You can examine any Gale book for thirty days with no obligation whatever

- Contemporary Authors—1 year subscription (2 volumes) .................................................. $25.00

- Book Review Index (Monthly) 1 year subscription. $24.00
  "Recommended for all libraries. No other indexing service offers the speed and diversity of Book Review Index."—Booklist. "Basic reference tool...belongs in all libraries."—Choice.

Bookman’s Price Index
- Volume I .................................................. $32.50
- Volume II (in press) .................................................. $32.50
  The most comprehensive, clearest price-guide of its kind—Antiquarian Bookman.

- Research Centers Directory—2nd edition .......... $35.00
  Winchell 4th Supplement 4C19; a Library Journal "Best Reference Book"; recommended by Choice.

- New Research Centers—Inter-edition subscription. $25.00
  Supplements Research Centers Directory.

- Personal Names: A Bibliography—Smith ........ $9.00
  Winchell 1st Supplement 1T9.

- Acronyms and Initialisms Dictionary—2nd ed. $15.00
  Included in Library Journal annual list of best reference books; Winchell 4th Supplement 4M2; especially recommended in Standard Catalog for Public Libraries (1959-63 supplement).

- Statistics Sources—2nd edition .................. $20.00
  A Library Journal "Best Reference Book."

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY SERIES
Reprints of biographical reference books which contain sketches of nearly 100,000 authors, primarily American and British, 1650-1900.

- Critical Dictionary of English Literature and British and American Authors—Allibone (3 volumes) .................................................. $984.00
  Winchell R279.

- Supplement to Allibone’s Critical Dictionary—Kirk (2 volumes) .................................................. $943.00
  Winchell R279.

- Bibliophile Library of Literature—Bibliophile Dictionary .................................................. $22.00
  Biographies, plus helpful synopses of classics.

- Biographical Dictionary and Synopsis of Books Ancient and Modern—Warner ........................ $17.00
  From the Warner Library, Winchell R15.

- Biographical Dictionary of the Living Authors of Great Britain and Ireland (1816) (in press) $17.00
  Even better coverage for the period than Allibone.

- Cyclopedia of American Literature—Duyckinck and Duyckinck (2 volumes) ......................... $943.00
  Winchell R193.

- Author Biography Master Index (July, 1965) .. $28.00
  Indexes in a single alphabet all the volumes in Author Biography Series, plus other publications which include authors—150,000 citations in all.

ENCYCLOPEDIA OF ASSOCIATIONS—4TH EDITION
Most highly recommended (double-starred) in Standard Catalog for Public Libraries; Winchell 4th Supplement 4C11.

- Vol. I—National Organizations of the U.S. .......... $25.00
- Vol. II—Geographic-Executive Index ............... $15.00
- Vol. III—New Associations, later-ed. sub ........ $22.50

- National Directory of Newsletters and Reporting Services ...................................... $20.00
  Unique coverage of specialized periodicals.

- The Librarian and the Machine—Warman ....... $5.75
  Reviews the problems of library automation.

- The Literature of Slang—Burke ................... $9.00
  The standard bibliography, Winchell M42.

- National Directory of Employment Services .... $25.00
  A Library Journal "Best Reference Book."

- Code Names Dictionary .......................... $15.00

- Directory of Special Libraries and Information Centers ............................................ $25.00
  In annual "Best Reference Books" list, Library Journal, "A most valuable reference for every bookman..."—Antiquarian Bookman.

MANAGEMENT INFORMATION GUIDE SERIES
Annotated subject information guides prepared by experts in each field, covering book, periodical, institutional, governmental, and other sources of data and assistance. $8.75 per volume.

- Real Estate Information Sources—Babich and Dordick
- Building Construction Information Sources—Beatty
- Public Finance Information Sources—Knox
- Textile Industry Information Sources—Kopeczinski
- The Developing Nations: A Guide to Information Sources—ReQua and Statham
- Standards and Specifications Information Sources—Sturgis
- Public Utilities Information Sources—Hunt
- Transportation Information Sources—Metcalfe
- Business Trends and Forecasting Information Sources—Way

WRITE FOR COMPLETE DESCRIPTIVE CATALOG
Gale Research Company
publishers of reference books • dictionaries • directories
BOOK TOWER DETROIT 48226
WE ARE PLEASED to publish the Cumulated Magazine Subject Index, 1907-1949. A cumulation of the 43 annual volumes of the Annual Magazine Subject Index published by The F. W. Faxon Company, it is an indispensable guide to material published in American, Canadian and English magazines during the first half of this century. All subjects are consolidated into one alphabetical sequence; entries are cumulated under each subject. The original 43 volumes are almost entirely out of print.

The aim of the index, in the words of its founder and editor, Frederick Winthrop Faxon, was “to place material unavailable elsewhere within the reach of the public, the student and the investigator.” It was originally designed to complement existing indexes such as Reader’s Guide, Poole’s Index and Annual Library Index. When it first appeared in 1907, it indexed 79 American and English periodicals. As many as 160 titles were included. By 1928, 175 titles were included.

From the beginning, Annual Magazine Subject Index provided detailed coverage of United States local and state history. It indexed all the various historical periodicals as well as the “Collections” or other serial publications of state historical societies. In addition, it gave special emphasis to art, architecture, geography, travel, exploration and mountaineering, outdoor life, forestry, education and political science.

In 1915, in response to requests from users of the index, a few titles already indexed elsewhere were included in order to complete coverage in the fields of history, art, geography and travel.

Articles are listed by subject. Each entry gives the title, author, periodical, volume, month, year and inclusive pages of the article and specifically indicates illustrations, maps and plans. Numerous cross references are included.

The estimated 253,000 entries in this index have been reproduced by offset on Permalife paper on pages measuring 10" x 14". The two volumes are bound in Class A library binding.

Published separately is the Cumulated Dramatic Index, 1909-1949, a cumulation of the 41 volumes of The F. W. Faxon Company's Dramatic Index which first appeared as Part II of the Annual Magazine Subject Index. Entries in the Dramatic Index are reproduced in two volumes, for which the price is $490.00 in the U.S. and $539.00 outside the U.S.
New Publication

GRAY HERBARIUM INDEX, Harvard University

This index, now being published in book form, contains entries devoted to name and literature citations of newly described or established vascular plants of the Western Hemisphere. All known publications of new plants from 1886 to the present are included.

Because of its large size and thorough coverage, the Gray Herbarium Index possesses an enormous fund of source information for the botanist interested in plants of the Americas. Cross-referencing has been widely practiced to provide the user with an accurate guide to different nomenclatural uses of the same name.

6 volumes

Price: $485.00

Now Available

Catalogs from THE MARINERS MUSEUM, Newport News, Virginia

Now available for immediate shipment, these catalogs reflect the holdings of the largest and one of the finest maritime history collections ever assembled. Coverage is worldwide.

Dictionary Catalog of the Library
144,000 cards, 9 volumes

Price: $575.00

Catalog of Marine Photographs
72,700 cards, 5 volumes

Price: $300.00

Catalog of Marine Prints and Paintings
48,200 cards, 3 volumes

Price: $195.00

Catalog of Maps, Ships’ Papers and Logbooks
10,600 cards, 1 volume

Price: $45.00

10% additional charge on orders outside the U.S.

Descriptive material on these titles and a complete catalog of publications are available on request.

G. K. HALL & CO. 70 Lincoln Street, Boston, Massachusetts 02111
Conflict in Libraries, by Mary Lee Bundy 253
The Stake of the Junior College in Its Library, by Edmund J. Gleazer 263
The Distance to a Star: Subject Measurement of the Library of Congress and University of Florida Collections, by Paul B. Kebabian 267
Library Systems Analyst—A Job Description, by Thomas Minder 271
Assessing the Undergraduates' Use of the University Library, by Gorham Lane 277
Teletypewriters in Libraries: A State of the Art Report, by Herbert Poole 283
The Lilly Fellowship Program at Indiana University, by Cecil K. Byrd 287
Church Historical Collections in Liberal Arts Colleges, by Lois L. Luesing 291
Selected Reference Books of 1965-1966, by Eugene P. Sheehy 304

Book Reviews
Parnassus on Main Street: A History of the Detroit Public Library, by Frank B. Woodford, John C. Abbott 318
Newspapering in the Old West; A Pictorial History of Journalism and Printing on the Frontier, by Robert F. Karolevitz, D.K. 318
Australian University Libraries: Today and Tomorrow, by Harrison Bryan, Maurice F. Tauber 320
Are your present guides robbing you of valuable catalog card space? Replace them with Space-Saver Golden Guides and get maximum use of every inch of space in your catalog drawers.

Every pressboard guide you replace gives you room for a Golden Guide plus 3 more catalog cards. In a 60 drawer unit with 15 guides to a drawer, you’ll gain space enough for 2700 additional catalog cards.

Or take advantage of this thinness to refine your guiding to speed up filing and finding. Every pressboard guide you remove leaves space for 4 Golden Guides. Even buff guides are twice as thick as Golden Guides.

And Golden Guides are tough — made of laminated Mylar®. Won’t tear, split or crack in use. Tabs won’t break off. Fingerprints and soil wipe off with a damp cloth.

Get the most of your catalog card drawer space. Write for the facts about Golden Guides — the thinnest, most durable guide made today — available only from Demco.

*DuPont Reg. T.M.

---

**Guarantee**

If any Demco Space-Saver Golden Guide tears, splits, cracks, peels, warps or shatters in normal usage, return it to Demco and it will be replaced at no cost to you.
Conflict in Libraries

Intergroup conflict in libraries is explored, including conflict between departments, between professionals and bureaucracy, and between older and newer staff members. Other special interests such as informal powerholders and the subprofessional are identified. This analysis shows that existing organizational relationships in libraries let “means” become “ends.” Strong forces toward conformity hamper desirable growth and change. A restructuring of libraries is proposed along the lines of professional rather than semiprofessional organizations. Principal changes to be made are in existing processing-service relationships and administrative-professional relationships.

The Problem

Conflict is a fact of existence. It exists whenever and wherever people come together to work. Some types of conflict encourage strong vitality and exert the right kinds of pressures to meet the objectives of an organization. Other kinds of conflict, however, work in reverse. They act to sap the energy of an organization, to subvert its goals—and can even endanger its existence.

Conflict has been given major attention in management literature, but it has been largely neglected in the literature of library administration. This article is devoted to the analysis of conflict in the library situation with particular attention focused on its undesirable aspects. While practical solutions are proposed, its chief purpose is to develop understanding of the causes and consequences of conflict in libraries.

Librarians frequently attribute conflict to “problem” staff, yet individuals can leave the library and the conflicts persist. All libraries are likely to have similar conflicts for they are often caused by common organizational forces in the library environment. Chief among them is departmentalization and hierarchial organization. Groups other than formal organizational groups also conflict with each other. Older and newer staff members typically disagree on important questions. Since conflict has organizational causes, it can—and indeed it must—be dealt with on an organizational basis.

This paper undertakes to deal with a complex and highly volatile subject because of its implications for library development. It draws upon management literature and speaks in management terms. What is truly at stake here, however, is professionalism itself. Librarianship gives major attention to the organization of its physical materials. It must give equal attention to the organization of its human resources, if the reason for material flow—service—is to be realized. This article attempts to explain why service objectives are often subordinated to other considerations.

In the ensuing discussion several organizational concepts are used. Hierarchy or bureaucratic organization refers to the pyramidal structure characterized by the “chain of command” where each person has one person to whom he reports who in turn reports to someone higher in the heirarchy. Professional or-

Miss Bundy is Associate Professor in the Library School at the University of Maryland.
ganizations are discussed and a distinction made between professional and semiprofessional organizations.

Organization, as it is used here, refers both to the formal organization and to informal aspects of organization, those outside the formal structure. One way to examine informal groupings is in terms of interest groups, that is, of people who have common goals and act together at least part of the time to achieve these goals. The informal organization also includes people who hold "power"; these are, by definition, people in the organization who decide what goes on. As will be developed, power is only partly a function of authority granted by the administrative organization. Professionalism is considered here in terms of what constitutes professional behavior in the various organizational relationships of librarians.

**TECHNICAL SERVICES VS. PUBLIC SERVICES**

Dividing into departments achieves the important advantage of specialization, but departmentalization also immediately establishes the conditions of conflict. The various departments must compete with each other for a share of limited resources. Since their work is interrelated in many ways, the success of one is partly dependent on the success of another. Each department develops its own specific goals which may conflict with those of other departments.¹

Every department in a library can conflict with every other, but the most serious and also the major divisional conflict in libraries is usually between technical services and public services. For processing units the goal becomes one of efficiency—the greatest output in least time. Of equal, if not greater, importance to them is the maintenance of their systems and procedures. These goals can and do conflict with public services’ goals to serve the user.

Since processing departments are perennially behind, the priorities they assign to processing materials influences the degree of public service possible. Few processing departments have an organized plan for processing in an order based on user needs. They may “rush” specific requests, although they often do so reluctantly. Important new statistical sources essential to reference service, for example, may be lost for days as they wend their way through processing with other less urgently needed materials.

Improving the speed of processing would alleviate this problem. But the order of processing materials is only one aspect of the conflict. In making decisions relevant to the degree and type of cataloging to be given materials, efficiency considerations and conformity to existing practices can also be in opposition to service needs. These aspects may have more long-term effects if only because it is more difficult to detect when service requirements are not being met.

One reason for processing policies and procedures not being geared to service needs is that processing units are frequently isolated from the first-hand experience with users and their needs for materials. Generally libraries have not been successful in devising organized ways to feed back to technical services information on the success of their operation. Technical services tend to let their systems and procedures become ends in themselves. Public services departments can try individually and on a departmental basis to get changes or decisions which will improve service, but—and this is the crux of the matter—they will not always be successful because technical services have an equal position in the line operations of the library. Therefore, service needs cannot automatically win.

Library goals are, under such circumstances, subordinated to a means operation in the library.

It can be disputed whether cataloging is a goal or a means toward goals, but the intellectual or professional character of the operation cannot be disputed. Within technical services departments, however organized, cataloging too must deal with pressures of physical processing activities which can be in opposition to professional standards of excellence. Certainly in the medium-sized operation catalogers are sometimes forced to give major attention to processing problems at the expense of time they would normally give to cataloging questions and problems. The professional services in libraries are, under such circumstances, and by the way work is arranged, forced to take second place to the operations which should in effect serve them.

**HIERARCHY**

Library schools, teaching in the classical administration tradition, have taught librarians the advantage of bureaucratic organization. This type of organization does achieve important advantages in locating responsibility, directing communications, and assuring coordination. But bureaucracy also has limitations inherent in it.

By its nature, advancement in hierarchical systems depends on pleasing superiors. "What the boss wants" enters into the decisions of subordinates. There is a distinct tendency for people not to communicate events or information which may reflect poorly upon them. Personal motives inevitably enter into relations with superiors. Indeed, this facet is built into the hierarchical structure which dispenses rewards as a way to win loyalty and ensure compliance. There are times, of course, when doing what the boss wants is not in the best interest of the library.

There is conflict in any bureaucracy which employs specialists. Some decisions can only be made by people with a particular expertise. Yet the specialist who has the knowledge to make the decision may not occupy the position in the hierarchy assigned for this decision. This is particularly true as organizations get more specialized. No administrator can have the knowledge required to handle all the complex technical matters which come to him because policy, change, or money is involved. Administrators may call on individuals or on groups for advice, reserving the final decision for themselves, but if they habitually follow this advice, their decision-making power in effect is going into the hands of the specialist.

One reason heads of organizations resist this is that the specialist sometimes makes his decisions on a different basis from that used by the administrator. He uses technical criteria and may or may not have the immediate organizational objectives in mind in making his decisions. This conflict may be seen operating with scientists employed in government and industry.

Many library administrators think they allow for full exploration of a topic by professional staff, but the impact of status is nevertheless present. This may be observed in a library staff meeting. Junior members hesitate to express their opinions frankly in the presence of their department heads. However much administrators like to think their meetings are democratic, the decision-making actually rests on how supervisors feel and not upon the consensus of the professional staff.

Because of these limitations, professional organizations take over certain areas of decision-making. A professional

---

3 For one presentation of this conflict see: V. A. Thompson, "Hierarchy, Specialization and Organizational Conflict," Administrative Science Quarterly, V (March 1961), 485-521.
organization is one in which what the majority of the professionals do is the major goal of the organization. In these organizations, typically, the professional group through full group participation and through their representation on committees takes over the decisions relating to the goals of the organization. The administration concerns itself with means decisions and activities (those involving economy and efficiency and auxiliary services not central to the enterprise, such as business affairs). An administrative hierarchy still exists, but there is actually a sharing of power between the professional group and the administration. It is important that this division of authority be achieved. Since professional organizations are non-profit in nature, there is no test of success in the competitive market place. Their activities are difficult to measure. Control groups naturally seek to keep costs down. Since need cannot be proved, it is important to have a professional group insisting on standards as a counterpressure to pressures for economy.

Library administrators, coming from the ranks of the professional, should also be expected to fight for standards, and they do. But they are directly susceptible to external pressures. Their job depends on getting along with control groups. They need a strong counterforce from the professionals. Too, the administrator is fundamentally loyal first to the administration for whom he works. The professional’s major commitment is to his clientele and to his internalized set of professional standards and ethics.

Most libraries probably fall into the classification of semiprofessional organizations. A semiprofessional organization is characterized by the fact that its professional group has not achieved control in matters relating to goals and standards. Means or economic considerations characteristically dominate goals considerations. Ways and means become ends in themselves. Substantive questions having to do with the intellectual side of the enterprise are either ignored or downgraded by leaving them to staff down the line who do not have the authority to make decisions and carry them out. Consider again the library staff meetings in which ways and means and routine matters dominate discussions. Few academic library staffs engage in defining service goals and in working out plans to achieve them.

Hierarchy and change. Another aspect of hierarchy which acts against professional goals has been implied. People in hierarchies tend to act to protect their position or status. When a change is proposed they examine and act on it in terms of how it will affect their status. This means that new ideas and proposals do not get the free and critical appraisal they require. Rather, people in hierarchies tend to be strongly committed to the status quo. Innovation frequently can be made only after long struggle or not at all. The absence of conflict in the face of social conditions requiring internal change becomes dangerous. Professionals can also resist change for the same reasons or because they fear they cannot perform in new ways. Management can be also effectively stymied by a staff unreceptive to change.

Why do librarians not demand greater voice in library affairs? One reason is that they have not diagnosed the problem in these terms. Another is that librarians are more “employee” than “professionally” oriented, feeling their obligation is to “go along.” They have no strong commitment to their clientele or to stan-

---

3 Presthus deals with this aspect in a more general social context. Organizations tend to stress conformity rather than difference. In the face of social and technological pressures for change they frequently respond with inflexibility. Yet, survival depends on critical inquiry into patterns of organization, thought, and behavior. With critical inquiry, the quality of decision is sharpened. Without it, decision-making rests dangerously on tradition and on status. R. Presthus, The Organizational Society (New York: Knopf, 1962), p. 287-94.
standards. These obligations are normally the basic loyalty of a professional group and constitute the reason the professional, either individually or in groups, takes action and assumes power over certain types of organizational decisions. If the professional person in a professional organization does not see the need and assume these responsibilities, all other arguments for his professional status become academic.

SPECIAL INTERESTS

There are other special interest groups in the library which are in conflict with the formal administration or with other groups in the library. One of these groups is the "old community."

The old community. The old community consists of people who have been on the library staff many years. They may have long-standing differences with each other, but they are held together on important issues by a common commitment to the status quo. There are many good reasons for this. To a new person change is an opportunity to show his worth. An older staff member may feel that change casts a bad reflection on him, that advocacy of change shows a lack of appreciation for the accomplishments of the past. The newcomer brings outside experience and a fresh viewpoint to a situation. The older staff member is more likely to be settled in his notions. Past disappointments may have caused him to lower the level of his aspirations. The older staff member in most libraries is likely to be conservative in his outlook, to see the library as a passive rather than an active service. He simply will not see the need for, nor the appropriateness of, certain kinds of innovations.

Conflict between older and newer staff members in libraries is common and has varying consequences, depending on a number of factors, but if the majority of the staff are older members it is likely that they will successfully resist efforts of newer staff. All change is not necessarily good and all new staff members are not change agents, but change is normally introduced through new staff, often they are hired for this specific purpose. Administrative approval, however, cannot wholly gainsay the conservative and uncooperative attitude of a staff. It can form an effective force against desirable change in libraries.

Informal power. All power, of course, is not in the formal organization. There are people whose position does not account for the amount of influence they have in library matters. People can hold power for several reasons. Some people get power simply because they have been around a long time. Much of what goes on in organizations is not written down. People who hold information about the organization's business wield power in the way they provide or withhold it. Another type of power enjoyed in libraries is that of the group which has the special confidence of the head librarian. These are the people upon whom he relies and to whom he turns for advice. The "in-group" need not be those who report immediately to him. It is more likely to be the people with whom he habitually shares his lunch or breaktime. Libraries also have natural leaders, people who have won the respect and confidence of the staff. Since they speak for the staff, management must take their point of view into account in decision making.

It is not necessary to attempt to probe further into the complex topic of power relations in organizations, but it should be emphasized that individuals and
groups outside the official hierarchy do have power. One result of having power is to seek to hold it. As many new librarians have discovered, what looks like getting a new and minor change actually turns into a power struggle with the “in-group” or with individuals with power who resist the change. Making many library changes depends on whether those furthering them can secure a position of influence or power in the library. It should also be noted that department heads can and do resist efforts for change from upper level administration. A head librarian can be blocked by his subordinates who subtly or directly resist his authority.

This discussion of special interests in libraries would not be complete without including two other groups in libraries which cross formal departmental lines. Neither is relatively powerful; both are likely to be dissatisfied.

The subprofessional. Subprofessional levels were established in libraries for the worthy purpose of relieving professional staff of routine, nonprofessional work. But this class system, nevertheless, creates conflict. No matter how well the subprofessional performs, he can never join the ranks of the professional—and far better paid—class. Further, in many libraries the distinction between what the two groups do is highly arbitrary. A subprofessional can carry a position of nearly equal responsibility at half the pay, as he sees it, only because he has not been to library school. Some professionals achieve much of their professionalism by looking down on the nonprofessional. Under these conditions, whether or not it is openly expressed, the subprofessional is likely to feel considerable resentment. A democratic staff association alleviates but does not solve the problem.

Junior staff. The junior professional staff member has two strikes against him; he is probably relatively new and he has no organizational status. Further, he is probably kept doing subprofessional work for an excessively long period of time. He is likely to be similarly restricted in his outside professional activities, for library associations are also slow to accept newcomers and are influenced by status in making committee appointments at any very high level. Librarians have been acutely conscious of their lack of status, particularly in the academic community. Yet librarians themselves give their junior entrants into the profession something far less than the colleague relationship they deserve.

**OTHER ASPECTS**

The individual and the organization. Actually, any individual has a struggle with the organization in which he works. In going to work, he must give up a certain amount of independence. Organizations naturally seek to take as much of his time as possible. He has other group memberships besides the library and is therefore pulled between the various groups for which he has a loyalty and which have a claim on his time and effort.

Some jobs get so monotonous, so deprived of opportunity to use imagination or initiative, that they impair the human beings’ growth forces. In the interest of efficiency libraries have reduced some people to doing jobs which are overwhelmingly monotonous and fatiguing. This is not only true for stack readers. Many professional jobs in libraries, in the interest of “mass production,” approach this level. It is important to treat any human being as an individual and to provide him with opportunities for growth, but for librarians to be stymied in this fashion is the antithesis of professionalism.

---

6 Argyris contends there are basic incongruencies between the growth trends of a healthy personality and the requirements of the formal organization. Frustration, conflict, failure, and short term perspective are the resultants. C. Argyris, *Personality and Organization* (New York: Harper, 1957).
Excessive authoritarianism. Under excessive authoritarianism all the weaknesses of bureaucracy are magnified. Orders, threats, and criticisms characterize communications with staff. People are treated like cogs in a machine. Basic feelings and rights of employees are disregarded. This is a sorry state for any library and whatever the outward appearance, fear, interpersonal hostility, and resentment are present. People are forced to act simply to protect themselves. They cannot act freely in the best interest of the library. Indeed, they would be criticized if they did, for compliance and conformity are the essential demands of this type of administration.\(^6\)

The external environment. The impact of pressures from control and support groups to keep costs down has already been noted. The external environment affects the internal library situation in other ways as well. Organizations which occupy positions of low regard and status in their community, which is sometimes true of libraries, can be expected to be less receptive to new ideas, to be less likely to welcome and explore innovations. Being treated like semiprofessionals by their community reinforces their own semiprofessional behavior.

What a professional organization hopes from its community is that it will provide challenges and give it support and encouragement. When the opposite is true, the attitude of the community will complement and give support to the more conservative elements inside. Under such circumstances these conservative elements may be quite accurately reflecting what the community wants in the way of service and expects from its librarians.

The external environment of any library contains some elements which are sympathetic and concerned with library development. In the academic community, faculty committees can be expected to concern themselves with and support service improvements. These groups are not equally effective and often represent special interests. They can become critical of the way the library operates.

Any organization should arrange to be influenced by its environment in the form of planned-for data about the community and about its effectiveness and satisfaction with its services. Yet most libraries have little more than a highly impressionistic, individual, and probably distorted idea of how satisfied their community is with their services. This failure adequately to take the community into account in internal decision-making defeats service objectives and can be politically dangerous. As has been indicated, the failure of librarians to build strong professional-clientele relationships and give first loyalty to that clientele is a major reason for their not being pressed sufficiently for service improvements.

An examination of internal conflict in libraries therefore identifies the groups and interests whose attitudes and activities decide whether or not a library gives good service. Processing-service relationships and administrative-professional relationships, as they now exist in many libraries, let “means” become “ends.” In the absence of a strong professional voice, economy considerations lower service standards. Intellectual aspects are downgraded. Formal and informal organizational elements conspire to defeat proposals for change and growth. The basis for much decision-making in libraries is personal or is power motivated, in opposition to the best interest of the library. This is not the organizational setting for maintaining a high level of professional service. It can perhaps only be changed signifi-

\(^6\) In a “before and after” study, Guest explores staff feelings and attitudes under an authoritarian regime. R. H. Guest, Organizational Change: The Effect of Successful Leadership (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1962).
significantly by changing the ways of organizing work into divisions and by changing the way power is distributed in libraries.

**Solutions**

One organizational structure that might contribute to the accomplishment of these changes is modeled after and closely parallels that of institutions of higher education. Libraries could be restructured to group professional activities together and then organizationally designate them as the central activity of the organization. This could be done by assigning other activities to a staff or service relationship to them, as shown in Figure 1.

Within the subject divisions, the professional activities of selection, indexing (cataloging), reference, and readers advisory service would be performed. As a library grows, these divisions would have one head occupying much the same position as an academic vice president holds in a university. Under these broad subject divisions, various subunits or further specialization of effort could develop. Units might be further subdivided by subject—chemistry, etc. (Departmental libraries would fall within the jurisdiction of the appropriate division.) Or, some staff might spend full time on indexing materials; others operate primarily in readers service. Departments would be run on the relatively democratic basis of teaching departments in a university where, regardless of rank, every faculty member has an equal voice and an equal vote.  

A second informal framework should also be established. Permanent professional committees crossing departments, such as indexing committees and selection committees, would function. These committees would concern themselves with common problems and with areas where common policies are desirable. The decisions made by these groups would be more or less binding on the organization. Professional staff would also be represented by advisory committees to the head librarian to advise from the professional point of view on such aspects as personnel policies. Similarly,

---

auxiliary units would have professional advisory committees concerned with service implications of their various activities. The auxiliary units would bear to the central departments the same relationship as business offices do to academic teaching departments.

The auxiliary units, as libraries grow larger, could encompass a variety of specialties such as data processing personnel. Competent nonprofessionals could find here a career advancement ladder, for the upper positions in auxiliary services would carry high salaries commensurate with responsibility for important, complex, but not professional services.

These changes could not be "paper" changes only. They would have to involve an actual relinquishing of authority by administrators and an acceptance of responsibility on the part of professional staff. Further, they would mean a major redirection of professional effort away from the routines of library operation. Administrators would lose a measure of control but in the process would achieve their ultimate goals. The quality of administrative leadership would be a critical factor in whether or not libraries succeeded in becoming first-class professional organizations.

New relationships among groups would have to be worked out. Libraries would have to find new ways to resolve conflict between divergent points of view under this more democratic form of administration. Building the relationship of auxiliary services with professional services would be a major task. The respective decision-making prerogatives of administrators and professional staff can only be partially distinguished. Their interrelationship in achieving goals is critical and would involve continued negotiations and compromise. Service standards would have to bend—but not bow—to economic realities. Systems and procedures would be modified in terms of user needs, but they would not be abandoned before user demands on the system.

In such a structure as is here described there would be more conflict in the sense of questioning, intensive scrutiny, and the consideration of a wider range of alternative courses of action. Where a library staff is largely conservative, however, this viewpoint can still prevail. Informal power will still exist, although the basis for it may change somewhat. Certainly, staff who have the respect and trust of their colleagues will formally and informally have much to say about what goes on.

What would be accomplished is that powerful growth forces would be released to offset the restrictive forces described earlier. We would have made clear to ourselves and eventually to our users what constitutes the nature of the library enterprise. Libraries would be expected to refocus their endeavor on their service character. Staff time would have been released to serve clientele. By limiting the range of subject areas with which they dealt, professionals could develop the competency to conduct clientele relationships at a truly professional level.

On a group basis, professional staff could concern itself with, and engage in, defining purposes and developing programs to achieve these purposes. Out of discussion and deliberation should come a commitment on the part of all members to make them work. These goals would also form the basis for resolving conflict in the best interest of the library. A climate for decision-making could grow which values critical inquiry more highly than present structures. Individual ambition could be better harnessed to the improvement of the library. With these orientations, libraries might be expected to realize a potential of service and of support for that service far beyond any that has been previously known.

Certainly many libraries have made
advances in these directions. Many already divide by some subject arrangement, although the majority still keep technical services in the line operation, and cataloging functions within this unit. Many public libraries have largely resolved this aspect of the problem by removing their processing from the immediate library to a central processing center. Many libraries, particularly medium-sized libraries, enjoy a high degree of democracy in working out their affairs, but most have been attempting to cope with organizational forces which inhibited and hampered them. The central issue is not democracy versus bureaucracy; it is whether or not librarians are prepared to assume responsibilities and arrange their organizational life to permit the performance of a service which can be labeled professional.

What is the alternative? In all but backwash situations, libraries of every size are going to be pressed for increased service. Under the conditions described earlier, libraries will respond with rigidity. This will intensify the criticism of control and clientele groups and create internal working conditions even less tolerable than those now existing. Eventually, the entire library enterprise could be placed in jeopardy. In the face of present and future demands on libraries, a fundamental reassessment and realignment of existing organizational relationships in libraries would appear imperative.
The Stake of the Junior College in Its Library

As in any other institution, a library in a junior college must be determined by the function of its parent organization. Junior colleges have characteristics distinct from those of the four-year college or university. Some of these unique characteristics are discussed, and their meaning to the library is recognized. Recent developments are outlined in intercommunication between junior colleges and their libraries which will improve their articulation.

A junior college is a place for learning. Learning in the college setting is facilitated by communication among people. Some of the communication is among people who are there in the sense of their physical presence. Among these are students, teachers, and administrators. They ask questions, respond to inquiry, smile, frown, admonish, encourage, criticize. This kind of communication with people in a person-to-person sense represents only a very small fraction of the “meeting of minds” which is basic to college-level learning. Most communication is with people who are not there in person. They are far removed in space and time. Communication with them is established through various symbolic languages which we have learned to use and conserve.

On the printed page—in words, a mathematical equation, a diagram, or a chemical formula, or in a wood carving, a tapestry, an oil painting, or a photograph—are registrations of man’s aspirations, perceptions, and accomplishments. Great ideas, some painfully derived, others caught in a flash of insight, have form and meaning through the many languages man has developed. That learning is effective which takes into account the experiences of others. The museums and libraries of our time make available the experiences of those who have sought truth in the laboratories, defended their concept of freedom in newspapers and in the trenches, sailed ships toward the edge of the world in seas reputed to be the home of monsters, built bridges, flown planes, explored space. These have left their record for others to use, and they invite those who come after them to join in their experiments, share in their disappointments, their fears, and the exhilaration of their discovery. Libraries and museums are often seen as sleepy, dusty, innocuous depositories of miscellaneous artifacts, until someone discovers what the past is really saying.

Richard Llewellyn, in his book How Green Was My Valley, describes the force with which the page can speak. In the words of Huw Morgan, “Never will I forget the night my father read out of the great man’s Letter to the Earl of Chesterfield (Dr. Johnson).

Mr. Gleazer is Executive Director, American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C.

“We sat still when he put down the book, and the room was still, as though in fear, and the very air seemed filled again with the stinging silence there might have been in that house off Fleet Street, on the night when a quill scratched, and eyes looked down at the writing with that calmness and distant cold that comes of prodigious fury long pent and gone to freeze in a dark corner of the mind, yet always kept alive by prodding memory in the volatile spirits of dignity, and now loosed as from the topmost heights of Olympus, each word laden fireboat, each sentence a joy of draft, the whole a glory of art, this mere rebuke of a lordling, written by the hand that through long, hungry years, had wielded its golden sickle in the chartless wilderness of words.

“. . . So with Dr. Johnson, and John Stuart Mill, and Spencer, and William Shakespeare, and Chaucer, and Milton, and John Bunyan, and others of that royal company of bards, thanks to my father and Mr. Gruffydd, I was acquainted more than plenty of other boys, and thus had a lasting benefit in school.”

But everything cannot be gathered together in every institution of learning. There is only one British Museum, only one Smithsonian Institution, only one Library of Congress. Each place of learning defines the resources essential to its purposes, just as it decides the kinds of teachers, and curricula, and students, and facilities, appropriate. It decides in terms of its purposes—what it seeks to do. What does the community junior college do as a place of learning?

THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE IS INVOLVED IN THE PROCESS OF SOCIAL MOBILITY

Regardless of whether they come from a blue-collar or white-collar home—from the upper-upper or lower-lower classes, and some will come from both—those entering America's junior colleges, college-age or older (and who can any longer define “college-age”), are often ambitious toward ends but uncertain of the means by which desirable but vague objectives can be achieved. They will want to sample fields of knowledge—try themselves out, have the privilege of striking out but with another time at bat. Most of them have not packed their trunks to come to this kind of college. They pack their lunch. They work part-time, not so often on the college campus as in stores, plants, service stations, and on the farms of the areas in which they live. They do not return to college residence halls when they have time between classes. They go home, or to the parking lot, or to a job in the community. And at night, they return to the residence in which they lived during their high school days—to the same family they have known through the years—to the same systems of relationships with church, family, other families, and other community institutions.

Many of these students are first generation college-goers. There will be dramatic expansion of these institutions in the major urban areas of this country. The traditions of the home may not be toward an understanding and appreciation of the cultural heritage. Yet there will be minds ready for response if contact can be made.

Large numbers of America’s community college students in the decade before us will have neither study space nor materials in their homes. The concepts of Kant, Plato, Jefferson, Michelangelo, Jesus, and Camus are strangers to them. Hosts of thoughtful and provocative minds await introduction to these junior college enrollees. What will be the reaction of these students? Will they be overcome by self-consciousness? Will these unmet but potential colleagues, conveyors of our culture, invite them, persuade them, excite them, or be surrounded by such formality, circumspection, and quiet awe, that academic neophytes will be rebuffed and repelled?
THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE IS AN
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCE CENTER
FOR THE COMMUNITY

People come to learn for many reasons—some have encountered a problem or an opportunity. Others are questioning or frustrated. Regardless of their age or station in life they may come to the community college. It is a continuing educational resource center. Community colleges may very well come to be major coordinating agencies for continuing education. The college will not be considered so much as a preparatory institution as it will an accessible and available agency to be drawn upon as people have need—people who will come and go and come again.

This kind of college faces the community. Its systems are spliced with those of the community which become its context for learning. It has close relationships with the community orchestra and the art museum and the university extension services. It trains policemen and firemen and technicians for urban renewal. In its halls will be seen enrollees in the job corps and federal retraining programs, persons seeking occupational counseling.

The great issues of each new era are debated in its classrooms and public meeting rooms—Viet-Nam and whatever comes next; the rights and responsibilities of people in the academic community; problems of overpopulation or simply the issue of birth control; how to deal with de facto segregation; and a host of other issues that an alert and responsible citizenry must discuss and analyze—a citizenry that must be informed if discussion is to be more than wallowing in a sea of opinion and prejudgments.

How can the experience of others—for these are not problems totally new and unique to our times—how can the reflections of great minds through the centuries be made available to such a variety of people with such a variety of needs?

THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE IS A
DYNAMIC INSTITUTION

Many forces produce and shape the community college. The aspirations of people for the benefits of education can lead to its establishment. The economic resources of the community engage in continuing mediation with aspirations in determination of the institution's programs and services. Characteristically, the necessity for rapid expansion is an almost inexorable force. At one time, the term junior college was almost synonymous with the term small college. No longer is this true. Not only do pressures for enrollment demand greater capacity but the span of programs required in an "open-door" college, the wealth of resources needed to meet effectively the varied needs of a broad range of students, mean that tomorrow's community college will enroll thousands of students. Some areas will develop several units or campuses in order to distribute educational opportunity more evenly throughout the service area of the institution.

Not only will the community college grow rapidly, but also its very claim to sensitivity and responsiveness to technological, social, and economic shifts in its environment suggest a hospitable attitude toward change. Growth and change are important factors to take into account in any plans for community colleges.

IDENTITY OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

This kind of institution has been called a new social invention. It has come into being and evolved in response to societal needs. If not different in kind from other institutions, it is sufficiently different in degree to be recognized as an institution with an identity of its own. Leading architects have recognized this identity and are designing community college
facilities derived from perception of the distinctive objectives, functions, and hence structures, of this kind of college.

Administrators for community colleges are prepared for community college careers in the Junior College Leadership Program. Similar efforts are under way in the preparation of junior college teachers. If we follow the same lines of logic which have resulted in facility planning for community colleges and preparations of professional personnel for service in community colleges, is it not appropriate to propose that community colleges must have libraries suitable to their singular objectives and functions? It is not enough to borrow the patterns and forms and procedures which may have worked well for other kinds of educational institutions with other assignments and missions. It may be a dangerous fallacy to assume that these will fit the role of the community college. They may or they may not. What is needed is an honest analytical examination of the kinds of library services required to give expression to the community college concept here described.

WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE

Of all aspects of junior college development, less attention has been given to the junior college library than to any other part of the instructional program. The American Association of Junior Colleges has cooperated in the preparation of book lists and reacted a few years ago to a statement of Standards for Junior Colleges but there had been an absence of constructive, affirmative effort in this important field until just a little over a year ago. At that time, the Council on Library Resources and the Association sponsored a conference on strengthening library services in junior college education.

That historic meeting grew out of the evident need for an informal exchange of ideas relating to problems before junior college administrators and librarians.

Views and recommendations were sought from a select group of presidents, deans, professors, and university and junior college librarians as to the need for and the possible conduct of a proposed year’s study of the junior college library. The study would result in “a report which would attempt to identify the role which library services have and potentially can have for junior college education and to provide guidance to junior college administrators for the establishment and operation of libraries in their institutions.”

The conference was judged to be highly successful in its frank exchange of views and identification of needs. Unfortunately, the study proposal which developed out of the meeting still awaits funding. In the meantime, the need for such a study has not diminished.

Another important step was taken May 26-28, 1965, when board-level representatives from the American Library Association and the American Association of Junior Colleges met with other interested personnel to discuss junior college library needs. Among the needs agreed to were these:

1. a national conference of junior college administrators and librarians with emphasis upon the changing role of the library on the junior college campus and the emergence of the library as a more closely related instrument in the instructional program;
2. establishment of an organized program for recruitment and preparation of junior college library personnel;
3. lists of materials appropriate to junior college libraries, including those supportive to vocational-technical programs;
4. guidelines to encourage and support effective library services both for new and existing institutions;
5. consultant services;
6. help for facility planning;
7. establishment of a demonstration junior college library.

(Continued on page 317)
The Distance to a Star: Subject Measurement of the Library of Congress and University of Florida Collections

A study was undertaken at the University of Florida libraries to compare holdings with those of the Library of Congress. It was concerned with relative proportions in various subject categories corresponding to areas of purchasing at Florida. Its object was the provision of data so that the book-fund allocation formula might be weighted to favor funds from which substantial retrospective purchasing was desirable. Sampling and shelflist measurement provided the major sources. As a byproduct, the study provided a basis for comparing holdings of the two libraries which revealed an extremely high correlation in subject content, distributed in twenty-eight subject fields.

It might seem unlikely that any one university library would seek to compare its holdings with those of the Library of Congress in terms of the distribution of subject matter in the collections of the two institutions. The university library could assume, with good reason, that its collections had been developed to fulfill requirements for books appropriate to the courses offered and to the research needs of its academic community over a period of years; that emphases in the curricula would have varied over the years and the scope of the collections would accordingly reflect these emphases by either selectivity or comprehensiveness in certain subjects; that because of quite differing aims there would be no reasons for assuming that the collections of the university library and those of the Library of Congress would be subject comparable; and that as a consequence of these assumptions one might postulate that there could be little gain in making such comparisons.

Relative proportions of the Library of Congress and the University of Florida libraries holdings have nonetheless been measured by the latter institution on at least three occasions, of which the earliest was in 1949, for the purpose of de-
veloping a “depth-of-field” factor. This factor is one of several in a formula used in budgeting that portion of the library funds distributed to colleges and departments of the university for the purchase of books and periodicals, and for binding. What follows is in no sense concerned with the pros and cons of “allocation” as a method of distributing book funds; its object is rather to report some part of the findings of a specific investigation.

Depth of field, as a formula factor, was conceived as a method of taking into account, in the distribution of funds, the whole of publishing history and where the Florida library stood in its collecting in relation to numbers of books printed since 1450 in a broad range of subject areas. Stating the need in another way, the University of Florida libraries constitute a relatively young collection, with holdings of about 525,000 volumes as recently as 1953. It was argued that in terms of all published books and the need for acquisitions in those disciplines with a longer printing history, more funds should be expended to achieve the retrospective collections needed, for example, in history, language, and literature than to provide for retrospective purchases in newer subject areas with a significantly shorter and less voluminous printing history, such as the sciences.

Given the object, then, of measuring publishing over a most broad spectrum of subjects, it was decided that the printed catalogs of the Library of Congress represented the one best and readily available source for such measurement. In preparation of the 1949/50 allocation formula, two thousand titles were sampled in A Catalog of Books Represented by Library of Congress Printed Cards (cards issued from August 1898 through July 1942). The technique in sampling and recording of information about the titles searched was substantially the same as that followed some five years later when a more extensive study was made.

In the spring of 1954, under the direction of Vivian Prince, then head of the technical processes department, a sampling was again made of A Catalog of Books Represented by Library of Congress Printed Cards, and the first Supplement (cards issued from August 1942 through December 1947). In this sampling, over seven thousand titles were checked in the 209 volumes and distributed among some one hundred and seventy discrete categories according to Dewey Decimal Classification. The titles were then searched in the union card catalog of the university libraries, and for each title a record made of whether or not it was represented.

In reporting the findings to Stanley L. West, director of libraries, Miss Prince took note of the fact that the printed catalogs which had been systematically sampled did not in fact represent the collections of the Library of Congress, but only that part of the collections for which catalog cards had been printed; that the Bible, government documents, English and American fiction, and American trade books acquired by copyright deposit were some of the areas in which the LC catalog was heavily weighted while other fields, for example foreign languages and literatures, were not well represented; and that there was no necessary relationship between the subject balance of the Library of Congress collections and those of a modern university library. But because the LC catalogs did offer an approach to the totality of printed books, the findings of this sampling were utilized in the preparation of a depth-of-field factor in the book allocations prepared for the fiscal biennium 1955-57 and were taken into account in the distribution of funds in the next four biennia.

Early in 1965 a subcommittee of the Committee on University Libraries was charged with the preparation of a new
schedule for the allocation of college and departmental library funds. (The funds so allocated ultimately represented in the 1965-66 budget 55 per cent of the total, while funds for "library general" were 45 per cent.) Again, the subcommittee agreed that depth of field should be incorporated as an element of the allocation formula. It was decided that the 1954 sampling should be brought up to date by adding an additional sampling which would enlarge the universe and perhaps confirm the earlier findings. The new sampling base used was *The Library of Congress Author Catalog, 1948-52,* and *The National Union Catalog, a Cumulative Author List, 1953-1957.*

With the advice of Willard O. Ash, professor of statistics, a new and substantially different application of the sampling was developed. Rather than working up data based on what specific titles the libraries had acquired of those LC titles sampled, as had been done in the 1954 analysis, a measurement of the distance between the University of Florida holdings and the Library of Congress holdings was sought.

From the 1954 sample, the 7,027 titles were assigned to twenty-eight categories corresponding to departmental and college acquisition funds. The sample was reduced to 6,195 in this process because not all titles could be so assigned. From the 1965 sampling of *The Library of Congress Author Catalog* and *The Na-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library Allocation Designation</th>
<th>Per Cent LC Book Catalogs to Dec. 1947</th>
<th>Per cent LC Author Catalog and NUC 1948-57</th>
<th>Per Cent All LC Catalogs to 1957</th>
<th>Per Cent University of Florida Holdings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>5.762</td>
<td>4.463</td>
<td>5.367</td>
<td>6.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>.823</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>.864</td>
<td>.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architecture</td>
<td>1.194</td>
<td>1.180</td>
<td>1.190</td>
<td>2.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>2.485</td>
<td>2.950</td>
<td>2.627</td>
<td>1.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Astronomy</td>
<td>.387</td>
<td>.479</td>
<td>.415</td>
<td>.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>2.292</td>
<td>2.434</td>
<td>2.335</td>
<td>2.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>1.662</td>
<td>2.065</td>
<td>1.785</td>
<td>1.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>3.179</td>
<td>3.909</td>
<td>3.402</td>
<td>8.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>4.552</td>
<td>7.783</td>
<td>5.535</td>
<td>5.980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>12.832</td>
<td>8.690</td>
<td>11.015</td>
<td>9.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Languages</td>
<td>9.120</td>
<td>11.619</td>
<td>9.880</td>
<td>9.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>.848</td>
<td>.595</td>
<td>.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>2.760</td>
<td>4.426</td>
<td>3.267</td>
<td>2.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geology</td>
<td>1.937</td>
<td>1.327</td>
<td>1.751</td>
<td>1.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>11.977</td>
<td>11.287</td>
<td>11.767</td>
<td>11.684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism &amp; Comm.</td>
<td>.694</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>1.065</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>.909</td>
<td>1.556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meteorology</td>
<td>.790</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>.628</td>
<td>.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>2.502</td>
<td>2.369</td>
<td>2.439</td>
<td>1.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy</td>
<td>1.372</td>
<td>1.143</td>
<td>1.302</td>
<td>1.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>1.775</td>
<td>1.291</td>
<td>1.628</td>
<td>1.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>1.143</td>
<td>.943</td>
<td>1.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Science</td>
<td>9.410</td>
<td>7.709</td>
<td>8.892</td>
<td>6.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>1.210</td>
<td>1.327</td>
<td>1.246</td>
<td>1.386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>5.940</td>
<td>5.864</td>
<td>5.917</td>
<td>2.928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>3.341</td>
<td>4.241</td>
<td>3.615</td>
<td>3.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Sampled</td>
<td>6,195</td>
<td>2,711</td>
<td>8,906</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
tional Union Catalog covering the period 1948 through 1957, 2,711 of 2,898 items were similarly assigned to the departmental designations, providing a total sample of 8,906.

It is not relevant to this report to explain the development and the application of the measurement of distance, and the ultimate resultant depth-of-field factor, since as used in the formula the interdisciplinary purchasing patterns of departments and colleges were also taken into account. What is significant, however, is the comparison of the University of Florida holdings, derived from a shelflist measurement, distributed among the twenty-eight departmental and college funds, and the sampling of the Library of Congress book catalog entries distributed in a like manner.

Referring to Table 1, the similarity of the percentages in the Library of Congress collections up to 1947 with those of the period 1948-1957 (columns 2 and 3) is striking, and the sample studies tend to reinforce and validate each other. Where there are differences of some degree, they are in most instances predictable: sciences such as biology, chemistry, engineering, and physics show gains in the 1948-1957 period, while the relative proportions of titles in English, history, and political science have decreased.

What is more unexpected is the surprisingly high correlation, shown in columns 4 and 5 of the table, between the individual Library of Congress percentages and the corresponding percentages of holdings of the University of Florida libraries. The instances wherein the Florida holdings show any appreciable variation on the plus side are, in three of four cases, those book fund areas represented on the campus by well established colleges of agriculture, business administration, and education. Two of these colleges have separate libraries. But in twenty instances the differences in the proportions of LC and Florida holdings are fractional. In no case is the variation in the percentages greater than 5 per cent.

A comparative study of the subject relationship of the collections of the two institutions as of 1954 and 1965 has not been made since the necessary data were not available. But, that depth of field did become a factor in the book fund allocation process at Florida during the intervening years may partially explain why the proportions of the collections have become as close as they are.

On the evidence of the figures in columns 4 and 5, it appears that these two libraries, one of about one million one hundred thousand volumes and the other of several millions, differing in overall patterns of development, in clientele served, in the span of time during which the collections were gathered, and in the comprehensiveness or completeness of their collections have nevertheless acquired total holdings which are significantly equal in the proportions each of the subject areas reported bears to the whole of their individual collections.
THOMAS MINDER  

Library Systems Analyst—
A Job Description

With the increased use of system analysis techniques in libraries, the time has come to consider the extent of systems analysis in librarianship and the duties of the analyst. This is a discussion of the job description, prerequisites, and functions of a library's principal analyst.

Systems analysis has become an important part of librarianship. Courses are being offered in schools. Librarians want to add analysts to their staff, and the term frequently appears in library research and development literature.

There can be little doubt concerning the reasons for interest. The continuing pressure to introduce automation, especially electronic data processing, into the profession has caused librarians to look to the computer field for techniques. At the same time, there is an increasing awareness of the weaknesses in the traditional methods of library evaluation, design, and operation. Finally, operating costs within libraries are increasing to such an extent that libraries are being forced to look for improved methods of cost analysis for justification of budget requests.

Despite the common use of the phrase “systems analysis,” very little has been written in library literature concerning it, its nature, the qualifications of the analyst, and the relationship of these two to librarianship. The following is intended partially to satisfy a need for a better understanding of systems analysis within the library profession. It is also a suggested working paper for those involved in establishing professional standards. Although the presentation is in the form of personnel qualifications, it is done within the context of the nature of systems analysis and the relationship to librarianship.

Job Description

A library systems analyst can be described as a staff person with the responsibility of applying the principles of scientific management to the library environment.

The restriction of an analyst to a staff position is significant for four reasons. The analyst has no direct relationship to the routine operations of the library. He stands apart and, it is hoped, observes these operations with an unbiased eye. He also makes these observations from at least two points of view. At the minutiae level, he may be expected to do time and cost studies of an operation in the smallest details. At the same time, he is expected to relate the minutia and their synthesized sets into a single unit. Such breadth of interest requires independence from operations activities.

This need for breadth implies a need to cross over organizational lines. This carries with it the need for authority or backing from a higher level. For example, a study of the catalog department cannot be complete without relating the department to its inputs, outputs, and place of department within the whole li-

Mr. Minder, Systems Analyst with IBM in Bethesda, Maryland, teaches library systems analysis at Catholic University of America.
library organization. Such a study cannot be accomplished without freedom to study in depth the departments and managerial operations external to the catalog department.

This need for authority to conduct broad studies does not imply that the analyst should always operate at the highest managerial level—rather, at some particular level higher than the operation being studied. For example, a particular study of descriptive cataloging techniques may have relevance only to the internal activities of the catalog department. During such a study, authority may only be necessary at the departmental level.

Limitation of the analyst to a staff appointment formally excludes him from policy-making responsibilities. This responsibility belongs with management, including operating supervisors. This lack of authority and responsibility may limit the short-range effectiveness of the analyst because he may not be able to overcome the lethargy, hostility, and weaknesses of operating personnel. At the same time, such lack of authority will help surface these weaknesses and serve as a warning of others more serious to be expected when plans become operational.

This possible hostility to systems analysis techniques and the implied need for personnel education rather than legislative action cannot be underestimated. Systems analysis has not been a recognized part of library training until quite recently. Supervisors are likely to continue to prefer the subjective judgment and ad hoc decisions about which they have considerable knowledge.

Scientific management is a term used to describe a whole new field of applying mathematical and scientific techniques to aspects of management traditionally considered to be creative in nature. It does not replace the decision-making functions of management. Rather, it provides management with better data in a synthesized form so that better decisions can be made. Scientific management also attempts to separate the truly creative decision-making operations from those that can be handled automatically or reduced to the clerical levels through the use of new tools and techniques.

Management science is also used to assist the analyst in reducing complex systems to the essentials, building new systems around these essentials, and then efficiently communicating these studies to library management.

Embodied within these general statements of scientific management is the implied use of probability and statistics, dynamic programming, time studies, flow diagramming, human engineering, and a host of other analytical tools. It would be misleading to define the field as only operations research or industrial engineering as suggested by these topics; however, these professions are the most prominent proponents of managerial science methodology.

Full justification for the use of management science within the library cannot be explored in this article. By way of partial justification, it might be stated that the library has most of the elements common to the disciplines where management science has been useful. Perhaps the only really major difference lies in motivation. For example, business is profit oriented, whereas libraries are service oriented. The library systems analyst exploits the tools developed in business applications and applies them to his own environment.

During the 1950's, considerable attention was given to the study of information retrieval. Research during this period tended toward theoretical studies of the statistical or mathematical nature of information and related topics. A hope was to develop ways to use the computer in the handling of concepts rather than the routine manipulation of alphanumeric data. More recently, the pendulum has swung toward the less glamorous,
more traditional areas of technical processing, personnel records, and simple bibliographic compilations.

Systems analysis has often been assumed to enter the library as a tool to be used in the development of computerized systems, especially in the more mundane areas suggested above. This view is far too narrow.

Actually, systems analysis is a tool to be used in all departments of the library regardless of the computerization potentiality. It can be as effective in the analysis and design of a broad selection program as it is in the development of an efficiently run computerized technical processing department. For example, a real measure of the library’s effectiveness is its ability to supply non-ambiguous responses to users’ information needs within a time and cost limitation competitively set by other information media. The computer is considered in the analyst’s study only insofar as it might contribute to the over-all solution.

The phrase “library environment” is meant to imply that any part of the library or its interfaces with sources, users, and parent institution are legitimate areas of study. The proper placing of book return boxes on campus or a study of the overlapping between two reference tools are no less of interest than the design of a completely computerized technical processing department.

**PREREQUISITES**

The prerequisites for the position of library systems analyst is approached with some degree of trepidation. It is rather hard to state categorically what makes a good analyst. Perhaps the only thing that can be said with any certitude is that he must be a born skeptic about the status quo, a dreamer about the future, and a realist in the implementation of these dreams. This is hardly adequate for a recruiting brochure! Despite the implications that an analyst can only be evaluated in terms of his temperament, there are some general guidelines that can be helpful. The following is a statement that seems to include the major qualifications that he should be able to demonstrate.

The curriculum in modern industrial engineering appears to supply most of the technical background for a library systems analyst. It emphasizes applied statistics and probability, work analysis, management organization, the design of abstract systems, automation, and systems evaluation techniques. Most of these topics are used as tools by the analyst. They require a certain amount of formal classroom study and development. For this reason, formal classroom exposure to these subjects is desirable.

One need not look deeply into librarianship before he sees a large data base, many repetitive operations, and highly systematized set of operating rules. It is in such systems that computers are potentially useful tools. We are only now beginning to exploit this potential, however, and the library profession is not fully aware of the possibilities. The systems analyst should be adept in the use of the computer because of its usefulness as a library tool, not as an end in itself.

This suggests a requirement of some training in electronic data processing. This should include at least a good understanding of the basics of computer design, construction, and operation. It should also include flow charting and the ability to program one of the common computers in one of the common languages. Depth in programing and hardware understanding is not necessary, since the analyst is more interested in knowing applications than he is in actual programing efficiency and computer design. It should be emphasized, however, that some programing experience is invaluable. The effect of actually programing a computer is somewhat like swimming. You can read about it, but you will never really learn it until you jump
into the water and swim. The actual depth of training necessary in programming is an open question. Probably this training should stop short of real proficiency so that the analyst does not lose his perspective. To him, an efficient program is an efficient tool, not an end in itself.

Electronic data processing training is valuable for other reasons. It develops the student's ability to formulate problems and think in a formal deductive way. It also teaches him to communicate by using a formalized, well-defined language.

The prerequisite that will meet with the least acceptance concerns the amount of required training in librarianship. Industrial engineers and operation research specialists can be expected to demonstrate the close similarity between librarianship and business or military problems. Thus, little training is required. On the other hand, librarians frequently complain that outsiders do not understand the uniqueness of the library. Thus, a degree in librarianship is required.

Both are right and both are wrong. To be sure, the library has a classical management and operating structure; however, its standards of economy and service have no parallel in other fields. What company would accept a million-item inventory with an average use expectancy of once every five years? The tendency of outsiders has also been to criticize the library profession for its ignorance of the information problem and lack of creativity in the search for solutions. On the other hand, the record of success by outsiders has left a lot to be desired. There are numerous examples of their unused automated systems, re-inventions of the "book" (though now automated), and systems that violate the most basic axioms of information handling and service.

Perhaps the most outstanding recent example of this last item was demonstrated at the Airlie House Conference on Library Automation.1

The nonlibrarians repeatedly stated that the design of an automated library system must be done as a unit. That is, all the inputs, outputs, and internal operations for the whole library must be determined before implementation begins. Yet such an approach is not possible in the library because the system as a whole is open, not closed, and the specifications are never static. A library system must be open-ended and designed to adjust easily to change while in an operating environment. It is the uncontrollable and unpredictable outside factors, such as changes in the organization of knowledge by scientific advancement, that negate the applicability of the closed-unit systems design axiom.

At the same conference, both sides displayed a deep dependency on the other. In effect, one side said—tell us what to automate and we will build the machine to do it. The other's reply was—tell us what the machine will do, and we will define the jobs to be done. They left without even resolving the impasse. Ideally, the systems analyst should be a catalytic agent between the two.

It is obvious from this discussion that an education in librarianship and in the technical tools is essential. Recognizing the fact that it is unrealistic to expect degrees in both, however, it is far better to have the formal training in the technical fields with experience in library problems, rather than the reverse. Insight into library problems can be gained through experience and observation. The technical tools must be acquired in formal training.

FUNCTIONS

The job description and prerequisites suggest that the library systems analyst has responsibilities beyond the analysis of existing operations and the introduc-

tions of automation into the field. Consistent with the analysts' philosophy of broad vision and unity of operation, the following list of functions is suggested.

1. Analyze existing library policies, procedures, equipment, literature content, and human interfaces systematically in qualitative and quantitative terms.

2. Design and implement new and/or improved library systems in terms of the library's physical limitations, funds, personnel, available equipment, and available techniques.

3. Coordinate these analyses and designs with the library's management and professional objectives. Act as technical advisor at the various levels of management in the evaluations.

4. Design, implement, and operate management data systems that will provide library management, operating personnel, and designers with data to assist them in library control and evaluation.

5. Monitor and evaluate equipment, procedures, and new systems of potential value to the library.

6. Conduct technical liaison between the library and outside services such as the institution's computer facilities and equipment manufacturers.

7. Train operating personnel and library management in the characteristics and operations of the library's newly installed systems, new equipment, on the market, and new techniques being developed.

The analysis function is broader than that normally considered in the computer field. It encroaches on an area generally considered to belong under management and library operations. For example, the analyst has techniques available for the partial analysis of the subject content of a collection. He can also provide improved statistical data which the librarian can use as a powerful tool in establishing his selection policy. In virtually every area of library operation, the librarian is in need of better analyses of his library to assist with his decision-making activities. The analyst can assemble the significant data in a meaningful way.

Systems design is the synthesis of elements from the analysis function, with additional useful outside elements to form a meaningful system. Usually systems design is more than an engineering or mathematical coordination of elements. In complex systems such as those found in the library, the best solution also involves qualitative factors and subjective judgment.

Coordination with the library's policies and objectives is in many ways a part of systems design. Separate recognition is made here to emphasize the unity of technical design and management policies within the whole system. Although the two complement one another in systems design, they are separate and distinct. This separate recognition also re-emphasizes the staff rather than policy-making role of the analyst.

A management data program is understood to mean a separate subsystem designed to: (1) accept statistics and other data relating to the operations of the library; (2) correlate, synthesize, technically evaluate the data; (3) feed the results back into the operating system for its automatic modification or send the reports to management so that it can evaluate and modify library operations. This is an extension of the traditional library statistics but raised to a level where the data become an active agent in the control of the library. Management data is essential if the library is to exist as a dynamic system.

The need for a management data program (over and above traditional statistics) is frequently overlooked by both systems designers and management in the enthusiasm to get the "new system" operational. Sometimes the reasons for omitting management data go deeper.
The profession has practically no experience or background on management data systems design. Furthermore, traditional library statistics contribute very little. When contractors have over-all systems responsibility, they have little incentive to add costs that provide little evidence of a return. Also, management data could very well bring out embarrassing weaknesses in design.

The importance of evaluation data in library systems today cannot be over-emphasized. First of all, every new system today is a prototype even if it is operational. We simply do not have adequate data gained from experience in order to design permanent systems, especially when automation is heavily used. Secondly, much of the data needed for making design decisions can only be obtained from observing an operating system. Yet we cannot get the data until the design is complete. In time, this first reason for management data will diminish in importance. The second reason will have a continuing role in the library.

Many byproducts of the nation's large research and development expenditures have relevance to problems in information handling. Frequently these advances are cloaked in the robes of the physical sciences, engineering, and mathematics. The analyst should not only keep himself aware of possible contributions from these other disciplines, but he should also translate these relevances into meaningful library terms. This article is such an example. It is an attempt to take some characteristics of industrial engineering, operations research, and computer technology, relate them to librarianship, and synthesize them into the profession. The analyst should do this continuously for the institution with which he is attached.

The analyst's technical librarianship bilingual capability places him in a unique position to act as technical liaison for the library. This duty comes to him almost by default.

Just as coordination between the new system and library policy is a part of design, so also the training of operating personnel is part of implementation. Beyond this, the analyst has a continuing responsibility to keep the operating staff and management up-to-date on new products and techniques being developed. This responsibility is especially significant at the present time, since most librarians have had no experience in technology and systems methods. Library schools are just beginning to integrate these newer tools into the profession. The systems analyst can serve a continuing education function to older staff members and at the same time feed back data to the schools for course and curriculum improvement.

CONCLUSION

This job description has been formulated independent of any particular institution. Special institutional requirements would most certainly impose local variations. For example, a university or large public library system with a staff to assist the analyst would probably emphasize managerial ability and ability in the art of seeing both library and technique points of view. On the other hand, the analyst for a small college might be a jack-of-all-trades. No matter what emphasis is placed on individual needs, however, it should be remembered that systems analysis is never merely part of what has been described in this article; systems analysis rather encompasses it all. Also, regardless of local variations, the systems analyst must always have one quality. He must be a catalyst between librarianship and technology.

Finally, it is probable that until the library profession solves the problem of training librarians in depth in both librarianship and technology, it will be necessary to seek analysts outside the profession. Perhaps this is as it should be.
Assessing the Undergraduates’ Use of the University Library

An academic library deserves to be appraised in terms of the use made of it by undergraduates. In an effort to apply these terms four studies were conducted in a specific library to determine what students did there and to analyze their long-term withdrawal of books. Details are given on the purposes behind student visits to libraries, and statistics are enumerated on student withdrawals by class and by sex. The library appears to be a greater potential educational force than is being realized.

Although the university library is regarded consensually as a potent educational force, its strength is more often than not described in terms of its physical facilities, the extent of its collections, or even its budget. Important and limiting though these are to the library’s effectiveness, a listing of the “bricks and mortar” or perhaps the “linen and vellum” does not provide a measure of the library’s effectiveness as an instrument of education. Such measures can be obtained only by assessing the extent to which students use the library and the extent to which such use relates to academic growth. These assessments are not easy. They are time-consuming and expensive, and they cannot be achieved with complete objectivity. The library may be outwardly a quiet place, but it is not static, nor are its users. They cannot be manipulated and controlled in the manner required by objective research, and it is well known that the person who knows that he is being studied will often alter his behavior to meet the expectations of the researcher.

Yet attempts to assess the effectiveness of such a facility as a library can produce worthwhile results and provide information useful to administrators, students, and faculty. The information gained through such attempts can certainly be more meaningful to an accreditation team than the traditional descriptive and “counting” reports which have been and are customary. With such thoughts in mind, the University of Delaware has been attempting in recent years to devise ways of discovering the impact which its facilities and programs have on its undergraduates. Among the facilities studied was the university library.

In order to measure the extent to
which the university library was used by students and faculty, four studies were designed and carried out. It was the purpose of the first two studies to determine what students were doing when they were in the library. In May 1962 a relatively brief questionnaire was distributed by library personnel sixteen times during a five-day period at three different hours each day, to all students who were in the library. The questionnaire asked several detailed questions concerning the materials the students were using at the time of the survey and those they had used during the preceding week. Questions were answered by a single word or a check mark. The questionnaire was unsigned, and students were asked to return it to the main desk of the library when they left, and not to fill out a questionnaire more than once.

From an undergraduate population which was then just under three thousand, slightly fewer than seven hundred responses were obtained during the week of the survey. In proportion to the total number of students in their class, more seniors (approximately 28 per cent) were using the library than members of any other class. Sophomores were next in frequency, and freshmen were fewest (approximately 18 per cent).

At the time of the survey, there were five undergraduate schools. An analysis of the sample by school and class showed that fewer than 30 per cent of the total number of students in any school were using the library facilities. Of the five schools, that having the highest percentage of its students in the library was the school of education; students in the school of agriculture were represented least. It should be noted, however, that the school of agriculture has a separate library, and the department of chemistry (in the school of arts and science) also has a separate library. In all schools, with the exception of home economics, the number of seniors was greater than the number of freshmen; sophomores were also much in evidence.

Since university libraries are often used not just as a source of library materials but also as a place where students study their own books and notes, an analysis was made of the materials the students were using at the time of the survey. More than half of the freshmen were using only their own books, but the number of students using the library as a place in which to study their own books decreased steadily from the freshman through the senior class. Conversely, the number of students using only library books increased. Somewhat more than a third of the students in all classes were using both their own and library books. Reserved books were being used by more people than any other library materials, with reference books next in frequency. Microfilm and recordings were being used least, and an analysis by class showed that with the exception of recordings, seniors were the most numerous users of all types of library materials. Seniors, more than any other group, were using the library for "course related work" or "research," and fewer of them were using the library for "regularly assigned" work. The results also showed that although seniors were the most numerous and heaviest users of library facilities, they did not necessarily spend as much time in the library as members of other classes.

The first study was conducted toward the end of the second semester, shortly before the beginning of final examinations. The second study, which used the same questionnaire and techniques, was conducted during a week in the middle of the first semester. In this study, data

1 Gorham Lane, "Report No. 1 on the Use of the University Library: Library Questionnaire Study," University of Delaware, September 19, 1962, p. 7.

2 Gorham Lane, "Report No. 5 on The Use of the University Library: Library Questionnaire Study (Supplementary Report)," University of Delaware, February 21, 1963, p. 4.
were collected not only from the main library but also from the libraries located in the department of chemistry and the school of agriculture. More students were in the libraries at the time of the second survey but, in general, results were similar to those of the first. Library use increased progressively from the freshman through the senior year, and again it was shown that seniors do not spend more hours in the library than members of other classes, but that they are more frequently found there and are more likely to be using library materials. In the main library reserved and reference books again were found to be in use more than any other materials. In the agriculture library, periodicals were being used most heavily. In this survey it was the school of home economics which had the largest percentage of its students in the library.

The nature of the work being done by students was different in the two surveys. In the first, seniors, as compared with members of other classes, were more likely to be engaged in "course related" work or "research," rather than in "assigned" work. In the second survey, there were no differences in the percentage of students from each class devoting time to these three activities. This finding might reflect the commonly observed and deplored but ubiquitous tendency for students to allow work on term papers and research projects to accumulate until the end of the semester. The findings also may reflect the assignment-giving habits of the faculty.

In both surveys the number of students using the library for recreational reading was small. The library seems to be regarded as a place for study and required reading, and the use of the library for this purpose increases year by year from the freshman through the senior years. This is attested to not only by the larger number of students who use the library in each of the four years, but by the increasing number of upperclass-men who make use of library materials rather than their own books. In the more recent survey, approximately 4 per cent of the freshmen in the library were using library materials only; the comparable figure for seniors was 19 per cent. The percentage of freshmen using periodicals was 3.9; for seniors it was more than 8.

The third study investigated the long-term withdrawal of books from the general collection by undergraduates.3 Starting in the fall of 1961, for a period of two years, personnel of the library checked charge cards for the names of selected students at the close of each day to see whether or not they had withdrawn any books. Close record was kept of the Dewey number of each book withdrawn. A 20 per cent random sample of the freshman and junior class was selected for study, and data were obtained for the freshmen during both semesters and for juniors during the second semester of the first year of the study. The following year data were obtained during both semesters for these students as sophomores and seniors. As in any longitudinal study there was considerable attrition in the sample. At the end of two years, 41 per cent of the original freshman sample were no longer present, and 23 per cent of the junior sample had left the university for various reasons, including completion of course work.

The results did not reveal extensive use of the library by undergraduates, at least insofar as the general collection was concerned. In fact, the majority of men students in the sample withdrew no books from the library's general collection in any given semester during the period covered by the survey. Table 1 shows these results. It is perhaps comforting to note that the percentage of undergraduates withdrawing no books

---

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF THE SAMPLE WHO WITHDREW NO BOOKS DURING THE SURVEY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class of 1965</td>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class of 1963</td>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

decreased somewhat from the freshman year through the senior year.

The students in the survey were separated into two groups: those who had withdrawn no books during any semester in the period covered by the survey, and those who had withdrawn at least one. In the latter group the average number of books withdrawn was not large. During the freshman year the average was between three and four, during the sophomore year between six and seven, during the junior year between eight and nine, and during the senior year between six and seven. The increase in the number of books withdrawn by upperclassmen was much more notable for women students than for men students. As second semester seniors, women students’ book withdrawals were at their peak (six to seven books), whereas the comparable number for men was one to two books, a figure quite typical of the men’s withdrawals when freshmen and sophomores.

When an analysis was made, semester by semester, of book withdrawals by students who remained in the university, their withdrawals were shown to be generally heavier than those of students who were dropped or left the university for various reasons. The differences, however, were small and not statistically significant. Correlational relationships between scholastic standing in high school, or grade point average in college and the number of books withdrawn also failed to reach statistical significance.

Throughout the two-year period of the study, books in the categories of literature and the social sciences were by far the most frequently withdrawn and constituted almost 50 per cent of all withdrawals. Pamphlets, general works, books on religion, and languages were withdrawn least and comprised less than 8 per cent of the withdrawals. Relative to their total withdrawals, men withdrew four times as many books in the area of pure science as did women, and slightly more than twice as many books in technology. Women withdrew half again as many books in the area of literature as did men.

Class differences in withdrawals show only a few trends and differences. Freshmen withdrew most of their books in the field of literature; in fact, they withdrew more books in this area than did students in any other class. Next in frequency for the freshmen were books in the social sciences. They withdrew somewhat more books in history than did other students, and they withdrew somewhat less frequently in the area of technology. These same students as sophomores withdrew

---

*Statistical analyses were made by Carol Pemberton of the University Impact Study staff.*
less than half as many books from the area of history as they had when they were freshmen. Sophomores' withdrawals were more frequently from the classifications of social science and philosophy than were those of any other of the classes. Juniors, as compared with other classes, showed no particular pattern or emphasis in their book withdrawals, although as compared with freshmen and sophomores they withdrew significantly more books in the pure sciences. For seniors, as compared with other classes, the areas of heaviest concentration were in pure science and technology. They tended to withdraw books in the areas of philosophy, religion, and literature somewhat less often than students in the other classes.

Although the area of literature was most heavily used by students in all classes, the number of such books withdrawn decreased quite steadily from the freshman through the senior year, but even during the senior year, students were withdrawing almost 20 per cent of their books from this area. Books in the social sciences were next in frequency of use among all classes.

In general, students majoring in the fields of education, English, history, and political science, and possibly biology and nursing, consistently withdrew more books than students in other major fields. Because very few students in some of the major fields were included in the sample, it was not possible to analyze with any degree of certainty the relationship between voluntary withdrawal of books from the library's general collection and the student's major field of study.

The studies reported above represent, for the University of Delaware, pioneering attempts to assess the undergraduates' use of the library. As first attempts they have their limitations. They have, however, demonstrated that it is possible to assess with some degree of reliability the extent to which students actually make use of library facilities, if one carefully designs questionnaires and selects samples, and if tabulating and statistical help are available and there is a cooperative and interested library staff.

It should not be expected that all of the results of such surveys will be surprising. Some, as for example finding that seniors make more use of library facilities than freshmen, may simply support what has been assumed or hoped. But it is reassuring to find that one's hopes have a basis in fact. Other findings are of interest primarily to the particular library being studied and cannot be generalized to include other institutions. Such findings can be put to immediate use within an institution, if faculty members study the data and realize their implications. That fewer than 30 per cent of the students in any school (and fewer than 40 per cent in any class in any school) were found in the library during a given week, or that the majority of men sampled withdrew no books from the university's general collection during any given semester, are findings that should have direct implications for curriculum and program planning, for counselling and advising, and for giving assignments. So also should finding that the nature of work being done by students in the library differs at different times of the semester.

That a university's general collection is not widely used by undergraduates, and that when it is used such use does not seem to have any significant relationship to academic achievement, suggests that an evaluation of the usefulness of a university library in terms of its general collection alone, would be most inadequate. All of these findings have implications not only for the library staff but for the instructional staff as well.

The finding that few students use the library for recreational reading raises several interesting speculations. Do stu-
Students read for recreation? If so, what do they mean by recreational reading, where do they get their books, and what kind of reading materials do they use? If they do not read for recreation, is this a reflection of their past experience, the lack of available recreational reading materials in the library, or the exigencies of college life? In an era wherein nonwork time is increasing rapidly, this would seem to be an important area of concern. In a study which compared the activities of a small group of college and noncollege students, matched as high school seniors and then followed for a two-year period, it was shown that the college group spent less time in recreational activities than the noncollege group. However, when asked to state how they best liked to spend a free evening, “reading” was given as the response by 40 to 50 per cent of both groups. But what do they read?

Some highly tentative answers were provided by another study in which a group of seniors in the class of 1964 at the University of Delaware were presented with a list of thirteen kinds of reading materials. They were asked first to indicate how many of each of the several kinds of materials they had read (on an unassigned basis) during the past academic year and then to indicate those materials which they considered to be “recreational reading.” The sample, which was not a truly random sample, consisted of 175 men and 336 women. The average number of books read by the men was fourteen; for women it was eleven. For men, novels, science, essays, books on technology, and mysteries were ranked, in order, as the most frequently read. For women, the ranking was novels, poetry, essays, mysteries, and biography. When asked which they considered to be recreational reading, men listed, in order among the top five, novels, mysteries, science fiction, poetry, and biography. Women listed novels, mysteries, poetry, biography, and science fiction. For both groups, books in science, political science, technology, or foreign languages were at the bottom of the list as recreational reading. Such results again are not unexpected but might serve as one basis for determining library purchases if one is to serve students’ current interests, or for modification of instructional programs, if students’ interests are to be modified.

Finally, with all of their limitations and the occasional specificity of their results, attempts at assessing the students’ use of the library focus attention on the library itself and its unique position as a potential educational force. Feedback to the faculty and students, and involvement of them in such assessments cannot help but re-emphasize the importance which the university library may have in the academic community. The interest thus aroused many well stimulate, as it has at the University of Delaware, further studies of the library. With increased knowledge of its actual role, the library certainly can more nearly attain its potential.

---

5 Gorham Lane, “A Comparison of the Activities and Interests of Two Groups of College Students and a Non-College Group,” December 3, 1963.

6 These data are summarized from a larger study of student activities and interests which has not been released at the present time.
A literature survey was made of articles indexed in Library Literature and Library Science Abstracts which dealt with teletypewriter applications in all types of libraries. The survey is presented in a condensed form which summarizes and discusses dates of teletype installation, operations performed by these machines, and advantages and disadvantages accruing from their use. The most important findings of the survey were that libraries using teletypewriters employed them in six basic operations which contained thirteen inherent advantages, but that the paucity of reporting by libraries using teletypewriters greatly limits any true understanding of their importance.

The use of the teletypewriter as a means of long distance communication between libraries is a subject about which little has been written. Many librarians are even ignorant of the fact that some libraries have used teletypewriters. Since 1927 at least 142 libraries in Europe and North America have, at some time, employed teletypewriters for data communication. What types of libraries use teletypewriters? In what capacities are these machines used, and what types of traffic pass over their circuits? What are the advantages and disadvantages librarians have found in using them?

In an attempt to answer these questions, a survey was made of library periodical literature. The results of the survey are presented here in a report which summarizes and comments on teletype operations in libraries as described in the literature since 1951, the first year in which an article on the subject appeared. Fewer than two score articles have been published on this subject. Many of those were so barren of information that they could not be included here. Some evidence of the need for greater publishing efforts in this area can be understood when it is stated that the only criterion for inclusion in the present report was that an article say slightly more than "Library So and So has a teletypewriter." In fact, of the 142 libraries in Europe and North America using the teletypewriter, only fifteen have been reported on sufficiently to allow them to be included here.

In the summarized case studies of these fifteen libraries or library-related operations, the libraries have not been categorized, since this is obvious from their titles. They are however, divided by country. Dates of initial operation are supplied when they could be determined. Uses for and advantages accruing from the use of the teletypewriter are given, as are the references from which the information was taken. These references constitute the most comprehensive bibliography on this subject at the present time.

Mr. Poole is Director of Libraries, Guilford College, Greensboro, North Carolina.
SUMMARIZED CASE STUDIES OF FIFTEEN LIBRARY OR LIBRARY-RELATED TELTYPE OPERATIONS

United States

1. University of California libraries
   Installed: 1953
   Operations: Interlibrary loan
               General communication with libraries on other University of California campuses
   Advantages: Speed

2. Detroit public library
   Installed: 1951 Discontinued: 1953
   Operations: Reference services
               Cooperative interlibrary loan network with Michigan State Library and its Extensions, Ryerson Public Library in Grand Rapids, and University of Michigan Library. Only the University of Michigan Library continues to operate a unit.
   Advantages: Speed
               Increased resources
               Increased range of services
               Improved library cooperation

3. University of Kansas library
   Installed: 1953
   Operations: Cooperative interlibrary loan network with the Midwest Inter-Library Center and its member libraries
   Advantages: Speed
               Increased resources
               Improved library cooperation

4. Lehigh University library
   Installed: Not determined from literature
   Operations: Interlibrary loan
               Requesting title locations from the Philadelphia Union Catalog
               Advantages: Speed
               Accuracy of a written message
               Allows clarity in foreign language transmission without mispronunciation
               Prompt service enhances public relations
               Offers same flexibility as the telephone
               Costs less than telephone

5. Midwest Inter-Library Center
   Installed: 1953
   Operations: Cooperative interlibrary loan network with member libraries. Only MILC continues to operate a unit.
   Advantages: Speed

6. Missouri state library
   Installed: 1953
   Operations: Cooperative interlibrary loan network with University of Missouri Library, Kansas City Public Library, St. Louis Public Library, and Linda Hall Special Library
   Advantages: Speed
               Increased resources

7. New York state library
   Installed: 1958
   Operations: Cooperative interlibrary loan network with seventeen other libraries in the state
   Advantages: Speed
               Simultaneous written record
               Accuracy of a written message
8. University of North Carolina library at Chapel Hill
Installed: 1958
Operations: Cooperative interlibrary loan network with North Carolina State Library
Providing title locations from North Carolina Union Catalog in Chapel Hill
Requesting title locations from the National Union Catalog at the Library of Congress
Advantages: Speed, Accuracy of a written message

9. Philadelphia free public library
Installed: 1927
Operations: Internal, closed-circuit communications for stack attendants
Advantages: Speed, Accuracy of a written message, Allows clarity in foreign language transmission without mispronunciation
Costs less than telephone
References: Jacques Bramhall, Jr., “Automation for the Reading Public,” Office Executive, XXXV (May 1960), 18—.

10. Philadelphia Union Catalog
Installed: 1957
Operations: Providing title locations
Advantages: Speed, Accuracy of a written message
Reference: Mack, loc. cit.

11. Racine public library
Installed: 1950
Operations: Cooperative interlibrary loan network with Milwaukee Public Library
Reference services, General communications
Advantages: Speed, Increased resources, Simultaneous written record

Installed: 1952
Operations: Communication with New York representative, Copyright Office, Office of the U.S. Quarterly Review, and publishers
Servicing title location requests to the National Union Catalog
Advantages: Speed, Efficiency

13. Toronto public libraries
Installed: 1962
Operations: Interlibrary loan
Requesting title locations
Advantages: Speed

14. Manchester Central library (United Kingdom)
Installed: 1955
Operations: Interlibrary loan
Communication with publishers
Advantages: Speed, Simultaneous written record, Accuracy of a written message, Allows clarity in foreign language transmission without mispronunciation

Increased range of services
Costs less than telephone

Canada

Europe
language transmission without mispronunciation
Costs less than telephone
Can use codes and prepunched tapes to reduce toll costs
Provides automatic round-the-clock answer service


15. Technical University library at Delft (Netherlands)
Installed: 1957
Operations: Interlibrary loan
Communication with publishers
Advantages: Speed
Accuracy of a written message
Costs less than telephone
Can use codes and prepunched tapes to reduce toll costs


DISCUSSION

While it is interesting to learn that libraries have been using teletypewriters since 1927, it will be more important to librarians considering installation of these machines to consider to what uses these machines are being put and what the advantages or disadvantages are in using them.

No pattern of use by academic, public, or special libraries ought to be defined, since fifteen libraries out of 142 hardly constitute a valid sample. The admixture of fifteen institutions in the present survey does show that all types of libraries make use of teletypewriters.

Though they may have been expressed in a variety of terms, the survey found that basically there were six applications of teletype in library situations. As could be expected, the application most often cited was that of interlibrary loans or of interlibrary-loan related operations. Ninety-three per cent of the available sample used their units in this capacity. Forty-six per cent of the units were used in cooperative networks designed to augment holdings on a reciprocal basis. Thirty-three per cent of the machines were used for general communications with other libraries or with publishing houses. Likewise, 33 per cent were used in some connection with union catalogs, either to request information or to supply it. Reference services were performed on 13 per cent of the units, and only 6 per cent were used for internal, closed-circuit communications.

Of the fifteen cases studied, and the thirteen advantages cited, 100 per cent indicated that speed of communication was the primary advantage in using a teletypewriter. Forty-six per cent reported that the accuracy of this type of communication was also of great advantage. Other advantages and their percentages were: costs below those of the telephone, 33 per cent; increased resources through cooperative networks, 26 per cent; clarity of foreign language transmissions, 20 per cent; the convenience of a simultaneous written record, 20 per cent; increased range of services to the public, 13 per cent; the ability to use codes and prepunched message tapes to reduce toll charges, 13 per cent; and improved library cooperation, public relations, and efficiency, each 6 per cent.

A round-the-clock automatic answer service and a flexibility of communication equal to that of the telephone were also cited by 6 per cent of the sample.

Just what do these percentage figures tell us? First, it can be said that there is a direct relation between the advantage of speed and the application of the machine to interlibrary loans. The reason for this is quite plain to librarians with

(Continued on page 290)
CECIL K. BYRD

The Lilly Fellowship Program at Indiana University

In an effort to contribute to the solution of the problem of the shortage of trained and experienced rare book librarians, Indiana University established its Lilly Fellowship Program for a three-year experimental period in 1961. Six Fellows, all of whom are now in rare book work, were trained in the program. The program has given all evidences of success, and it is hoped that it can be reestablished on a permanent basis.

The widespread shortage of trained library personnel is particularly acute in those areas requiring specialized subject knowledge. Though good reference librarians and catalogers are in short supply, the difficulty of finding a knowledgeable mathematics or music librarian is even greater. Yet in the sciences and in the arts we do have a body of trained personnel who, if they can be attracted to the library profession, can fill these needs. The problem of finding candidates with the requisite background for rare book librarianship is a somewhat different matter for there is no undergraduate training comparable to an AB in mathematics or music to prepare them for their work. Indeed, in the past, we have had no organized programs for training rare book librarians. We have drawn them from the book trade and from the ranks of private collectors and printing enthusiasts. They have come to us as self-trained men with a knowledge derived from personal experience rather than formal training. It can be, and frequently has been, argued that there is no background for rare book work comparable to experience in the trade or as a collector—but the fact remains that these sources cannot supply the number of rare book librarians which are now required. New sources of experience and training must be developed.

Once the Indiana University rare book collection had been transferred to the newly dedicated and opened Lilly Library in October 1960, the time was thought appropriate to make a gesture in the direction of the training of rare book librarians. A program was visualized which might alleviate slightly the critical shortage of personnel in this branch of the profession, dramatize the importance of rare books in academic surroundings, and stimulate additional programs of training at other places. Indiana's credentials for this venture were an enthusiastic and experienced staff; fairly representative rare book and manuscript collections; and a new, modern, and attractive physical plant.

The proposed program was described fully to the Lilly Endowment. It was explained as a one-year training course for students who desired to become rare book librarians. It was felt to be in the interest of the profession and was expected to benefit the entire scholarly community. The directors at the Lilly Endowment concluded that the proposal had merit and agreed to finance a program for a three-year experimental period.

In the fall of 1960 announcements of
the Lilly Fellowships for 1961-62 were released to the library press and all library schools. The qualifications required of applicants were set forth in the announcement: "Any graduate of an accredited library school, under forty-five years of age, who desires to specialize in rare book librarianship may apply for a fellowship. . . . At the conclusion of the year, Fellows are expected to find employment in rare book divisions of college, university, and public libraries."

There was reason for requesting applicants only from library schools. Their training, though somewhat general in many particulars, enables them to grasp quickly the interrelation and function of a rare book library which is a part of a centralized library system. They have acquired basic skills transferable to any library situation. It has been customary in some circles to rail the library schools for omissions in training, particularly as they relate to rare book librarianship. They should instead be complimented for the excellent preparation they give to students entering library service, rather remarkable preparation when it is considered that this training is given in the short span of two academic semesters.

Some statistical information on the total number of applicants over the three-year period and a few personal observations may be of interest. For the academic year 1961-62 there were twenty-seven applicants from twenty-one different library schools; for 1962-63, twenty-one from fifteen different library schools; in 1963-64, twenty-one from seventeen different library schools. Not all applicants were newly graduated. A few had been in library work for several years.

A careful scrutiny of the applications reveals much on the sociology of contemporary fellowship application. It substantiates a conviction that every academic profession has a ten per cent minority of would-be-permanent graduate students who will apply for anything that promises a year of subsidy at more than modest rates. These among the Lilly applicants listed as a major endowment only "a love for rare books." Ninety per cent of the applicants, however, had excellent academic records and most eloquent recommendations. It was agonizing to choose only two annually from among so many really good candidates.

Beyond academic records, a deciding factor in selecting a Fellow was a previously expressed interest in rare books demonstrated by library school courses, publications, personal collecting activities, or student employment in special collections and rare books.

Six Fellows were trained during the three-year period. The first two Fellows, (1961-62) were Kenneth Nesheim and J. William Matheson. Mr. Nesheim is the assistant librarian, Beinecke library, Yale. Mr. Matheson is chief, rare book department, Washington University, St. Louis. During 1962-63, John Neu and Keith Kern were Fellows. Mr. Neu is now bibliographer for science, University of Wisconsin. Mr. Kern is in the trade in Baltimore. The last two Fellows (1963-64) were G. William Stuart and Richard Ploch. Mr. Stuart is rare book librarian, Cornell University. Mr. Ploch is curator of rare books and special collections, Ohio State University.

Please note that not a single Fellow was retained on the staff of the Indiana University libraries. It was Indiana's unannounced pledge to send them out to seek employment elsewhere; this was true despite the fact that Indiana had need of at least three of the six but refrained from hiring them.

The educational goals of the program of training which the Fellows follow could be expressed in the adage "learn by observation, reflection and by doing." There was envisioned for the Fellows the broadest possible contacts with the management, use, preservation, and acquisition of rare books and manuscripts. Ad-
ditionally, they were exposed to the antiquarian booktrade and expected to become competent bibliographers, capable of analyzing and describing the anatomy of a book using the scientific methods enunciated by W. W. Gregg and expanded by Fredson Bowers in his *Principles of Bibliographical Description*.

The program was not designed to train chief rare book librarians, curators, or any particular specialist in the rare book profession. It was hoped rather to familiarize the Fellows with all operations involved in running the Lilly library, a fairly typical rare book operation. They were not compelled to learn, but there was ample opportunity for the inquisitive and the motivated to acquire a large store of information that could be of practical use in any aspect of rare book librarianship.

Theoretically, the Fellows were scheduled to work one-half time in the divisions of Lilly and spend the other half working on special bibliographical projects of their own choice or studying for the afternoon class in bibliography. Here is a sample for 1963-64: July 1–August 17—General observation. Browsing—familiarization with collections. Tour of main and branch libraries on Bloomington campus. August 19–November 15—Acquisitions, cataloging, physical care of rare books (one-half time). November 18–February 14—Manuscripts (one-half time). February 17–April 15—Reference desk, work on desiderata lists (one-half time). April 15–June 15—Arrange special exhibit (one-half time).

After the initial “getting acquainted” period each section of the schedule was designed to give the Fellows experience in some aspect of rare book work in which they were unlikely to have received training while attending library school. Thus what they were taught about acquisitions, cataloging, and the physical care of rare books bore little resemblance to similarly titled library school courses. The Fellows searched dealers’ catalogs and learned something of various booksellers’ specialties and standards of description; they learned how to describe variants and bindings when cataloging rare books; and they learned not only how to treat and house precious and fragile pieces but how to handle them as well. The training in manuscripts was felt to be particularly valuable. It is an area almost totally ignored in the training of librarians and one with which every curator of special collections must become familiar. In the three months they spent in the manuscripts division of the Lilly library the Fellows were given opportunity to see how a manuscript collection is organized and cataloged. Finally, as sort of a climax to their training they were expected to plan and mount an exhibit in the Lilly library, a task which allowed them to utilize much of what they had learned in the year.

Emergencies frequently disrupted the schedule. There were collections to unpack, books to move, visitors to guide. There were a few unbookish chores such as taxi driving. Despite best efforts, these unscheduled interruptions were never wholly eliminated.

It was also felt desirable for the Fellows to have at least a passing acquaintance with other rare book collections, private and public, the antiquarian book trade, and at least one attendance at an important book auction. Each year the two Fellows were taken on two extended trips, one to the Chicago area, the other to the East coast. The latter included visits to establishments at New Haven, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Washington. On these trips they were given an opportunity to visit with dealers and private collectors. Each time a bookseller called at the Lilly library with his books, the Fellows were invited to inspect, listen, and converse.

The program has proved to be an effective method of training librarians
for rare book service. The Fellows have not emerged from the program as seasoned veterans, fully qualified rare book librarians, but they have had training not available elsewhere in such a relatively compressed period of time, and this training has given them a good start on the road to rare book librarianship. Indiana University had been the first to admit that its program was not well defined the first year, or the second or even the third. It was improvised as it proceeded. From this trial and error experience, however, sufficient information was gained to devise a more exacting program in the future. The experimental period financed by the Lilly Endowment expired with the end of the academic year 1963-64. It is hoped that the future will bring financing on a permanent basis.

TELETEYPEWRITERS . . .
(Continued from page 286)

experience in interlibrary loans. Everyone wanting an interlibrary loan is in a hurry, and the quicker the library can supply the patron's needs, the happier the patron and the better the library image. In fact, for every use to which teletypewriters are put there are distinct, directly related advantages, as can be seen from a study of any individual case study in this report. The only disadvantage noted was that of cost caused by an increase in toll rates in the United States in 1953. This increase in rates caused several units to discontinue operation; such was the case of the Detroit public library.

Librarians considering the installation of a teletypewriter will naturally need to analyze the requirements of their particular libraries in order to determine which machine applications should be made and what advantages would accrue, and whether these advantages would justify the costs. For instance, in the case of a foreign library with much long distance or international traffic, the use of an optional accessory such as a tape perforator would be desirable, since one of the library's fundamental considerations would be methods of conserving toll costs, which leads to another point. Even in the fifteen existing case studies, little data on costs have been published. It is an established fact that teletypewriter costs are lower than telephone tolls, but exact figures are difficult to find, and when found are usually out-of-date or invalid because of geographical peculiarities.

That fifteen libraries or library-related organizations have advantageously and successfully used teletypewriters since 1927 would indicate that this type of communication device is fairly well established in library operations. A recent census of the Teletypewriter Exchange Service (TWX) which appeared in Library Journal indicates that the use of this means of data communication is increasing.\(^1\)

It is difficult to predict what the future holds for the teletypewriter and its functions as a library tool. Continued use in its present capacities is probably assured. Research is presently being done by at least one manufacturer in the area of computer and teletypewriter related applications. If these experiments prove to be successful, it could be that the automated libraries of the present and future will continue to find uses for the types of operations which the teletypewriter can perform.

A segment of American history is buried in the records of churches and denominations. Church related, liberal arts college libraries are in a position to collect and preserve the historical materials and archives of their church body. Based on the literature on the subject and questionnaires sent to sixty-eight church related liberal arts college libraries with church historical collections, this paper is a discussion of the types of material collected, cataloging and preservation procedures used, circulation and control methods, and housing facilities for a church historical collection.

The history of an important segment of American life is buried in the records of individual churches and of denominations. Students of social and economic history, as well as students of the history of religion, find that church records are gold mines of information. Some groups are actively engaged in preserving this history by designating their church college libraries as the collection agencies for archival and historical materials. This paper is a study of church history collections housed in the church related liberal arts college libraries of their supporting churches. Four aspects of the collections were studied: (1) the types of materials collected; (2) how these were cataloged; (3) the methods of preservation used; and (4) the methods by which they were circulated and made available for study and research.

In all of the literature searched, no similar study was located. Three articles were found on the subject of church archives, but none dealt specifically with the problems this paper proposes to study.

To supplement materials gleaned from the printed literature and to ascertain actual practices in libraries having church historical collections, a questionnaire was sent to sixty-eight college librarians. These sixty-eight schools were listed in the ninth edition of American Universities and Colleges prepared by the American Council on Education, 1964. Each school was designated as a liberal arts college, related to a church, and having church historical materials in its collection. This list was compared with the list of colleges and universities in the Yearbook of American Churches, 1964. These lists were compared to ascertain whether all colleges and universities listed in the Yearbook of American Churches as denominational schools
were also listed in the American Universities and Colleges. No school listed in one was omitted from the other. Thus, it is fairly certain that no church body having a church historical collection housed in a liberal arts college has been overlooked in the study.

Of the sixty-eight questionnaires mailed, fifty-seven or 83.8 per cent have been returned. Of this number, nine had no answers to the questions. One librarian stated that he did not have the time required to prepare answers; the others responded with a letter explaining that their materials were not cataloged or organized in any way, and thus they were unable to fill out the questionnaires. Therefore, the total return with answers was forty-eight, or 70.6 per cent of the sixty-eight.

The final step in the research was to visit a number of libraries having church historical and archival collections. Seven libraries, approximately 10 per cent, of the libraries which received questionnaires were visited. In each case, the person in charge of the collection was interviewed and the collection was briefly surveyed.

From these three sources: the literature available on the subject, the questionnaires sent to sixty-eight librarians, and the personal visits to seven libraries, the following information has been gathered.

Early in the research, it became necessary to define "archives" and "historical collection" for these terms deal with two distinct types of library material. Among possible definitions of the term "archives" are the following: "The term archives ... is meant to include semi-official documents, personal memoirs, diaries, photographs, microfilm, and phonograph records." Solon J. Buck states that "the word 'archives' connotes a body of related documents that, because of their possible evidential value, are preserved as records by the agency that created or received them or by its legitimate successor." It is only necessary that they be officially preserved for their evidential value as a part of the body of records of some organization. A less complex definition was given by Nelson Springer of Goshen College. He stated that archives "are those nonlibrary materials and nonpublished items" in the collection.

On the other hand, the materials classed as the "historical collection" are "published materials that have library usage." For this study, the term "church history collection" is meant to include both archives and the historical collection. Both published materials and the large body of original documents, minute books, etc., are considered necessary in building a church history collection that will be adequate for research.

**MATERIALS INCLUDED IN CHURCH HISTORY COLLECTIONS**

The first task facing the librarian who is beginning a church historical collection is to determine what types of material will be collected. As a general principle, the scope of any church history collection should be neither too broad nor too narrow, but should be oriented primarily to the group it proposes to serve. The sponsoring denomination has the right to expect the depository to meet the needs of that particular church body. H. Lindley writes in an article in the Library Journal that the historical library is "primarily concerned with: (1)"

---

3 Ibid.
5 Ibid.
the book; (2) the pamphlet; (3) the newspaper; (4) the periodical; (5) the map; (6) the broadside; (7) the manuscript; (8) the archive; (9) the picture."8

A number of problems present themselves as one endeavors to build a church history collection. What out of the vast quantities of material shall be saved? There is, first, an imposing array of minute books; minutes of general conference, districts, and/or regions, and of state bodies; minutes of organizations within the denomination; and minutes of organizations within the local congregation. Then there are registers of birth, marriage, and death for individual churches, treasurer’s reports, histories of local churches, and a great quantity of personalia, that is, diaries, correspondence, files, and sermon notes.9

There is also the real danger that those in the church will look on this depository as a museum to save their meaningful keepsakes. Pascal Marie Varieur in an article in the American Archivist says “we should not limit ourselves to written or photographic history of our denomination, but we should capture part of the ‘artifact-ive’ history as well. . . . Let us remember that these artifacts, or museum pieces, are truly records of the past and therefore worthy of our attention.”10 Some objects will no doubt find their way to the church history collection, and those having true historical significance belong there. Mr. Suelflow suggests that commemorative medallions, coins, medals, and other museum pieces have a rightful place in the collection. Paraphernalia used by missionaries, communion vessels, altar furnishings, and other similar items become source materials for research and evaluation of the church’s life.11 The important thing would seem to be to have a clearly established policy concerning accepting such articles.12 Whatever material is offered to the church historical collection, the librarian should answer the question: “Is there a more logical place for this material?”13 If no one would expect it to be a part of the collection, it probably does not belong there. Storage and display space becomes a problem closely linked to the collection of “museum-type” materials.

Anyone now beginning a collection of materials relating to a church that dates back to another generation will find it difficult to identify individuals in group pictures, to ascertain what group it is, and to discover where and when it was taken. Pictures which remain unidentified are of no real value to the historical collection, although they may provide items of interest for display purposes. Older members of the denomination may be asked to help with picture identification and thus give invaluable aid to those working with the church history collection.

When a conclusion has been reached on the types of material to be collected, how does one go about obtaining it? One of the problems is that old minute books and records have not been properly kept. Or if they have been preserved, it has been done by the individual who took the minutes rather than by the local church, and thus the records are deemed to be a family heirloom rather than church property.14 The church with all of its organizations needs to be encouraged to deposit all records, treasurer’s reports, membership ledgers, etc.,

8 H. Lindley, “Conserving a Historical Collection?” Library Journal, LXXI (July 1946), 992.
10 P. M. Varieur, “The Small, Limited, or Specialized Church Archives,” American Archivist, XXIV (October 1956), 454.

with the college. If any organization or institution of the denomination ceases to exist, all records should come to the depository. Although Roscoe M. Pierson writes chiefly concerning seminary libraries, the following suggestion is worthy of note:

Advertising in denominational and institutional periodicals has been a profitable way of developing denominational collections. Ads placed in alumni publications usually are fruitful for the seminary librarian of the institution; oft repeated announcements that the library is collecting the books, pamphlets, and periodical articles of alumni is one way that some of the most important collections have been nourished. Similar notices or news stories placed in the denominational weeklies or scholarly journals will be of value in the long run. It has been the experience of many librarians that such announcements pay off in the long run better than they do immediately; they serve primarily to let serious collectors within the denomination know that the collector's institution is seriously interested in the material. The result often is acquisition through wills and bequests from families.

This whole area is a subject about which the church people need to be educated. It will be and is a slow process, and the librarian building a church history collection will need constantly to work at the job.

Further, a working relationship should be sought between the denominational publishing house and the library. The publisher should be encouraged to send depository copies for the historical collection. The librarian needs also to be alert to what is being written and who is writing in the church, for books by church people are often published by other than the denominational publisher. Members of the church who are working on doctoral dissertations should not be forgotten, and copies should be sought for the library.

The college library should be on the mailing lists of the general offices, departments, and state offices of the church. If the weekly bulletins and/or newsletters are desired from the local congregations, an effort could be made to have the library placed on their mailing lists. Mr. Springer suggested that local congregations be urged to accumulate the bulletins and mail them to the library once a year.

The history of any given church body would not be complete without the records of its day schools, colleges, seminaries, homes for the elderly, etc. However, these materials are sometimes difficult to obtain and difficult to store and catalog. Because of the confidential nature of correspondence and personnel records, for instance, administrators may be loath to give these files to the depository. A working agreement should be sought that will insure that every set number of years, perhaps seven, the files would be deposited. This same problem will be faced with the collection of minutes of executive committees, etc., of the general or state offices of the church. Church leaders need to feel confident that the librarian in charge of such documents will treat them with care and integrity of the highest caliber.

At Earlham College, files are kept on administrators, faculty members, and alumni. These files include clippings that appear in the local newspapers, articles they have written, pictures, and other

15 Stated by Mrs. Asa Colby in an interview with Lois Luesing at Aurora College, Aurora, Illinois, on December 10, 1964.
19 Ibid.
20 Stated by Opal Thornburg in an interview with Lois Luesing at Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana, on February 18, 1965.
### TABLE 1.
**Number and Per Cent of Respondents Collecting a Given Type of Material for the Church Historical Collection**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Material</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Periodicals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Published by denomination</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Published by state or district organization</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>95.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Published by local churches</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Yearbooks of the denomination or districts</strong></td>
<td>43</td>
<td>89.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Books by authors in the church</strong></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Official minutes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State or regional conferences</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>85.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General conference or governing body</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>68.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District or other conferences within states</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local church minutes</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Miscellaneous printing</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pamphlets</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>81.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Folders or bulletins</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>77.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disciplines or church manuals</strong></td>
<td>37</td>
<td>77.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Institutional records</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges and seminaries</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>72.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homes for the elderly</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pictures</strong></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>60.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Directories of members</strong></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Minutes of church organizations, such as women’s missionary societies, etc.</strong></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State or regional conferences</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General conference or governing body</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District or other conferences within states</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local churches</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Correspondence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State or regional conferences</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District or other conferences in states</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General conference or governing body</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local churches</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Audio-visual materials</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tapes</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museum materials</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Records</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slides</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filmstrips</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movies</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other types of materials</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
miscellaneous items.21 These files bring together much information concerning those individuals who have filled key positions in their churches and colleges.

One might well ask how many copies of books, pamphlets, periodicals, and other printed materials should be kept. There are varying opinions. One suggests a limit of two copies in the collection with a third copy for circulation,22 while another suggests one copy for the permanent collection and two for circulation.23 Again, the important thing would seem to be to have an established policy that fits the needs of the individual collection. The amount of space allowed for the historical collection within the library will probably be a factor in determining this policy in each given case.

Table 1 gives the responses of forty-eight librarians to the questions on the questionnaire that were related to the types of materials preserved for the church historical collection. Both the number of libraries collecting a given type of material and the percentage of the forty-eight reporting libraries are given. The use of indentation in the table shows the breakdown within the type of material.

It might be noted from the table that the material published by the denomination was collected more frequently than any other type. It is quite obvious that this material is the easiest to acquire. Correspondence and audio-visual materials were collected by the least number of librarians. This material is more difficult to acquire and creates a storage problem.

It was evident from the questionnaires that the larger collections of church materials were those that had the largest variety of materials within the collection. Those few libraries that had a person especially designated to work in the church historical collection had obviously made the greatest effort to collect more varied materials.

The last item on the table shows that only three types of material other than those previously listed were collected. These items were tracts, term papers, and Sunday School materials. One library had each tract cataloged, and if several had been written by one man, they had been bound as a book. Two librarians mentioned that all Sunday School material was kept. This included quarterlies, teacher’s helps, and weekly papers. It was considered important because of the use it might be in planning the curriculum of the Sunday School in the future.

Three librarians indicated that students in the church history class and in seminars were required to deposit their written papers in the historical collection. These were research papers done on subjects relating to the denomination. In one library visited for this study, students had written histories of local churches, biographies of church leaders and missionaries, and histories of certain organizations within the church structure. In this way students were introduced to research from original materials and at the same time made a valuable contribution to the church historical collection.

As new types of material come into being, the librarian in charge of the historical collection should be alert to include these among his acquisitions. There is no limit for the imaginative person who senses the importance of a variety of items to a body of historical materials. In one library, some early costumes were preserved as part of the archives. Any material is in order as long as it relates directly to the history of a church, as long as it is in the plan of the library to collect that type of ma-

21 Ibid.
23 Stated by Mrs. Asa Colby in an interview with Lois Luesing at Aurora College, Aurora, Illinois, on December 10, 1964.
terial, and as long as it does not cause undue storage problems.

**CATALOGING PROCEDURES**

The first objective of any depository of records is to have adequate control of its record holdings. To meet this objective, the church historical collection must be cataloged. Not only must the collection be controlled, the material must also be readily available to searchers. This raises a problem for the librarian who has both archival and historical materials in his collection. Will the records be classified as an archivist would classify them, that is, by organizational body rather than by subject? As a British writer put it, "The librarian classifies and stores his books in accordance with their subject matter; the archivist arranges his documents in accordance with their institutional origin." Of the forty-eight reporting librarians, fifteen organized their material by organizational body and/or administrative unit, thirteen organized by subject, sixteen by a combination of organizational unit and subject, and five made no reply.

While no collection of materials should be made without a simple, organized catalog, what type of cataloging should be done? If the collection is small, greater emphasis may need to be placed on analyzing the records available. The analysis of material must extend even to the individual document, for there needs to be greater control of every item in the depository. An increased difficulty in establishing a set of cataloging rules is that the librarian must be familiar with the terminology of his particular group and of the literature under his care. Thus, filing systems, subject headings, and inventories will vary from collection to collection.

Accessioning archival and historical materials seems to be the accepted practice. When material is acquired, the first record made of it is in the accession book. This record is usually a brief description of the work, its source, its cost if purchased, and the date of its receipt. Of the forty-eight returning questionnaires, thirty-three used accession numbers, while twenty-four kept actual accession books.

It is advisable to do temporary cataloging as soon as a new acquisition arrives in the library. A rough main entry card with author, title, place, publisher, and date is essential. A brief-title card may also be made. If the classification number can be assigned quickly, it should be done. This procedure helps eliminate loss of information and the backlogging of material that is waiting to be organized.

When the item is permanently cataloged, each librarian will need to determine how thoroughly it is to be done. The returns on the questionnaire indicated that most librarians cataloging their materials make author, title, subject, and shelflist cards. Of the forty-eight reporting librarians, twenty-two cataloged all materials, nineteen cataloged part of them, and seven did not catalog at all. Of the forty-one librarians cataloging all or part of their material, thirty-seven made author cards, thirty-five made title cards, thirty-eight made subject cards, twenty-seven made cross-reference cards, thirty-five made shelflist cards, and six made cards of other kinds.

---

28 F. M. Varieur, *op. cit.*, p. 454
Most classification was done according to the Dewey decimal system. Thirty-two of the forty-eight reporting librarians used the Dewey system; thirteen of that number with modifications. Eight librarians had developed their own system of classification, and four used the Library of Congress system. One librarian classified by the Union theological library system, one used the Lynn-Murphy classification system based on the Library of Congress system with Kapsner Catholic subject headings, and two did not report.

It seems advisable to avoid keeping a special collection separate, for it complicates cataloging and classification as well as storage.

The questionnaire showed that in thirty-two of the forty-eight libraries the regular library cataloger cataloged the church historical collection materials. However, if one person were designated especially for work in the historical collection, or if there were a trained archivist, he usually did his own cataloging.

Involved and difficult as it may be, the cataloging of any church history materials must be undertaken, or the collection is of virtually no value. Each librarian will need to determine by what system the material is to be classified, how detailed the cataloging will be, and where the catalog cards will be filed. Often a separate card catalog is kept in the room with the collection, and a main entry card, at least, is filed in the main library catalog. As Melvin Gingerich of Goshen College writes, “every denominational record collection has its unique features; thus it is impossible to produce a guide that will fit every situation in detail. Nevertheless, church archives have enough in common to make it possible to suggest certain procedures that can be followed in organizing any collection.”32 His article on how to write a guide or manual of procedure would be most helpful to any college librarian involved in the beginning of a church history collection.

**Preservation and Housing**

Many of the books and documents that compose a church history collection are either worn with age or misuse or have been exposed to improper light and humidity conditions. The librarian must now protect these materials from further deterioration and provide proper housing conditions to protect new materials against such ravages. In addition to problems caused by excessive heat, light, and humidity, people represent another area of concern for the librarian who has a historical collection under his supervision. Damage to or loss of books and documents is easily caused by the carelessness or thoughtlessness of both staff members and researchers. Thus, preservation includes the control of library materials to the extent of guarding them against misuse, improper handling, and unnecessary marking.

The format of the material many times makes the method of preservation, if not difficult, time consuming and often expensive. Pictures, clippings from magazines and newspapers, broadsides, posters, correspondence, and other single items not only need to be preserved, but need to be preserved in a manner that will make them as easy as possible to file and store. Books are not difficult to store, but torn pages, poor binding, and the type of paper used in the book raise problems that the librarian must recognize.

Mending materials are plentiful and many. However, some work better than others. Those working with the ordinary cellophane mending tapes have found that they not only do not last but they also mar the paper on which they have been used. The “Scotch” brand mending tape has seemed to work well.33 It does

---


not become brittle and peel off, but on the other hand, it has not been on the market long enough for archivists and librarians to know how it will hold up after years of storage. Mr. Springer suggests the use of plastic adhesive and Japanese tissue for mending tears. 34

Of the forty-eight responding librarians, fifteen use some type of treatment for preservation of their book materials; nine treat their single documents. Various methods are used on both books and documents.

Broadsides and posters may be protected by placing them on a sheet of heavy bristol or mounting board, laying over them a sheet of cellulose acetate, and binding the edges with masking tape. A single pinhole needs to be provided for "breathing." 35

Single documents may be mounted on sturdy backing for protection and ease in filing. On the forty-eight questionnaires returned, nine librarians stated that they used this method of preservation. One suggested that clippings be mounted on rag content paper, using Elmer’s Glue. Two or three others stated that they intended to mount their single pages.

Quik is another good aid for the librarian working on a historical collection. It is a glue solvent that aids in removing old labels and clippings from scrapbooks, etc. 36 Soiled materials may be cleaned by using a wallpaper cleaner.

Lamination with cellulose acetate foil is recommended by the National Bureau of Standards and has many satisfactory qualities. While it resists bacteria, fungi, and insects, it does not bar photography and is relatively inexpensive. 37 Of the forty-eight reporting librarians, ten use lamination for preservation. Again, a few

noted that they wanted to do some lamination in the future.

Books, particularly those with leather bindings, need some treatment for preservation. Thirteen of the forty-eight libraries used an oil or lanolin compound on leatherbound books. Some early (sixteenth-century) books were bound in parchment, and saddlesoap is good for these. 38 Every few years books need this attention to keep the bindings soft and pliable.

A few other methods and materials used in preservation were listed on the questionnaires. One library has used the Barrow process for the restoration of documents. This was done by working in cooperation with the department of archives of the state in which the library was located. One librarian used pH neutral folders and insert sheets, and another kept materials between acid-free paper. Still another used non-acidic folders and storage boxes. Cellophane and cloth covers were used by one librarian on old minute books.

Because of the damage excessive heat, light, and humidity can cause, the room housing a historical collection should be air-conditioned and humidity-controlled. High heat and dryness cause paper to become brittle, while excessive light fades and dries newsprint quickly. Of the forty-eight libraries from which reports were received, twenty-one were air-conditioned; eight of these without humidity control. Librarians in five other schools stated they had humidity control without air-conditioning. One had filtered air with a humidifier and a dehumidifier. Many librarians stated that they recognized the need for such atmospheric conditions in the collection room.

Mold becomes a danger if the air has too much moisture in it, and rag-content paper is especially susceptible to this. For this reason a vault where the air

36 Ibid.
37 W. J. Barrow, "Restoration Methods," American Archivist, VI (July 1943), 152.
does not circulate and tends to become damp is not recommended for valuable documents. A vault, in addition to being expensive to construct, makes an additional marking of materials necessary to designate that they are stored on other than the regular shelves. Most new buildings are fire-resistant, and documents can be made safe from theft without using a vault. Out of the forty-eight libraries from which reports were received, thirty-seven were considered fire-resistant.

A church historical collection not only must be protected from physical enemies, but it must be guarded against theft, loss, and misuse by researchers and staff. No collection should be established without a set of rules to regulate and protect its contents. Each librarian will need to establish rules that will be pertinent to his particular collection. The following rules have been suggested by one archivist:

1. Register daily before using any materials. 
2. Use no ink except in fountain pens. 
3. Refrain from marking on any document or book. 
4. Preserve the existing order of materials in file boxes and in drawers. 
5. Handle documents at the assigned table space. 
6. Open one container at a time. 
7. Submit to inspection of briefcase, notebook, etc., before leaving the room. 
8. Return all materials to the issue desk.

Staff members will need to be cautioned against unnecessary marking in the process of cataloging and classification. It seems that most materials have some library marking; the exception is the rare book or document. In this case the marking is usually put on a slip of paper and inserted in the book like a bookmark. Thirty-seven of the forty-eight librarians returning questionnaires indicated that the materials in the church historical collection were marked with some distinguishing mark.

It is now possible to have important documents, correspondence, reports, periodicals, and other valuable materials in the collection microfilmed as an added protection against theft and loss. The report from one library indicated that all of its collection was on microfilm. Microfilming not only provides a copy of the original materials, it also makes the reproduction of needed information fairly easy. It is possible to have the paper issued by the library's church microfilmed with the assistance of the American Theological Library Association; however, a certain number of purchasers of the microfilm must be assured before the work is done. This not only gives the church historical collection the periodical on microfilm, it assures other copies in other libraries.

Books and bound periodicals cause little storage problem, for they can be shelved on regular library shelving. It is the manuscript, single documents, pictures, audio-visual materials, pamphlets, tracts, bulletins, and other miscellaneous printing that create the storage problem. Steel files of both legal and letter size are often used for the storage of correspondence, pictures, and single documents. The trend indicated by the questionnaire showed that pamphlet files stored on regular library shelving were most frequently used for reports, minutes, pamphlets, and other loose material. Often these files lie horizontally instead of standing vertically on the shelves. A few librarians had mounted single sheets on a protective backing and had them bound as a book. The following statistics show the responses on the questionnaires: twenty-one had materials...
filed in drawers, twenty-eight stored material in pamphlet files on regular library shelving, six mounted single sheets and had them bound, and seven used other methods of storage. This seven included storage in labeled boxes, locked cupboards, manila envelopes, and document boxes (Fiberdex) that lie flat on the shelves.

Many methods and materials for preservation are available. One might conclude, however, that the need is for these many materials to be used to protect the church historical collections against loss.

Circulation and Control

The reasons for collecting any body of material are not only to preserve it, but also to make it accessible for research and study. The church historical collection provides the raw material for histories, biographies, and various studies relating to the denomination, its people, and its organizational programs. To permit these studies to be made, the collection must be available to students and researchers. While most libraries have some restrictions on the use of the historical collection, the questionnaire showed that the materials were readily available for study. Of the forty-eight libraries, the collections in forty-five were open to anyone doing serious research. Users included church leaders, faculty members, students enrolled at the college, church members, and non-church affiliated researchers.

In thirty-three of the forty-eight libraries, users were allowed to take some of the material from the historical collection outside of the library, usually on a regular two-week loan. The materials allowed to leave the library were usually books of which there were at least two copies in the collection or books that could be replaced. Documents, minute books, reports, pictures, correspondence, etc., usually had to be used in the room of the collection. Sometimes the donor will restrict the use of his papers and personal items, such as diaries and date books, until after his death. Confidential material should be guarded against the simply curious person. Personal problems, for example, may be pointed out in a piece of correspondence, and this knowledge may bring harm to the reputation of the individual involved if it is available to anyone who is looking for a story. One librarian uses an application form to be filled out by all who wish to use the collection. This form asks for a statement of the purpose of the research. This in a measure limits the use of the collection to those engaged in serious study. Some librarians allowed nonbook materials to be used only under supervision; others provided locked carrels where such material could be used.

In some cases materials are provided to the public or to scholars on an inter-library loan basis. This is usually a month loan, but one library will loan material indefinitely to anyone engaged in a long piece of research with the understanding that the material can be called in if it is needed.

One of the problems facing the librarian in charge of a church historical collection is the need for indexes for the church paper. This is necessary if the collection is to be of most value for research and study. Some of the libraries visited for this study have made an attempt to solve this problem. The approaches to the problem have been different in each case. One school requires each student in the denominational history class to index one volume of the church paper. They use three by five inch cards and make entries (following Reader's Guide style) for all titles, names of those writing and/or written about, and subject cards if the subject is easily discernible. These cards are turned in to the librarian in charge of the collection who checks the work on that volume for errors. While this process is not
completely satisfactory, it does provide a degree of access to the material.\footnote{Stated by Delena Goodman in an interview with Lois Luesing at Anderson College, Anderson, Indiana, on December 8, 1964.} Another school hires a student to work on indexing, while another college has each researcher write down the title, author, and subject of the material used in his research. This information is then put on cards, and the cards are filed as a partial index.

An attempt at indexing a number of denominational papers has been made by the publishers of the Minister's Periodical Index (Albert M. Wells, Executive Secretary, Box 1542, Sterling, Colorado). This work has not proven to be scholarly or always accurate, but some librarians have found it a help if it indexed their particular church paper.

The time, staff, and expense involved in indexing have made this an impossibility for many colleges. It is an area that needs attention, however, if the church historical collections are to be of most value.

The responding forty-eight librarians indicated that usually the church historical collection is under the supervision and control of the regular library staff. In thirty-four libraries of the forty-eight this was so. Some libraries have one person designated to work in the archives. It is not always a librarian, but a historian or someone who has worked years at the college in another capacity. In only five of the forty-eight libraries was the person in charge of the collection a trained archivist. One or two more had attended a workshop for archivists such as the four- to six-week session offered by the American University in Washington, D.C.

The last question on the questionnaire asked for the total number of volumes in the collection with a breakdown of books, periodicals, and single documents. No attempt has been made to tabulate the answers. The reason for this is evident by the following answers: “Too many to count,” “Can’t estimate,” “A great mass of material,” “Large number,” “Thousands,” “Not sufficiently organized to count.” Those giving figures ranged from a total of 250 pieces in one collection to fifty thousand single documents, twelve thousand books, one thousand bound periodicals, two hundred current periodicals, four thousand pictures, and three hundred spools of microfilm in another. From the questionnaires, one might deduce that church historical collections housed in liberal arts colleges range from the smallest unorganized body of materials that came together solely by chance to the large, highly organized, complex collection that has been systematically collected.

The method of circulation and control of the church historical collection must be established to fit the needs of the individual institution. If the materials are properly cataloged and classified, the problems would appear to be less complicated. To make the collection available and comparatively easy to use is a worthwhile goal for any library.

CONCLUSIONS

The college library administration that makes an attempt to collect, catalog, house, and administer a church historical collection needs funds, staff, and storage space in addition to the regular library needs. From this study one could easily conclude that those librarians who are actively involved in building and maintaining a church historical collection and who have materials adequate and accessible for research are relatively few in number. Of the fifty-six librarians from whom questionnaires were received, eight had no cataloged collection; and of the forty-eight who had collections, several were not doing much with the collections in their care.

Church historical collections are as varied as the groups which sponsor them. They vary in what they include, how
they are cataloged, and how they are made available for research. It is quite evident from the questionnaire sent out that many collections have been built by coincidence. The library simply houses the materials which happen to come its way. These collections are chiefly minutes, official directories, books, periodicals, and other material published by the denomination. Those comparatively few libraries that include audio-visual materials, correspondence, and pictures are those where an organized effort has been made to collect such material. One would conclude that college librarians having the responsibility of church historical collections need to exert more effort to collect the various types of material that pertain to their individual denominations.

This study has not been concerned with the cost of such a collection; perhaps some study should be made to determine who pays for the church historical collection. Does the college assume all the cost, or does the denomination share the expenses of acquisition, cataloging, and staff?

One might conclude in both the areas of cataloging and of means to insure preservation that the greatest problem is the lack of either of these activities. While most collections are at least partially cataloged, it appears that many have nonbook materials that are not adequately cataloged. If the ideal is to have each piece and each document fully cataloged, each library with such a collection needs to make a concerted effort in this direction. Since the aim is to make the materials as available as possible, this should become more a reality than an ideal.

It was noted earlier that of the forty-eight libraries only fifteen treat their books for preservation and only nine their single documents. It would seem that this type of work is seriously neglected. The church historical collection often has the only existing copies of valuable research materials; thus, the importance of using some methods of preservation is great. It would be most helpful if the person in charge of the collection would become familiar with some of the methods and materials of preservation used by rare book librarians.

Storage problems are faced by many librarians. Since this collection could grow to large proportions, adequate space should be provided in any new library building. Proper control facilities should be planned with the necessary safeguards against theft, loss, and fire. Locked files and cabinets, work space, and adequate shelving should be included.

It can be concluded that the church historical collections in liberal arts colleges are readily available for study and research. The questionnaire and visits showed that an attitude of helpfulness was evident on the part of the library staffs. Every effort should be made to continue to have the materials as easily available as possible.

It has also been noted that the responsibility for the church historical collection usually lies with the regular library staff. Few are adequately trained for the work they are required to perform. If the person designated to care for the collection could attend an archival workshop many valuable benefits would accrue. If this is not possible a visit to a library with an established collection could be of much value. Some effort should be made to give the individual working with the materials some guidance in cataloging, housing, etc. No one enjoys revising work already poorly done, so some guidance at the beginning could eliminate the necessity for much of this later work. If the individual

---

Selected Reference Books of 1965-1966

This article continues the semi-annual series originally edited by Constance M. Winchell. Though it appears under a byline the list is actually a project of the reference department of the Columbia University libraries, and notes are signed with the initials of the individual staff members.

Since the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and foreign works of interest to reference workers in university libraries it does not pretend to be either well balanced or comprehensive. Code numbers (such as A11, IA26, 2S22) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide and its supplements.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


With the publication of this list, the British Museum series of short-title catalogs now covers its holdings from "all those countries of the European continent where there was a considerable output of early printing." (Pref.) Thus, British Museum books published before 1601 in, and in the language of, France, Germany, Italy, Belgium and the Netherlands, Portugal, and Spain as well as Spanish America can be identified from their respective catalogs. As in earlier lists, entry is by author with abridged title, and the index is of printers and publishers.


Although titles in many languages and topics international in scope are considered, this annotated Spanish-language subject bibliography is definitely directed to Spanish interests. The subject arrangement, complemented by an author index, shows a heavy concentration in the areas of Roman Catholic theology and church history, and in the humanities. The necessity for selection in the face of the seeming avalanche of international literature requires careful discrimination and, while the editor offers the work to the nonspecialist as a study guide to the best material in all fields, the sciences and non-Hispanic letters do suffer. For the most part, the annotations are analytic rather than descriptive, and represent the work of an impressive array of Hispanic scholars.


This bibliography of bibliographies on Finland includes works published up to December 1, 1965, in which a minimum of one chapter is devoted exclusively to Finland. Both separately published bibliographies and those appearing in books and periodicals are covered. There are four main divisions: general bibliog-

1CRL, January and July issues starting January 1952.
2Carol Anne Bondhus, Marilyn Goldstein, Rita Keckelsen, Evelyn Lauer, Hugh Macdonald, Sarah Ropes, Charlotte Smith.
raphies grouped by language; “Finland in foreign literature/Foreign countries in Finnish literature” arranged by country; specialized subject bibliographies; and bibliographies of individuals. Within sections the secondary arrangement is chronological by dates covered. Four indexes complete the work: subjects, names, authors, and anonymous works. Although the bibliography is chiefly in Finnish, the arrangement and indexes make its use relatively easy for persons not knowing that language; an additional help is the fact that the introduction and table of contents are in French as well as in Finnish.—S.R.


Beginning with v.187, the Catalogue général of the Bibliothèque Nationale has included imprints through 1959 only. This is the first volume of the promised quinquennial supplements—a welcome series on several counts. It records additions for the 1960-64 period, and therefore includes (as do the “Additions” volumes of the British Museum catalog) some works of earlier date, though non-French items published prior to 1960 are largely excluded. Unlike the basic catalog, the supplementary series includes corporate entries and title entries for anonymous and collective works. There are added entries for joint authors, translators, etc. Separate series are planned for works in Cyrillic characters, works in Modern Greek, and works in Hebrew characters.—E.S.


This bibliography comprises works by Spanish authors which were produced from 1520 to 1785 in presses of the Pays-Bas méridionaux (the Spanish Netherlands). Covering such diverse subjects as devotional texts and accounts of voyages of discovery, the work is arranged alphabetically by author or anonymous title. Entries are numbered, and include full bibliographical data, descriptive notes, and locations of copies. For each author, the complete works are given first, followed by individual ones arranged by title; works with the same anonymous title are listed chronologically. The first volume contains a comprehensive list of works consulted, and at the end of the second volume are added appendices on additional findings, a series of illustrations of printers’ marks, and a chronological table serving as a kind of index to the editions cited. The bibliography was painstakingly compiled and should be of great value to scholarship in the history of the book and of printing.—M.G.

Microforms


Two basic purposes are outlined for this new service: (1) to provide a complete national listing of microform master negatives from which libraries may acquire prints in single copies, thus avoiding expensive duplication of masters; and (2) to identify those negatives which are stored under particular conditions to insure preservation. Foreign and domestic books, pamphlets, serials, newspapers, and foreign dissertations are included, but not technical reports, typescript translations, foreign or American manuscripts, American doctoral dissertations and masters’ theses. Titles for which Library of Congress or National Union Catalog cards are available are arranged by card number, the remainder alphabetically. Locations are indicated by library symbols, followed by symbols indicating form of the master. The Register is concerned solely with master micro-
forms retained for the purpose of making copies, not with those that may be used by readers.—C.S.

LIBRARIES


Title also in French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish; prefatory matter in English, French, and German.

Designed as a companion to Lee Ash's Subject Collections . . . in the U.S. and Canada (2d ed., N.Y., 1961), this work covers subject collections in northwestern Europe primarily, and a limited number in other parts of Europe, excluding Asiatic parts of the Soviet Union and Turkey. Approximately eight thousand collections in six thousand libraries are represented, but coverage is very uneven, information having been derived from questionnaires in some instances and from published directories in others. Entries include address of library, name of director, size of the special collection, and restrictions on use. Instead of the alphabetical subject arrangement used in the Ash volume, the language problem has dictated use of the Dewey Decimal Classification; abridged classification tables and brief indexes are provided. The arrangement, plus the uniformity of the typography, does not lend itself to easy scanning or quick reference, yet the guide is welcome as an initial effort in this area.—C.S.

PERIODICALS


Continuing retrospectively the work begun in 1948 by Alan Swallow, et al., this author-subject index of a selected list of little magazines not indexed elsewhere covers the years 1943-1947. It is the first of an anticipated ten-volume series to be concerned with the complete range of American little magazine activity from 1900 to 1948. As in previously published volumes, subject headings are kept at a minimum, using personal names especially and broad topical categories. In this volume, subjects are distinguished from author entries by upper case letters. The exclusion of citations for editorials, graphic art, and book reviews are the principal variations from the volumes covering more recent years. The list of magazines indexed includes neither place of publication nor the numbers of the volumes or issues indexed.—M.G.


"Under the sponsorship of the Joint Committee on the Union List of Serials with the cooperation of the Library of Congress, funded by a grant from the Council on Library Resources, Inc."

Few reference works of recent years can have been more eagerly awaited or more welcome received than this third edition of the Union List of Serials. While, as is generally known, it does not advance the period of coverage of the second edition and its supplements, it does list nearly twelve thousand additional titles which began publication before 1950. Thus, 156,449 serials held in 956 libraries in the U.S. and Canada are now represented. Entries from the second edition and supplements were combined and carried over without change "except in those instances where reports of bibliographical changes in title were investigated and additional locations supplied." Deletions of holdings were made only where expressly requested. Harold Rovelstad, chairman of the joint committee, has contributed a preface giving a brief history of union lists and some in-
interesting remarks on the mechanics of preparing this third (and, alas, most probably last) edition.—E.S.

MASTER'S THESIS


Perhaps no other type of material is as troublesome to the interlibrary loan librarian as the master's thesis. This work is offered as a help in verifying and improving citations for interlibrary loan requests, as well as an aid to research at the graduate level. It deals only with printed sources, incorporating references from Palfrey and Coleman (Guide G8) as appropriate. There is a section of lists of master's theses in subject fields, and another of lists from specific institutions. Descriptive annotations are provided, and the information on lists issued in series is remarkably detailed.—E.S.

RELIGION


Sponsored by the Lutheran World Federation, this encyclopedia may be considered an authoritative "description" of Lutheran doctrine, history, and activity. Each of the seven hundred contributors is responsible for the articles bearing his signature, and the standards of scholarship are high. The articles are generally written from an historical rather than an analytical point of view; some offer an appended bibliography. The scope of the title is broadened to the extent that brief descriptions of other religions, beliefs, and cultures are included as a frame of reference. This encyclopedia serves well as a convenient reference work on Lutheranism, and students and researchers in many fields may find it useful as a preliminary guide.—C.A.B.

SOCIIOLOGY


The purpose of this work is to provide "a reliable summary of current information on the main aspects of Negro life in America, and to present this information in sufficient depth to provide the reader with a true perspective." (Pref.) Intended for consecutive reading as well as for reference, the volume consists of twenty-five essays written by specialists, and dealing with the social, cultural, and economic life of the Negro. From the reference point of view, its chief merits lie in the bibliographic references contained in the footnotes and following each chapter, and in the very extensive and noteworthy index. The latter runs to eighty-eight pages and includes numerous cross references and identifying notes.—C.S.


The Introduction promises that this book "includes all the services and benefits provided by the government and will help [the citizen to understand his] relationship to his government.” It provides an alphabetical list of benefits and government programs which should be useful for general reference, but is very uneven in coverage and one notes errors and inconsistencies in the compilation. Some articles, such as “Social Security,” are very long and detailed, while others are too short to be useful and do not say how or where to apply for benefits. In some cases short articles are repeated within other articles: e.g., “Fellowships, National Defense Education Act” is reprinted at the beginning of “National Defense Education Act Fellowships.” Another irregularity is the incomplete cross referencing from names of indi-
vidual national parks to the general article where each is described. A good point is the great quantity of photographs, but even these seem to be more decorative than instructive.—S.R.


First in a series which aims to provide a universal bibliography of census reports, this volume covers Latin America and the Caribbean. (Nos. 2 and 3 of the series, dealing with Africa and Oceania respectively, have also appeared, and follow the pattern of the first.) The bibliography mainly consists of listings of separately-published population census reports, though other types of series (e.g., housing and agriculture) are included if population data are included therein. Arranged alphabetically by area and then chronologically, entries frequently include national, provincial, state, and city censuses from colonial times to the present, with listing of sources, scope notes, and analyses of sets. There are also indications of censuses taken but not published. Although the table of contents is adequate for the main areas cited, there is no index—an aid needed for the smaller areas and types of information provided.—M.G.


In this "critical introduction," designed to include "almost all areas of involvement which could conceivably be the subject of an introductory inquiry" (Foreword), the author has tried to select the best, or most important works for inclusion. Four main divisions—science, philosophy and race; historical and sociological background; major issues today; the Negro and the arts—are given subdivision appropriate to the matter. Books, periodicals, and essays are included with comment, usually descriptive and critical. Citation is brief, full information (including price for in-print books) being listed in a bibliography which serves also as an author index. Subject index and analytic table of contents facilitate use.—R.K.

POLITICAL SCIENCE


Subtitle: An annotated and intensively indexed compilation of significant books, pamphlets, and articles, selected and processed by the Universal Reference System—a computerized information retrieval service in the social and behavioral sciences.

This computer produced index of 3030 items is the first of an ambitious series designed to cope with the social science literature explosion by providing intensively indexed materials "above a modest level of quality" for "maximum research satisfaction." (Intro.) The selection is of classics and twentieth-century writings with heavy representation for publications of the last three years; all social and behavioral sciences are included. Two listings make up the work: the Catalog, which lists items in an arbitrarily assigned numerical order with complete bibliographical information, descriptive annotation, and all the descriptors which characterize the work; and the Index of Documents, which is the means of access to the Catalog. The Index section is an alphabet of index
Selected Reference Books of 1965-1966 / 309

terms (descriptors from the Universal Reference System) with entries under each term grouped by form and then by date. All descriptors assigned a document are given and the Catalog item number to which reference is being made. Writings average twenty descriptors and have from ten to twenty listings in the Index to make them “thoroughly retrievable.” A distinctive feature is that descriptors apply not only to content, but to method as well. An author index is appended.—R.K.

LAW


Written by an experienced lawyer, this book is a layman’s guide to basic law of such topics as marriage and divorce, sales, real estate, veterans’ benefits, contracts, wills, social security, and other areas of general interest. The clear question-and-answer method of coverage, complemented by tables which specify the practice of individual states, provides a handy outline to the principles of law. The selection of a lawyer, his fees, and his function in the court are discussed in the opening chapters of the volume, and a glossary of terminology and a selection of legal forms supplement the text. The nontechnical language and the practical nature and arrangement of the subjects included make this quite a useful guide through the technicalities of everyday legal matters.—C.A.B.

TREATIES


The traditional definition of “treaty” has here been expanded to include international agreements among organizations, as well as among governments. This heterogeneous list is selective, confining itself to those documents signed by three or more nations. However, the Index does conveniently extend the coverage of the U.S. Department of State *Catalogue of Treaties, 1814-1918* (1919; Guide L653), and, like that volume offers citations to sources for the complete text (official, if possible) of the treaties. The entries also include such data as catchword subject description and names of participating parties. The volume is supplemented by a “Subject and Regional Guide” which serves as a general index.—C.A.B.

LINGUISTICS


According to the preface, this is the first index to the literature of structural and applied linguistics, either in the Soviet Union or abroad. Limited to materials published in the USSR in both Slavic and non-Slavic languages, it includes books; dissertations; articles from journals, serial publications, and anthologies; and reviews. Newspaper articles are excluded. The editors report that all items have been examined before being assigned to the classified arrangement. A separate list of books and articles published abroad in foreign languages, but which were the subject of Soviet reviews is included, along with an abbreviations list and a list of non-Russian periodicals published in the USSR and referred to in the text. There is a name and title index.—E.L.
DICTIONARIES


Covering the nineteenth and twentieth-century vocabulary of Russian dialects, this dictionary will be one of a number of dictionaries which are projected to cover all aspects of the Russian language. It attempts to include all Russian dialects, even those spoken in foreign-language areas, and also to note those features of Russian dialects which have fallen into disuse or are now only weakly preserved. The entries give the pronunciation, meaning, region of origin, and use of each word, as well as pattern sentences and references to sources. Half of this first volume is given over to an extensive bibliography of manuscript and printed sources, plus a list of administrative and geographical regions and their abbreviations.—E.L.


Intended for the student of Norwegian, and containing many features not found in other Norwegian-English dictionaries, this should be a useful addition to reference collections. Forms of Norwegian, Dano-Norwegian, and New Norwegian are listed in a single alphabet. Definitions are given in American English and are often labeled as to usage (archaic, humorous, etc.). Common abbreviations, important place and proper names, and cultural features have been listed in the main alphabet. Cross references are made from variant spellings to that which is currently official, and irregular, nonlexical forms are also cross referenced. The introduction, which is in English, is especially useful. It offers instructions on the use of the dictionary, a history of the Norwegian language, a pronunciation guide, and a bibliography of more than seventy other dictionaries and word lists. Typographically the pages have a crowded appearance, but this defect is more than compensated for by the unusually thorough coverage.—S.R.

AGRICULTURE


More than twelve thousand four hundred serials “current in the summer of 1964, dealing with agriculture and kindred subjects” (Pref.) are entered alphabetically by title or corporate body in this first volume of a projected two-volume work. Since the range of “kindred subjects” is broad, there is a certain coincidence of listings here and in the World List of Scientific Periodicals, but, as a current subject list rather than a union list, the new work should prove useful. New or changed titles will be reported in the Quarterly Bulletin of the International Association of Agricultural Librarians and Documentalists, thus insuring currency. As far as possible, title, place of publication, starting-year, frequency, publisher, and UDC number are indicated for each serial. An index of UDC numbers in English, French, German, and Russian is given at the end of the volume. The second volume, to appear in 1966, will provide “a UDC and quadrilingual index, by subject and place of origin.” (Pref.)—E.S.

THEATER AND CINEMA

With the increasing focus of scholarly attention on the cinema as an art form, there is need for reference works to provide the basic information which students will require in their research. When complete in five volumes (with "filmographie" or list of film titles), the Bessy and Chardans work should prove a considerable step in this direction. The dictionary does not include true biographies of film and television personalities, but the entries under personal names, in addition to giving brief identifying statements, attempt to list chronologically all of an individual's film appearances. These entries constitute a considerable part of the work and are useful primarily for motion pictures, television work not being well reported. Photographs are scattered profusely throughout and are of varying degrees of usefulness, most being very small. Volume one contains some long and basically technical articles such as "Camera" and "Censure"; an article on "Affiches" (Posters) gives an historical survey reaching back well before the advent of the cinema. But the dictionary is strongest by far in history of cinema technology—ranging from production equipment and methods to theater construction and maintenance. Altogether, the work supplies a great deal of information not easily found elsewhere, making this an almost indispensable work for the cinematic sciences despite the uneven coverage of television.—H.M.


To present as complete as possible a picture of the American theater, past and present, is the goal of this encyclopedia. The main section is a selective, alphabetical list of 3350 biographies of American and European actors, directors, playwrights, designers, teachers, and others who have made notable contributions to the American theater. Supplementing this is a "Necrology," international in scope, listing over nine thousand people with place and date of birth and death. To complete the historical picture are a list of plays produced in New York since 1900, with the name of the theater, opening date, and number of performances for each; complete playbills for 1959-64 of Broadway, off-Broadway, and leading United States repertory companies; and a chronological listing of American plays which received their first professional production abroad. Also useful are the lists of American theater awards and their recipients. Two bibliographies are included: one of theater recordings; another of biographies. This is an indispensable tool for theater and research libraries.—S.R.

Literature


In effect, a continuation of the same author's bibliography covering the sixteenth-century (Suppl. 4R106), and offered with the hope that another will follow for the eighteenth, this bibliography is concerned with truly literary works. While the sixteenth-century was covered in one volume which included a comprehensive index, this is the first of several volumes and will have an index in the last only. Otherwise the format is largely similar to that of the earlier work: a general section with subdivisions for history of the book, literary history, social and religious background, literary forms, etc., followed by bibliographies of individual authors. Future volumes will continue the author
alphabet, which lists an author's own works followed by critical studies on an international level. More comprehensive than the corresponding Cabeen volume (though without annotations), the bibliography remains selective but offers rich material. Until the index appears it may be somewhat difficult to get at the diversified information in the first section, but once complete, the set should be highly useful to scholars in this field.

—M.G.


Captions and introductory material in German, English, and French.

Here is a rather curious bibliography of an area of literature that still needs to be better defined, though the compiler promises to do so in a forthcoming book. The present work is apparently not strictly limited to those works which would exhibit Jahn's as yet unspecified "stylistic elements of neo-African literature," but it should be generally useful as a list of literary works by Negroes in Africa, the Americas, and the Caribbean (but excluding North Africa, Europe and Australasia). Arrangement is by area, the two great divisions being Africa and America. In addition, there is a section for anthologies and one for literary forgeries. One notes considerable emphasis on very recent works and contemporary authors, but a book by Ioannes Latinus as early as 1573 is included. There is an author index, but another of titles would increase the value of the book. Altogether, this is a fair bibliography for a literature now emerging into real importance.—H.M.

Kindler's *Literatur Lexikon.* Zurich: Kindler Verlag, [1965-]. v.1-. (To be in 7v.) $37.50 per v. (SwF165,40).

Contents: v.1, A-Cn. 2710 col.

Although inspired by Bompiani's *Dizionario letterario* (Guide R31), this is an altogether new work, and a significantly more useful one than either the Bompiani or the French adaptation thereof (*Dictionnaire des oeuvres... Suppl. 3R7*). In addition to the brief history of a work and the précis of its plot that Bompiani provides, Kindler furnishes an excellent short bibliography at the end of each article, listing, when appropriate, first edition, standard editions, adaptations (dramatic or operatic), critical works, and translations. Since most titles are entered in the original language, the Lexikon serves even the person who does not read German as a quick bibliographic source on any notable work in world literature. Titles in Eastern as well as Western literature are covered—though not with the same degree of comprehensiveness—and there is a certain emphasis on the works of living authors. In all, good bibliographies, the broad range of the work, and its lavish format (good paper, clear type, and beautiful color plates) make this a welcome reference tool. A separate index will be issued with each volume until the cumulated index is published in the final volume.—H.M.


In 1956 the author published a bibliography of the same title (*Suppl. 3R131*), with the designation "preliminary list." Now the complete edition appears, containing more than three hundred additional listings and offering bibliographic and historical information on literary anthologies of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Three different
kinds of anthologies are represented in one chronological sequence: general collections of literary miscellany, collections of humor, and children's anthologies. Wherever possible, information concerning the editorial history and a list of the contents are given for each anthology. An essay on the history of Russian literary anthologies of the period, illustrations, and two indexes (one of titles; the other of authors of individual items) enhance this well organized work.—E.L.


This work, similar in plan to Nyren's A Library of Literary Criticism: Modern American Literature (Suppl. 4R40), covers more than four hundred twentieth-century British writers, giving for each excerpts from criticism bearing on his qualities, status, and "if he is well known, something of his life and personality." (Intro.) Arrangement is alphabetic by author treated, with criticisms in chronological order, a plan that often serves to illustrate fluctuations in literary reputation. Excerpts have been drawn from both books and articles, and exact sources are noted. The Introduction, besides stating policies and principles of compilation, surveys the British reviewing scene of the past half century. Bibliographies of an author's own works appear at the end of the volume; a "cross-reference index to authors" indicates significant mention of writers within the critical selections, and an "index to critics" draws together all selections of one writer in this compilation.—R.K.

BIography


Supported in a variety of ways on a national basis, this new biographical dictionary is planned as a scholarly work based on consultation and cooperation. "The burden of writing has been shared almost equally by university historians and by members of historical and genealogical societies and other specialists." (Pref.) Most articles are signed, but there are unsigned articles, usually prepared by the Dictionary staff. Citations to published or manuscript sources are provided. As with the new Canadian biographical series noted below, chronological division has been established: there are to be two volumes for the 1788-1850 period; four volumes for the 1851-1890 period; and probably six volumes for 1891-1938. "The placing of each individual's name in the appropriate section has been generally determined by when he did his most important work... For articles that overlap the chronological division, preference has usually been given to the earlier period." (Pref.) Some six thousand articles are to be included. While most entries are of obvious significance, some names in the early period were chosen merely as examples of the "Australian experience." A provisional list of names for the next period will be inserted in the final volume of each of the first two sections to serve as a guide until a complete index is published.—E.S.

Dictionary of Canadian Biography. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1966-. v.1-.

Contents: v.1, 1000 to 1700. 755p. $15.

Since the establishment of the "D.C.B." in 1952, scholars, researchers, and librarians have looked forward to the publication of this new work. The editors are striving to produce a complete dictionary of national biography which should supply full, accurate and concise biographies of all noteworthy inhabitants of the Dominion of Canada.
(exclusive of living persons), from the earliest historical period to the time of publication." (Gen.Introd.) The new dictionary differs from the D.N.B. in having a "period arrangement": each volume will be self-contained and will cover a specific number of years, with the biographies arranged alphabetically within the period. While the chronological arrangement does not lend itself as readily to quick reference as does the single alphabet, it is useful in giving an historical perspective. Introductory essays and an index of names mentioned in the text are also helpful in this respect.

Volume I covers maritime explorers, Indians, and people of New France, Acadia, Hudson's Bay Colony, and Newfoundland. The 594 signed biographies in this volume are mainly in the 300-1000 word range, and are generally shorter than those projected for later volumes. Bibliographies are appended. A French-language edition is being published simultaneously, articles being written in French or English according to the writer's preference, then translated for the alternate edition.—C.S.


Contents: v.1, Abada-Avril. 367p., plates. 200F.

Edited from the manuscripts of the master printer and scholar Philippe Renouard (1862-1934), this is the first volume in a series to be devoted to the careers and production of sixteenth-century Parisian printers and booksellers. When completed, it will serve as a bibliography of Parisian imprints of the period and will offer a considerable contribution to knowledge of the French Renaissance and early urban history. Primarily a biobibliography, this first volume includes citations to materials in 234 libraries in France and nine foreign countries. Each entry has a biographical notice, often followed by references to documents and unpublished archival materials. Listings for printers predominate, and contain chronologically descriptive notes on their editions. Plates at the end of the volume illustrate the various printers' typographic traits. There is a detailed subject index. The completed work will be useful in both the bibliographical and bibliographical fields.—M.G.

Geography


Some three thousand four hundred terms used in specific geographical context are included here in a clear and compact format. The emphasis is on specific, factual information, but the definitions are supplemented by statistics, formulae, and diagrams: e.g., under the pertinent entries, ocean areas and depths, longest rivers, and altitudes of mountains are given. Foreign words are listed where accepted in English, and special attention is given to variations in American and English usage. Etymologies and derivations are not given in detail, and political names, countries, cities, regions, etc., are omitted. At back is an analytical list of entries (among the categories are Landforms, Oceanography, Climate, Cartography, and Archaeology) which defines the scope of this useful work.—S.R.


Essentially a companion to the Times Atlas of the World (Suppl. 2U29, etc.)
as a location guide for the three hundred forty-five thousand geographical features listed in the volume, this new work is not a descriptive gazetteer and its other uses are limited. Each listing is identified by political entity and located by latitude and longitude, with reference to a Times map in most cases. However, the feature can be located on any map upon which it is possible to plot accurately longitude and latitude; these coordinates are given to the nearest minute. The volume could also be of help in establishing a standard spelling for a geographical name, since there are cross references from alternate spellings to that currently used (1965) by the government in power. Spot checking indicates that the index is exceedingly thorough in its listings for any well mapped area of the world.—H.M.

HISTORY


The scope of this bibliography is historiographical literature dealing with the prerevolutionary history of, and published in, the territories now comprising the USSR. It includes books, articles, essays from collections, dissertations, and some items from newspapers. Special attention is focused on the prerevolutionary Lenin era and the contributions to historiography made by the members of the nineteenth-century radical and revolutionary movements. Citations are grouped in a subject classification scheme of which the three main divisions are: (1) general historiography; (2) literature about the activities of institutions and societies in the field of history; and (3) literature about regional historians. A detailed index facilitates use.—E. L.


Long recognized as the standard bibliography for German history, the 9th edition of Dahlmann-Waitz appeared in 1931 (Guide V252). This new edition is to be in six volumes, and publication will be spread over the next several years. Coverage is extended to the end of World War II, and includes works published through 1960. The general plan of the work remains the same: a general section, and a chronological section by historical periods. On the basis of the single fascicule of bibliography received (sections are being published as completed rather than in sequence of coverage), plus comparison of the table of contents of the 9th edition with the outline for the 10th, substantial reworking of the various sections is indicated. The publisher's announcement estimates three times as many entries for the new edition, and a greater number of non-German writings is to be included throughout. All the same, since numerous citations are evidently being dropped, librarians may well wish to keep the 9th edition in the reference collection.—E.S.


The Johann Gottfried Herder Institut was established in 1950 for the purpose of scholarly research on those countries
in which German and Slavic peoples lived in proximity for many centuries” (Foreword), and the holdings of its library cover not only writings on the cultures of the East Central European states, but also important works on the Soviet Union, Finland, and West Germany. These volumes reproduce the library’s card catalog, with entries (authors and some subjects) for approximately seventy thousand volumes, including one thousand one hundred current serials, dealing with “the territory itself; the inhabitants and all their activities through the course of history, from prehistoric times to the present; and all aspects of cultural life.” Works on the natural sciences, technology, and medicine are excluded. As a listing of works on the cultures of East Germany, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, and Czechoslovakia it should be especially useful.—C.S.


A welcome addition to the growing corpus of dissertation bibliographies in various disciplines, this volume lists more than seventy-five hundred doctoral dissertations from the history departments of some eighty universities for the long span of years designated in the subtitle. Dissertations dealing with historical topics, but submitted in departments other than history are not included. Entries are arranged alphabetically by author, and for each are given the author’s full name, dissertation title, university, and year. A “numerical summary” lists universities covered, date of first history degree, number of degrees conferred, and sources consulted. The long subject index, described as “standard in form following in general the pattern in the ... Guide to Historical Literature” (p.211), is a combination of standard subject headings and important key words from the dissertation titles.—R.K.


For classical scholars and students of antiquity, this work will be a welcome complement to the Oxford Classical Dictionary (Oxford, 1949). Unlike the older work, this volume does not limit itself strictly to Greco-Roman civilization, but includes material on the Orient when related to Western culture, and also on early Christianity. Two hundred and thirty-seven scholars have contributed signed articles in the areas of literature, philosophy, political and cultural history, religion, law, economics, technology, and communications. Detailed cross references and the inclusion of up-to-date bibliographies in individual articles expand the usefulness of the work, while maps, charts, and drawings enhance the text. Additional features include a list of illustrations depicting persons mentioned in the articles, descriptions of famous Greek and Latin manuscripts and papyri, chronologies of the most important archaeological excavations, and translations of selected Greek and Latin quotations. There is also an extensive abbreviations list, a list of place names with reference to locations on maps in the volume, and an index of Greek and Latin terms with their German equivalents.—E.L.

Contents: v.1,pt.1, Do roku 1454. 759p., zl.155; v.1,pt.2, 1454-1795. 399p., zl.86.

These two parts make up Volume I of what is to be a three-volume bibliography of Polish history from earliest times to 1944. The first section of part one is a general guide to bibliographic and reference aids, methodology, historiography, archives and libraries, and auxiliary studies; it is followed by bibliography of Polish history arranged by periods to 1454, with appropriate subdivisions. Volume I, part 2, continues the period sections to 1795. (Volume II will deal with Polish history to 1918, and Volume III that of the years following.) While coverage extends to such subjects as statistics, economics, and sociology, the bibliography is meant to be selective rather than exhaustive. Both books and periodical materials are included; the great bulk of entries is, understandably, in Polish. There are some brief annotations and cross references; items are numbered; and an author index is promised.—E.S.

Répertoire méthodique de l'histoire moderne et contemporaine de la France.

After an unusual number of delays and vicissitudes this volume, edited from the original research of Pierre Caron and his associates, appears to fill the gap in the series (Guide V235) so that it now offers consecutive coverage for the 1898-1913 period. The classified arrangement with indexes of authors and persons and of places is consistent with that of the previously published volumes.—E.S. ■ ■

CHURCH HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS . . .

(Continued from page 303)

working with the collection is not a professional librarian, basic rules of filing, cataloging, classification, and preservation must be mastered.

One of the most important things would seem to be to establish a set of rules and organizational procedures to be followed. No collection should be allowed, like Topsy, simply to grow. A mass of unorganized materials is of little value to anyone.

Patrick Henry once said, "I know of no way of judging of the future but by the past."48 If this be true, it can be concluded that if the various church bodies are to progress in the days to come, they must know their history and heritage. A collection of church historical materials is essential to such knowledge. ■ ■


JUNIOR COLLEGE . . .

(Continued from page 266)

The people who met in May recommended to their respective boards that a continuing joint committee of AAJC and ALA be established to give leadership to such projects and that some full-time staff services be made available to the committee.

This presentation started with an emphasis upon the importance of communication in the learning process. The events just reported lead to the happy conclusion that communication is improving between professionals who have somewhat different responsibilities on the campus but a common interest in facilitating the learning process through effective and suitable library services.

We can talk to each other. We can listen to each other. We have a basis for understanding. And it is in that kind of climate that we move into this era with the conviction that what we shall do is difficult, but more important, it is essential, and it is time it was done. ■ ■

Relative to their role as custodians of our cultural heritage, librarians, as a group, show remarkably little interest in their own history. This is another way of saying that library histories, particularly histories of individual libraries, are not likely to be widely read. We tend to be progressive, forward-looking, pragmatic, to view the Golden Age as still ahead and only reluctantly cast our eyes backward at our unglamorous beginnings. Except as a source of colorful anecdote or utilitarian explanation of how-it-all-came-to-be, we are not likely to be concerned with library history for its own sake. Add to all this the fact that the historian of a particular library, even a great metropolitan library system, must necessarily deal with more local history than most readers wish to know about. These are indeed formidable barriers to readership.

In what terms then can one recommend a good book such as Frank Woodford has provided us, a centennial testimonial worthy of one of our great and widely influential public library systems? Mr. Woodford's qualifications are noteworthy. For over thirty years he has known Detroit as a newspaperman and chief editorial writer of the Free Press. During the past fifteen years he has produced six other books on Detroit and Michigan history, all but one of which was published by a university press. It is not surprising then that this work is backed by ample research and unobtrusively presents its story in its social, cultural, and political context. Especially striking is the author's skill in keeping his story moving ahead chronologically and, at the same time, dealing in some depth with major developments and issues. But, it may as well be admitted, that, through no fault of Mr. Woodford's, many readers will be better served by commencing to read with the chapter "Branching Out," about two-fifths of the way through, where the DPL clearly begins to emerge as one of our dynamic and prototype library systems. In the chapters that follow, such as "Blood Money" (Andrew Carnegie's benefaction), "The Children's Hour," "A Finger on the City's Pulse," "The Library Goes to War," "Days of Despair" (The Depression), and "Plowing New Fields," the clearly evident importance of the story heightens the interest.

This reader was disappointed that the chapter on "Thou Shalt Not Read" was not extended to include a fuller account of book selection policy, with discussion of its negative, as well as positive, aspects. Though by no means ignored, more could have been said about the diverse publics which the library serves. But the book should be judged in terms of what it does, not what it does not do. Mr. Woodford has provided a sound, well written book. The story he tells should increase in interest as, in the coming years, the broad range of services which have made the Detroit public library exceptional become a commonplace experience to all but the smallest communities.— John C. Abbott, Edwardsville Campus, Southern Illinois University.


Librarians and bibliographers interested in the movement of the printing trades westward will find this volume a useful accession to their collections. The first press to enter the Trans-Mississippi territory was operated in Missouri in 1808, but only five other Western states had presses before mid-century. El Mejicano began publication in Nacogdoches in what is now Texas in 1813; El Crepusculo de la Libertad was established in Taos, New Mexico, in 1834; the Cherokee Advocate appeared in Oklahoma in 1844; both the Californian of Monterey and the Oregon Spectator of Oregon City began in 1846.

The migration of the printing trades toward the setting sun was difficult. Old presses and battered type were carried on wagons and keelboats, railroad cars and muleback, to assuage the insatiable appetite of early settlers for intelligences and other reading matter from the eastern lands they had forsaken. Newspapers with such colorful names as the Guthrie Get Up, the Unterrified Democrat, the Arizona Silver Belt, and the storied Tombstone Epitaph, sprang...
into being in profusion in frame buildings, sod houses, tents, and adobe structures to meet the reading needs of the advancing populace.

The period was one of most vitriolic personal journalism, and many duels were fought between rivaling news factions; the story "is spiced with kidnapping, gunfire, pilfered presses, the drinking proclivities of Eugene Field and the promotional schemes of Horace Greeley." John H. Marion, editor of the Prescott Miner, once wrote in his columns of rival editor Judge William J. Berry of the Yuma Sentinel that "His first great care was to fill himself with whiskey, after which it was his custom to walk, like the swine that he is, on all fours to his den." Judge Berry, of course, replied in kind, reporting that "we had the extreme mortification of seeing the editor of the Miner . . . laid out in the refreshment room, dead drunk, with candles placed at his head and his feet, and a regular 'wake' held over him. It was then for the first time that we discovered Darwin's connecting link between the fish and the quadruped. As he lay with the drunken slobber issuing from his immense mouth, which extends from ear to ear, and his ears reaching up so high, everyone present was forcibly impressed with the fact that there was a connecting link between the catfish and the jackass."

The real value of Newspapering in the Old West does not lie, however, in its many colorful although undocumented anecdotes, nor in its fascinating although cursory narrative, for both of these features are better available elsewhere. The major contribution of the present volume is rather its avowed effort to bring together a broad selection of pictures illustrative of its topic. Anecdote and narrative serve only to knit halftone loosely to photograph and line etching to tintype, for the illustrations are excellent—all 347 of them. Printing offices, inside and out, editors, newsboys, banner heads, printing equipment, type-setters, all are presented in this excellent pictorial account of the printing press on its trek westward.—D.K.


This absorbing work might well have been dedicated to the late Fremont Rider. Nearly a quarter-century has passed since he astounded the library world with his classic demonstration that throughout their history American research libraries had doubled in size every sixteen years and, moreover, looked to continue to do so. Continue indefinitely? Patently impossible, as Rider agreed. This report, however, affirms that exponential growth still prevails, with no significant sign of slackening. Indeed, reasons are adduced for possible acceleration in the years just ahead.

The study is "credited, in part, to the availability of high-speed computers." Some nine thousand statistics for members of the Association of Research Libraries went into the analyses and projections presented by authors Dunn, Purdue's associate director of libraries, and his colleagues of Purdue's Instructional Media Research Unit. They derived for each library, for every fiscal year from 1950-51 through 1963-64, the figures for numerous categories of data. They have emphasized volumes held, volumes acquired, and total expenditures, but also examined several classes of expenditure, professional staff size, and the like. The statistics were then grouped for eight "composite" libraries: average, median, first and third quartiles, and four sub-groups according to size.

The steady growth in every case being clearly parabolic rather than linear, the "fitted curve" technique was employed to predict future levels. The resulting twenty-eight graphs are dramatic. Carried to 1980, all note approximate doubling periods: e.g., for size of the average composite library, seventeen years; for the median composite, fourteen to fifteen. (The rate for the composite fourteen largest libraries—eighteen to twenty years—hardly constitutes essential undermining of Rider's thesis.) Among other resounding findings for the average composite library: holdings in 1980 of 2.86 million volumes—or, via an alternate approach, 3.75 million—with acquisitions rates doubling every nine to twelve years, expenditures doubling every seven years. Throughout, the general picture is one of remarkable consistency, with noteworthy
stability of relationships among library characteristics.

Graphs ranking all fifty-eight libraries throughout the fourteen years by size, acquisitions, and expenditures have high interest. Correlational analyses of all possible pairs of annually reported statistics, including total enrollments, graduate enrollments, and PhD production, reveal trends deserving close scrutiny.

The study presents such a wealth of detail, analysis, and admirably concise comment as to defy adequate delineation in a brief review. Even so, the data contained in 812 IBM cards were only partially analyzed; the investigators offer the deck at cost to those wishing to probe still deeper.

In the "Second Printing," the authors have added 1964-65 data and shown both in tables and on the graphs how these varied from their predictions. (Remarkably, most predictions were found to have been conservative.) One hopes that, based upon their excellent fundamental work, the authors will continue such updating annually hereafter.—Robert L. Talmadge, Tulane University.


The librarian of the Fisher library at the University of Sydney has prepared a concise statement on the growth of university libraries in Australia. The pamphlet contains observations on the past development, current programs, and what is needed in the near future.

In the Introduction, Mr. Bryan notes the growth of universities in the country. Of the fourteen university libraries (and two additional institutions that are growing toward this status, Townsville and Wollongong) only six (Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, Queensland, and Western Australia) date from before the Second World War.

The author returns to the Munn-Pitt report of 1935, when the libraries were "unistinguished in quality, and indifferently conducted." In terms of a report of projection by H. L. White in 1939, Mr. Bryan found that movement in building collections, erecting new libraries, and strengthening staffs was very slow. Demands increased, however, and the growth of student bodies from thirty-two thousand in 1949 to more than sixty-nine thousand in 1963 not only put pressure on libraries but on available educational services generally. New institutions were provided at New England (Armidale, N.S.W.), New South Wales (Kensington), and Newcastle (formerly a University College of Sydney), Monash (Clayton, Victoria), Macquarie and La Trobe (Victoria), and Bedford Park (South Australia). The author shows constant growth in support, book stock, and personnel, and especially in buildings. New buildings have been erected since 1958 at Melbourne, Adelaide, Tasmania, New England, Sydney, Monash (two buildings), and Western Australia. The Australian National University library has a new building, and the new library for New South Wales is nearing completion, as is a major extension of Queensland. New structures are planned for Macquarie and La Trobe.

In personnel, Mr. Bryan points out that criticisms that were in the Munn-Pitt report could not be made against the librarians today. Fourteen of the sixteen librarians at present are professionally trained, and the other two were recruited from librarianship and not from teaching. Ten of the sixteen have higher degrees in the academic field.

Resources of the libraries have been strengthened with increased book funds, but with the growth of enrollments, faculty research, and enlarged programs, they have scarcely been able to keep up with the pressures placed upon them. Bryan has been one of the advocates of cooperative collecting for the country, and writes: "If they [university libraries] throw their weight behind the movement for rationalization of library resources and services on a national scale, they will not only make this rationalization much more meaningful, but also ensure that it preserves the degree of local self-sufficiency which is vital to the carrying out of their major role." Indeed, the libraries of the country, including the national library and the state libraries, have been working together on a national effort to collect materials which will be available to the researchers and scholars of Australia wherever they may be located. National planning appears to be an accepted approach to making the library dollar (as it has recently become) go as far as possible.

—Maurice F. Tauber, Columbia University.
Even the smallest college library can have a complete collection of early English and American literature. For peanuts.

Even the smallest college library can have every title in the Pollard & Redgrave Short Title Catalogue.

Every title in the Wing catalogue.
A complete collection of British essays, journals and magazines of the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries.
A collection of American literature, beginning with the Columbus Letter and including over 6000 selected books, through 1876.
The Wright Bibliography. Every American novel published between 1774 and 1865. 5600 books in all.
The complete Congressional Record. The Economic Reports of the President. The Great Britain House of Commons Session Papers and Indexes.

Even the smallest college library can have all these collections, or just the selections they want in smaller collections.

How?
On microfilm. For peanuts per title.
And only through University Microfilms, Inc.

University Microfilms, Inc.
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48103

For prices and complete information, check the collection you’re most interested in:
- [ ] EARLY AMERICAN BOOKS.
- [ ] EARLY ENGLISH BOOKS.
- [ ] EARLY ENGLISH PERIODICALS.
- [ ] EARLY AMERICAN NOVELS.
- [ ] EARLY AMERICAN PERIODICALS.

Name_________________________________________________________
Title________________________________________________________
Address______________________________________________________
City________________________County___________________________
State______________________Zip_______________________________
Now—on Microcard and Microfiche

ENGLISH REPORTS. FULL REPRINT. Vols. 1-57.

GUIDE TO MICROFORMS IN PRINT. 1966.
(Conventional publication—8½ x 11”—paperbound.) The only comprehensive listing of publications available on microfilm and other microforms. Covers all methods of microreproduction (microfilm, micro-opaque cards, microfiche)—each entry includes the price of the work, the publisher, and the method of microreproduction used. Over 16,000 entries. Published annually since 1961. $4.00 postage paid.

GERMANY. REICHSTAG. VERHANDLUNGEN DES REICHSTAGS. Vols. 58-164 (1867-79).

JOURNAL ASIATIQUE. Series V-IX (1853-1922).


LITERARY DIGEST. Vols. 1-31 (1890-1905).

NEW YORK REVIEW OF BOOKS. Vols. 1-5.


REVUE HISTORIQUE. Vols. 1-105 (1876-1910).

Royal Society of London. CATALOG OF SCIENTIFIC PAPERS.

STATUTES OF THE REALM, 1225-1713.

U. S. Dept. of State. PAPERS RELATING TO THE FOREIGN RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1861-1942. 209 vols.

U. S. Supreme Court. RECORDS AND BRIEFS
RENAISSANCE REPRINTS—1500-1700

RENAISSANCE REPRINTS will make available once again important texts in history, political thought and literature now expensive and nigh impossible to find. The best available contemporary edition will be reprinted. Available good modern critical editions will not be duplicated.

Each reprint will have a new introduction by a scholar wherein he will place the text in its historical setting, review the relevant literature, indicate relations to other contemporary tracts and provide a concise bio-bibliography.

The following series will appear:
A. French history and political thought
   Editor: Ralph E. Giesey, University of Minnesota
B. French literature
C. Italian history and political thought
   Editor: Gordon Griffiths, University of Washington
D. Italian literature
E. Spanish history and political thought
F. Spanish literature
   Editor: Otis H. Green, University of Pennsylvania
G. Bibliography
   Editor: Archer Taylor, University of California

Publication opens with Series A, French history and political thought, which first offers the prime sources for Huguenot political thought and activity: the record of a great struggle in the later sixteenth century over the principles of heterodoxy in religion and the right of resistance in politics:

[BARNAUD, Nicolas]. Receuil-Matin des francois. Edimbourg, 1574. 2 vols. in 1. 380 pp. ........................................ $23.50
ESTIENNE, Henri. Discours merveilleux de la vie, actions et deportemens de Catherine de Medici. n.p. 1578. 100 pp. ........................................ $11.00
GENTILLET, Innocent. Apologie ou defense pour les Chrestiens de France. ... Geneva, 1578. 244 pp. ........................................ $17.50
———. Anti-machiavel. n.p. 1609. 985 pp. ........................................ $45.00
———. Commentatariorum de regno ... advers. N. Machiavellum. n.p. 1577. 714 pp. ........................................ $31.50

Bound in solid cloth, lettered in gold
Titles in Series B-C will be announced shortly.

AUDAX PRESS, Dept C
2039 E. Juanita St. Tucson, Arizona
MINI-GRAPH

... when you need catalog cards in a hurry

Duplicate as many cards as you need in your own library. Cards are automatically fed, counted and printed at the rate of two per second.

The Mini-Graph, specially designed for reproducing catalog cards, offers unusual convenience, flexibility and economy. Simple to operate—saves time and money!

Write for full information. Mini-Graph Duplicator with a starter set of stencils and ink ... $275.00.
These four scientific and engineering journals have been judged by professionals in the instrumentation field to be the outstanding Soviet publications in instrumentation.

**AUTOMATION AND REMOTE CONTROL**
Monthly; mathematically oriented, emphasizing stability and optimization of automatic control systems.

**INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUES**
Bi-monthly; devoted primarily to nuclear research and associated instrumentation.

**MEASUREMENT TECHNIQUES**
Monthly; covers measurement of physical variables plus test and calibration of measurement and recording instruments.

**INDUSTRIAL LABORATORY**
Monthly; devoted to methods of chemical analysis, physical investigation, and mechanical test.

**BACK ISSUES**
ARC: from 1957, except 1960
IET: from 1958, except 1961
MT: from 1958
IL: from 1958

Complete volumes of back issues are available at special prices. Please write for details.

Sample copies are available to librarians writing on organizational letterhead.

**INSTRUMENT SOCIETY OF AMERICA**, Department R3
530 William Penn Place, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15219
Send us your worn, torn, and dog-eared catalog cards.

We'll send you back crisp clean new ones in 72 hours.

Send us any number of catalog cards. 1,000 or 100,000. Within 72 hours we'll send you back photo-exact duplicates. As many as you need.

And they'll be in the same order you sent them to us. "A" to "Z" or "Z" to "A".

Your new cards will be on top-grade Library of Congress approved stock, punched, trimmed and ready for filing.

The price. As little as 4½¢ per card.

Xerox Reproduction Services
121 North Broad Street

Please send me complete information and mailing cartons for catalogue cards.

NAME ____________________________

ADDRESS _______________________

CITY ___________________________

STATE ______________ ZIP ________

XEROX CORPORATION, ROCHESTER, NEW YORK 14603
BRANCH OFFICES IN PRINCIPAL U.S. CITIES.
XEROX IS A TRADEMARK OF XEROX CORPORATION.
Above is a view of one tier of double-tiered AETNASTAK in the new 2,000,000-volume Queens Central Library, Jamaica, New York.

Here are samples of recent custom designs created by AETNASTAK. This equipment enhances the reading area and also provides the durability, flexibility and functionalism of traditional bookstack.

The time it will take you to write for an AETNASTAK catalog will not be wasted! Address:

AETNASTAK SALES

AETNA STEEL PRODUCTS CORPORATION

229 Park Avenue South, New York 10003 • Telephone: 212-677-5790

AETNASTAK—The New Standard of Excellence in Steel Library Equipment.
OVER 13,000 OUT-OF-PRINT TITLES IN THIS COLLECTION ARE NOW AVAILABLE BY DUOPAGE BOOK REPRODUCTION FROM MICRO PHOTO DIVISION — BELL & HOWELL COMPANY

Out-of-Print Books from the John G. White Folklore Collection at the Cleveland Public Library

Reproduced by the Duopage Process by
MICRO PHOTO DIVISION BELL & HOWELL COMPANY CLEVELAND, OHIO

A 321 PAGE CATALOG, LISTING THE BOOKS WHICH WILL BE REPRODUCED BY DUOPAGE CAN BE ORDERED AT $5.00 A COPY FROM: MICRO PHOTO DIVISION BELL & HOWELL COMPANY DUOPAGE DEPARTMENT 1700 SHAW AVE. CLEVELAND, OHIO 44112
does a comprehensive multidisciplinary index have a place in your specialized library?

As the publishers of the Science Citation Index, we must say yes. A presumptuous answer? No. A biased answer? No.

Let us explain why a specialized library needs a comprehensive multidisciplinary index to all of science. In this day of rapid-fire scientific and technological advances, again and again, the frontiers of each subject area infiltrate and invade the frontiers of other subject areas. Because of this phenomenon you have such mixtures as biomedicine and computers, psychology and mathematics, biology and physics, physiology and aerospace sciences.

This mingling of disciplines makes it vital that scientific research have a dynamic system that continually reorganizes and integrates information as knowledge grows... a system that enables any searcher to extract even the most peripheral information of value to him.

The Science Citation Index is this system.

See how valuable the Science Citation Index can be to you. We'll send you the SCI on loan for 90 days. No obligation, of course. We want you to use the SCI. We want you to test the SCI. Give it the tough problems you haven't been able to solve. See for yourself the place this comprehensive multidisciplinary index has in your scientific library.

To borrow the SCI, just drop us a line at dept. 12-9

another service of

INSTITUTE FOR SCIENTIFIC INFORMATION 325 Chestnut St Philadelphia Pa 19106 USA
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author/Editor</th>
<th>Edition Details</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Philosophical Works</em></td>
<td>Hume, David.</td>
<td>Ed. with notes by T. H. Green and T. H. Grose. London 1882-86 (Reprint 1964)</td>
<td>$75.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vol. 2: Bibliographies Specialisees: Sciences Humaines. 1952 (Reprint 1965)</td>
<td>$23.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vol. 3: Bibliographies Specialisees: Sciences Exactes et Techniques. 1958 (Reprint 1965)</td>
<td>$11.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Opera quae extant omnia</em></td>
<td>Newton, Isaac.</td>
<td>Ed. by S. Horsley. 5 vols. London 1779-1785 (Reprint 1963)</td>
<td>$90.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Oxford English Dictionary</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>13 vols. (slightly used copy)</td>
<td>$225.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>La Litterature Francaise contemporaine, 1827-1849.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 vols. (Suppl. to <em>La France litteraire.</em>) Paris 1842-1857 (Reprint 1965)</td>
<td>$78.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Works</em></td>
<td>Smith, Adam.</td>
<td>Ed. by D. Stewart with an Account of his Life and Writing. 5 vols. London 1811-12 (Reprint 1964)</td>
<td>$112.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>