhee acknowledge a number of practical barriers to implementation including potential professional responsibility implications, accreditation issues, tax problems, as well as possible opposition from members of the professional bar, which may feel imperiled by the existence of such a firm.⁹⁶

In the theoretical "law firm" model advanced by Borden and Rhee, the optimal solution for this setup would be at least one librarian on full-time or (less ideal) part-time rotational basis with the law school.⁹⁷ As the Borden-Rhee model emphasizes, autonomy of "the firm" the preference would be for a dedicated full time librarian. The law school law firm librarian would not only be available for reference assistance, but would ideally act as a repository for the firm's institutional knowledge (maintenance of a brief bank, SharePoint liaison/manger, etc.).

⁹⁵ *Id.* at 3.

⁹⁶ *Id.*

⁹⁷ Ultimately, specific logistical concerns should be resolved based upon the on-site needs and constraints of the law school firm community. Such considerations include, but are not limited to, the number of dedicated librarians needed, the physical location of volumes and any attendant collection development issues, and the need for additional support from the main law school library staff and resources.

As a continuation of first model, the second (below) visually conceptualizes the interfacing between the embedded law librarian and the firm's practice groups⁹⁸:



V. Staying on Top -- Musings on Maintaining Relevance in Changing Environments

A. *Why Law Schools Need the Services of their Law Librarians More than Ever Before*

Mastery of an area of substantive law, whether theoretical or practical, does not necessarily confer a mastery of the legal research skills to effectively explore its subject matter. Often faculty hired for their superior substantive law acumen cannot successfully provide instruction regarding legal research or bibliography. As they specialize in a legal practice field, so law librarians specialize in the knowledge of legal resources and search strategies.⁹⁹

Law schools must also meet toughening ABA accreditation standards. Periodically, the American Bar Association performs a review of its law school accreditation standards. The accreditation standards currently in effect include educational objectives directly tied to legal research skills. The first is Standard 301 (Objectives) stating, in relevant part, that “(a) [a] law school shall maintain an educational program that *prepares its students for admission to the bar, and effective and responsible participation in the legal profession...*[emphasis added].”¹⁰⁰ Incontrovertibly, effective and responsible participation in the profession is well nigh impossible without obtaining a set of fundamental legal research skills. Legal research skills are also related to Standard 302 (Curriculum)

⁹⁸ The embedded-researcher organization is popular within private law firm settings. A recent survey conducted by Ark Group, a competitive intelligence outfit, found that 26.2% of firms had such a structure in place and an additional 20.5% were considering this approach. (available at <https://docs.google.com/file/d/0B8BSC1okpVKCYm11YVlzZWISQINIWXZDM1IwVHJldw/edit?pli=1>).

⁹⁹ See e.g., The Boulder Conference Statement (available at: http://www.utexas.edu/law/faculty/pubs/bb26663_pub.pdf).

¹⁰⁰ The ABA Standards for Approval of Law Schools 2011–2012, 18.

which compels every law school to require “...that each student receive substantial instruction in:

(2) legal analysis and reasoning, *legal research, problem solving*, and oral communication;[...and]

(4) *other professional skills generally regarded as necessary for effective and responsible participation in the legal profession.*[emphasis added]”¹⁰¹

If schools wish to maintain their accreditation and ensure they are meeting the mandatory benchmarks established by the regulating body, they would be well advised to ensure they are using pervasive and intensive strategies to maximize the efficacy of legal research instruction.

B. A Few Proposals for the Integration of Academic Law Librarians into the Changing Legal Education Landscape

Historically, librarians have been too reactive and our reforms have been too disconnected from, or slow to adapt to, pedagogical shifts in legal education.¹⁰² By customizing roles and services to the unique educational philosophy of the institution, academic libraries can better serve their constituencies and enhance to effectiveness and utility of library services. Before turning to setting-specific solutions, let’s first address a general recommendation for optimizing law librarian services in the new paradigm.

Foremost, and at a bare minimum, law librarians should be familiar with their law school’s curriculum and keep abreast of any proposed reforms. Ideally, the library faculty would secure a spot on any and all of the committees or organizations tasked with making curriculum recommendations. From that informed perspective, it will be easier to advocate for innovations that best serve the law school faculty and students, particularly with respect to the library, and to fully appreciate the curricular framework into which library services must be incorporated.

Provided the human capital is available (or capable of being hired) it is advantageous for most, if not all, academic libraries to cultivate research, language, and/or subject area specialties amongst their reference librarians. A distinct trend towards the creation of these subspecialties within the field of reference services can already be seen, as evidenced from the diversity in reference law librarian titles cropping up in the American Association of Law

¹⁰¹ *Id.* at 20.

¹⁰² For an example of law libraries historical failure to adapt, in *Law School: Legal Education in America from the 1850s to the 1980s*, Robert Stevens singles out “good library facilities” as a prerequisite for effective problem-based learning and attributes the abject failure of early attempts at reforms of this type to a dearth of library resources. Stevens, *supra* n. 62, at 215.

Libraries career center.¹⁰³ The advantage of this approach is optimized in the interdisciplinary, specialization and experiential contexts.¹⁰⁴ Further, law librarians, by virtue of their intimate familiarity with non-legal resources, are uniquely positioned to enhance the effectiveness and richness of these forms of instruction.

A number of legal scholars have proffered recommendations for improving the techniques used to impart legal research skills, generally. With respect to implementation, Kaplan and Darvil set forth seven sensible suggestions for providing competent legal research education in law schools: the use of multimedia; collaborative efforts; incorporation throughout the entire course of study (i.e., all three years); teaching of cost-effective research strategies; relevance to current issues; taught by legal research experts; and offer advanced legal research courses.¹⁰⁵ Still others suggest additional strategies including: professional rebranding, assigning librarians to places in the building other than the library or having them roam the library itself, and creating an outreach program “friends of the library” style.¹⁰⁶

Employing and repurposing the foregoing approaches, and formulating a few of our own, let’s explore ways we can integrate legal research instruction in setting-specific ways within these shifting parameters:

- Use of a Collaborative “Teams” Teaching Model. Law librarians can promote increased usage of the collaborative teams teaching model. Within such a system, substantive law faculty members are partnered with legal writing professionals, practicing attorney adjuncts, and the law librarians, to convey the multiple facets inherent in competent and ethical lawyering.
- The Development of Customized Research Guides. We can also increase the amount of librarian-generated materials and resources incorporated into student’s daily life. Creating reference service materials, such as “head start” packets, which can be individualized for the student by being keyed to his or her coursework, can allow us to immediately impact educational outcomes. This would also have the collateral benefit of upping the frequency and quality of law faculty and librarian faculty interaction, which would be necessary for the effective development of those supplementary materials. This particular approach would be useful

¹⁰³ A cursory sampling of current job opening titles from the American Association of Law Librarians Career Center reveals this change in action: Law and Business Reference Librarian and Assistant Professor of Library Administration; Research and Faculty Services Librarian; Foreign & International Law Librarian.

¹⁰⁴ The University of California—Irvine has implemented this strategy in the creation of a “Research Librarian for Experiential Learning” position.

¹⁰⁵ Kaplan & Darvil, *supra* n. 38.

¹⁰⁶ Jeanette Woodward, *Creating the Customer-driven Academic Library*, 7 (2009).

for all four pedagogical trends,¹⁰⁷ would provide the student with a resource he or she could refer back to in the future, and acts as an outreach mechanism.

- Actively Seek Employment of Law Librarians as Conventional Law Faculty Members. Law librarians can encourage the employment of a law librarian in an untraditional way. For example, as the teacher of a substantive class. Increasingly, new law librarians have a law degree in addition to a masters in library science. Quite often they have substantive lawyering experience and would be qualified to teach law in their own right. Utilizing law librarians to teach a core substantive class (i.e., civil procedure) would take advantage of a natural inclination, bred of their education and experience, to ensure that topical research sources, coupled with effective and efficient search techniques, are incorporated into the course content.
- Repetitive Exposure to Research Tools within the Experiential Learning Module.¹⁰⁸ One possible way of imparting legal research skills is by repeated exposure of students to legal research tools within the clinical context. Too often the clinical model implemented by law schools consists of a single clinical professor (either part- or full-time), who is responsible for overseeing the work of a number of student attorneys. The clinical professor is typically a practitioner with actual experience in the practice area(s) of the particular clinic. These practitioners, while gifted and experienced advocates, usually have not developed an expertise in legal research and are likely to have graduated from law school before the emergence of current legal resources, perhaps even prior to the widespread use of electronic research methods. Alternatively, these professors may have extensive knowledge of the tools and resources in their specialties, but may overlook the fact that students likely do not.
- Informal Condensed Learning Sessions.¹⁰⁹ Increasing opportunities to engage in the advanced study of legal research, both formally (through ‘for credit’ coursework) and informally, would improve students’ legal research skills. Informal instruction could include brief weekly mini-sessions, of limited duration, where information about a single resource or research task could be taught.

¹⁰⁷ See body text enumerating these trends, *supra* page 13.

¹⁰⁸ See Vicenç Feliú and Helen Frazer, *Embedded Librarians: Teaching Legal Research as a Lawyering Skill*, *J. Legal Educ.*, 540 (2012).

¹⁰⁹ As of 2002, 65% of law schools offered advanced legal research courses. Ann Hemmens, *Advanced Legal Research Courses: A Survey of ABA-Accredited Law Schools*, *Law Libr. J.*, 209, 222 (2002).

- Enhanced Alumni Outreach Services. The law library can spearhead transitional post-graduate outreach programs by extending elevated levels of service to alumni, either indefinitely or for a set period of time. Such a measure could conceivably include access to bar study resources and increased access to reference services for the first few years of practice.
- Law Librarian Led Upper Level Problem-Based Skills Courses. As professional problem-solvers, law librarians are exceptionally well equipped to lead a class involving simulated legal issues. Further, their awareness of finding aids and resources would dovetail nicely with the problem-development preparation phase.

VI. A Conclusion and the Final Step – A Call for the Development of Outcome Measures

In any event, it is no longer (if it ever was) sufficient for law librarians to wait, cloistered behind a reference desk, for the law school to recognize their value. As a profession, it is essential that we figure out a means of evaluating our effectiveness and impact. The development of useful outcome measures can help us answer lingering questions we need to provide the best service possible: How are we doing? What area(s) can be improved upon? Are law students retaining the guidance we are communicating to them? Are employers of newly minted lawyers seeing results?¹¹⁰ It can also provide us with a powerful advocacy tool as we seek to expand our reach and integrate ourselves further into the fabric of our law schools.

Ultimately, the choice lies with the law librarianship community whether or not to evolve in concert with the shifting legal education paradigms or to persist in the present course. Nonetheless, being mindful of the changes in legal education, remembering past effective strategies, and the considered ‘tailoring’ of future interactions between the law library and its academic institution, can enhance learning outcomes for students and foster a vibrant intellectual atmosphere. Tethering the library’s activities to those of the larger academic community ensures the continuation of the mutually beneficial relationship between them—helping both oxpecker and African buffalo to thrive.

¹¹⁰ See e.g., Sarah Hooke Lee, *Preserving Our Heritage: Protecting Law Library Core Missions Through Updated Library Quality Assessment Standards*, 100 *Law Libr. J.* 9 (2008) (for a critique of the prevailing and inadequate “print paradigm” as the barometer for law libraries and practical proposals for new assessment measures).