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United States Influence on Canadian Universities and Their Libraries

United States influence, through foundations and individuals, has been an important factor in the development of Canadian colleges and universities. Men and money have been provided which determined the direction of the development of the universities and the trend toward state control. Impartial American authorities provided the impetus for the expansion of the collections of university libraries.

For fifty years there existed a "brain drain" to the United States, but this has now been partially reversed.

In this year of the Centennial Celebration of Confederation, Canadians are recalling the forces that have contributed significantly to the development of the country. Amid the conflicting views on the extent of United States influence on the economic life in Canada, one area of American influence on the cultural life of Canada is often overlooked—the influence upon universities and their libraries.

In the development of colleges and universities Canada has profited from the guidance of American men and from donations of American money. American influence often determined the direction of the development of the universities, the trend toward state control, and the expansion of library collections. Here was no ulterior motive of profit but a genuine desire to share the money, the knowledge, and the experience of a richer and more powerful neighbor with a young and developing nation.

The beginnings of the United States influence on Canadian higher education came after the American Revolution when many Loyalists moved to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Upper and Lower Canada (now Ontario and Quebec), and brought with them some knowledge of leading American institutions—Harvard, Yale, and Columbia. Some of the Loyalists were graduates of American colleges or were familiar with the standards of education in the Colonies and wanted the same or better opportunities in their new-found home. Some were men of position and influence, and some were farmers and tradesmen, but all were interested in schools and colleges that would be centers not only of learning but also of loyalty to the ideals and traditions of England, which they were so eager to preserve. Thus the first American settlers who came to Canada—the Loyalists—brought a zeal for learning as well as a loyalty to the Union Jack.

The first university established in Canada and the oldest in the British overseas Dominion—King's College in Nova Scotia—was the result of the plans not of Canadians but of eighteen clergymen from the newly independent American colonies, who met in New York on March 21, 1783. They addressed a letter to Sir Guy Carleton, Governor of British North America, pointing out the necessity of establishing the Church of England among the loyal settlers of Nova Scotia and suggesting that a bishop be sent to reside there. The first two signers were the Reverend Charles In-

Mr. Glazier is at the Hoover Institution, Stanford University.
glis, Rector of Trinity Church, New York, afterwards Bishop of Nova Scotia, and the Reverend Samuel Seabury, afterwards Bishop of Connecticut. Five of the clergymen met again in New York on October 18, 1783, and agreed on a plan that was forwarded to Sir Guy Carleton for "the founding of a college or seminary of learning on a liberal plan in that province [Nova Scotia], where youth may receive a virtuous education and can be qualified for the learned professions..."¹

The first motive of these clergymen was to maintain and strengthen the domain of the Church of England, but they were also resolved to strengthen the ties of loyalty to Great Britain. Some of these clergymen, because of their loyalty to Britain during the Revolutionary War, had suffered imprisonment or the confiscation of their property and were eager to establish a new domain of loyalty among the youth of Nova Scotia. In their covering letter to the Governor they warned him of the danger of the youth of Nova Scotia leaving home in search of higher education and coming "to some of the States of this continent, where they will be sure to imbibe principles that are unfriendly to the British Constitution."²

On May 12, 1802, a Royal Charter was given to King's College, Windsor, and the dream of its American planners was fulfilled. Born of religious and patriotic zeal, the college survived the perilous days of youth marked by a fierce struggle between over-zealous laymen who sought to impose the Thirty-Nine Articles on all students, and a wise Bishop, the same Charles Inglis who had been an original petitioner to the Governor, who realized that these tests were obnoxious to the majority of the citizens of the province.

For over a hundred years King's College flourished, but on February 20, 1920, the main building was destroyed by fire, and efforts to rebuild were unsuccessful. The Carnegie Corporation sent Kenneth Sills, president of Bowdoin College, and William S. Learned to make a preliminary survey of colleges in the Maritimes; they recommended that a considerable sum be given to King's if it would move to Halifax and become affiliated with the undenominational Dalhousie University. This offer was accepted, King's College moved to Halifax, and by 1924 the faculties of Arts and Pure Sciences were combined with those of Dalhousie; the Divinity School remained completely under the control of King's College.

Thus, one hundred and twenty years after the Royal Charter had been given to the Church of England institution which had been the dream of Loyalist clergymen of the former colonies, King's College became part of a federation with an undenominational institution—Dalhousie—thanks to the financial inducements of an American foundation.

The Carnegie Foundation really sought the federation of all Maritime colleges and universities into one institution at Halifax and was prepared to support the idea with a considerable sum. But the Baptist College, Acadia, refused to join and, rejecting the Carnegie offer of three million dollars, appealed to denominational loyalty and raised three-quarters of a million dollars from its friends. This was one time when well-intentioned tangible support from the United States was spurned by intangible denominational fervor.

While United States influence on higher education in English-speaking Canada can be traced back to the beginning of the nineteenth century, for two reasons the influence on French Canadian higher education in the early years was not so marked. First, higher education in French-speaking Canada (Québec), with a few exceptions such as McGill

² Ibid.
University, was supported and controlled by the Roman Catholic Church, and there was no desire for such outside support as American foundations might be willing to supply along with their attendant conditions. The Roman Catholic colleges were designed to train young men for the priesthood and a limited number of the professions and were not seeking to broaden the curriculum. Recent years, however, have seen a tremendous change in control and curriculum.

The second reason that American foundations did not penetrate the French-Canadian strongholds of education was the barrier of language. Because French was the language of instruction and communication, contact with the outside world was somewhat limited to those who spoke and understood French.

At the beginning of the twentieth century the United States again had a significant influence on Canadian higher education. Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, had been granted a Royal Charter on October 16, 1841, as an arts and theological college under the control of the Presbyterian Church in Canada. With the expansion of the university, denominational funds proved inadequate. A special campaign was launched by the church to raise $500,000. Andrew Carnegie, a Presbyterian, offered $100,000 when $400,000 had been secured by the church. While Mr. Carnegie was willing to have Queen's remain under Presbyterian control, the Carnegie Foundation had a different idea. The Carnegie Foundation offered financial assistance but on the condition that Queen's be freed from denominational control. The choice was now up to the Church. Finally, in June 1911, the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in Canada decided to make Queen's undenominational and thus "receive generous benefactions also from other sources, so that it may be enabled with every increasing efficiency to promote the higher education of the nation." Thus, once again, it was a United States corporation that influenced the change of control and direction of a major Canadian institution from a denominational college to a national university.

"The State University is the greatest contribution made so far by the United States to higher education," said Sir Robert Falconer, president of the University of Toronto, to the Royal Society of Canada in 1930. Land grants for state universities had long been regarded as the appropriate solution to the financial needs of the new American universities. From the time of the Northwest Ordinance passed by the Congress of the United States in 1787 provision had been made for land grants to states entering the Union and desiring to support a university. The model provided by such American states as Michigan, Wisconsin, Missouri, Minnesota, and Illinois was an important factor in determining the formation of state universities in Canada—particularly in western Canada.

When the University of Manitoba was established in 1877 by the cooperation of three existing denominational colleges, the province had a population of less than 50,000. Accordingly, friends of the university appealed to Ottawa for a grant of land, and by 1889 about 150,000 acres had been set apart.

When the University of Saskatchewan was formed in 1907 no provision was made for a land grant, but rather a fixed percentage of the consolidated revenue of the province was provided. The university thus had a measure of financial independence and was protected from the perils of political patronage.

The unique feature in the develop-

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ment of the University of Saskatchewan was the granting to the state university of sole degree-conferring powers—a precedent which had been established by the University of Michigan. D. Pierce, father of the University of Michigan, had urged the state in 1837 to withhold charters from private colleges and to deny them the power of conferring degrees. By the Michigan constitution of 1850 the granting of charters to denominational colleges was strictly prohibited. What Pierce had advocated in 1837 and what the State of Michigan had enacted in 1850 was adopted by the new provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta. In these provinces a single university was established under the control of, and with the support of, the state and with sole power to grant degrees, except in theology.

The new University of British Columbia also was given an endowment of two million acres of Crown lands and sole degree-conferring power.

United States influence was strong not only in determining the direction of Canadian higher education but in strengthening library resources. The early thirties were difficult years for all colleges in Canada and particularly in western Canada, where crop failures had created a serious economic plight. In 1932 the Carnegie Corporation came to the rescue of many colleges in Canada and provided $187,800 for the purchase of books and current periodicals at the undergraduate level. These were not books for research or special collections but basic books for a college library, and grants were extended over three years. Twenty-eight institutions, from small denominational colleges such as Campion College in Regina, to state institutions such as the University of Toronto and independent universities such as Dalhousie, shared in the grants.

In the half century 1911 to 1961 the Carnegie Corporation gave nearly one million dollars for the purchase of library books and the improvement of library services in Canadian colleges and universities. This included $134,300 for the library school at McGill University and $50,000 for the library building at Victoria University.

The Carnegie Foundation was not the only American private organization to assist materially with the development of Canadian higher education. When the Montreal Neurological Institute, the first institution in the world devoted exclusively to the treatment of nerve disease, opened on September 27, 1934, its existence was due mainly to the one million dollar grant from the Rockefeller Foundation. It was, too, an American born professor of Neurology and Neurosurgery at McGill University, Dr. Wilder Penfield, who played a leading role in its planning and became its first director. In 1964 the Ford Foundation made a grant of $100,000 (which was matched by Canadian business and industry) to the Canadian Universities Foundation to study the financing of higher education in Canada with particular reference to the decade ending in 1975. The report was released in October 1965.

A significant development in the libraries of Canadian universities took place as a result of a survey financed by an American institution, the Council on Library Resources, Inc., and sponsored by the National Conference of Canadian Universities and Colleges. The survey was conducted in 1962 under the direction of Edwin Williams of Harvard University, and the report of the survey was published in 1962: Resources of Canadian University Libraries for Research in the Humanities and Social Sciences. Some Canadian universities had previously borrowed experts from the United States to survey particular collections, such as the University of Toronto bringing an authority from Columbia University to evaluate its Slavic collection, but this was the first time there had been a candid look at the library resources for graduate education
in Canadian universities. Fourteen universities were surveyed—Alberta, British Columbia, Dalhousie, Laval, McGill, McMaster, Manitoba, Montreal, New Brunswick, Ottawa, Queen's, Saskatchewan, Toronto, and Western Ontario. The surveyor's primary assignment was to report on the extent and nature of research collections for the humanities and social sciences, exclusive of Canadian material, in the fourteen universities.

The survey revealed how inadequate were the resources of Canadian university libraries for research programs. Only one library—the University of Toronto—had over a million volumes. The report drew attention not only to the lack in size and depth of various subject collections but also to the fact that the amount allocated from university funds for library expenditures was entirely inadequate. As a result of the survey there has been a remarkable growth in the number of books in Canadian university libraries and an equally remarkable growth in the allocation of book funds. The report provided the catalyst that stimulated a genuine concern and produced spectacular results. Today such universities as the University of Toronto and the University of British Columbia have book budgets of over one million dollars for the current year.

American financial aid to Canadian higher education was substantial, but unintentionally it paid off as an investment. Graduates of Canadian colleges came to the United States in increasing numbers to take postgraduate studies, particularly at such prestigious institutions as Harvard, Princeton, and Yale or, in later years, at the great universities in California at Stanford, Berkeley, or Los Angeles. A large percentage of these postgraduate students stayed in the United States and accepted positions in the academic or business and professional community.

One has only to check the faculty list of any American university today to discover how many professors, and even presidents (as at Stanford and San Francisco State) were born in Canada and received their first university education there. The United States has offered more opportunities and higher salaries for young Canadian graduates in academic life and also in industry.

Canada has thus had a "brain drain" problem for fifty years. The Canadian government estimates that close to ten thousand Canadians are now studying in American universities. In December 1966 the Department of Manpower and Immigration began its own "Operation Retrieval" with the distribution to students abroad of a publication describing career opportunities in Canada.

In the last ten years the brain drain to the United States has been less marked. Not only has there been an increasing number of Canadians returning to Canada, but a large number of American graduates are finding positions in Canadian economic life. This reversal of the flow is the result of the rapid growth of industrial development in Canada during and following World War II. Canada was transformed from a rural agricultural economy to an important industrial nation with a leading place in world trade. The economic development prompted the development of more colleges and universities.

Probably the most revolutionary change in Canada in the last ten years has been the significant increase in the number of new colleges and universities and the spectacular rise in enrollment. In addition to the increase in enrollment of Canadian students, more than four thousand American students are studying in Canadian universities. The expansion of colleges and universities has meant new opportunities for teaching, administration, and research for young Canadian graduates. But some of the new universities have been established and expanded so rapidly that it has not always been possible to find the faculty
among Canadian graduates, and an increasing number of graduates from American universities are accepting teaching positions in Canadian universities. The salaries are competitive and living conditions are similar.

The new Simon Fraser University in Burnaby, British Columbia, for example, has a large percentage of Americans on the faculty. One of these Americans said recently that for him teaching in a Canadian university has been an enlightening experience, that he understands better why Canadians think the way they do, and that for the first time he sees his own country from the vantage point of a neighbor. He finds it exciting to work in an intellectual environment without the weight of encumbering traditions, where professors from England with a more conservative approach meet American professors willing to make bold experiments and where the uninhibited Canadians borrow from both to make a viable institution.

Two significant educational developments mark the Centennial Celebration in Canada this year. The first was the formal opening of the new National Library of Canada in Ottawa in June. This marked the fulfillment of years of hope that Canada would some day have a library similar in function and influence to the Library of Congress. Not only will the National Library be the nation's bibliographic center, but it will also be the repository of copies of the card catalogs of all major academic libraries in Canada and, through the aid of microfilm, will provide a vast storehouse of Canadiana. The building and the resources are worthy of the nation's treasures of the past and present.

The other development is the moving forward on the plans for the establishment of a major research library for the humanities and social sciences at the University of Toronto. Costing twenty million dollars, it will be one of the largest on the continent and will support graduate programs equal to those of the great American universities.

The Canadian Centennial Celebration in 1967 marks the completion of one hundred years of confederation of the provinces and calls to mind also the establishment of the first university in Canada one hundred and sixty-five years ago. During these intervening years Canadian higher education has received much help from the "mother" country of Britain but also a good share of men and money and knowledge from Uncle Sam.

Subscribers and members who wish a blue cover to replace the green one incorrectly used on the July issue of College & Research Libraries may obtain one of the correct color by writing to The Ovid Bell Press, Inc., 1201-05 Bluff St., Fulton, Mo. 65251.

A conference was held in November 1966 to assess future library-related needs in the field of Soviet studies. Six working papers were prepared, on questions of bibliography, new technology, indexing, acquisitions, preservation, and a proposed center. Sponsors of the conference were the Joint Committee on Slavic Studies and COCOSEERS (Coordinating Committee for Slavic and East European Library Resources). Reprinted as it appears in the American Council of Learned Societies' Newsletter (March 1966) the article summarizes the conference papers and recommendations.

To appraise the state of bibliographic control in an interdisciplinary field requires broad perspective. Under today's conditions of rapid change in information technology it is a matter of some urgency to provide the background for informed decisions.

There are, for example, those who advocate a new approach for Soviet studies through the establishment of a documentation center designed to facilitate services to libraries and to specialists. With or without a center, others say, there is much to be done with both traditional and new techniques once current needs are properly analyzed.

In an attempt to review and assess some of these questions a Conference on Bibliographic and Research Aids in Soviet Studies was held November 19 to 22, 1966, at Greyston Conference Center, New York, New York. The conference was cosponsored by the Joint Committee on Slavic Studies (of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Social Science Research Council) and the Coordinating Committee for Slavic and East European Library Resources (COCOSEERS). Columbia University acted as host at the conference center in Riverdale.

The conference brought together approximately forty persons—academic and government specialists, librarians, and foundation officials—to review the current state of library and bibliographic development in Soviet studies, to assess major deficiencies and needs, and to recommend new solutions and programs for the future.

The program was built around six working papers: Zdenek David, Princeton University, "Bibliographic and Reference Aids"; Theodore C. Hines, Columbia University, "New Trends in Library Science and Technology"; Vaclav Mostecky, Harvard law school, "Abstracting, Translating and Indexing"; Philip E. Leinbach and Charles Gredler, Harvard University, "Acquisitions and Access-

1 Those who served on the Planning Committee for the conference were Cyril E. Black (chairman of COCOSEERS, 1965-66); Eleanor Buist; Alexander Dallin; John M. Thompson (chairman of the Joint Committee on Slavic Studies, 1965-66); and Gordon B. Turner, vice-president, American Council of Learned Societies.
BIBLIOGRAPHIC AND REFERENCE AIDS

Dr. David's historically based survey was keyed to an appendix-bibliography of some two hundred items. In keeping with the scope of the conference the emphasis was on general bibliography and on materials published in Russian in the Soviet Union and its historical antecedents, with the purpose of uncovering deficiencies in bibliographic coverage and suggesting new tools. Three types of recommendations were summarized for the conference.

First, there is need for the reprinting of various bibliographies and indexes, both the very scarce early volumes and recent ones not readily available.2

Second, Dr. David offered suggestions for revisions3 and new aids. A union list of periodicals is needed, along the lines of Serial Publications of the Soviet Union 1939-1957, compiled by R. Smits. (Representatives of the Library of Congress informed the conference of the current state of this special card catalog. There are eighteen thousand entries for periodicals of the Soviet Union from 1917 to 1966, and approximately fourteen thousand cross-references. A subject index is in preparation.) Publication would provide more complete and accurate information on American library holdings than could be given in the third edition of the Union List of Serials. There is similarly a need for a new union list of Russian newspapers and the updating of the Ruggles and Mostecky survey and of the Morley guide.

Among the new bibliographies recommended are one for publications on internal developments in the USSR since 1917; specialized bibliographies in subject fields of the humanities and social sciences; and a bibliography of ephemera.

For Russian and Soviet government publications an updating of those sections of Gregory's List of the Serial Publications of Foreign Governments is needed. Descriptions of outstanding Russian collections in American libraries are desirable, as well as catalogs where these would not be largely duplicative of ones already published.

In the area of Russian emigré publications a comprehensive retrospective bibliography of books was recommended by Dr. David together with indexes to the major journals and an updating of the guide to serials.

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1 Publications singled out were the annual Bibliografía sovetskoi bibliografii (1939, 1946-1956) and its predecessor Bibliografia russkoi bibliografii (1913-1922, and 1929); the index to periodical articles, Letopis' zhurnal'nykh statei (1926-1956); the several indexes to publications of the Academy of Sciences from the mid-1920's to the mid-1950's; the Ezhegodnik dissertatsii (1936-1937) and the Bibliografia dissertatsii (1941-1945); the Spisok knig vypuskshikh v Rossii (1884-1907); several general bibliographies for the nineteenth century, especially those by Storkh and Adelung, Smirdin, Krasheninnikov, Ol'khin, Glazunov, and Suvorin; and the separately published indexes to important journals and newspapers of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. (A clearinghouse for reprint information was proposed at the conference. More precise information as to the titles recommended by Dr. David will be on record when it is established.)

A bibliography of indexes to major Russian periodicals of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries should be compiled, and indexes to the contents of periodicals are needed for the following: yearly or quarterly author indexes to *Knizhnaia letopis'* for the years when none are available or the existing ones cover less than quarterly periods; quarterly author indexes to *Letopis' zhurnal 'nykh statei* (when lacking); and indexes to major Russian periodicals of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Third, Dr. David pointed to projects requiring cooperation with the Soviet Union. Reproduction of one of the Lenin library's chief catalogs, the union catalog of Russian books to 1917, would be valuable even in microfilm inasmuch as the major Soviet work in progress for the nineteenth century, in sixty volumes or more, is not expected to be completed for many years. Needed, too, is the reproduction of the card catalog of Soviet dissertations deposited in the Lenin library, particularly for the period 1945-1955, as well as some bibliographies of the Academy of Sciences' publications for the years 1938 to 1943 which exist only in typewritten form.

The Academy of Sciences' Fundamental Library of the Social Sciences issues a series of bulletins which are bibliographies of new Soviet literature in several subject fields, and include journal and newspaper article references as well as monographs. Dr. David recommended increased availability of these bulletins.

**NEW TRENDS AND TECHNIQUES IN LIBRARY SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

Dr. Hines noted that the research on new ways of organizing information in the aftermath of Sputnik, at times has resulted in financial support for new agencies and methods at the expense of existing ones. Even in the more affluent area of science two major libraries have had severe problems in maintaining their collections. He also pointed out that university scientists would not be better off, bibliographically speaking, than university social scientists if it were not for the overflow of services generated outside the university library by government and industry.

Nevertheless, if funds were forthcoming, the specialists in Soviet studies could have the same array of services that are now available to most scientists. These are, for example, "table of contents services; current awareness service through permuted title indexes of various kinds; computer-based published indexes using human-generated indexing terms; computer tapes created as part of the process of generating the published indexes which contain far more indexing terms than the published indexes and which may be searched by computer; citation indexes; selective dissemination of information to individuals; and, of course, a wealth of new abstracting services, micropublication, and mass distribution of report literature, and a plenitude of photocopying services usually not available to the Soviet studies scholar." Such services are provided in science by specialized agencies, large and small, which exist to organize the literature of a particular field for abstracting, indexing, publishing, and searching.

Trends in information research, briefly characterized, indicate that permutation indexing and citation indexing produce tools in which "brute force replaces subtlety"; that computer searching of centrally produced tapes with human choice of index entries is gradually being reduced in cost so that it is now competitive with manual searching; that computer typesetting is a significant development which should bring publishing and information retrieval closer together in the long run; that research in classification techniques is active, as well as in vocabulary control through thesauri or subject heading lists; and that there
is continuing effort to promote indexing at the source of publication of journal articles.

To prevent “computer intoxication” Dr. Hines warned that “the success of console or on-line systems for computational work does not mean that they are ready for informational work.” The new technology will not solve problems that require intellectual solution first. Much confusion has resulted from some reported research which mistakes a small, experimental universe for a large, real universe. These and other factors make it difficult for the scholar in another field to know what to ask when seeking help from information scientists.

The scholar, on the other hand, may be guilty of various other sins, such as expecting that a classification system devised for his own files is suitable for computer application to the whole literature of his discipline.

Dr. Hines' general recommendations to the Soviet area scholars and librarians were, first, to join in doing what could be done economically in their own institutions and, second, to seek jointly for financial aid in those matters where better service could be provided by today's technology. At the same time the scholar should help support adequate national and subject bibliography on a broad national and international level, through government and the societies. In recent years the needs of the day have been mobilized by the scientist to bring about the necessary tools for his work, and this could be achieved by the social scientist. Proven new techniques, and better ones through research, “are yours for the asking and the paying,” he concluded.

ABSTRACTING, TRANSLATING, AND INDEXING

Mr. Mostecky defined seven audience groups ranging from the general public at the base of a pyramid extending to the scholars and other specialist writers and researchers in journalism and government, each group having different requirements. The multiplicity of serially issued services, exemplified by a list of seventy-eight titles in the Appendix to his paper, is a reflection of the diversity of needs. “What appears at first glance as a hopeless duplication of effort,” he wrote, “in reality is a series of multicolored spotlights illuminating the stage with some degree of overlapping and a good deal of darkness left. To create a single monolithic stream of light that would suppress the shades of color would be unfortunate. However, the possibilities of better coordination of the spotlights and the restriction of the dark area must be further examined.”

Among the major services in the United States are The Current Digest of the Soviet Press, the F.B.I.S. (Foreign Broadcast Information Service), the Joint Publications Research Service, the series published by the International Arts and Sciences Press, and the Monthly Index of Russian Accessions. Of these, the first four are major translating services and the last a bibliographic index with translated titles. The Current Digest of the Soviet Press also provides a unique weekly index to the contents of Pravda and Izvestia, as well as a quarterly index (not cumulative) to the selection of articles which it translates from those newspapers and other periodicals.

After reviewing the characteristics and coverage of the major services, as well as translations published abroad and the Soviet services in English, Mr. Mostecky evaluated the group from the point of view of duplication and scattering, availability, adequacy, possible over-extension of the translating program as a whole, the question of area versus subject specialization and, finally, the problem of indexing.

His conclusions and recommendations were that, first, an up-to-date listing of
all available services is needed. Second, the fast news services issued by governmental or quasi-governmental agencies or by news media operate for definite internal purposes with some recognized and inevitable overlapping. They are available to the research community. The translating activity in social science periodicals is, however, in dire need of coordination. A step in this direction would be to have the academic research community establish a working relationship with the Joint Publications Research Service.

Third, an expansion of The Current Digest of the Soviet Press to include abstracts is strongly recommended. Fourth, there is an overriding need for a consolidated and cumulative index to Soviet materials. This could start with indexing translated materials. Such an index would be a focal point for a documentation center which would maintain close contact with the Library of Congress, federal government agencies, and academic research centers.

As to method and equipment, fully automated systems are not sufficiently perfected for indexing, but a “judicious application of electronic techniques” combined with conventional indexing input is the most promising.

Rather than the subject heading arrangement of the present Monthly Index of Russian Accessions and indexes of The Current Digest of the Soviet Press, a topical arrangement is suggested. “It might, for example, follow the Library of Congress or, better yet, the Universal Decimal Classification with its hierarchical coding, possibly best suited for machine application.” In aiming for compatibility with other area indexes (China, for example) it should be noted that “topical, hierarchical coding also provides a quick solution to the problems of synonyms, special or unique terminology, and foreign terms, as it is based on underlying logical concepts rather than mere words. It is the only system which can be used internationally without any major rearrangements.”

ACQUISITIONS AND ACCESSIONS

Mr. Gredler and Mr. Leinbach noted the marked improvement in the over-all picture that has taken place in the period of less than a decade since the Ruggles-Mostecky report, and the increasing cooperation of Soviet libraries.

Methods endorsed by the authors include the checking by full-time librarians of all the selection tools for current publications. Faculty responsibility should be limited to checking second-hand lists and to providing advice on general selection policies. Prompt ordering is essential. The utility of exchanges is beyond question and should be expanded.

The categories of current material still difficult to procure are provincial serials (local newspapers and journals of the provincial universities and pedagogical institutes), dissertations, and printed dissertation abstracts. The authors recommended that a representative go to the Soviet Union to explore these problems. Retrospective materials most difficult to obtain are pamphlets, journals, and irregular series of the 1920's and 1930's. Cooperative filming would help relieve this situation.

Messrs. Gredler and Leinbach strongly endorsed the principle of division of “depth” collecting responsibility among libraries, citing as an example Harvard's early decision to specialize in certain periods and subjects in Russian history. Present-day circumstances which should encourage this include the improved possibilities for sharing resources, and better physical access to other libraries.

Urging support for the National Program on Acquisitions and Cataloging, established by the Higher Education Act of 1965 (Title II, Part C, Section 231), the authors stated that “everyone concerned with Soviet research materials
should back the Library of Congress in every possible way. Groups such as the Association of Research Libraries, the Joint Committee on Slavic Studies, and the American Association for the Advancement of Slavic Studies should expend time and money to ensure that this program is brought to fruition as soon as possible.” They also recommended that serials be included in the program which is limited in its initial stages to monographs.

The authors called attention to the Center for Research Libraries, formerly the Midwest Inter Library Center, in Chicago. As an established repository for less-used materials it is seeking to expand its programs for the filming of foreign archives and of foreign newspapers, and for acquiring foreign dissertations. The acquisition of all current science serials of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR is being expanded to include the social sciences and will probably extend to the humanities. The Center is in need of additional library memberships and financial support.

A proposed selection guide was endorsed, to be based on the best consensus obtainable from the scholarly community. The proposal was made at a conference on Area Studies and the Library, held in 1965. 

In summary, the authors stated: “We have urged support of two agencies with programs of national services already under way—the Library of Congress and the Center for Research Libraries. We have recommended the expanded use of exchanges and the use of a representative in the Soviet Union to explore further exchanges. We have proposed the cooperative filming of early Soviet serials and pamphlets. We have reinforced proposals for a rating of current Soviet publications and a new survey of American library holdings along the lines of the Ruggles-Mostecky report. We have urged that a division of collecting responsibilities be made.”

**Preservation and Reproduction of Soviet Publications**

The paper presented by Mr. Ruggles pointed first to the grim fact that changes in papermaking methods, not limited to Russia but occurring elsewhere during the nineteenth century, will result in vast numbers of unusable books by the end of the twentieth century. While some librarians have long been concerned, most publishers continue to be indifferent.

Efforts of the Council on Library Resources, among others, to initiate appropriate action have resulted in three major developments in the United States. A permanent/durable paper developed by William J. Barrow’s research is now marketed at a price close to that of other quality paper. Second, for books already in bad condition a chemical solution for treatment of deteriorating paper has been devised, also through research conducted by Mr. Barrow, but the problem of applying it to books at a reasonable cost has not been solved. Additional research is underway at the University of Chicago, by Richard D. Smith. Third, a comprehensive program has been worked out by a Committee on the Preservation of Research Library Materials of the Association of Research Libraries. The report prepared by Gordon Williams appeared in two issues of the *Library Journal* (January 1 and 15, 1966). The Library of Congress has assumed responsibility for a national program and will conduct a pilot project for identification of priorities.

In the matter of books of Soviet manufacture, tests on those issued between 1954 and 1957, conducted by Mr. Barrow, were reported by Mr. Ruggles in the February 1960 issue of the *Slavic Review*. In recent tests a smaller sampling of books published between 1964

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and 1966 showed no improvement in paper quality.

One of the paradoxes is that Soviet research on matters of preservation and restoration is highly advanced but so far has not improved the quality of the paper being used. The better state of preservation of books in Soviet libraries compared with their condition in U.S. libraries may be related to factors of climate and temperature. The advantage, however, may delay the Soviets’ adoption of permanent/durable paper, in which case our problem in handling their publications will continue indefinitely.

As a distant ray of hope Mr. Ruggles suggested “that if new materials can be fabricated for any unusual requirement in space technology, and if some of them, like teflon, can become so cheap to manufacture that they can be found as part of common utensils in ten-cent stores, it would seem that if some people put their mind and will to it we could have a truly permanent and durable substance on which the knowledge of our civilization could be recorded.”

Even if obsolescence were to be overcome for all current publications it would still be necessary to take steps to preserve what has been printed. The method of copying is common but has many drawbacks. Among them are copyright laws. If the Soviet Union were to adhere to the international copyright convention, matters would change over night. There are also the hazards of human and machine failure in the process of copying. Microcopying presents other hazards, not the least of which is the condition of spots on microfilm, now the subject of intensive research with no solution found as yet. “Hard copy” reprinting is a very young industry with special problems. Librarians should make their criticisms known to the industry, in order to improve the product.

Mr. Ruggles recommended, in conclusion, “A special effort to study the voluminous technical literature published in the Soviet Union about the making of paper, the production of books, and the preservation of books and documents.” Since we are also guilty of issuing impermanent publications, we should be able to discuss matters freely with Soviet librarians, publishers, and other responsible authorities, and should bring up the subject at international meetings and elsewhere.

For preservation programs underway in the United States priorities will have to be established. There are sound reasons why Slavicists as a group should press for priorities for Russian materials in this program. Those reasons include “the importance of the USSR in the world community and the specially delicate quality of the paper in Russian publications.” In addition, the advice and assistance of Slavicists will be needed in any comprehensive plan.

In matters of reprinting, insistence on permanent/durable paper will benefit libraries. Libraries should also make their copies available to the publishers and request free copies in exchange.

A clearinghouse for desiderata would benefit all, and a special one for Slavic materials is needed to collate the requests of many institutions. The unified reprints list compiled by Marilyn May and Avis Bohlen, which appeared as two supplements to the Cahiers du monde russe et soviétique, “have been an important service to scholarship and one might hope that they will be continued.”

**Proposal for a Bibliographic, Documentation, and Information Center**

In the working paper for Session VI, Professor Hammond stressed the need for a center with a permanent staff of Cyrillic Publications Concerning the Social Sciences and Humanities; Current List of Reproductions (2 vols.; “Cahiers du monde russe et soviétique,” Supplements I and II; Paris: Mouton, 1964-65).
full-time employees. In order to promote discussion he then listed many possible functions, stating that "the fact that I have listed a particular function does not mean that it is necessarily favored by me or by COCOSEERS. Some of the functions listed are problems of great urgency, while others might be looked upon as luxuries."

On behalf of the smaller institutions he strongly endorsed the need for a centralized book selection and purchasing system. This would have a panel of scholars under contract to select and rate current acquisitions on a scale of priorities and supply the books together with Library of Congress cards to client libraries choosing such a service. The commercial aspect of the system should help to finance other operations of the center. The data on all new books brought under a form of computer control would generate a significant body of bibliographic information for other purposes.

Other proposals related to a center include the appointment of a purchasing agent in Moscow for American libraries; the investigation of a "Farmington Plan" division of responsibility among American libraries for collecting in subject fields, and improved liaison with book dealers to provide advice on the needs of American scholars and libraries. A particular need is for control of so-called "fugitive" materials. Examples are papers delivered at scholarly meetings (many of which are never published); mimeographed reports produced at Russian research centers, Radio Free Europe research reports and reports of Radio Liberty; embassy press releases; press releases of TASS, Novosti, and BBC; reports issued by various émigré organizations." Along these lines "the Center could act as a depository for all papers read at meetings of the American Association for the Advancement of Slavic Studies and the Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages, as well as at the regional Slavic conferences."

Other functions suggested for the center would be to keep in touch with the new program on acquisitions and cataloging at the Library of Congress; to survey needs for bibliographies, indexes, and guides; to study the application of new machine technology; to advise commercial firms on needed reprints; to assist in distributing unclassified government reports not duplicated in sufficient quantities; to collect reports of American scholars returning from research trips; and to issue a newsletter for libraries and scholars.

Professor Hammond reported that proposals for other bibliographic projects and centers in related fields point to considerable overlapping of interest among specialists on Russia, China, Eastern Europe, and the field of history. "It would seem essential, therefore, that our Soviet Center, at the very least, keep in close touch with these other groups so as to coordinate activities, share knowledge and experience, and avoid duplication of efforts."

Considerations pointing to the advisability of locating the center in Washington, D.C. were described as follows: "First of all, it should be close to the Library of Congress because of the dominant position which LC holds in acquisitions, cataloging, indexing, and so on. Furthermore, the large staff of specialists at LC would be available for consultation and assistance. Some of the suggested functions of the Center point to Washington as the best location. Let me mention again: obtaining and reproducing unpublished U.S. government materials, maintaining contact with Congress, liaison with other government agencies, keeping up with developments in machine technology and advising U.S. officials during negotiations with Soviet representatives." In addition to the greater likelihood of financial support from government, Professor Hammond point-
ed out in conclusion: "If it is decided to place the Center under the supervision of the Association of Research Libraries, this also points to Washington... In addition, the Council on Library Resources is located in Washington, and the American Library Association has an office there."

**SUMMARY OF NEEDS**

The conference had been called to serve as a forum for expressions of opinion rather than as a group which would be expected to take formal action by resolution or vote. At the final session the participants discussed a provisional list which members of the Planning Committee considered to be representative of the numerous suggestions advanced, recognizing that priorities would have to be established. The list of needs, intended to serve as the basis for written commentary to the sponsors, is reproduced below with minor revisions:

Indexing, abstracting, and translating needs include: (1) closer coordination of present translating and abstracting services in the social science fields; (2) exploration of quick "current awareness" lists; (3) gradual development of a current, comprehensive index to social science and humanities materials in Soviet studies.

In future planning for bibliographic and reference aids there is need for: (4) consultation and contracting for the preparation of new reference tools; (5) control of ephemera by bibliographic listing, with the possibility of a depository.

Measures to promote preservation and reproduction should include: (6) encouragement of high priority for Soviet materials in preservation programs, local and national; (7) central planning through a clearinghouse for reprinting, with emphasis on deteriorating items; (8) promotion of a union list of microform reproductions and coordination of future efforts.

Recommendations for acquisitions and other areas of technical services include: (9) exploration of a division of labor in collecting; (10) provision of guides to selection; (11) the sending of a representative to the Soviet Union to explore exchange of publications with provincial universities and pedagogical institutes; (12) continuing support of the National Program on Acquisitions and Cataloging; (13) consultation on aids to retrospective cataloging.

General recommendations for implementing the above include: (14) the exploration of cooperation with the Soviet Union on specific projects; (15) obtaining the services of a consultant to survey the application of new technical developments to Soviet studies' bibliographic problems; (16) the establishment of a center as a clearinghouse and coordinating and consultative agency.

There was widespread support among the participants for the establishment of a center, even though opinions varied as to its scope and definition. The meeting of COCOSEERS held in New York City on November 23, 1966, unanimously endorsed the general proposal for founding a center, recommending primarily advisory, rather than depository, functions.

In the words of one commentator, some proposals made at the conference appear to emerge from a "bibliographer's dream." Nevertheless, the concern for a bolder plan should result at the very least in the improvement of some services to an important field.
First Seminar of Indian University Librarians

The first Seminar of University Librarians held at Jaipur, India, November 16-19, discussed government support of university libraries, status and salary scales for librarians, interlibrary loans, union catalogs, and library cooperation. Following the recommendation of the seminar participants, the Indian Academic Libraries Association was revived in order to provide leadership for future cooperative activities and meetings. Six American librarians participated in the seminar by chairing sessions, presenting papers, and taking part in the discussion.

Six American librarians were privileged to attend the first Seminar of University Librarians held at Jaipur November 16-19, 1966, and to take part in discussions of university library problems with the thirty-five Indian librarians who were the leading participants during this four-day conference. The seminar was organized by N. N. Gidwani, director of libraries at Rajasthan University in Jaipur, who put all the facilities of the university at the disposal of those attending, including the very attractive university guest house at which most of the participants resided and ate their meals. The formal sessions of the seminar were also held at the university guest house. Social functions took place at the university vice-chancellor’s residence, in the Rajasthan University library, the Hind Hotel, and the City Palace, all of them giving the participants an opportunity to get better acquainted with each other, and to see the university campus and some of Jaipur, the beautiful “Pink City.”

The American guests at this very interesting and fruitful conference were W. W. Bennett, director of United States Information Service libraries in India; Robert L. Cain, Indian Institute of Technology at Kanpur; John C. Crawford, director of the U.S. Library of Congress American Libraries Book Procurement Centre, New Delhi; John R. Russell and Mrs. Russell, American Studies Research Centre, Hyderabad; and Carl White, Ford Foundation. The Indian participants were some of the leading librarians of university and institute libraries from many sections of India. While those in attendance came from academic libraries in different parts of two of the largest countries in the world, the similarity of problems in all the libraries represented, both Indian and American, was striking.

The seminar was very well organized and was conducted in a most efficient manner. In addition to the eight regular sessions, and the session “to finalise recommendations,” there was an inaugural session and a concluding session, at both of which the Vice-Chancellor of Rajasthan University, M. V. Mathur, and N. N. Gidwani, the director of libraries, spoke. (The Vice-Chancellor’s position

Mr. Russell, Director of Libraries at the University of Rochester has been on leave as Library Consultant at the American Studies Research Centre, Hyderabad, India.
in an Indian university is equivalent to a university president’s position in the United States.)

Upon arrival the first morning the participants were given copies of the papers that had been prepared for the seminar, a program for the entire conference, and a list of the participants. Each morning the detailed program for the day was distributed, and before each of the three sessions during the day, a program for the session with the list of papers to be covered and the discussion points to be debated was provided. The thirty-eight papers varied in length from a single page to twenty-two pages. The lists of discussion points for the eight sessions ranged from nine to nineteen numbered points. For each session a chairman and a reporter were chosen by nomination from the group, and stenographers took down the proceedings in shorthand. At the first session a committee was selected to prepare the list of recommendations to be discussed and approved or disapproved at the final working session, the members being N. N. Gidwani, J. S. Sharma, librarian of the Punjab University, and K. S. Deshpande, librarian of Mysore University.

Since the papers that had been prepared by various participants and by a few who were not present were in the hands of those attending, they were not read in full. Instead, the writer of a paper was allowed a few minutes to summarize his major points or to explain further those he wished to have considered by the group. In the few cases where the writers were not present, others in the group substituted for them and commented briefly on the papers. S. R. Ranganathan, for example, had prepared two interesting papers but unfortunately could not be present. His papers were distributed and commented upon by others.

Following the brief talks by the writers of papers, the discussion points in the lists that had been prepared in advance were taken up one-by-one and debated vigorously or passed over as not pertinent. Formal votes were not taken, but after discussion of a point the chairman announced the “sense of the house” on that point. If his statement was not contested, it stood, and the Committee on Recommendations had a good basis for preparing the final recommendations. The discussion on many of the points was lively, sometimes heated, and demonstrated the keen interest that the participants had in improving library service and the library profession.

Three important Indian government reports were referred to in the discussions: Report of the University Education Commission (1951), known as the “Radhakrishnan Report”; University and College Libraries, Containing the Report of the Library Committee of the University Grants Commission (1965); and Report of the Education Commission (1966), known as the “Kothari Report.”

A wide range of subjects was covered in the eight sessions. The topics assigned for each session are itemized below.

1. The place and role of the library in the Indian university and how it can play a more effective role in our educational endeavor.

2. Interlibrary cooperation between university libraries and special academic libraries in acquisitions and services.

3. The University Grants Commission and the university libraries.

4. The role and qualities of the university librarian in India—his selection and training.

5. Coordination between university libraries, departmental (seminar) libraries, and college libraries, to pool resources and channel efficient service and adequate coverage.


7. Leadership of the university library to the colleges and the community.

8. Means and methods for accelerat-
A few of these topics may need some clarification. The University Grants Commission which was established in 1956 is an autonomous body that determines the amount of money that will be given to each university and its libraries from the total amount provided by the national government. It is the most powerful policy-making body in higher education in India. It was evident from the discussion that the university librarians appreciate the support that UGC, as they call it, has given to libraries since 1956 and look to it for increasing support in the future, not only in financing, but also in upholding and enforcing high standards for academic libraries.

A large number of universities and institutes have been founded in India since 1947, and their libraries often began as decentralized departmental or seminar collections before a central library building was available. Hence the question of centralization of library resources was thoroughly discussed. Opinion of the group on the desirability of complete centralization was divided, but most of those present seemed to favor having a central record of the books that are in the departmental libraries and central control over book acquisition. The colleges that are affiliated with a university often are numerous and scattered. They operate as semi-autonomous institutions having their own libraries and often operating quite independently. The importance of close cooperation between the college libraries and university libraries was also brought out in the discussion.

The final session of the seminar was devoted to the consideration of thirty-two recommended resolutions that had been prepared by the committee. Since these recommendations came out of the earlier discussions of the points raised in the papers or by the members during the sessions that had preceded, they were generally approved without much further discussion, or with minor changes in wording. The full list of resolutions need not be given here, but certain of them may be of special interest. Two resolutions were related to the activities of the University Grants Commission:

To recommend to the UGC that a Standing Library Committee be appointed to advise the Commission on all matters concerning the development of libraries. (18)

To recommend to the UGC that a Library Wing be established with a qualified librarian at its head. (19)

The first of these provides for an advisory committee presumably to be made up chiefly of librarians who would not be directly employed by or members of the UGC. The second provides for an office to be established within the UGC Secretariat, the librarian employed to head the Library Wing thus being an employee of the UGC.

In the realm of finance three general resolutions were approved:

That the forecast of the cost of the academic library system be worked out for the decade 1966-1976. (17)

That 10 per cent of the university budget be provided for the development and management of the library. (26)

That all book grants be deemed as non-lapsable grants for the purpose of audit. (28)

The long-standing problem of imports that had been magnified by the devaluation of the rupee was treated in three resolutions:

To recommend to UGC that it should arrange to make available to university libraries sufficient foreign exchange for the import of books, periodicals, reprographic and audio-visual materials. Further resolved that films, filmstrips, maps, globes, lingua-phone and long-playing records of educational value should be allowed to be admitted duty free. (20)
That UNESCO coupons be made available to libraries. (21)

That the ban on research materials including maps, atlases, and publications imposed by the Government of India be lifted and the libraries be permitted to obtain such materials with special permission. (32)

The first two of these are concerned with the problem of limitation on imports because of lack of foreign exchange. The third refers to the ban on any imports of library materials from certain specific countries.

A number of the resolutions dealt with the position of the head librarian and his staff:

That the university librarian be accorded the status and privilege of the head of a university postgraduate teaching department. Further, that the other professional staff in the library be accorded faculty status and privileges enjoyed by the cadres of the teaching staff. (1)

That the university librarian be made a member-secretary of the library committee and further that the library committee will function in an advisory capacity. (2)

That statutory recognition be given to the university librarian. (5)

That the prevailing practice of appointing honorary librarians should be abolished. (14)

To recommend to the UGC that a librarian be nominated on the visiting committee appointed to scrutinize quinquennial plan proposals of universities.

To recommend that the university librarian be made an ex-officio member of all academic bodies. (22)

To recommend that the librarian should be directly responsible to the vice-chancellor of the university for the administration of library services and resources of the university. (23)

Three resolutions dealt more specifically with salaries and classification of library staff:

That the UGC scales of pay for the library staff be implemented by all the universities. (3)

That the UGC may not advance financial grants to universities which do not implement the new scales of pay for the library staff. (4)

That the designations of library staff be rationalised as under:

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<tr>
<th>DESIGNATION</th>
<th>EQUIVALENT STATUS</th>
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<tr>
<td>GROUP I</td>
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<tr>
<td>Librarian</td>
<td>Professor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Deputy Librarian</td>
<td>Reader</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sr. Asst. Librarian</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jr. Asst. Librarian</td>
<td>Asst. Lecturer, Instructor</td>
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<td>GROUP II</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sr. Library Asst.</td>
<td>Technical Assistant</td>
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<td>Jr. Library Asst.</td>
<td>Upper Division Clerk Assistant</td>
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<td>GROUP III</td>
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<tr>
<td>The remaining supporting staff to be stenographers, typists, accounts clerks, skilled helpers, peons, etc.</td>
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Two resolutions were concerned with improving inter-library loans:

That the Draft Code for Interlibrary Loans as formulated by the IASLIC (Indian Association of Special Libraries and Information Centres) be implemented. (8)

To recommend to the Union Government that postal rates for books sent out on interlibrary loan be reduced in order to promote the maximum use of available book resources in the country. (9)

The preparation of tools that would be of assistance in interlibrary loan work was the subject of two resolutions. In the first of these the union list is limited to the humanities and social sciences because INSDOC (Indian National Scientific Documentation Centre) is compiling a union list of serials in science and technology:

That the compilation of a union list of serials in the humanities and social sciences be undertaken. (10)

That all the academic libraries should compile a catalogue of theses and manuscripts available with them. (11)
Finally, probably the most important resolution of the group was:

That the Indian Academic Libraries Association be revived. (29)

This Association was established about five years ago and has been dormant for some time. At the eighth session of the seminar the question of its revival was discussed. One member of the group expressed the opinion that the academic library organization should be part of the Indian Library Association while others favored a separate association. It was decided to have a meeting of the Indian Academic Libraries Association to get it re-established, so at the close of the eighth session IALA was convened, and a president, B. V. R. Rao, librarian of the Indian Institute of Science, was elected, since that office had been vacant due to the death last spring of S. Das Gupta, librarian of the University of Delhi library. It was decided to suspend the constitution temporarily and empower Dr. Rao to invite others to assist him in getting the Association re-organized. The question of sponsorship of future seminars similar to this one had been considered earlier, and it was felt that the IALA would be the most suitable body to arrange such special conferences in addition to having regular meetings of the Association.

This summary would not be complete without recognizing the very substantial contribution that was made to the advancement of the academic library profession and library service in general by the many very able Indian librarians who presented papers and participated so actively in the discussions. They very kindly honored the American librarians present by inviting them to take an active part in the proceedings. William W. Bennett and Carl White were asked to preside as chairmen at two of the important sessions of the seminar. Papers were presented by John C. Crawford and John R. Russell and Mrs. Russell. Carl White's Survey of the University of Delhi Library, published by the Planning Unit of the University of Delhi in 1965, was reviewed by P. N. Kaula, librarian of Banaras Hindu University, and Dr. White answered the questions raised and explained the purpose of the survey. Library cooperation had been one of the topics discussed at the seminar, and the seminar itself provided a splendid opportunity for increasing the understanding of the problems of Indian and American libraries that will lead to further national and international cooperation.
Profiles of Practice in the Public Junior College Library

In an effort to delineate an experimental set of quantitative standards for evaluating junior college library service, the authors ranged management data from eighty-six selected junior college libraries on a graded percentile chart. They then plotted the experience of seven "benchmark" institutions on the chart in order to portray their characteristics graphically and comparably. It is their intention to continue developing data on these seven institutions in hope of generating quantitative norms that can be used for evaluative purposes.

It is difficult to formulate specific qualitative criteria by which the adequacy of a public junior college library can be measured. Not quite as difficult, however, is the measuring of quantitative supportive characteristics which form the necessary basis for quality service. It is possible for example, to compare the management data of different libraries with each other, provided the institutions they serve are similar. What is more, it is possible to portray this supportive data graphically so that a given library can see how it compares with certain benchmarks or how it compares with other libraries serving similar institutions.

Henry Ford Community College wanted to make a comparison of its supportive library characteristics with the characteristics of other libraries serving similar colleges. The study that emerged ranges management data taken from Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, 1963-64 in percentile rank, suggests benchmarks which change with the years; and demonstrates a technique whereby libraries can graphically compare each other's supportive characteristics such as number of volumes, number of periodicals, number of professional personnel, expenditures per FTE student, and number of square feet of assignable space in the library.¹

This study finally emerges with the profiles of practice in six libraries. The data of these libraries becomes, in effect, six hypotheses illustrating what the supportive characteristics of a public junior college library ought to be.

The following criteria were used to select the junior colleges to be studied from all the libraries in Library Statistics:

1. Only public institutions were chosen.
2. Only two-year institutions were chosen.
3. Only institutions which had been established for at least seven years or more were included.
4. Only institutions with 1,000 full-time (FTE) students or more were selected.
5. Only accredited institutions were included.

### TABLE 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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75th Percentile

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Median

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<th>Stack Area</th>
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75th Percentile

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<th>Other Exp.</th>
<th>Library Hours/ wk.</th>
<th>Total Area</th>
<th>Stack Area</th>
<th>Seating Area</th>
<th>Staff Area</th>
<th>Other Areas</th>
<th>Exp. Per F.T.E. Stu.</th>
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<td>1,413</td>
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Median

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<th>Percentile</th>
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<th>Library Hours/ wk.</th>
<th>Total Area</th>
<th>Stack Area</th>
<th>Seating Area</th>
<th>Staff Area</th>
<th>Other Areas</th>
<th>Exp. Per F.T.E. Stu.</th>
<th>Exp. Per F.T.E. Fac.</th>
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<td>900</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.6</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
6. Only institutions listed in *Colleges and Universities, 1963-64* were used. The application of these criteria resulted in the selection of eighty-six institutions from a total population of 281 public junior college libraries.

All of the raw management data for the eighty-six libraries in this study were converted to percentile ranking. The management categories were ranged across the top of the chart. Percentile gradations were ranged along the left hand column.

From this comprehensive chart, the final graphic presentation was derived. Each management data item which fell on the 1st, 10th, 20th, 25th, 30th and through the 99th percentile was recorded. The final result is portrayed in Tables 1 and 2.

It is a simple matter to draw a line at the 50th percentile to obtain median benchmarks for institutions in this study.

**Median Benchmarks for 1963-64**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of volumes at the end of year</td>
<td>32,285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of volumes added during the year</td>
<td>4,132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of volumes withdrawn during year</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of periodicals being received at end of year</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of hours of student assistance</td>
<td>2,668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of professional personnel (FTE)</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of nonprofessional personnel (FTE)</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total library expenditures (excluding capital outlay)</td>
<td>$55,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salaries</td>
<td>$34,819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages</td>
<td>$3,262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books and other library materials</td>
<td>$14,453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binding</td>
<td>$813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other expenditures</td>
<td>$1,941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours per week library was open</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total square feet assigned to library</td>
<td>13,084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stack areas</td>
<td>2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seating areas</td>
<td>6,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff and work areas</td>
<td>1,413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other areas</td>
<td>2,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditures for library per FTE Student</td>
<td>$19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditures per FTE faculty member</td>
<td>$549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditure ratio of total library expenditures to total institutional expenditures (excluding capital outlay)</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extrapolation revealed:
- Books per FTE Student: 9.4
- Books per FTE Faculty: 180

The authors propose that these median benchmarks, updated each year, could possibly form the minimum quantitative threshold standard for adequacy in public junior college libraries throughout the United States. Public junior college libraries falling below these benchmarks, unless special circumstances in their local situation justify a temporary lower level of performance, would be in danger of giving inadequate service to their students and faculty.

As a result of this research, Henry Ford Community College library set as its goal the management data level of the 75th percentile and above. More broadly, it was felt that as a mature public junior college seeking to give good library service to its students and faculty, it would be well advised to use the threshold figures of the 75th percentile or higher as its objective.

**Seventy-fifth Percentile Benchmarks for 1963-64**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Value</th>
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<td>Number of volumes at the end of year</td>
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<tr>
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<td>250</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of hours of student assistance</td>
<td>2,668</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of professional personnel (FTE)</td>
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<td>Total library expenditures (excluding capital outlay)</td>
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<td>Salaries</td>
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<td>Binding</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hours per week library was open</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total square feet assigned to library</td>
<td>13,084</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stack areas</td>
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<td>Other areas</td>
<td>2,300</td>
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<tr>
<td>Expenditures for library per FTE Student</td>
<td>$19</td>
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<tr>
<td>Expenditures per FTE faculty member</td>
<td>$549</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Extrapolation revealed:
- Books per FTE Student: 9.4
- Books per FTE Faculty: 180

As a result of this research, Henry Ford Community College library set as its goal the management data level of the 75th percentile and above. More broadly, it was felt that as a mature public junior college seeking to give good library service to its students and faculty, it would be well advised to use the threshold figures of the 75th percentile or higher as its objective.
Fig. 1—Selected Management Data on Public Junior College Libraries

Note: Median and 75th percentile ranking indications are for 86 libraries studied.

Number of hours of student assistance ........................................ 4,197
Number of professional personnel (FTE) ...................................... 4.0
Number of non-professional personnel (FTE) ................................. 4.3
Total library expenditures (excluding capital outlay) ....................... $86,087
Salaries ........................................................................ $46,448
Wages ................................................................................ $5,120
Books and other library materials ............................................... $22,472
Other expenditures ................................................................ $4,678
Hours per week library was open .............................................. 66

Total square feet assigned to library ........................................... 20,400
Stack areas ............................................................................ 4,800
Seating areas ........................................................................ 9,000
Staff and work areas .............................................................. 2,320
Other areas ........................................................................... 5,119
Expenditures for library per FTE student ................................... $26.00
Expenditures per FTE faculty member ....................................... $703.00
Expenditure ratio of total library expenditures to total institutional expenditures (Excluding capital outlay) .................. 4.2
Extrapolation revealed:
Profiles of Practice in the Public Junior College Library

Because the data of all the institutions in this study are ranged on a chart by percentile ranking, it is possible to take the data of any given public junior college library meeting these criteria and graphically portray its profile. This was done with the data of the Henry Ford Community College library, and it was found to indicate a remarkably accurate picture of the practices of the library. Strengths and weaknesses emerged with startling clarity. Lack of adequate clerical personnel, as well as temporary lack of stack and seating space in 1964, were all dramatically evident as the graph line for those items moved far below the 75th percentile line. The large number of gifts from local industry was shown in the peak at "number of volumes added." This graph line, in comparison to the 75th percentile threshold line, presents a significant and useful picture of the management data of the library as we know it.

The authors selected six public junior colleges which had similar enrollments

Fig. 1—Selected Management Data (Cont.)

Note: Median and 75th percentile ranking indications are for 86 libraries studied.

Books per FTE student . 7
Books per FTE faculty . 106

PROFILES OF PRACTICE
and curricula and whose management data, for the most part, fell within the top quartile, that is, above the 75th percentile. In addition, these six libraries had a national reputation for quality library service, among librarians and educators. These libraries were: Foothill, San Antonio College, Phoenix College, Mount San Antonio College, Miami-Dade, and the College of San Mateo. These six libraries and Henry Ford’s are portrayed in Figures 1 and 2.

**Future Study Needed**

In future years, the librarians and administrators at Henry Ford Community College intend to watch developments at these six libraries. In effect, these libraries will become the library standards for Henry Ford.

A possible future task for the authors of this study will be to construct a detailed questionnaire for these six institutions together with Henry Ford, in an attempt to understand them better. An evaluation will be sought as to how the management data are affected by:

1. institutional financing
2. patterns of control
3. curriculum
4. number of fields taught
5. number sections of each course taught
6. number of extension offerings off-campus
7. number of experimental programs
8. number of special institutes held on campus
9. number of institutional research projects in process
10. audio-visual holdings
11. amount of inter-library cooperation
12. educational backgrounds of the professional library personnel
13. number of Ph.D.s on the faculty
14. teaching methods
15. intellectual climate of the campus
16. socio-economic characteristics of the community served
17. educational preparation of incoming students
18. ratio of vocational-terminal to college transfer student
19. honors students
20. record of achievement of graduates

As a final step and only if financial support can be found, the authors may consider visiting these six junior college campuses to survey the libraries and to study each institution in its own setting.

It is doubtful that the benchmarks or the profiles of practice as described in this article can be equated with quality library service. They would appear to indicate, however, a library climate in which quality library service becomes possible. The measurement of quality must await the second and third stages of the study. Meanwhile, if one refrains from making qualitative inferences from the benchmarks and profiles of practice herein outlined, he can use these instruments to find out if a library is on the threshold of having the collection, staff, budget, and other characteristics which are important supporting elements.
Reference Theory: Situation Hopeless But Not Impossible

After summarizing the historical background of reference theory, the author describes the neglect of reference theory by reference librarians and the library profession in general through analysis of periodical literature 1954-1964. The survey reveals: (1) some consensus on the nature of reference; (2) consistent emphasis on articles describing specific reference operations; and (3) absence of articles discussing theory. Virtually unnoticed by librarians is the growing movement among researchers in areas other than librarianship to study general processes of information use and exchange.

It is probably not without justification that librarians are often reminded of Emerson’s admonition that “a foolish consistence is the hobgoblin of little minds.” The burden of this message might be particularly applicable to the spectrum of our writings on the subject of reference services. The existing situation was well summarized in an editorial in Library Journal.

... it is a curious anomaly that reference work, which so many librarians regard as the highest form of library service, should remain the most ill-defined and poorly recorded area of our work and service.1

From history we know that reference service was not the traditional function of the library. It began in the late eighteen hundreds with the public library’s desire to justify its tax basis. In historical sketches we quite frequently refer to Samuel Green’s “Personal Relations between Librarians and Readers,” a report on pioneer Green’s Worcester library experiment in personal service to patrons. As early as in 1876 Green insisted that furnishing readers with catalogs and reference works was insufficient; instead, he advocated the need for personal guidance and interpretation of library tools to the public. Yet, the librarian’s direct assistance in providing information rather than the furnishing of a source was not the most frequently cited expansion of reference services in the years following Green’s recommendations. The custodial concept of librarianship was to stay in American libraries for at least one more decade, with the gradual improvement of understanding of the main function of the library as a “centre of educational influence.” Professor Otis Robinson of the Rochester University library2 went so far as to say that the library would accomplish much if it could


Mr. Wynar is Director, Division of Library Education, State University College at Geneseo.
attract students and make it easy for them to do good work. In 1878, Justin Winsor of Harvard referred to the storehouse concept of libraries, preserving all the materials and discarding "nothing that is printed, no matter how trivial at the time, but may be some day in demand—helpful to significant results." He also noted that he preferred giving a reference to a book instead of a direct answer because he wanted to inculcate the students with the habit of looking at reference books and learning how to use them intelligently. This concept of reference service was also supported by John Cotton Dana with a thesis that the chief duty of the library was not to answer the reference question, but to instruct the inquirer in the use of material thus enabling him to secure the answer for himself. In 1915 this theory was further reinforced by William Warner Bishop who contended that librarians could never master enough subject background to be of expert help to scholars. He recommended, instead, concentration upon skills in library methods.

Charles F. McCombs also felt that the librarian should not be concerned with the study itself, "when once the books needed are identified or placed at the disposal of the reader, or with the interpretation of utilization of the facts, when once they are found or the sources of information pointed out." In 1930, James I. Wyer in his Reference Work identified three distinct concepts of reference service. These he termed as "conservative," "moderate," and "liberal." The earlier-mentioned theories of Dana, Bishop, and McCombs fell, according to Wyer, into the conservative class which contended that the prime function of a library is not to find answers to questions or to interpret the material to the patron, but to organize its material effectively and to teach patrons to "help themselves." Wyer, however, felt that at the time many libraries overstepped the conservative theory and approached a moderate theory, providing more than mere instruction in the use of books. Wyer did not consider this moderate theory to be adequate. He proposed a liberal theory which would "assume that every library desires to give the fullest possible attention to demands made on its service; that it will wish to find or create ways and means to satisfy every questioner. The only tenable, impregnable theory of reference is that which frankly recognizes the library's obligation to give this unlimited service."

It should be noted that since Wyer's time there have been occasional attempts to discuss the theory of reference service mainly emphasizing the degree of assistance which should be given to patrons, e.g., by Pierce Butler, Margaret Hutchins, Louis Shores, Jesse Shera, and Samuel Rothstein. Recently it has become quite evident that certain aspects of information service are also discussed by researchers in several disciplines, notably in sciences. Of interest to reference librarians are studies on intellectual processes in information storage and retrieval, information use, patterns of information exchange and information-flow channels, and many other aspects of modern concepts of information science.

Herbert Menzel in his article on "The

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4 Justin Winsor, "Library Questions and Answers," Library Journal, III (June 1878), 159.
Situation Hopeless But Not Impossible

Information Needs of Current Scientific Research indicates three sets of assumptions that have underlain the directions of efforts toward improving science-information services in the past fifteen years.

1. The guiding slogans must be speed, efficiency and comprehensiveness. The overriding aim, in other words, is to bring information to the scientist promptly, to bring him all that is relevant, and to bring it to him with the minimum of waste motion, especially on the scientist's own part.

2. The prototype activity is exhaustive search. This means the delivery to the scientist of all documents satisfying a fairly small set of criteria that he has well defined in advance.

3. The achievement of these goals lies along the roads of greater systematization, greater streamlining, greater mechanization of information processing and dissemination.

It is self-evident that especially now, with the strong emphasis on the informational needs, the traditional reference role of the library should be carefully re-examined. Librarians need to evaluate their traditional "status quo" and design new methods for dissemination of information if we want to improve information service along the channels described by Menzel. The question that remains to be answered is quite simple. Are we dissatisfied with the present status; are we trying to change the content as well as the technique in library reference service?

The answer to this question can be easily illustrated by a survey of our professional literature. In order to answer some questions about the current status of reference services, an interesting survey of periodical literature was conducted by Betty Hinton, at the suggestion of this author, covering articles in library periodicals from 1954-1964. Several questions were asked in terms of content analysis. Are the librarians and the library patrons aware of the potentialities of reference service? Are any particular aspects of reference service emphasized? Has the emphasis on any aspects of reference services changed during the period studied? Are the developments in automation being applied to reference service? Do the articles contribute meaningfully to the problems of reference? It was hypothetically assumed that: (a) periodical literature reflects trends within reference service; (b) articles are usually related to practical problems and are seldom concerned with the development of theory or definition of reference work; and (c) the majority of articles are written by reference librarians.

For the purpose of this study, reference service, which has no established definition, was considered to be any activity related to providing information, as well as guidance and instruction in the use of library resources (a necessary compromise). To obtain pertinent material seven indexes to periodical literature...
TABLE 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Journal</th>
<th>Number of Articles</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Library Journal</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilson Library Bulletin</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College and Research Libraries</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Libraries</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Association Record</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Trends</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News Notes of California Libraries</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Others</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section under eighty-three subject headings were consulted.\(^{13}\) There were originally 332 articles found through the indexes, but fifty-six were duplicates that appeared in two or more indexes, and forty-nine were not available or proved unrelated to the study. The 227 finally chosen occurred in fifty-four different periodicals, and it is interesting to note that the breakdown by years did not reveal a great variation in the number of articles published (Table 1). Although with the exception of Louis Shores no one writer contributed heavily to literature about reference service, several journals carried a large number of articles (Table 2). The authorship of the 227 articles had the following breakdown, as in Table 3.

It is interesting to note that reference librarians did not write the majority of articles, and out of the total of 126 articles written by practicing librarians only sixty-three were written by persons designated as reference librarians.

To determine existing trends the articles were divided into several broad categories (Tables 4 and 5).

An overview of all the articles revealed certain trends. First, we can assume that there is some consensus on the nature of reference service in relation to public, academic, and special libraries. The type of service provided in a public library seems to meet Samuel Rothstein’s definition of reference service as “the personal assistance given by the librarian to individual readers in pursuit of information.”\(^{14}\) None of the articles disputed this definition, although comments were made that the small libraries could not accomplish even this. Academic libraries added to this definition the thought that “reference librarians are there to teach people how to use the library as well as answer specific questions.”\(^{15}\) Special libraries gave the most extensive service of any of the libraries. Mary Anders said that the difference between reference service in special libraries and other libraries involved six factors on the part of special libraries: a lack of emphasis on teaching the use of the library, a greater participation by librarians in a search of information, the emphasis on information rather than tools, the time pressure, a better relationship between librarians and users, and the use of subject specialists.\(^{16}\)

Second, as to the theory of reference, there seems to be none. Samuel Roth-
stein’s two articles called for the consideration of a theory, and a few references were made in survey articles about the lack of a theory. Librarians now as fifty years ago seem unaware of a need for a theory offering, for better or worse, a description of specific operations within a given library. As a result most of the articles clustering in a rather nebulous heading “reference work and service” were repetitive of “how we do it in our library” or simply were news reports of how the library dealt with a specific problem, with no attempts at any kind of generalization.

This is true in relation to more recent developments, as for example, regional concept of reference service, or automation. It seems that if we must tolerate certain “new trends” (everybody is talking about it), we prefer to discuss them as some sort of artificial entity which will not effect our traditional “know how.”

Our psychological complex might be illustrated even in the area of library education. So, for example, not very long ago a new descriptor “information science” appeared in the titles of some library schools along with new separate programs and new degrees, emphasizing such specialization. Most library schools, however, are quite content with adding a few courses in documentation and information retrieval. But it seems that neither approach attempts to assimilate these new concepts in information handling and incorporate them in the whole spectrum of “traditional” curriculum. They often exist side by side, sometimes not even on speaking terms. In the meantime several academic programs in science engineering have started outside the library profession, producing not only computer technicians but information specialists as well. As was mentioned before, there is also a growing movement among researchers in areas other than librarianship to study general processes identified with the successful systems of scientific information exchange, that is, the generic identification and origination of information, its transmission, storage, and use. How many reference librarians, however, even discuss the impressive studies of the Project on Scientific Information Exchange in Psychology, the recent projects on information problems in linguistics, or the numerous pilot projects on scientific communication among engineers and scientists? There are even some retrospective bibliographies in this area which are probably little known to our profession.17

Many other questions can be raised. It seems that librarianship now, more than ever before, with its lack of internal coordination, is likely to tumble to the empirical ground where it will remain, and, according to some, should remain. If librarianship is to develop a theory of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4</th>
<th>CONTENT ANALYSIS: SUBJECT BREAKDOWN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reference libraries, special</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference libraries, academic</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference libraries, public</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference librarians and training</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation, regional systems</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automation</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension of services</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference in relation to other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>library activities</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference work or service (general)</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>TABLE 5</th>
<th>CONTENT ANALYSIS: TYPES OF ARTICLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practical</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>News items</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;How we do it&quot;</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broad problems of librarianship</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside views of the library</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17 Cf. William J. Falsley, op. cit.
reference, there first must be agreement within the profession that theory is a proper concern of librarianship. With an interdisciplinary approach there still is a hope that we can emerge from present isolation. If not, then as Neal Harlow has cleverly indicated, "Melvil Dewey's craftsman might step out of the 1880's into the present day library and do very well by reading the news-of-the-week and becoming acquainted with the recent 'titles,' that is, his point of view as a librarian would not be much out of date. He could still operate on country store principles, keeping a list of everything in stock and retailing it to a regular clientele, taking care of little emergencies, and developing enough good will to keep the customer returning. He could even do business within a somewhat more modern concept, that of the service station, with its limited stock and routine services, and its simple objectives to keep the line of patrons moving and the operator gainfully employed."18

Planning Improved Library Service for Scientists in Universities

The improvement of information services to scientists in academic libraries, though a desirable objective, will not by itself make the library the important information source that librarians would like it to be. A step toward this goal is the identification and testing of additional information services that the academic library might provide. Information services not usually provided by academic libraries were offered at Florida State University for a year and a half to a group of scientists as part of a study of personal indexes. More such studies are needed in planning future academic library service.

In a recent paper David Kaser has pointed out: "Unfortunately, the level of library service most of our academic institutions have rendered in the sciences in the past has been almost uniformly bad." Whether or not we agree with this statement, argued in some detail—and I for one do agree—there is evidence that academic libraries are not the most important information source for the scientist, despite librarians’ wishes to the contrary. There are valid reasons for this. Scientists have other and, at least to their mind, better and more convenient information sources. For current awareness, these include preprints and informal communications from colleagues, attendance at meetings, and subscription to primary and secondary journals. To get an answer to a question, information sources other than the library include the scientist’s personal file, his colleagues, and information analysis centers. It stands to reason that it is easier or at least more convenient to look in one’s own files or call a colleague for information than to go to a library, leaving for the moment the question of reliability or completeness of information obtained in this way. And while information located in the library may be more reliable and complete in some respects, it may not be so in others. University libraries may not have the very latest information on a subject if it has been distributed only in preprints or privately circulated informal reports. Also, some documents to be included in the library collection may only be available after an unacceptable delay or may not be retrievable because of inadequacies in the cataloging or indexing.

Some of the obstacles and deterrents to library use are now being corrected. Academic libraries throughout the country are reviewing their acquisition, processing, cataloging, and circulation procedures to speed up and obtain better control over the total operation. Improved bibliographic control, along with greater use of teletypewriters and photocopiers, are speeding up interlibrary loan service. But improving existing operations to an acceptable level of efficiency by means of improved manual or ma-
chine-based procedures is only part of the answer. Additional information services must be offered if academic libraries are not to remain relatively unimportant information sources for the scientist. Walter M. Carlson, director of technical information for the Department of Defense, writes that librarians in research libraries have chosen to perform what is primarily an archival function and that new developments in information service are being developed outside of the traditional library.\(^2\) It may well be that there are no additional information services that the academic library can perform better than other components of the over-all information network. But this point has not as yet been proven. Furthermore, it can be argued that the testing of additional information services which may or may not turn out to be useful is inappropriate in view of the already over-extended personnel and financial resources of university libraries. Before we reject the possibility of testing additional information services as impractical, thus in effect agreeing to continue what might be characterized as low-level information service, we should consider several points. Now is the time to plan for academic library services that will be offered ten or more years from today. There is a long lead time between the planning and implementing of changes in large scale information systems. The new or changed information systems or services have to be tested on a small scale, funded, and tried in parallel with existing information systems, to mention only the most time-consuming steps. This lesson has been clear to many librarians who have converted manual serial records into machineable form.

As things stand now, librarians, with some exceptions, are not taking the lead in planning the information systems for the future. There is danger that because of this, the emphasis will be on equipment that might be used in information systems rather than on the intended recipients of such service. Perhaps another lesson can be learned from the early machine-based indexing systems of ten or more years ago. The history of the Chemical Biological Correlation Center is a case in point.\(^3\) With the benefit of hindsight we can say that at least some of the early machine-based indexing systems placed greater emphasis on equipment capabilities than on users' needs. Some of these systems suffered from lack of use and have since gone out of existence. How can costly mistakes that may well retard developments in this field be avoided? It seems to me that we must be very conscious of the information-gathering habits of the scientists of today and realize that such habits are changed very slowly. We must also involve the users in any contemplated changes of the information system.

**ADDITIONAL INFORMATION SERVICES OFFERED IN A UNIVERSITY AS PART OF A PERSONAL INDEX STUDY**

A small-scale experiment in the provision of information services over and beyond services usually offered by academic libraries will now be described. This is not done because either significant or unusual results were achieved (they were not) but because this type of study appears to offer hope in determining what type of additional services might be provided, how to provide such services, and what their cost and acceptance might be. Personal indexes—defined in this study as organized collection of documents in the scientists' offices—of scientists and engineers at Florida State University have been examined in a U.S. Air Force—supported project.

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\(^3\) Richard M. Dougherty, "The Scope and Operating Efficiency of Information Centers as Illustrated by the Chemical-Biological Coordination Center of the National Research Council," College and Research Libraries, XXV (January 1964), 7-12, 20.
The objectives of the project are to determine what types of indexes are maintained by the scientists and how these indexes are used. In this way we may learn more about the information uses of scientists, determine whether librarians can offer as an additional information service the preparation and maintenance of personal indexes, and test types of subject indexes. As an incentive for participating in the project, the scientists were offered a limited amount of assistance on any kind of information work that they might desire and be willing to delegate to the project staff. The project staff consisted of a secretary and library school students with undergraduate science degrees. No limitation was placed on the type of request the participating scientists could make. No maximum time limitation was placed on requests but the scientists were aware of the total manpower available for the project. The eleven scientists who participated in the project over varying periods during the last year and a half requested and obtained the following information services:

- Photocopies of documents: 731
- Reference questions: 4
- Literature searches: 17

Some comments about these information services are in order. The photocopying service was not only the most frequently requested but also the most enthusiastically received information service. Requests for photocopies of documents were called into a recording device reached by telephone, and photocopy orders were promptly filled. The small number of reference questions is not surprising since the university reference librarians now offer such service. The small number of literature searches can probably be explained in a number of ways. Researchers in universities tend to work on long-range projects that may not require frequent literature searches. Academic researchers also often have graduate assistants to whom literature searches are sometimes assigned as a learning device. There is reason to believe, however, that more literature searches will be requested as scientists develop greater confidence in the librarian’s ability to perform this task.

Ten of the eleven scientists who made use of the additional information services were interviewed after the project had been in operation for about a year. The scientists were asked what additional information services they would find useful if such services were to be provided by library school students with undergraduate science backgrounds and if no time limit were to be placed on these services. In addition to photocopies of documents, the preparation of personal indexes, and literature searches, one or more scientists suggested the following services:

- Assistance with keeping up with the literature
- Index to book being written by the scientist
- Directory of intellectual resources on campus (a “who knows what” directory)
- Directory of equipment in various laboratories on campus
- Index to seminar papers, manufacturers’ catalogs and other material now inadequately organized.

Two of the scientists indicated that they would prefer improvements in existing library services to the introduction of new services.

**Conclusion**

Library service to scientists in universities can and is being improved by upgrading the standards of performance of presently offered information services. Such improvements are not sufficient to make university libraries the important information source for scientists. It seems that a decision needs to be made and made soon on whether or not academic libraries can and should attempt to play...
this new role. The possibility that, for a variety of reasons, university libraries cannot now assume any new responsibilities is not excluded. But this decision should not be made by default and without further studies. Studies are therefore suggested that are intended to identify additional information services that the academic library can do better than other components of the information network. If such services can be identified, they should be tested on an experimental basis to determine their cost and acceptance. Whether or not academic libraries will play a more important role in providing information service to scientists is at least in part up to librarians.
Bibliographical Problems from New Countries in Africa

This is a brief presentation of the problems (bibliographical) that are present or will occur due to the changing nomenclature of African States, cities and their organs of government.

The rapid political developments and changes in African countries are having an effect on bibliography that will be of concern to the research scholar as he moves from retrospective to current bibliography and finds countries and their materials being variously recorded. At the national level the scholar will find the former colonial areas represented by one or more names as they progress from the control of the metropolitan powers. Some of these variations are well known and have been in common usage long enough to present no problems. German East Africa and Tanganyika, Portuguese East Africa and Mozambique, Tripoli and Libya, even the Gold Coast and Ghana are well known. Newer are the two Congos, that are now distinguished by their respective capitals and were, of course, previously the Congo Free State, later Belgian Congo, and the Middle Congo. One of the real problem areas is, and will be, the Rhodesias, especially since Southern Rhodesia’s choice of new name is identical with the commonly used subject heading entry for material on this area of former British Africa. In subject bibliographies the terms “northern” and “southern” in the Rhodesias and Nyasaland, as well as “Central African Federation,” “Zambia,” “Rhodesia,” and “Malawi” all may be used to refer to areas as well as political divisions, depending on the period covered in the bibliography and the date it was printed. The short-lived amalgamation of Egypt and Syria created the term United Arab Republic. Egypt continues to use this in its official publications thereby continuing two names under which subject material and official publications may be expected to be found listed. The same problem occurs with Tanzania; in retrospective bibliographies the two names Tanganyika and Zanzibar are used, and material on the separate areas of these two countries will probably continue to be recorded under the two names while the official name Tanzania will also be used. Material on Basutoland, Bechuanaland, and Swaziland can be found listed under their former designation of “High Commission Territories” as well as each colony having its separate designation, and now material is appearing under Bechuanaland’s new name, Botswana, and Basutoland’s new designation as Lesotho. The French territories have undergone numerous variations and amalgamations, and while some of the established names such as Chad, Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Niger, and Gabon are still used, the Middle Congo, French Equatorial, French Soudan, French Guinea, French West Africa, an Ubangi-Chari have either disappeared or are now represented by new names. These
changes are also occurring at the local level, and new city names are appearing in many areas. For example, Kinshasa is the new name for the former Belgian Congo's capital, Leopoldville.

The adoption of the name Mali by the former French Soudan is an interesting example of African nationalism influencing the choice of a name that historically represented an area whose boundaries were not the same as the modern country. This could create confusion if some designation were not adopted to distinguish the two. (The Library of Congress is using “Mali Empire” for the ancient area and “Mali” for the new country.) The brief period of the Mali Federation when the Soudan and Sénégal were united will also have to be noted and distinguished.

Among these bibliographical problems the accolade for utter confusion is probably won by the Cameroons, variously British, French, German; Northern, Southern, East, and West; protectorates, colonies, and republics. We now have the Cameroun as an independent republic, an amalgamation of the former French area, including the British Southern Cameroons. Nigeria now has the British Northern Cameroons and the former area designation, British, is no more. The genealogy of the Cameroons presents the scholar with a bibliographic labyrinth as he attempts to locate publications and subject materials.

In these bibliographical problems occasioned by political changes there are authoritative sources available for verification of names, but this is not as true for the many conflicting tribal designations of African peoples. To the present there is no generally accepted standard list. This is an area in which Africanists could contribute substantially to bibliography if they would clarify and standardize the names of the various peoples of Africa.

Inasmuch as scholars using research libraries encounter materials for the most part in the Library of Congress Classification, it may be useful to mention how African material is arranged and how the LC is providing inner structuring for these new countries. Just as any African bibliography is out of date as soon as it is published, so any classification scheme lags behind the quick-moving events in the political scene today. The rapidity with which the changes can be noted will depend on the number of the bibliographers available in an institution or in a bibliographic service organization.

There is no one place for African material per se in the Library of Congress Classification, for it is a classification of knowledge by subjects, not by area. The major designations for African history and politics are in the D schedules for history and in the J schedules for political administration and government. DT is the special class for African history and it is here that the majority of the new developments are noted. The development of African history in the LC subject schedule follows the usual pattern starting with generalia for the whole continent. The first large divisions reflect the former colonial partitions of the continent, so after Egypt, North Africa, and the Barbary States are provided for, the user comes to areas for British West Africa, French Equatorial, French West, Portuguese West, etc. Within these areas each colony was given a number or range of numbers for material on its history. Although sovereignty in some cases changed, it was not always reflected in this classification, as Tangan­yika is still listed under German Africa with the designation “former” inserted. Important changes have, however, been made, reflecting the need for more space to record the rapidly expanding materials on the different countries. The LC has now assigned tables for use under each former colony (a device for
geographic and political expansion that can be adopted by an institution without undue costs in revising earlier records). So for example, Gabon, which under French West Africa had been given only DT546.1 now has a range of thirteen numbers providing for the several aspects of that country's history, antiquities, descriptive works, ethnographic works, biography, etc. Even the short-lived Central African Federation has been provided for, and especially interesting is a device that is being used for amalgamations such as that of Tanganyika and Zanzibar. Tanganyikan material already had a number range from DT436 to DT449 with not all the numbers within the range being currently used (this is one of LC's methods to allow for further expansions). Recently DT448 was assigned for material on Tanganyika for 1961-1965 and DT448.2 was assigned to cover 1965-date, to be used for Tanzania and to include publications on both Tanganyika and Zanzibar. Material on Zanzibar alone may continue to be recorded with other publications on that area.

In addition there is another large area in which these changes in nomenclature may be troublesome. In serial subject bibliographies such as a publication on Comparative Agriculture, Conservation of Natural Resources, Juvenile Delinquency, Electric Power Development, Public Health, and the like, where the arrangement is usually in sections with geographical subdivisions, the research worker unfamiliar with Africa who wishes to trace his topic over a period of years through several areas for a comparative study will need to be guided both from the colonial names to the new and from the new back to the former names.

Complex as these problems of subject bibliography may be, and as frustrating as the changing nomenclature of governments may be, the larger difficulties lie in the field of official governmental publications. There the bibliographer has not only to watch and revise the names of countries, but also to watch for and to catch the frequent changes of names of departments and ministries. Again, the Rhodesias are a prime example of the complexities that have occurred through political changes. In each of the colonies of Northern and Southern Rhodesia material was published from their various governmental departments. At the inception of the Central African Federation, many of these publications were taken over by the newly created federal ministries that assumed the functions of the heretofore separate departments. With the breakup of the Federation, Southern Rhodesian and Northern Rhodesian departments resumed publication, sometimes with the same names, sometimes not.

Countless other small problems—the introduction of "Federal" into national names as the Federal Republic of the Cameroon, the same term applied and then dropped with Ministries, the change from departments to Ministries, the use of "Division" as synonymous with "Department," the joining of two or more services into a ministry, then their separation, re-designations—all plague the careful bibliographer and all must be recorded, linked when necessary, and distinguished from services with similar names, but not necessarily having had similar responsibilities or having issued similar reports. Government publications being of paramount importance, especially in the developing countries, it is of primary concern to the bibliographer to keep his records accurate and up-to-date. As they move from one institution to another in their research scholars will find that institutions' records may vary in reflecting these changes, for this is an unprecedented situation. It is almost impossible to keep abreast of it (in our own experi-
ence, for example, in one day's mail from Zambia every document that came required revision of bibliographical entry). This is mentioned only to remind scholars, as they probably already know, that these changes make an African literature search today almost a guessing game. The guides to African documentation published by the Library of Congress have been of important assistance especially in the linking of varying departmental designations, and one of the most useful general references sources for national names and dates of political change is volume II of the *Europa Yearbook*. Otherwise current newspapers are the best source for catching official changes of national names, and every shipment of government documents from Africa is eagerly scanned to see what has happened or will be happening next.

This condition can be expected to exist for several years as more interior services are developed in these countries. Some services now carried practically as governmental functions will be separated into semi-autonomous, extra-governmental agencies, or become completely autonomous, while new services and new departments will be added, and ministries that now include two or more major functions will split as the work load grows and be redesignated. This will mean in the future that accurate and exhaustive research will be dependent on careful historical notes in bibliographies that will draw attention to these many changes involving names and services of governments and will distinguish the interrelationships of varying departmental designations.

For a field which has been captivated by the promise and lure of automatic data processing, it is surprising how little librarianship has to show for this preoccupation insofar as its own documentation is concerned. The literature of particular practices in individual institutions goes on and on, seemingly in an endless stream, but the number of books, pamphlets, or other documents which generalize or genuinely assess or analyze the uses of the technology for library applications is very thin indeed. This slender little volume, first published at the University of Newcastle-Upon-Tyne as their library publication No. 4 in September 1966, comes therefore as a welcome addition.

The book serves to introduce the library reader to the "role of the computer in the organization and handling of information in libraries." In this volume there is packed a great deal of good sense and enterprising thinking, beginning from the back of the title page, where the authors have quoted from W. T. Williams in Barbara Kyle's Focus on Information and Communication to good effect, upon central differences between the needs and uses of computers and of men. Those who spend some time with this volume, and any librarian committed to tomorrow rather than yesterday will want to do so, are encouraged not to miss the quotation from the Kyle volume.

The introduction to the work sets the stage well for its content. It is written by Frederick G. Kilgour of Yale University library, who has himself contributed appreciably to generalized understanding of applications and implications of computer uses in library for repetitive processing activity. The volume grows out of the effort at Newcastle-Upon-Tyne where one of the authors is a computer expert, another a librarian, and the third a statistician concerned with the problems of interrelating librarians and computers. The emphasis throughout the book is upon providing the detailed means whereby manual procedures may be converted to more automatic processes using contemporary technology. Unlike many more extended treatments, this monograph is precise and always to the point. From this work the reader will better understand the background of libraries as they relate to utilization of machinery. There is a discussion of the limits and opportunities provided through the use of computers; their use in acquisitions and cataloging, and the printing of catalogs. The prospects for libraries of using machines for information and reference requirements are treated. Finally, the general dimensions of the library problem and the prospects for new developments in computer technology and their implications for librarianship are explored.

Of course, the value of any such work is in some measure a function of the sophistication which the reader brings to the task. In the present volume, the requirements for sophistication are limited. The reading of this book will reward any librarian who takes the time to work his way through, since a good deal of sound and useful thinking is provided about the whys and wherefores, the promise and the limits of the technology.

In this book, several individuals who have worked together and accumulated experience in both computer applications and in librarianship, offer a clear and meaningful explanation of the potential role of the machinery in terms of library and library related activities. The work is a must for the bookshelf of the librarian who is concerned about the ways in which computers can and will influence the performance of his tasks; it will be of special interest to academic librarians.—Paul Wasserman, University of Maryland.


This bibliography is the product of the Program for the Training of Administrators
for Community and Junior Colleges established March 4, 1960, at the Teachers College, Columbia University, with the aid of a grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Three aims of the project were: (1) to prepare an increasing number of young administrators for the community and junior colleges; (2) to provide coordinated professional development (in-service and refresher) opportunities for persons already in administrative positions; and (3) to provide a program of research and service.

One of the first problems identified was the absence of an up-to-date selective bibliography in the community junior college field. In order to solve the problem, students of two advanced seminars during the spring and autumn semesters of 1965 prepared an annotated bibliography. The editor, Emory W. Rarig, Jr., administrative assistant in the Center for Community Colleges, Teachers College, refined the compilation which appears in this volume. In the foreword the director of the Center for Community Colleges, Walter E. Sindlinger, cautions that "this effort represents merely a beginning," and that it is hoped that future seminars will continue to update and expand the work into the "selective, annotated directory to the important community junior college literature and research works" originally planned.

Bibliographies are presented for eight subjects: (1) history of the community junior college; (2) functions and purposes of the community junior college; (3) organization and administration of community junior colleges; (4) community junior college students; (5) community junior college programs; (6) community junior college personnel; (7) community junior college facilities; (8) research in the community junior college.

For these topics there are 391 entries, some of which are duplicated within the eight sections. Two hundred eighty-seven authors (including associations) are listed in the author index. An annotated bibliography of research tools precedes the main bibliography.

Criteria for the selectivity within each of the eight subjects is not cited. This would have been helpful to the user in determining the time scope of selection. Journal articles and books are included. It is pointed out in the foreword that many of the major works in higher education have been excluded since the references chosen deal directly with the community junior college. Spot checks indicate that the annotations are well done.

The organization of the entries into subject areas, although limited, is a contribution to bibliographic literature.—Harriett Genung, Mt. San Antonio College.


As explained in the preface, this volume contains the papers presented at the Anglo-American Conference on the Mechanization of Libraries held in Oxford, England, June 30 to July 3, 1966. More commonly referred to as the Brasenose Conference, it brought together some sixty-five British and American librarians and others concerned with the application of computers to libraries and library work. The three days at Brasenose College marked a historic venture in trans-Atlantic cooperation. The British also emphasized that the event was equally historic in the resulting cooperation between the British Museum and the librarians at Oxford and Cambridge. An excellent summary of the conference from the American point of view appears in the Library of Congress Information Bulletin, July 14, 1966, Appendix I.

Ten papers, none previously published, are presented along with the four speeches at the opening dinner. The actual discussion following each paper has been partly reproduced, and the volume concludes with a discussion of future activities by the conference participants. The editors plead that they have taken "... drastic action with the verbatim transcript. Speeches have been compressed, sentences rearranged, grammar amended, and whole areas of discussion completely left out."

It is true that often far more is spoken than goes well into print, and what is said often records badly. It is for these reasons and in order to publish as quickly as possible that the editors claim this approach.

Unfortunately, under these circumstances there was no question of reproducing the slides which accompanied some of the pres-
presentations of the papers. In at least one instance, this lack is sorely felt by the reader. It also seems that the discussions, if presented at all, would have been better represented by including enough material to preserve both the continuity and the spirit of the remarks for the reader.

The first paper is a statement of the situation at the British Museum, The Bodleian library, Oxford, and Cambridge University library, presented jointly by A. H. Chaplin, R. Shackleton, and J. C. T. Oates of the above libraries respectively. This introductory paper presents a picture of the progress and the past relationship of the three British libraries as regards computers and computing.

The second paper, by A. J. Wells of the British Museum, describes a few of the problems which seem special in producing the British National Bibliography by computer, if such a thing is to be considered. The author indicates a hope that a detailed study of the problems will be undertaken shortly.

The sixth paper, also presented by two Britishers (A. M. Cain and J. W. Jolliffe of the British Museum), is a general discussion of the problems associated with input, output, and processing by computer where a variety of languages and corresponding character sets exist. The general reference is to a large library with a large existing record file such as the British Museum.

The remaining seven papers are authoritative presentations by the Americans participating in the conference. Ralph Parker of the University of Missouri library reviews a total system approach to the internal use of computers in a library. In the next paper, Fred Kilgour of the Yale University library, discusses comprehensive modern library systems. His paper contends that libraries will necessarily evolve into information-based networks if the efficiencies of the computer are to be best utilized.

Foster Palmer of Harvard University library discusses conversion of existing records in large libraries, with detailed references to the experience of converting parts of the Widener library shelf list. While a great deal of technical detail is included, the author makes it clear that it was included to provide an idea of some of the questions that have to be faced. The following paper in the series, presented jointly by Henriette Auram and Barbara Markuson of the Library of Congress, is a lengthy review of L. C.'s Project MARC, an experiment in the distribution of machine-readable cataloging data. At the date of this paper Project MARC was not yet an operational reality, but the basic approach and design philosophy presented are those carried through to the operating environment.

Ritvars Bregzis of the University of Toronto discusses levels of bibliographic control and presents the concept of a reactive catalog. Automated bibliographic control is proposed as a necessary part of an International Bibliographic Information System of the future. In the next paper Charles Austin, Office of Management Policy, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, presents factors related to sharing of bibliographic information. Particular reference is made to the operating distribution system of the National Library of Medicine, using cataloging data produced by a computer. The author lists ten postulates relating to the sharing of bibliographic information. In the final paper Irwin Pizer of the SUNY Upstate Medical Center library reviews a proposed computerized biomedical network for the State University of New York. The proposed system would include both a computerized network and Long Distance Xerography Facsimile Transmission equipment. It is interesting to note that more recent versions of the proposal are available.

This collection of papers will provide a brief look at mechanization in large libraries for the reader who is not familiar with the subject. The fact remains, however, that this volume will not be easy reading if the reader is not versed in at least elementary computer concepts. For the reader already familiar with the American library automation scene, the look at British efforts provided by the first three papers mentioned is perhaps of greatest interest.

This collection as a whole can be classed as neither tutorial nor state-of-the-art. The tone of the conference as expressed by the editors seems to have been preserved intact—for the most part it was a matter of the American delegation expounding and the British (and the reader) listening.—Bruce W. Stewart, Texas A&M University.

Wilson and Tauber are names that will always be associated in university library circles, as the co-authors of The University Library, now in its second edition and one of the fundamental books on library science. The association of the two names will be reinforced through the publication of Maurice F. Tauber’s full biography of Louis Round Wilson. For more than twenty years Professor Tauber’s pick-up work, or perhaps his hobby, has been gathering information and writing drafts of this work. The result of his efforts is a superb portrait of a great and influential man—a book meticulously accurate in fact and detail on Wilson’s career, carefully balanced, and so readable that it is difficult to put aside once begun. The biography also suggests the affection and respect of the author for the subject, sentiments which hundreds of librarians share with Maury Tauber. Judging by the publication date, it is quite probable that proofs or perhaps an advance copy might have been available for Dr. Wilson to see by the time of his ninetieth birthday, celebrated on December 27, 1966. If so, he must have been pleased.

Wilson’s achievements in university librarianship, as a teacher, and as a productive scholar at Chapel Hill and Chicago—making three careers, any one of which would suffice for most mortals—have already assumed the proportions of a legend generously laced with stories which are “improved” in the retelling in order to prove a point. It is good they have the record set straight and the details made clear, to understand the whole man pursuing for over sixty years the steady course of a library-centered professional career, to have the anecdotes verified and set down permanently, and to bring into perspective a professional era which seems more coherent with the realization that it actually occurred within one person’s lifetime. Wilson was not a passive observer of that era. He helped to shape it and he foresaw clearly that out of it would come many of the developments now underway and many of the problems we still face.

The three main themes in Wilson’s career, administration, teaching and research, are familiar to all readers of the journal in which this note is published. What some of us in academic and research libraries may not fully have appreciated are some of the underlying reasons for the ultimate successful outcome of everything the “L.R.” (and you don’t address him in the familiar terms you use when you talk about him) has undertaken. For this you must understand the man as a person—his formative years, his integrity, courage, kindness, warmth, toughness, and determination. More than that, you must know how skillfully he has operated in the university campus environment; in state, regional, national, and international library organizations; in alliances with foundations and educational associations; and in the world of editing, publishing, and the book trade. Even further, one must appreciate how surely he realized that the university library will flourish only in a society which supports all levels of education, including extension of education to the non-school population. Because of his broad interests Wilson is as respected for his leadership by school librarians, public librarians, and educators in the south as he is by the worldwide academic library community. These dimensions of breadth, depth, and understanding are what distinguish a real biography from a personal chronology or a blown-up “who’s who” entry. Tauber has proved he is a skillful biographer. It is a happy thing for our professional literature that this skill has added Louis Round Wilson’s name to those of Edward Edwards, Charles Evans, and William Frederick Poole, making a worthy group which has received full-length, high quality biographical treatment within the past five years.

Louis Round Wilson: Librarian and Administrator is number fourteen of the “Columbia University Studies in Library Service.” Typically of Columbia University Press books, this one is tastefully designed, well printed, indexed, and sturdily cased. As evidence that the human is still with the machine in book production, there are a few little errors which slipped by the proofreader. They will annoy the author more than the reader and are too trivial to enumerate here.—Andrew H. Horn, University of California, Los Angeles.

In the fall of 1969, some 360 freshmen will begin a four-year program of liberal studies at Hampshire College, a college initiated as a cooperative venture of Amherst, Mt. Holyoke, Smith, and the University of Massachusetts. If the program lives up to the promise presented in this report of Hampshire's first president, they will have an exciting experience and an opportunity to acquire a truly liberating undergraduate education.

The report serves well as a review of recent thinking about undergraduate education because Hampshire proposes to implement many of the best ideas which have been suggested: emphasis on processes of inquiry, student-initiated independent study, participation in social action programs, the abolition of the credit-hour and grade system in favor of "field" and "integrative" examinations, campus and organizational planning to achieve a sense of community among administrators, faculty, and students, and so on. In his rationale for the program, moreover, President Patterson draws upon some of the most penetrating of recent analyses, notably Daniel Bell's The Reforming of General Education.

College and university librarians will be particularly intrigued by the plan for a school of language studies, which will bring together analytical philosophy, psycholinguistics, information transfer and the technology of language, and, of course, modern language studies. Here important recognition is given to a multidisciplinary field which is closely related to their own profession. (Students who specialize in this field would be first-rate prospects for librarianship. Recruiters should take notice.)

At the same time, librarians will be disappointed at the lack of attention given to the role of the library in a curriculum whose unifying theme is the process of inquiry, in a program which calls for a great deal of independent study. The library is described as "far more than the ordinary conception of a library . . . the educative aorta of the College." But there is nothing in the report to indicate how it will differ from the familiar old "heart of the college." It is to be in the center of the campus; 41,000 square feet is allocated to stacks, reading, faculty offices, with 6,000 square feet for undifferentiated "service"; $2,029,500 is budgeted for building and furnishings; and $600,000 capital outlay is budgeted for an initial 100,000 volumes. No estimate of the cost of processing is indicated. The only mention of library staff is this sentence: "The Director of Library Services should be a very able man in terms both of traditional librarianship, bookmanship, library display, and pioneering in the new."

When this report was prepared, plans for Hampshire College were, of course, very incomplete and tentative. (Calculations of faculty required to carry specific courses are, however, carried to the second decimal place, and space is allocated in detail for administrators, secretaries, and receptionists.) Since that time there has been a fruitful conference and considerable consultation about the library. Presumably, therefore, plans are now more thoughtful and detailed. Furthermore, the sponsorship of the college and the precedent of the Hampshire Interlibrary Center suggest that Hampshire students will have access, theoretically, at least, to the resources of four excellent libraries.

This reviewer is depressed, nevertheless, to find the library playing such a small part in this first published "organized vision" of undergraduate education in a liberal arts college which will in all likelihood join the handful which carry the standard of excellence in the academic procession.

What does it mean? Is it only that a good collection, a bookish librarian, "skilled in library display," and technological access to rich resources is simply a "given" for a good college? Or is it that we librarians have so little of an organized vision of our own that we leave entirely to others the intellectual challenge of effective use of the resources we acquire and organize?

These are questions for us, not for President Patterson. He has presented an inspiring report on "plans for a new departure in higher education." What we need in academic librarianship is new departures to complement programs as promising as this.—Patricia B. Knapp, Wayne State University.
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