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A Short Happy View
of Our Emulation of Faculty

Having served as a successful scholar and teacher of college English, and also as a librarian, I would like to make some comparisons between the two professions. College teaching has all the precision of a coven of witches. No one knows precisely how to teach anyone anything. The simple fact is that we still haven't the slightest inkling of what goes on in the mind during the learning process; consequently, results are impossible to define. Nevertheless, each teacher tries his own thing, and some of it works somehow for some students. Most of the effort is wasted, as any successful teacher realizes.

This free-floating condition is the perfect refuge for opportunists who learn to play according to the rules of the guild that lead to rewards, and they have come into college teaching in droves during the past twenty years, the only period in history when this profession has paid a living wage. In the past three years, standards of classroom performance and of grading in colleges and universities have slipped alarmingly.

With the present shortage of jobs, the teaching profession has become obscenely competitive, with scholars grinding out articles like sausages from a casing machine, while their wives market them. The threat of nontenure, which means for the faculty termination of employment, hangs over the young like a sword of Damocles, and because of the high percentage of faculty already on tenure, denial of tenure to those coming up has become commonplace.

Is this the profession with which we want to compare ourselves? If so, I wonder why. Is this the kind of life that librarians want to lead? Or are we after a cushy version of it—all the benefits and none of the stress? No grinding demands for doctoral degrees? No pressures for publication? No termination if tenure is denied? It is possible to get the cushioned version in weak institutions, where no standards or pressures are applied to the teaching faculty. But who in the world would want to work in one? In colleges and universities where full faculty equivalency means competition on an even basis with high-powered academicians, most librarians stand only to lose. The Joint Statement on Faculty Status of College and University Librarians now under consideration for endorsement by ACRL, AAC, and AAUP states quite clearly: "They [librarians] must go through the same process of evaluation and meet the same standards as other faculty members." (CRL News, v. 33, no. 8 (Sept. 1972), p. 210. Emphasis added.) In any university of quality, this means no promotion above the rank of instructor without a Ph.D. degree.

In any healthy academic library under adequate leadership, the only faculty benefit denied librarians is the longer vacation period. In turn, li-
Librarians are free from the publish-or-perish and the tenure-or-sink syndromes. Within the past few years, the library-faculty of Cornell University, as well as at Hofstra University during my term there, voted down, by a margin of 2-1 in both cases, the option of moving to full faculty equivalency, on the basis that they had far more to lose than to gain. Others throughout the country have expressed disdain at being compared to faculty, rather than having their distinction as librarians fully recognized.

Why do we ignore the fact that the rich and complex knowledge, the highly professionalized and varied skills demanded by librarianship—the very elements that make this an exciting profession constantly stretching out ahead of the best of us over a long professional career—are the strongest bases on which to demand our share of the university's benefits to the fullest extent?

Two basic conditions are required. The library must be established at a high level in the eyes of its faculty, and it must recruit and hold a staff of librarians of academic worth. Both conditions depend on generating dynamics in the library that make it an exciting academic enterprise within the university structure. Both conditions can be attained without full faculty equivalency. And then, who in the world needs it?

Ellsworth Mason
Since a university library is a service agency, it is unable itself to “rationalize” the potentially limitless demands made upon it by the sum of requests from individual researchers. Theoretically its budget demands on the institution could potentially be limitless. The library is involved in two “information cycles”: a “publication cycle” of production of new knowledge, its formalization and its storage and use; and a “demand cycle.” Both of these cycles involve institutional cost. Rationalization decisions can be made at a program level, when the institution decides whether to enter a subject area; or at a recruitment level, when the institution and a candidate for a staff position decide whether there is a “match” of interests. Upon recruitment, the institution has a responsibility to support the staff member’s research interests.

Our concern is the relationship between the development of research resources in university libraries and the initiative of the researcher toward projects. Arising from this is the cost, to both individual institutions and to regional systems of libraries or institutions, and ultimately to the (governmental) funding agency. Our concern is the conflict which occurs, so often as to be the rule, between the location of research and the location of resources: the one ever varying, the other often underused. Our contention is that unless rationalization decisions are applied in two ways, university libraries are faced with a limitless expansion and needless duplication of efforts to build resources. Those two ways are: (1) rationalization decisions at the institutional level to delimit areas of interest and acceptance by the individual of limits to the resources which can be provided for him; and (2) the cooperative interinstitutional approach to information resources, which will make possible rationalization decisions about the relocation of library resources.

Library resources are gathered, in the first place, in response to current teaching and research demands. They necessarily represent commitments to research. The cost of acquiring and organizing a collection sufficient for even the smallest research project is very large, in time as well as money. A col-

This paper was originally presented as a brief to the Commission to Study Rationalization of University Research, of the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, at a hearing December 10, 1971. The authors gratefully acknowledge the valuable assistance of Ms. Lin Good, Rudolf C. Ellsworth, William F. E. Morley, and Theodore D. Phillips. All are members of the staff of Douglas Library, Queen’s University at Kingston, Ontario. The opinions expressed are those of the respondents and not those of the university.
lection once gathered, though it be un­
used because of changing research in­
terests, represents a continuing charge
to the institution for storage and ser­
vice.

Instances are rare in which an individ­
ual or a research group is drawn to an
institution because its library research
resources are attractive. So few institu­
tions are fortunate enough to own col­
lections attractive to researchers in many
disciplines that the phrase “Harvard ef­
fecf” is obvious in meaning. By-and-
large, established collections are not the
impetus to research. Rather, the re­
searcher generates a demand post facto
upon the library. The alternative pos­
sibility—that the individual’s research
will be limited to available materials—
is much less likely.

The unpredictable, “mosaic” nature
of the choice of individual research
topics means that many very small areas
may be intensively studied, and re­
sources on those topics in demand for
a time; while other areas are untouched,
and sparse or fallow in the library. The
informational material used for re­
search is typically so specialized that the
statistically predictable frequency of
use, well documented by Ash, Trueswell,
and many others, is very low—on the
order of once in several years.1, 2 Wheth­
er large or small collections of research
material are gathered they will both
have a low probability of continuing use.
Clearly, for economy of research re­
sources, the probability of use should be
increased—by making the resources
available to the largest community of
researchers; by increasing the continuity
of research interest; or by rationalization
decisions which channel the develop­
ment of these resources in the first in­
stance.

The Research Information Cycle

Figure 1 illustrates a well-known phe­
nomenon which we shall here call the
research information cycle. The stages
by which research conclusions are dis­
seminated proceed by increasing for­
malization: from the stage of personal
communication to a known colleague,
through oral group communication (lec­
tures to meetings), to what the scientist
calls the “primary literature.” This is in
turn extracted and compiled, becomes
standard fact, and is superseded (be­
comes obsolescent) by new research.3, 4

The library is the formal repository
for information in the generic sense.
If the information is numeric or un­
published or ephemeral, the repository
may be called a documentation or in­
formation analysis center, or data bank,
but the substitution or the interpolation
of an information analyst—a surrogate
researcher—does not affect the form of
the cycle. A library (or its kin) is cen­
tral to the cycle.

This is an open cycle. By the time in­
formation has gone through the succes­sive stages of publication, the researcher
himself is no longer interested in it. In­
formation is of the greatest use to him
when provided through the shortest
path. No wonder that the largest reli­
ance is on the “invisible college”—per­
sonal contact accounting for the largest
fraction of information supply.

Because this is an open cycle, one
must ask whether rationalization of re­
search is a means of closing or recurving
the cycle to reenter a prior stage. Ra­
tionalization is shown in Figure 1 as im­
pinging upon the researcher. Proceeding
around the cycle through the stages
of formal publication, rationalization
could take the form of controlling pub­
lication or distribution; of evaluating
literature resources, both those in the li­
brary and those not available; and of
choosing areas to be included or exclud­
ed when setting the scope of research
interests.

The library itself cannot make those
rationalization decisions. The demand
upon it is potentially limitless. By defi­
nition it is a service; only if the demand
is given limits can the library attempt to satisfy all users.

The relationship between researcher and library is further shown in Figure 2. The horizontal diameter (provision of information from library to researcher) has already appeared in Figure 1, the information cycle. In Figure 2, the generation of information demand by the interests of the individual can be seen to result in increased competition for finance, and in a budget demand by the library upon the institution’s administration. The rationalization decision which will limit these demand flows must therefore be made by the individual, before he decides upon his research, or by the institution, either before or after the individual has committed his personal resources.

To reiterate, the library cannot make these rationalization decisions. As a service agency, it can only satisfy demands, or explain why it fails to satisfy them. The explanations are presumptive, and the researcher should accept them and temper his demands accordingly, or seek elsewhere to influence budget decisions.

TEACHING, RESEARCH, AND MOBILITY

We accept the reality that research and teaching demands upon the library
are so closely linked that one is unable to distinguish between acquisitions made for the one purpose and for the other. A preliminary study at our institution (not yet available for release) tends to confirm this; the opinion of teaching staff is that their research makes a relatively small incremental demand upon the library, over that of their (graduate) teaching.

Because an individual moves not only among several institutions in a typical career, but more importantly from project to project, the probable consequent use of particular specialized library resources may wane in a year, or in a few years. He may commit the institution directly to large library expenditures, and indirectly to equally high salary and service costs, while engaged in closely-related teaching and research, and depart, metaphorically or bodily, for other pastures after a few years.

This cost can be looked upon in two ways: as a necessary capital expenditure associated with the decision to engage in some new research program, and thereafter to be treated as a sunk cost; or as a capital investment (in the individual) for which a return must be
computed. The return to the institution and to society upon such investment is known to be small. We may hypothesize that in many instances the investment is never fully repaid. The larger part of the return is to the researcher in the form of prestige and salary increases.

We prefer to treat expenditure on library resources as investments rather than sunk costs, because they involve continuing service (housekeeping) costs to the institution. We ask then how the return on such investments can be increased. Clearly, by increasing continu­ity of interest in them, increasing the number of potential users, or by locating the resources where either of the first two factors can operate.

We see no reason not to treat the information cycle as operative at regional or national levels. The implication is that the researcher and the institution must consider the location of library resources at these levels before making a decision to engage in particular research. Institutional administrations should encourage researchers to undertake their work in the places where resources exist, possibly unused. Alternatively, we recommend that, so far as possible within the framework of institutional and provin­cial rights, library resource strengths be relocated to suit the needs of re­search, rather than unnecessarily dupli­cated. There are costs and technical problems associated with such activity, but we believe them to be less than the cost of un­rationalized and uncoordinat­ed activity.

**DECISION-MAKING IN THE INSTITUTION**

Two types of impetus for research can be identified: individual initiative, and the research-oriented group. The group may be based on a teaching pro­gram, a primary research purpose, or an administrative unit such as a teaching department or school.

The group may have a direct impact on the library if their decision is to mount a program which will require li­brary resources and services. The impact may be indirect if the decisions made delimit individual interests, involve re­cruitment or the selection of the re­searchers themselves. How are these ad­ministrative decisions and interests gen­erated? How are they sanctioned by the institution, and at what level? Frequent­ly they are “sparked” by a strong indi­vidual, around whom a group clusters, from which a formal program proposal may eventually evolve.

It has been our experience that a cur­ricular decision made within a teaching department is often determined without adequate consideration both of available library resources, and of cost and lead time required to develop needed re­sources. Program decisions, at least at the graduate level in Ontario, now in­volve formal communication with the library, and a lead time of nearly two years for the whole process. This is a de­cided help.

The pure research decision at the group level may not consider library re­sources in advance at all; yet it is likely to have the largest cost because the in­formational resources needed are pri­mary, sometimes unique, costly, exten­sive, and always highly intensive. The well-known Bradford-Zipf Law of Dis­tribution of Informational Resources in a subject demonstrates that to be ex­haustive in even a narrow topic requires a very large coverage of the literature.

Has the individual a “right” to do re­search? We would point out that mem­bers of an institution agree to operate within preestablished regulations; they agree at least to certain limits to other “rights.” These limitations in no way affect academic freedom to inquire as the individual wishes. Rather, there are economic realities which may limit the depth to which a research project may be pursued, indeed sometimes preclud­ing it altogether.

As part of the recruiting process by
which an individual comes to an institution, the candidate has an obligation to explore its existing resources, as well as to make his interests known. The administrator who does the recruiting has an obligation to test the "fit" or "match" between the institution's needs and the individual's potential—and also between the individual's research interest and the institution's potential. The crucial question should be: what obligations, immediate and continuing, must the institution take on; what must be promised him, if he comes here? The individual should be introduced to unexplored resources in his general area, with the possibility that his research interests may be enlivened. The library often assists a graduate student in finding a thesis topic; how often has this occurred in the case of a staff researcher?

After the "match" is accepted, the institution has at least a limited obligation to provide resources for the individual's research. The department (or other unit) must ensure that this provision is made—not by coercion of, but by cooperating with the library to explain its needs to the administration. If promises are made they must be kept, but if the library has not made the promise, it should be under no stringent obligation to shift its budget and make such provision.

For his part, the individual should consider whether his "right" to do research yields precedence to the obligations of the program in which he participates, or the limits of scope of the institution he has agreed to join. When a program-level decision for research has been made, the institution (since it has a larger power of review over the decision) has the larger responsibility to support it.

Vertical divisions between parts of the university—departments, institutes, faculties, schools—cause a lack of internal rationalization. Such hiatus of structure means that the university tends to add programs, projects, courses, or research interests without its own organic wholeness in clear view. Individual units support this autonomy of aims, supporting each others' rights to determination, rather than the integrity of the whole. This is a core problem of rationalization: it must be internal as well as external; within the institution, as well as among institutions. Rationalization must also exist interinstitutionally within any given discipline.

**SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

We would summarize points which we have tried to make evident:

1. Failing rationalization, university libraries face limitless demands.
2. Libraries cannot make rationalization decisions since they are service agencies.
3. The researcher generates a demand, but there is no overall pattern to the sum of demands.
4. Common to the cycle of the generation and dissemination of information, and the cycle of research demands within an institution, is the library-researcher axis—that of the provision of information.
5. Individuals are mobile both physically and in research interests.
6. Library resources should be considered investments, rather than sunk costs, and an effort made to increase the return by encouraging use.
7. Return on library resources can be increased by:
   (a) increasing continuity of interest (probably at the program level);
   (b) increasing the number of potential users, by regional availability;
   (c) locating the resources for best use, by transfer if need be;
   (d) encouraging researchers, especially recruits, to explore available but underused resources.
8. Rationalization decisions are necessary within an institution as well as
among institutions; among the various groups in a university, as well as among like groups in various universities.

9. Rationalization decisions are possible particularly:
   (a) in the recruitment process for researchers;
   (b) at the program level.

10. Program and research decisions involve a library factor, with cost and lead-time components, for which a positive mechanism should be included in the decision procedure.

11. The individual’s “right” to do research may be constrained by cost problems.

12. The faculty recruit and the administrator have an obligation to test the match of interests and potential, and of available resources and budget; and having accepted the match, reconcile themselves to such limits.

13. The institution, having accepted an individual, has within cost limits an obligation to support his interests, including research.

References

Academic Library Services for Mexican Americans

Academic libraries are being asked to respond to the needs of yet another ethnic minority group, Chicanos—the second largest minority in America. While their demands on the university library may seem confusing, they represent a search for identity and recognition, and a legitimate call for help. Interestingly enough, some institutions have responded with highly imaginative and progressive service programs, and even initiated recruiting projects to encourage Chicanos to work in libraries or become librarians. Other institutions have done little or nothing in this area, merely perpetuating a condition of mistrust and adding to the rhetoric of institutional racism. On the whole, however, it seems appropriate to ventilate whatever anger may exist in the Chicano community toward academic libraries and bring to the attention of this group the types of successful programs that librarians have developed to address their unique needs. Perhaps these programs will also serve as models and encouragement for other academic librarians across this country.

The academic library, traditionally the support service mechanism for teaching and research programs at institutions of higher learning, is slowly but surely being affected by the dramatic trends of ethnic relations and is being forced to clarify and define its role toward the various minority communities. An undercurrent of frustration among the various minorities has swept through colleges and universities. In the wake of sometimes-violent protests and confrontations, new and urgent issues have been raised on the campus which tend to pull the library into a more active role in supporting the cultural survival and encouraging the equality of academic opportunity for ethnic minorities.

As of this date, university libraries, particularly those located in the Far West and Southwest, are in danger of being overwhelmed both by the qualitative change in their role with respect to support services to Mexican American studies and by the quantitative burden of literally thousands of new students at all levels who are seeking and demanding new library materials. What at present is merely a crisis may soon turn into a disaster, if certain inadequacies of university libraries with respect to this minority group are not understood and resolved with appropriate library acquisition and service programs.

Perhaps a brief discussion of the background leading to the present situation will be enlightening. In his excellent article, "Montezuma's children," Philip D. Ortego wrote:

Robert P. Haro is associate university librarian, Edward L. Doheny Memorial Library, University of Southern California.
Only recently have Mexican Americans begun to receive significant attention in this country, though they are the second largest minority group in the nation. They constitute the single largest linguistic group. Most Mexican Americans (seven million) live in the five state area of Texas, New Mexico, Colorado, Arizona and California. The largest single concentration is in Los Angeles.  

While Ortego is correct in stating that most of the Mexican Americans live in the Far West and Southwest, two important facts must be borne in mind: 80 percent of the Mexican American population is urbanized, and there are large and growing concentrations of Mexican Americans in metropolitan areas outside of the five aforementioned states.  

The ethnic insurgence and pressure for identity has created an activist student sector in the Mexican American community. On many university campuses they number in the hundreds and are kept in an aggressive mood by a small cadre of staff and faculty with a liberal influx of barrio leaders and workers. The appearance of these students has been sudden and their demands on university libraries disturbing. Many library administrators have felt themselves at the point of the lance and have given ground more because of the pressure than because of any understanding of what is occurring in these ethnic universes. The students are making new demands on the academic library that may seem strident, impulsive and economically impossible to some, but in fact they have a core of profound significance for the very future of the ethnic minority groups—Blacks, American Indians, Asian Americans, and Chicanos—and for American society as a whole. University library administrators, where they have been willing to act, have improvised responses to student pressure, some with the aim of gaining time, some with token gestures in the hope that this potentially troublesome and explosive problem may be defused. A minuscule number of library administrators have refused to take any action whatsoever, believing the crisis will pass if ignored.

Just what is it that the Mexican American students demand of the university library? Briefly, most Mexican American students, particularly those with language or educational background problems, realize that their chances of success within as competitive a setting as a university will be greatly reduced if they are not capable of effectively using the library. It is not that it may be helpful or enriching for Chicano students to know about the library; it is simply that it may be impossible for them to succeed without it. There is a peculiar problem in this situation: the sensitivity of Mexican American students to criticism and to failure is even greater than that of the average university student. They are thus less likely to seek direct assistance from the library staff, or to participate actively or effectively in anything so formidable as some of the currently voguish classroom courses offered in library use and bibliography. To overcome some of the hesitation and uncertainty students may have with regard to the library, three approaches are necessary. First, the library must have the print and nonprint materials necessary to support teaching and research programs related to Mexican American culture. Second, it is necessary for the library to devise a service program that is as self-directed as possible, which requires a minimum of verbal instruction, and which permits the student to proceed at his own pace in understanding and utilizing the library. Third, the use of Mexican American library staff members to work closely with students and faculty in developing the library’s collections and service programs is not only desirable but imperative.
The specific demands that Mexican American students make on the university library may be viewed in six categories: (1) the expansion of library service programs, including training in the use of library materials and reference and research methods; (2) the purchase of appropriate materials to support the unique needs of Mexican American studies programs; (3) the compilation of special bibliographies and research lists; (4) the adaptation of some of these lists and bibliographies to the peculiar academic needs of Chicano students with language or education background problems or weaknesses; (5) the formulation of an outreach policy on the part of library staff to work with a hastily recruited and overworked faculty in the ethnic studies area who may not be as aware of or sensitive to the support services the library can provide; (6) the identification of all appropriate research publications so as to encourage and stimulate innovative teaching and advanced research on the part of promising Chicano students and teaching faculty.

Obviously, additional comments are necessary in regard to each of these categories, particularly if a more precise view of the student-faculty needs and demands is to result. There have been numerous articles about the hesitation that Mexican Americans have in dealing with institutional situations. It is unfortunate that too few published studies deal with the attitudes and behavior of Mexican American college students toward academic libraries.

Concerning the expansion of library service programs, the experience at the University of California, Los Angeles, might serve as a model. Many of the Chicano students at UCLA come from low income families; many have been recruited through economic opportunity and special urban crisis programs. The UCLA faculty and librarians found many students deficient in an awareness of library use and resources. To address this deficiency, a course was designed that would systematically acquaint the Mexican American students with the resources of the library. By consensus, the library staff felt that the students could best be served through a course in library methods established specifically for this minority group. Working closely with the appropriate faculty and articulate students in the Mexican American studies area, the librarians developed a rather extensive manual and guidebook for a course on library use.

The UCLA course attempts to acquaint the student with the reference and research services offered by an academic library. Assignments are specially designed to introduce the students to some of the most frequently-used reference tools. Although somewhat pedestrian at the beginning level, it is structured to allow considerable expansion and the ready inclusion of more sophisticated reference techniques as the student develops a working knowledge of the methodology and basic works. One must remember that, to many of these students, any kind of library is a highly suspicious and unknown institution. One of the first and most important steps is to overcome the students' hesitation and/or passive attitude toward the library. Although the course is relatively new and there has not been sufficient time to allow precise measurement of its effectiveness, preliminary feedback is favorable. Unfortunately, UCLA is one of but five universities currently doing anything in this area.

The second demand that Chicano students make upon a university library relates to the ordering of appropriate library materials to support the unique needs of Chicano studies programs. It is in this area that most academic librarians feel reasonably comfortable and initially most react to the students favorably. No single demand, however,
is more misunderstood by academic librarians. What is it that Chicano students demand in the way of library materials? Books? Periodicals? Pamphlets? Films? Ephemera? Obviously, all of these. But, because few appropriate in-print materials are available, librarians face the immense task of locating and reviewing an enormous quantity of older materials until more "relevant" items are produced. Furthermore, the existing items are frequently looked upon with dismay by librarians who refer to them as "not scholarly" and therefore unworthy of adding to the university's collection. Closely related is the controversial nature of the materials. Films may serve as a good example. Perhaps the one most frequently demanded by Mexican American students is *I Am Joaquin*, a very powerful and dramatic film already the target of much criticism and even censorship within the public library sector. Should an academic library buy such a film? If it does, who may view the film and where will it be located? Can the students borrow the film for presentation in barrio communities as well as in classroom settings? It is unfortunate that some academic librarians devise procedural problems to defeat the procurement and utilization of a film they glibly agree is highly "worthwhile."

The demand for "relevant" materials by Mexican American students often clashes with the standard operating procedures of a library's order department. It is surprising how attached some academic librarians are to large book jobbers and periodical dealers. Considering the neglect that the available Mexican American publications have received, particularly the serial publications, it is a wonder that even some find their way into university libraries. Too many order librarians are extremely hesitant to order serial publications from "fly-by-night" outfits, as small Mexican American publishers are so often termed. Many order librarians in fact seldom, if ever, bother to search for a source for these publications if they are not readily available from an established jobber. Somehow these orders are quietly assigned a low priority and relegated to the limbo frequently known as "in process." What this means, however, is that the legitimate cultural expressions of this minority group, at times indispensable for complete portrayal and understanding, are slow to be secured. I will not attempt to deal with the problems associated with the indexing, cataloging, and other technical services necessary to carry these publications through the library and eventually into the hands of the student or faculty member. Suffice it to say that the road is long and the hurdles many.

Assuming that the problems of acquiring the materials have been solved and that a continuous stream is flowing into the library, a third problem surfaces: the compilation of bibliographies and research lists. Because much of the current material relating to Mexican American culture falls into the category of ephemera, special indexes and annotated bibliographies are needed to make it usable. Ideally, the faculty of the Mexican American studies program and the students themselves should be involved in the planning and operation of such efforts. Several western universities have moved in this direction. Few, however, have assigned a fulltime librarian to such a program. At the University of California at Davis campus, an Ethnic Studies librarian's contacts with appropriate departments as well as with the literature are facilitated by the use of students—Black, Chicano, Oriental, and American Indian—who function as book selectors, literature searchers, and linking pins between the library and their respective departments and minority groups. Not only does the library thereby encourage the acquisition of necessary materials, irrespective of
format, it also hires minority students and thereby earns their appreciation and trust. Although a good first step, what is really needed is a constantly-updated series of annotated bibliographies.

Closely associated with such a service are the latent problems of language deficiencies and educational background of many Chicano students. A university library should recognize these problems and take appropriate action to assist students so handicapped. But reading lists to identify new materials always seem to be written in either too sophisticated a manner or so simplistically as to embarrass the intended user. Perhaps what is needed is a bilingual publication. At any rate, there is much libraries can do to reach these students, particularly if an expanded service concept is employed with appropriate and sensitive librarians and supporting staff.

While the dominant theme of this paper has revolved around the needs of students, the formulation of special service and support programs for the faculty within Mexican American studies departments is necessary. The rush into Mexican American studies has placed an enormous strain on the limited manpower available to fill teaching and administrative positions in most western universities. Therefore, many of the new instructors hired for actual classroom teaching find themselves hurled into curriculum design, course planning, and preparation of lectures with little if any previous academic experience. These conditions, especially the latter, add up to what should be a greater reliance on the university library by these instructors, as well as a closer working relationship with librarians. Hence, it is to this frontline teaching sector that specialized library service should be addressed, to take whatever forms can effectively respond to the evident and foreseeable pressures.

Has this in fact occurred? Yes and no. Certain support services, within a traditional vein, are relatively simple for a university library to provide for a new teaching department. However, where the teaching department is composed of individuals not completely familiar with the capabilities and functionings of a university library, where the types of needed materials are elusive and not available in its collection, and where a demand for Mexican American library staff includes the development of special or even separate collections, the library administration is hard put to react in any fashion other than horror and dismay. While I will not belabor the demands that this cadre of new faculty members makes upon the library, it is important that the actions of the university library both from anticipatory and reactive motives be investigated.

While teaching faculty of Mexican American descent are few, to say the least, there are even fewer Chicano academic librarians. Where Chicano librarians have been employed to deal exclusively with students and faculty from Chicano studies programs, their efforts have been highly successful, particularly where the library administration has encouraged them to work closely with faculty in the derivation of appropriate bibliographic aids, book collection programs, and other library service projects devoted to the unique needs of this minority group. Given the limited number of Chicano academic librarians, many university libraries successfully employ capable bilingual library clerks to deal directly with students and faculty in the areas of Chicano studies. At best this latter condition can be viewed as a holding operation and can lead to some serious problems for academic libraries. Eventually, if a Mexican American studies department is influential, aggressive, and vociferous, it can intimidate the library administrators into releasing a Mexican American library clerk and begin the de-
velopment of a separate collection of materials as a departmental collection. Also, various Mexican American studies programs have employed bilingual Chicanos to function as librarians in the establishment and development of a library collection independent of the main university library. In fact, several Mexican American studies programs at major universities in the Far West are actively seeking librarians to administer pocket library collections, some of substantial size and scope. These actions, for all practical purposes, will not only alienate the library from the teaching department, but restrict the possible contacts that faculty and students will have with the main library. So, how does one circumvent and solve this problem?

The key is the cooperative good will of the faculty. This can be secured by a cooperative venture between library administrators and subject-oriented librarians, and the teaching faculty. The first move in establishing this relationship should come from the library.

What kind of support services and what kind of librarians should deal with the faculty? Ideally, one could want a highly flexible reader services division that could restructure its policies and resources to accommodate just such a contingency. Assuming that some administrative latitude is possible because of the library's organizational structure, the place to start is in an opening dialogue between the university librarian and the chairman of the teaching department. This, of course, is almost too simplistic to mention. However, after the initial contact I recommend that the traditional relationship between administrators be abandoned in favor of close personal and professional encounters between the individuals most concerned with the problems, namely the teaching faculty and the line (as opposed to staff) librarians. Initially this may require that upper level library administrators relinquish some of their relationships with the Mexican American studies faculty and even its chairman. What is needed at this stage of the venture is a quick identification of the goals so that the derivation of a problem-solving methodology results. Also, the contacts between faculty and public services librarians seem the most advantageous for the library and probably for the teaching department faculty. This can be an important liaison not only between the university library and the faculty, but between the library and the students in that department. The discussion of subject and bibliographical tools can be a two-way street between faculty and librarians. How?

Historically, librarians have always been considered the curators of books and other library materials. As such, their greatest expertise has been in the role of information processors as opposed to information interpreters. Librarians have adopted the policy of providing the answer to a request in preference to providing not only the answer but some training for the client on how to employ self help in a future, similar situation. This should not be the case with Mexican American studies faculty and students. In many instances academic librarians at several western universities have a much better command of the available resources than the beginning teaching faculty. What a shame if the two did not cooperate and learn from each other! On the other hand, where the faculty member has a good knowledge of the literature and the librarian does not, it behooves the librarian to secure this knowledge.

Whether this rapport is gained through close personal or professional contacts, through classroom observation or participation, or through joint bibliographical projects is not important at this point. What is important is that the library make the first overture to the teaching department, through upper level administrators, and then allow the
individuals who must work with the conditions and problems to conceptualize a plan of action acceptable to both parties.

From a purely practical perspective the cooperation between faculty and librarians may provide answers to the following:

- What resources, such as a government documents section, does the library maintain that could be a possible source of information?
- Are there cooperative resource-sharing systems that this university library participates in which might serve as alternatives in searching out appropriate information?
- What nonprint materials, such as films, maps, microforms, etc., exist both in the library and on the university campus?
- Are there special research or public service sectors of the university that maintain data banks?

Such a list could be continued at length because once a good academic librarian is given direction and an opportunity to pursue such a project the possibilities increase tremendously. The essential ingredient within this relationship is the continuing contact and cooperation between the librarian and the Mexican American studies faculty, with the objective of sensitizing both parties to needed services and materials. The last aspect of this process, library materials, leads to the final demand that Mexican American students and faculty bring to a university library.

To support adequately a teaching and research program, a university library must identify all appropriate publications relevant to the Mexican American studies curriculum. The questions that will be asked of librarians, and to a lesser extent the teaching faculty, are:

- What is available in the humanities, art, music, literature (drama, novels, poetry) that will be useful to the program?
- Can the Chicano Art Association be recruited to disseminate not only some of their works, but pertinent information?
- What new research is being conducted in the social sciences—economics, education, sociology, political science—where is it being done and how can it be secured?
- Can the Chicano Press Association be helpful in identifying and reviewing this new material?

Looking first at the role of the library in supporting teaching programs, the accumulation of library materials alone will not suffice in this case. Data and information gathering will not substitute for the substantive evaluation of sources to communicate the realities of the Mexican American's culture, identity, and uniqueness. A quick search through the numerous bibliographies on Mexican American topics will uncover the same writers and works. Most of these bibliographies have been compiled by well-intentioned librarians and academics. Mexican Americans and particularly Chicano faculty and students view with great suspicion some "scholars" who have produced books ostensibly sympathetic to the Mexican American. Through a dialogue with students and faculty members from Mexican American studies programs, or from conversations with librarians who have long been involved in the review of Mexican American literature, librarians can learn to identify the best works in this area.15

Librarians should accept as their goals the development of a data bank of information on the Mexican American within the university library. In addi-
tion to monographic materials and traditional print sources, hard survey data as well as synthesized materials should be sought out and secured by librarians. An example of a well documented study is Ernesto Galarza’s *Merchants of Labor*. It is a fundamental account of the exploitation of the bracero with the framework of a humanistic text. Academic librarians can be the alert professionals capable of selecting and organizing objective data that will eventually be useful to the creative writer such as Galarza. Future Mexican American dramatists, essayists, novelists, and poets may derive the images and impressions of their culture from the true records that academic librarians saw fit to identify, secure, and preserve.

In the process of securing appropriate materials to support an academic teaching and research program, university librarians have long been reactive forces. Perhaps this is because most librarians have seldom been included in the conceptual stages of curriculum development, a condition resulting from faculty indifference to librarians, and to a lesser degree a lack of interest by librarians themselves. Such a condition however, should not continue as a precedent for new and developing interdisciplinary programs like ethnic studies. Many librarians have long been the only friends minority group students have had on the campus, being the first service agencies to hire them and the first to offer them equality of service without regard to their language, race, or color. The weaknesses that have existed and continue to exist are principally within the administrative levels of university libraries. A few university libraries have seen the desperate needs of these students and faculty have embarked on some highly innovative and beneficial library education and training programs. The future course of action of necessity requires genuine commitment, planning, the use of appropriate manpower, and most important, the willingness of the library administrators to cast aside the traditional role of a reactive and procedurally-oriented service unit and to initiate innovative service concepts.

The education of the Mexican American is at a critical crossroad. Young people in colleges and universities for the past four years have been attempting to implement educational programs within the established structure. Their efforts have not been completely realized. There have been a few librarians who have dedicated themselves to this minority group and have even risked their positions in making radical changes in what can best be called a philosophically-obsolete library concept of service. Many of the issues that revolve around servicing the needs of Mexican American studies are just arising in the library literature. Librarians should be deeply committed to helping these students better themselves and secure the full benefit of their college education.

**References**

1. For the purposes of this paper, the term Mexican American will be used to encompass other terms such as Spanish origin, Spanish surnamed, Latinos, Hispanos, Spanish Americans, and Chicanos. The term Spanish speaking will not be used because many of these people do not speak Spanish. Chicano will be substituted for Mexican American to prevent undue repetition and is not meant to have ideological connotations.


5. The core curriculum of many ethnic studies programs, particularly for the better Chicano Studies programs, has as its basis a genuine identification of the unique culture and values of specific minority groups. An awareness of the cultural and language differences endemic to Mexican Americans can only help to encourage an understanding of their attitudes and behavior, a condition that will benefit both the dominant society and this minority group.


7. As of this date, ten western colleges and universities have employed Mexican Americans as library staff with responsibilities for dealing with Chicano faculty and students. Unfortunately, clerks are easier to find than Chicano librarians.


12. In the five southwestern states, only five Chicano academic librarians were identified by this writer. Two were at universities, one at a four year college, and two at community colleges. Only three of these librarians were actually employed to work with the Chicano students and faculty.

13. Twelve colleges and universities presently have developing Chicano library collections that are neither located in the main library, nor controlled by the library's administration. One major western university even has budgeted a Chicano Bibliographer position in excess of $20,000 per year whose responsibility is to a Mexican American Center and is developing its book collection, which is not controlled by the main library.


Audio Materials in Academic Research Libraries

Questionnaires and in-person visits to large academic libraries in 1971 form the basis of this report which reveals the low priority given to nonprint materials by the majority of these libraries. Visuals are practically nonexistent; audio materials remain eclipsed by print. Nonprint collections tend to be initiated from stimulation outside the library, and, once established, suffer from space and maintenance problems while the research potential is largely ignored.

Audiovisual materials are commonplace in school and college libraries, and the literature on the theory and application of selection, preparation, and use of these materials is extensive. However, the research library director who is considering the introduction of nonprint media into his library encounters a dearth of useful background information. In 1967 the writer was asked to prepare a set of specifications for a dial-access information at the University of Utah. The job was made more difficult because a literature search produced little of substance. Even in 1971 it was still not possible to determine what institutions have facilities and how they are used.

The writer, therefore, undertook a survey of audiovisual materials in research libraries with a Council on Library Resources Fellowship Grant.

A questionnaire was developed, tested, and sent to all academic libraries in the Association of Research Libraries to determine which institutions collect and service audiovisual materials. Sixty-eight of the seventy-five libraries queried responded, a satisfying 90.7 percent.

Seventeen institutions, 25 percent, reported that they had no audiovisual materials. One reported no materials, while indicating that plans were being made to include such materials in a new building.

The fifty remaining questionnaires were analyzed to determine which institutions should be visited. Seventeen, or 34 percent, were selected for an in-person visit for one of the following reasons: (a) a large audiovisual materials collection, (b) a significant investment in audiovisual equipment, or (c) a statement of strong commitment to audiovisual service.

The availability of audio materials and services in academic research libraries is still extremely limited. Visual materials and services are even more limited. Only twelve of the seventy-five institutions collect films, film strips, slides, or other visual materials. If slide collections are eliminated, less than half a dozen institutions own more than a hundred items. This apparent lack of commitment is in sharp contrast to the alleged acquisitions policies of thirty-eight of these libraries, which report...
their policy is to acquire materials without regard to physical format so long as they relate to the teaching and research programs of the university.

One explanation for the emphasis on audio rather than visual materials in the library is the existence of a campus audiovisual center outside the library on at least thirty-nine of the campuses. Most of the centers have extensive film collections and limited collections of other visual materials. Because the holdings of visual materials proved so sparse, the study of contemplated visual materials and services was abandoned.

Interviews with librarians revealed that most of the programs were begun as the result of an academic department taking the initiative. In twenty-eight of the fifty cases the initiative was provided by the music department. Eighteen of the principal listening facilities are located in music branch libraries. On twenty campuses where the primary installation is in the main library, there is a secondary listening facility in the music library. On ten campuses the primary installation is in the undergraduate library. These facilities were usually established at the time the undergraduate library was built, and they constituted the first commitment of the library to listening facilities. Two campuses have campus-wide systems, not operated by the library, but by a special agency. However, most of the listening positions are in the library.

The number of patrons served by the listening facilities range from as few as 130 per month to as many as 120,000 per month as is summarized in Table 1.

Only nine of the fifty facilities can be considered major. Less than 5,000 uses per month would be less than one use per student per month on any of the campuses. On most campuses, it would mean less than one use per student per quarter.

There appears to be little relationship between the amount of use and the size of the collection. The two institutions with the highest use rank below the median in collection size, while five of the ten institutions with the least use rank in the top quartile of collection size.

Only two institutions have more than 50,000 recordings. Sixty percent of them have between one thousand and ten thousand recordings. Three owned fewer than 500 recordings.

Nine institutions use phonodiscs exclusively in their music-listening facilities. Thirty-two use both audiotapes and phonodiscs, but mostly phonodiscs, whereas nine institutions use audiotapes only. Those using audiotapes only reported the largest number of users. These institutions have found that phonodiscs will not hold up under heavy use and have converted to audiotapes. The two largest facilities began with audiotapes, however.

Twenty-five of the fifty listening facilities are primarily music-listening systems, while eleven were set up to serve the needs of departments concerned with English literature. In two cases the systems were set up specifically for poetry listening. Four of the systems were designed for recreational listening specifically. Overall, in twenty-four systems recreational listening constitutes a substantial percentage of the total use.

Three systems are language-listening
systems, not of the drill variety, but systems which feature plays, poetry, and speeches in foreign languages to supplement classroom and laboratory training. Three other systems were set up specifically to support zoology, mechanical engineering, and speech, respectively. In four cases, the principal purpose of the system was not identified.

The vast majority of the systems are used by three or fewer academic departments because only three of the institutions are actively promoting listening facilities among faculty. Users of the library are usually not directed to the listening facility through the card catalog. Thirty-eight of the institutions do not include audio materials in the main card catalog; nine do, and in three, partial listings are recorded: in one case, phonodiscs only; in another, spoken materials only; and in another, main entry only for all materials.

The differences in attitudes toward audio and print materials becomes apparent as one talks with directors, acquisition librarians, and cataloging heads. Most agree that audio materials are important, but give them a lower priority than printed items. Only in those institutions where the processing of audio materials is done in the listening facility is there no significant backlog. In the cataloging departments of main libraries, audio materials are given a lower priority in all but three institutions. In only one library do the materials receive a higher priority.

The majority of the systems are located in basements, on top floors, or in other low-priority locations. All listening system heads reported great difficulty in competing with other library departments for space.

The most serious condition observed, however, is the poor maintenance of equipment. One third to one half of the equipment was down at the time of the visit. In most of the facilities visited, there is a lack of technical competence on the part of the staff, and preventative maintenance agreements with qualified firms are the exception rather than the rule. The materials are also in poor condition, especially the phonodiscs. Music librarians who said they chose phonodiscs over audiotapes because they want to provide better service, seem to have more scratched phonodiscs, poor cartridges, and a larger number of machines out of order than those libraries which use audiotapes. Again, the two largest systems, operated by nonlibrarians and staffed with technically trained personnel, have the best quality materials and the lowest equipment downtime.

The predominant complaint of all the listening-room attendants and supervisors consulted is poor maintenance. Interviews with students on the campuses reveal substantial displeasure with the quality of equipment maintenance and the condition of phonodiscs and audiotapes. This suggests that an institution should not seek to provide this service unless it is prepared to hire a technically qualified person to maintain the system or contract this to an electronics firm.

In general, facilities which use dial access (8) have the best maintenance and the highest user satisfaction. Those with central control rooms rank next, and those which provide turntables and tape decks for hands-on control by students have the lowest level of satisfaction. Those who have chosen the individual units said they chose them because they felt this would be more popular with patrons. It appears that patrons prefer to sacrifice hands-on control in order to get greater reliability and higher program quality.

Ten of the institutions allow materials to be circulated, while twenty-five do not, under any circumstances, permit circulation. Eight permit faculty to charge out materials, three more allow occasional loans to different classes of patrons. Four institutions not visited did
not answer the question. Generally those circulating materials have collections of phonodiscs. All but one of the libraries circulating materials reported that their collections are in poor condition.

Thirty-seven of the institutions allow no reproduction of their materials, two allow occasional reproduction, five did not answer, and six permit unrestricted reproduction. Only one of these produces all of its own materials. The five which allow the reproduction of copyrighted materials expressed no strong concern about copyright infringement. It is interesting, too, that one campus with two listening facilities restricts reproduction in one for fear of copyright infringement and openly allows it in another because copyright infringement is not considered a problem.

A review of the existing listening facilities reveals such a broad range of attitudes and practices that it is difficult to generalize. There is no question that audio materials are far less important than print materials. Libraries have responded to demands from patrons in most instances rather than seeking to innovate by offering a wider range of media for the support of teaching and research.

Research use of audio materials is conspicuously absent on all campuses. Even those most strongly committed to audio materials in research libraries think of them only as teaching and recreational materials. Three of the campuses have separate archives for recorded sound. It was the heads of the archives who demonstrated concern for research. Their collections tend to be extremely large, well preserved, and infrequently used, with very strict quality control.

There are thousands of high quality phonodiscs and audiotapes of music, drama, poetry, speeches, and interviews available at reasonable prices. The acquisition, processing, and servicing of audio materials by university libraries would strengthen research on university campuses. Understanding and appreciation are enhanced when one hears the inflection in the spoken word or the interpretation of music by an outstanding performer or conductor.

The written text of a Roosevelt "Fireside Chat" cannot possibly convey the significance of this use of the radio medium for seeking political consensus. A comparison of performance of classical music is basic to musical research. Audio materials should be an integral part of each library's collection, but they won't unless we begin to look beyond physical format to content and usefulness.
Orientation and Instruction of Graduate Students in the Use of the University Library: A Survey

A recent questionnaire on instruction of graduate students in the use of the university library, submitted to twenty-three large university libraries (and returned by twenty), brings up to date a similar survey reported in CRL in 1958. The problem appears perennial and as yet unsolved, though libraries are giving orientation lectures and tours, providing graduate and faculty manuals, utilizing bibliographers and subject specialists to consult with graduate students or even to conduct formal bibliographic courses, and developing imaginative programs employing new equipment and techniques to interpret the library to this segment of its public. Hope for the future lies in increased communication between teacher and librarian—and programs good enough to be appreciated for their practical utility by graduate students.

The growth in size and complexity of research libraries and of new graduate programs seems to require some sort of special instruction for graduate students who must use research collections intensively. In many universities, rising backlogs of uncataloged materials and tight budgets have forced librarians to adopt a policy of partial cataloging and classification for certain categories of research materials. There are “special” collections hidden from the public in most large library systems, as well as local variations in filing or shelving that often confuse students, librarians, and faculty alike. Explaining these arcane mysteries to beginning graduate students poses a major problem to the administrators and reference personnel of these libraries.

Traditionally, library orientation has focused on the assumed needs of freshmen, and the literature of librarianship still reflects this emphasis. Most schools once offered, and many continue to offer, a brief tour of the library building supplemented by an introductory lecture or two during orientation week or the first week of classes. A few large universities and some small colleges offer bibliography courses or seminars as electives for junior and senior students pursuing honors work. More recently, teaching machines, audiovisual aids, and programmed texts have been developed to teach basic library skills at a time and in a place more convenient to students.

Lloyd W. Griffin is associate professor and director for reference services, Memorial Library, University of Wisconsin-Madison. Jack A. Clarke is a professor in the Library School, University of Wisconsin-Madison.
Other librarians have experimented with closed-circuit television programs and have prepared “do-it-yourself” tour guides that are available at the reference desks throughout the academic year. These guides usually build on the printed handouts prepared for undergraduates. Still other librarians are currently involved in developing computer-assisted courses which will provide an overview of the entire library system for undergraduates. No one appears satisfied, however, that we have solved this problem of orientation at the undergraduate level, although a good start has been made on many smaller and medium-sized campuses. As a matter of fact, it appears that the larger and more complex a library system becomes, the less the campus as a whole is prepared, or can afford, to do, in order to interpret that system to its users, graduate or undergraduate.

Ten years ago we reported in these pages a survey of large university libraries in which we attempted to ascertain how reference librarians were approaching this perennial problem. We learned then that most librarians in research libraries were genuinely concerned about the lack of orientation for entering graduate students, but a clear majority of our respondents disclaimed formal responsibility for instruction of students at this level. They preferred to rely on occasional lectures, guided tours, and personal appointments with subject specialists to provide the level of bibliographic sophistication needed for graduate study. The best hope for orientation and instruction of graduate students by the library staff, they reported, seemed to lie in closer cooperation with the teaching faculty. Only an interested faculty could convince graduate students of the value of personal appointments with the library's subject specialists and reference librarians.

To examine recent developments in this area, the authors compiled a questionnaire consisting of two general questions divided into seven parts which could be mailed with a covering letter or used as the basis for an oral interview. We wanted to know how many of these large libraries offered separate provisions for orienting graduate and undergraduate students in library use and whether their present practices differed from those of the past. We also asked if their libraries had any local peculiarities that might require a special orientation for graduate students. The response to our survey was gratifying; twenty librarians out of twenty-three (87 percent) in large university libraries returned our questionnaire, often accompanying it with detailed comments and pertinent printed materials. A few respondents also advised us to contact other libraries which they believed to have excellent orientation programs. To supplement this data, we also interviewed eleven additional people in five of these libraries who have a responsibility for teaching library usage.

We wanted to ascertain first what librarians are doing currently to orient graduate students in the use of the research library and how this differs from past practices. Four libraries replied flatly that they accepted no formal responsibility for teaching library use to graduate students because this was handled adequately by the teaching faculty. “We encourage individual faculty people to take care of this, within the context of their own seminars or courses,” one librarian replied. A fifth library offers occasional lectures and tours of its departments “on the request of the instructional faculty.” Still another library replied that they have no formal program for library instruction of graduates or undergraduates but that they expect to institute one in the near future. Ironically, this library had made an identical response to this question ten years earlier. Three other libraries stated that the
undergraduate tours and orientation session held during the first week of each semester seemed to serve the needs of graduate students as well. Another librarian reported that his building was so well planned that students had no difficulty in locating materials.

Seven out of nineteen libraries answering this first question reported expanding programs tailored to the needs of beginning graduate students and transfer students from other institutions. "It's a much more complicated bibliographical world" one librarian explained. "These days, there aren't many faculty members who can give sound courses in bibliography. They've lost touch, it's gotten so big and confusing." In his view librarians must begin to fill this need. Cornell advertises, at the beginning of each term, the availability of orientation sessions. "We schedule groups that come in and give them an orientation to almost any depth they choose. We start out just leading a group through the building, then we become increasingly sophisticated, and we finally end up with that handful who get almost individual tutoring." At Yale a general library tour by the reference staff is offered to all incoming graduate students early in the academic year. It differs from those tours traditionally provided for freshmen "in degree only." This physical orientation, which concentrates upon services and locations of materials within the system, is supplemented by bibliographic tours, lasting one to two hours, on specific academic subjects. The students are then shown relevant bibliographic and reference tools and are supplied with printed lists of major information sources in their fields of interest. When the University of Chicago moved into its new Joseph Regenstein Library in the late summer of 1970, it was decided to conduct subject orientation programs for graduate students in anthropology, geography, political science, business, sociology, philosophy, education, and library science. "Each session was conducted in the library near the specialized reference tools by the bibliographers and reference personnel responsible for that particular discipline. . . . Our purpose in this program was two-fold: (1) to make the student aware of the major reference works in his field and their location in the new building, and (2) to introduce the student to the library staff members specialized in his subject area." These sessions proved so helpful to students and faculty alike that they will be scheduled again next year and expanded into other disciplines.

Several libraries have prepared printed guides for graduate students which are intended to supplement the formal sessions and the handouts given to underclassmen. Typically, these guides feature detailed information about the local library and its collections, including its membership in such cooperative ventures as the Hampshire Inter-Library Center or the Center for Research Libraries. The student is always encouraged in these guides to look beyond the resources on his own campus for important but little-known materials in other collections that might be obtained through interlibrary loan. Instructions are also provided for securing copies of master's theses and doctoral dissertations necessary for their research. Plans are being developed at the University of Washington "for a library guide (including specialized information for graduate students) to be mailed to all graduate students just before the fall quarter." The State University of Iowa has compiled a particularly attractive and well-organized handbook for graduate students and members of the faculty. It contains a section on the special services that its library staff provides as well as information on the liberal lending regulations for this level group. A similar publication, prepared by the reference staff at the University of Massa-
chusetts, identifies special materials in their library and informs students *How to Use Libraries Outside the University for Serials and Rare Sets*. This handbook is distributed at a series of three informational forums for graduate students and undergraduate majors in the social sciences and the humanities which are offered at two different times in order to include as many students as possible.

Ohio State sent us a nicely printed *Library Handbook for Faculty and Graduate Students* which describes the general library and its collections, the departmental libraries, and, most importantly, the services available through the consultant for library research and lecturer in bibliography, who provides class lectures on research materials for new graduate students. She also holds personal conferences with graduate students at all levels, advises them as to the special resources in their fields, and suggests bibliographic works "which list materials not included in the card catalog." A record card is kept of each student conference, and it is filed by instructional department with the student's research interests, the scope or limitations of his study, and his working languages all duly noted down. Coming at the beginning of a student's dissertation work, this bibliographical orientation, can save him as much as two months time, the library staff asserts.

Still other libraries (notably Iowa and Wisconsin) have issued mimeographed lists of reference books and bibliographic aids in their libraries that the librarians hope will prove useful to graduate students. Wisconsin has also prepared maps showing the location of the subject bibliographers and describing their special collections. Two other libraries (Columbia and Illinois) will prepare additional subject bibliographies in a variety of fields on the request of the graduate faculty. It should be noted, however, that many other reference departments issue book lists on specific subjects that fit the needs of both undergraduate and graduate students. Northwestern University, for example, has recently inaugurated a quarterly series of brief informational notes on reference materials and selective checklists of new titles, divided on subject lines, which certainly falls within this category. The University of California at Berkeley has prepared a series of *Library Orientation Leaflets* that cover such diverse topics as lending rules, ethnic materials, and microcopy collections. Varying widely in format, these leaflets contain a great deal of valuable information on this complex system.

A major development in research libraries during the last decade has been the addition to their staff of subject and area studies bibliographers. These specialist librarians usually possess extensive substantive knowledge and a command of several foreign languages as well. Although their primary responsibility lies in collection building, they also participate in bibliographic and orientation programs for faculty, graduate students, and often for undergraduates as well. At UCLA the bibliographers play a considerable role in graduate education, "particularly at the point where a graduate student is beginning to think about a dissertation." At Wisconsin most of the ten bibliographers address seminar groups, and/or advise graduate students on bibliographic problems connected with their research. Eleven other libraries also reported that their bibliographers addressed classes or seminars regularly on the invitation of the instructional faculty. In some schools the bibliographers are members of the subject department and attend departmental meetings. Unfortunately, the bibliographers in several institutions reported that their offices were often "located in out of the way places" and
students did not readily find them. Their services were not as much used by graduate students as might have been expected.

At Chicago, Wisconsin, Harvard, and Columbia, a few specialists give whole courses in the bibliography and research methods of the various area studies, music, the fine arts, agriculture, etc. The librarian for economics and government at Indiana offers an upper level course entitled “Bibliography of Political Science” which “is designed to give students an introduction to library research tools in political science and related social sciences.” Students are required to evaluate their experience with these tools, reporting “on the success or failure of their efforts.” Two other head librarians reported that their bibliographers would soon offer substantive or bibliographical courses for area specialists. In eleven responding libraries, the curators of rare books and other special collections also work very closely with graduate students and faculty members. Through lectures, exhibits, and tours they make these materials known to interested students and faculty.

All but two responding librarians admitted that their libraries had significant local peculiarities that might confuse graduate students and present problems of access. These included special or departmental collections which are not listed in the card catalog, a dual classification system, segregation of over- and undersized books, and storage areas for little-used materials. Yet a clear majority of the librarians answering this question (fifteen out of twenty) remarked that their provisions for orienting graduate students seemed sufficient and that they did not consider orientation to be a problem in their library. One department head stated that his “building was organized in a way that makes it easy to use, and the quality of the reference staff was excellent.” Three librarians admitted that their orientation programs were simply not reaching enough graduate students, although they were all publicized on departmental bulletin boards and in student newspapers. They attributed this student indifference to a lack of concern and cooperation from the teaching faculty. It is significant, however, that whenever we conducted several interviews in the same library (five times) we found that staff members had a dimmer view of the quality of bibliographic services provided than the director or one of his associates had expressed. One reference librarian admitted candidly that very little was done or could be done for graduate students because of the limited staff available and their heavy workload. Still another librarian noted that orientation for graduate students only works well for small groups of seven or eight students (ten is a maximum). In her view, an all-inclusive program for graduate students was too time-consuming and too expensive for most libraries.

It is a curious paradox that instruction in library use, which so many librarians regard as one of the highest forms of library service, remains so ill-defined and poorly organized. The teaching function is claimed to be important in determining our status, but we appear to take this responsibility lightly or even to neglect it. True, a good share of the blame must also rest with those faculty members who regard anything above a minimal level of library service as “spoonfeeding” their students. Our survey presents some evidence that communication between teachers and librarians about library use is steadily improving, but librarians still spend more time explaining the “what and how” of their operations to students and faculty than “the reason why.” The best hope for the future seems to lie in the imaginative programs utilizing new equipment and techniques, which are being developed at a
few colleges and universities to bridge this gap in library service. As provision is made for these programs and they become operational, as the library is tied in more closely with the research and instructional programs of the faculty, and as graduate students become convinced of the practical utility of instruction in the use of the library, perhaps we can do more adequately what is necessary to interpret our collections and services to our patrons at this and all other levels.

References

1. The most complete bibliography on this subject was compiled by Allan Mirwis of Indiana University. Academic Library Instruction: A Bibliography 1960-1970. (Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Library, 1971) $1.
3. We would like to acknowledge our thanks to Charles Helzer, a doctoral student at the University of Wisconsin, for his assistance in developing the questionnaire.
4. Libraries participating in the survey were: California at Berkeley, California at Los Angeles, Chicago, Columbia, Cornell, Harvard, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Northwestern, Ohio State, University of Washington, Wisconsin at Madison, Wisconsin at Milwaukee, and Yale.
Considerable duplication of effort exists in library use instructional development. Much duplication could be eliminated and universality increased, if instruction were formulated under basic instructional psychology principles. The development of instructional programs at Brigham Young University Clark Library indicates how instructional psychology techniques can provide valid and effective instruction with guaranteed high levels of learning. Each program defines the behavioral objectives and matches these objectives with test questions. Then instruction consistent with the test and the behavioral objectives is written. Finally each program is statistically validated. Average learning from such programs has increased from the thirtieth to the eightieth percentiles.

Every day patrons walk out of our libraries convinced that there is little or nothing in our collections on their topics of study. Of course, frequently there is a great amount of information; the patron simply doesn’t know how to find it and is often too timid to ask for help. During the summer of 1970, the Brigham Young University library launched a new program in an attempt to solve this problem—to teach its entire student body basic library skills.

Dissatisfied with the usual approaches to library instruction, the library decided to call on the expertise within its own university community in formulating several effectively designed instructional packages which could be statistically validated.

A team of librarians, English instructors, educational psychologists, and non-print media specialists combined efforts to design five library instructional programs that would meet the needs of all lower division students of the university. Inasmuch as sophomore English programs were already teaching basic bibliographical techniques and were reaching a majority of the students, the English composition department was asked to be a key contributor to the content of a basic library instruction package.

Several philosophical criteria were agreed upon:

First, all instruction would be designed to meet the immediate needs of the student at the grade level for which it was to be administered.

Second, no attempt would be made to teach everything a student would ever need to know throughout his entire college career in any one concentrated effort. This meant that basic information would be dealt with at the lower division level and specialized instruction in specific disciplines would be reserved.
for upper division and graduate levels of study.

Third, only a brief orientation would be given to freshman students. For motivational reasons, actual instruction in the use of library facilities would be given at the sophomore levels of the curriculum. This would better meet BYU research needs beginning at this stage of the students' program.

Fourth, instructional efforts would be planned to meet the needs of upper division and graduate students but efforts would begin at the lower levels in order to build a foundation for such instruction.

Fifth, all instruction would be provided as much as possible within the library building itself.

Sixth, all instruction would be supplemented with actual assignments. Students would be tested within the library and tests would be computer graded and routed to their instructors for evaluation purposes.

Finally, in order to provide high motivation in learning, a high level of success would be built in. Students must feel the time they spend is worthwhile.

The focus of the effort was on five instructional programs: (1) a taped tour of the library, (2) use of the card catalog, (3) use of basic periodical indexes, (4) use of basic indexes to bibliographies, book reviews, essays, and newspapers, and (5) general use of current U.S. government documents.

Four of the five programs are now in operation, with the remaining one expected to be completed by January 1973. Because of the simplicity of the taped tour concept, the program will be dealt with briefly in this paper. The card catalog program is much more involved with instructional techniques and has become a model for the next three programs now in various stages of development. For this reason, the second program will be discussed in more detail.

In order to assist students in locating physical facilities and basic services, a forty minute walking cassette tape tour was designed to be given to all BYU freshmen. The tour would be a requirement of the freshman English curriculum.

Criteria were defined to establish what the student should be able to do as a result of taking the tour. Alternative methods of instruction were examined, such as physical tours given by librarians, slide-tape and videotape presentations, and cassette tapes with hand carried playback units. The cassette taped tour was adopted for four reasons:

First, a taped tour can be an effective, yet inexpensive, way to introduce 4,000 or more students a year to a large library complex. Students simply check out a cassette tape player and the information on the tape will do the rest. Slide-tape and videotape presentations are best for showing fixed locations but present a difficulty in linking one location to another.

Second, cassette players can be obtained for less than $20. Students may come at their own convenience throughout the day and large numbers of students can be handled throughout a semester without much notice of their presence.

Third, cassette tapes can be easily and quickly updated by either splicing or making a new master. Videotapes are expensive to produce, particularly if the final project is to have a professional polish, and are often out-of-date before production is completed.

Fourth, minimal personnel are needed for distributing and repairing cassette player units.

The dean of electronic media was called in to assist in the development of the cassette tour, at which point the content of the tour was agreed upon. The length was held to twenty minutes of recorded time (forty minutes of walk-
ing time) to hold the interest of the student. An actual tour was recorded from which a script was written. The script was scrutinized by seven subject librarians, several English instructors, a sample of freshman students, foreign students, and strangers to the university.

A computer-graded test was designed to be administered as a pre- and/or posttest, as well as to provide a reinforcement of learning, supply feedback to instructors of students taking the tour, and to supply statistical data for continual revision and updating.

The exam was given to 100 students from five freshman classes as both a pretest and posttest. Pretest scores showed that freshman students could locate just under 30 percent of the services and facilities determined to be of importance. After the tour, the figure increased to 80 percent. Except for periodic evaluation, students normally take only the posttest.

The tour has been in full use since September 1970 and has been received enthusiastically by both faculty and students. Departments other than English have also required the tour, including our Graduate Department of Library Science, senior classes in French and zoology, guided studies courses, and business education. Use by other departments will diminish each year since upcoming juniors and seniors will have already taken the tour during their freshman year.

As mentioned earlier, the card catalog program deals with a higher degree of learning and a greater sophistication in development. The card catalog program drew from the expertise of the university's Department of Instructional Research and Development, a graduate educational psychology curriculum concerned with the development of instructional programs. 6

Six terminal objectives were devised utilizing six areas of card catalog use: (1) filing rules, (2) call numbers, (3) cross references, (4) author, title, and subject cards, (5) tracings, and (6) use of the Library of Congress subject headings catalog.

A terminal objective tells what kind of behavior the student should be expected to display as a result of instruction. A terminal objective on the use of tracings would be, for example, if a student were given a subject for examination in the card catalog, he would be expected to determine additional related subject headings to books of specific interest and then use those subject headings in an expanded search of his topic.

Enabling objectives are necessary to define the means of development and realization of terminal objectives. The terminal objective on tracings utilized three enabling objectives. The student should be able to (1) provide a definition of the term "tracings" as used on card catalog cards, (2) explain where the tracings are on the card, and (3) understand that tracings can be used to (a) determine the type of information found in the book, (b) know what subjects and added entries have been assigned to the book, and (c) tell what additional subject headings could be consulted for information related to a particular book.

Each of the six terminal objectives was written in similar detail with their enabling objectives. Whenever an enabling or terminal objective was written, a test question was formulated that could measure the objective. All such questions were compiled into an exam which was administered to four skilled and four unskilled subjects. The test was called a "task analysis" and its purpose was to verify the hierarchial arrangement or level of difficulty and the desirable order for presentation of the objectives. It would also determine the ability of the expert and the nonexpert to perform the behavioral objectives.

Reference and cataloging librarians served as the skilled group and sopho-
more students served as the unskilled group. The librarians scored 98 percent correct on the test in forty-eight minutes while the students answered only 32 percent correct in two and one half hours. Students were required to terminate their test after two and one half hours. The task analysis confirmed the selection of objectives and their arrangement in a logical hierarchy.

The next step was to finalize the pre- and posttest items as a result of the task analysis. The instructional package was then formulated to be consistent with the tests and behavioral objectives supported by the test.

A modified programmed instructional approach was adopted by which each enabling and terminal objective would be taught. Instruction was placed on tapes which were accompanied by a workbook. The concept for each enabling objective was explained and illustrated, followed by a question calling for a student response. A delay in the tape permitted sufficient time to lapse for making a response. After the delay, the correct answer was given with an explanatory note. In most cases, repetition tied the concepts together until the terminal objective was understood.

To illustrate the procedure, an example on tracings is given in Figure 1 from a later printed version of the program. Previous to the information illustrated (Figure 1), the student was taught where the tracings were located on the card. The example demonstrates how he is instructed as to the usefulness of tracings in research.

An attempt was made throughout the program to use examples the student would encounter in his own use of the card catalog. This was so that the learning situation would be real, self-motivating, and a positive experience.

Six tapes were produced, one for each section, corresponding to the six terminal objectives to be learned. The pretest was organized into the same six sections.

This way a student could take the pretest, score his own test, and determine which of the sections he needed to study and in what detail. Should the student need detailed tapes for all six objectives, he would need to allot one hour and thirty minutes for his self-instruction. The student could ask for any or all six, thus permitting him to take his instruction in more than one sitting.

Should a student know most of the information in a section, a second alternative was established. A nonprogrammed summary of rules was listed in the back of the workbook by which he could quickly pick up the few details missed on the pretest.

The pretest was designed to take the student to the library card catalog and require him to look up the information and respond to a correct multiple choice alternative.

The final step in the instructional development was to validate the program so that there would be assurance that the instruction was effective in teaching the intended information. Inasmuch as students signed up for English composition courses by section number, and most sections were listed as being taught by “staff,” it was felt that a random sample was easily available by taking 161 sophomore English students from three sections. Students were offered the incentive of extra credit for participating in the experiment.

The students were randomly divided into three groups: (1) Group I (seventy-three students), receiving the taped programmed instruction; (2) Group II (fifty-one students), receiving the nonprogrammed written summation of rules; and (3) Group III (fifty students), serving as a control group and receiving no instruction.

All groups were given the same pretest in their respective classrooms. The pretest was designed to be a fixed location test that could be taken anywhere. Students in Groups I and II decided
Let us now see how the tracings could be of help to you in a research project. Suppose you wanted to do a paper on the subject “Local Church Councils.” You would first look up that heading in the card catalog and you might find only one card — indicating only one book on this subject. The card you would find is illustrated in figure 5. The title of the book listed on the card is Church Cooperation in the United States. If you didn’t know how to use the tracings, you would be limited to this one book to use in your research.

**Question 5**
With your knowledge of tracings, the listing on the card in figure 5 refers you to how many other subject headings?

**Answer 5**
Two additional subject headings. Number 1 of the arabic numerals is Local church councils, and that is the heading for this card.

If you were to look up the other two subject headings in the card catalog, you might find that “Interdenominational cooperation” has six books under its heading and that “Christian union history” has an additional eleven books under its heading. This would make a total of seventeen books from which you could choose to do research.
from their own pretest results which sections of instruction they should take, knowing they would be tested again on the amount of learning they had achieved. Group I took the taped programmed instruction and Group II received the nonprogrammed summation of rules. Groups I and II were again given the pretest (PAI). All groups then took the posttest. Again, the pretest is a fixed location test. However, the posttest was designed to give the student experience with the card catalog itself. Time was limited to one hour on the posttest on the presumption that if a student were given all the time he desired he could find most anything. The one-hour maximum was ten minutes longer than the skilled librarians took on the task analysis test, a test of similar composition and length. The unskilled students in the task analysis had been cut off after two and one half hours. Therefore, a student could complete the entire program in one hour and thirty minutes for instruction and one hour for the posttest.

**STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

A summary of the results are given below in Table 1.

An analysis of covariance using PBI as a covariate and the Scheffe and Least Significance Differences test showed significant differences between experimental and control groups (18.6 and 12.7) and between the two experimental groups (21.5 and 18.6) both at less than the .01 level of significance. Groups I and II showed the same level of significance for the mean gain scores between PBI and the posttest, 11.7 and 9.1 respectively. This was an increase from 32 percent to 84 percent for Group I and from 32 percent to 72 percent for Group II. The gain of the control group from the PBI to the posttest (9.0 to 12.7) was nonsignificant.

**IMPLICATIONS**

Significant differences between the control and experimental groups indicate the possibility of designing effective instructional packages for learning to use the card catalog and possibly other kinds of library systems. Differences between the programmed and nonprogrammed forms of instruction employed in this study indicate a slight but important improvement in favor of programmed instruction. Finally, the total scores of the second pretest given after instruction (a fixed location test) and the posttest (a test requiring the student to perform by looking up the answers in a card catalog) suggest the effectiveness of publishing the entire program in a print rather than tape format utilizing a fixed location test. This would permit other institutions to draw effectively upon our experience without rewriting the program to fit their individual library card catalog.

In order to take advantage of the latter finding, the taped programmed instruction was redesigned into a standard but printed programmed text format and published. It utilizes a fixed location and self-scored pre- and posttest. Students determine from their pretest scores which of the six sections or chapters they need to study in detail. At the end of each chapter there is a one-page summary of rules corresponding to the alternative offered Group II in the study. Students may then choose either,
depending upon how well they perform on the pretest. The summary also provides an easy review of the information covered in each chapter for learning reinforcement and for final preparation before taking the final test. The entire program ends with a fixed location posttest similar to the pretest, which can be graded by the student.

Brigham Young University still makes use of the posttest requiring the students to go to the card catalog. It is felt that there is not only an advantage with slight improvement in performance, but that there is a motivational reward in actually using the card catalog. It also permits us to computer grade the tests for continual evaluation and for routing of learning results to the student's instructor. The instructor is thus freed from having to devise a test for student evaluation purposes.7

Such satisfactory results have been obtained on the card catalog program that future instructional programs (periodical indexes, indexes to bibliography, and book review essays and newspapers, and current U.S. Government documents) will follow the same or similar procedure and printed format.

**Summary**

The study's most valuable finding is a determination of the feasibility of developing basic library use instruction that can be shown statistically to provide significant learning and at the same time meet the needs of a large number of libraries. The card catalog program in question can best be adopted by those institutions using the Dewey classification and either LC or Sears subject headings. However, the instruction could also be easily adapted to libraries which use LC or a mix of the LC and Dewey classification systems.

The amount of literature on library use instruction is so staggering that a constant concern to the author is how effective such programs may be and how they could be used elsewhere, thus avoiding the vast duplication of each other's work. If such programs can be developed scientifically, the evidence of widespread usability would be more easily accepted and adopted.

**References**

1. The author is indebted to Millicent Palmer, Library Instruction Librarian, Southern Illinois University library at Edwardsville, Illinois, for her theoretical influence on the BYU program.
2. The first two programs are available for dissemination from J. Reuben Clark Jr. Library, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84601. The remaining three programs are awaiting publication.
3. The author is indebted to Charles Bradshaw, a graduate assistant at BYU, for his assistance in devising and testing the behavioral objectives, designing the instructional package, and statistically validating the program. The author is also indebted to Dr. R. Irwin Goodman, director of the Brigham Young University Instructional Development Program who, in conjunction with Dr. M. David Merrill, chairman of the BYU Department of Research and Development, devised the philosophical model for which this program was developed.
5. Unpublished data provided by Charles I. Bradshaw.
6. Ibid.
7. Institutions desiring a copy of our departmental posttest for developing a similar one to use with their card catalog can obtain one from the General Reference Office, J. Reuben Clark Jr. Library, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84601, for $.50.
Approval Plan Purchasing in Perspective

Approval plan purchasing is related to library goals of comprehensiveness, pointing out the interrelated pressures of the university system which have contributed to making this method of purchasing possible and the defensive techniques used to justify it. Suggestions are made concerning future possibilities of continuing to build large collections in individual libraries in the context of present expectations which neglect the all important factor of the use of these collections.

Approval plan purchasing of domestic current publications is dynamic evidence of the conditions which have developed in academic libraries during a period of affluence, conditions which have made this method of purchasing possible. In evaluating approval plan purchasing the questions to consider are whether it is economical compared to other methods, and whether it supplies the library with needed materials. Although the purposes behind purchasing books for libraries should be clearly defined on the basis of needs or goals, the goals are often described as “stated educational objectives” and “established program goals,” or “maintaining current research strength,” or “most academic librarians today agree.” It has become an assumption without attempts at explanation (indeed, who can explain it) among research librarians that the goals are to acquire everything possible of a “scholarly nature.” Even “scholarly” is often defined only nebulous due to the assumption that everyone knows what scholarly is. Another rationalization is reflected in the attitude that anything in print can be discerned or distorted to have some measure of research value to someone at sometime for some unknown reason which the future alone will disclose. In this way actions and explanations are based on remote possibilities removing the librarian further from the reality of decision-making.

As goals become more difficult to define, needs impossible to assess, and criteria for scholarship deteriorate into being exemplified by what is published or printed, advances in understanding approval plan purchasing are not evident although this simple method of purchasing came about due to stress situations which developed in academic libraries’ acquisitions departments. The most specific cause of this stress was, of course, the rapid increase in book funds which had placed heavy burdens on many acquisition departments. Although staffs had increased somewhat as the book funds had grown, the staff increases were often viewed to be insufficient compared to the book fund in-

Margaret Dobbyn is social science librarian at Kansas State University library, Manhattan.
creases. Others attribute the growth of approval plans to the pressures caused by poor business techniques and technical services procedures. Whatever the causes for the stress, approval plan purchasing of current domestic publications gave promise of relieving this pressure on acquisition departments.

Along with the immediate stress situation, other factors contributing to the increase of funds can be traced to increases in expectations, all stemming from growth of population and affluence. Colleges expanded to include graduate programs and universities expanded to include more and more subject areas of research and graduate programs. Standards of criteria based on numbers of volumes per student and faculty were developed. University administrations frequently assigned prestige and salary according to research and number of publications, thus creating a climate in which graduates and faculty pressure the library to have everything they might want immediately available in order to publish before they perish. Ironically, the tremendous influx of material in print is partly due to the pressures to publish (along with an available market!) spurred on by an exaggerated reverence toward research, and competition among scholars to get the papers and books into print.

The attitudes of the accrediting agencies have been sympathetic to the goal of supplying scholars with all needed materials. They produced systems of counting numbers of volumes and numbers of subscriptions (and gaps in periodical runs!) for each individual library. In short, these agencies have exerted their own unique pressure on the academic system.

As the various pressures operate throughout the system, the library has become the machine for adding as many volumes and subscriptions to each library as book funds will allow. Initiating orders in such quantities became impossible for the busy faculty; consequently, the teaching faculty released more and more of the responsibility for selection to the librarian and thereby shifted this burden to another desk. The librarian in turn, as noted above, has generally centered the problem in the acquisitions department.

From the agents' view, a plan to supply books for libraries had to be based on the expectation of broad comprehensive coverage in order to justify a library adopting the approval concept and discontinuing the former procedure of placing bids or scattered orders among many suppliers. The book agent surveying the above conditions in academic libraries in 1966 logically reached the conclusion that he would be able to capture the bulk of the domestic book market and make a profit by capitalizing on the librarian's goals of comprehensiveness, inefficient procedures, and a lowering of criteria toward judgment and selectivity. So he sold his approval plan package to librarians who were also anxious to move the problem onto another desk, thereby eliminating some of the pressures exerted on the acquisitions department.

The approval plan contract, once entered into, needs to be defended because an acquisition program geared to an approval plan can no longer be based on needs or values. Discussions of approval plan purchasing of domestic current publications generally center on the questions of economy, selection of materials, and speed of availability of materials. While some insist that it is an economically efficient way of procuring books, others insist that it is not. Those who advocate that selection is more valuable with the book in hand, know that very little selection takes place after the books arrive, and that redundancy, duplication, and an increasing rate of obsolescence are evident in the mass of print so purchased. The fact is ignored that the percentage of unscholarly ma-
terial that is added during the process clutters the catalogs and shelves and is available to the unsuspecting student. The literature even presents various justifications for turning over the selection of what is needed by the university library to a businessman, whose primary interest in the academic community is profit.

Those who argue that the speed of availability is an important benefit of approval plan purchasing neglect the fact that this is actually not important for the great majority of books so purchased. Then too, after receipt many volumes are held up for cataloging and processing, negating in most instances the supposed value of speedy receipt.

As economy and speed become the focal points on which to judge approval plan purchasing, the assumption that every academic library needs all of this material is difficult to bring to the forefront and relate to goals, unless, of course, the goals of academic libraries have become truly broad, comprehensive coverage insofar as funds will permit with a deterioration of criteria on scholarship. In other words, the goals seem to have become, in reality, “add volumes” and hope that if enough volumes are added, broad, comprehensive coverage will result.

It is interesting to view Price’s logistics curve as related to the future additions of vast quantities of volumes in libraries. Price states that “In the real world nothing grows and grows until it reaches infinity. Rather, exponential growth eventually reaches some limit, at which the process must slacken and stop before reaching absurdity.” Hope may exist that something will happen in libraries to prevent the continuous addition of volumes toward absurdity.

Leveling off may occur, but for a time the logistics curve will show signs of fluctuation due to efforts to preserve the status quo. Indications are that recent decreases in funds may have already affected the curve. If Mason is correct in regard to economies, attitudes toward approval plan purchasing will change as librarians begin to experience less attention. Perhaps then we can get down to the business of examining more intelligently Urquhart’s first law: The library exists to meet the needs of the user as economically as possible, and find more economical ways to serve the scholar.

It is well known that problems proliferate as college libraries become research libraries. The undergraduate library’s needs can be more explicitly defined and provided for. Suggestions are available for alternate systems of providing research materials but they will be difficult to initiate due to the present system of expectations which has been created. Not to be overlooked is the competition which exists between libraries, and the difficulty of organizing and implementing alternative patterns of organization and service.

In the meantime, while we wait for changes in values, attitudes, and behavior in order to effect institutional changes, approval plans will continue to be a means of purchasing books for libraries; library volume counts will continue to escalate even though 50 to 75 percent of the books so purchased will be little or never used items. Approval plan purchasing is a simple, easy, expensive method used by some acquisitions departments to purchase materials, many of which prove to be unnecessary and thus create a drain on other aspects of library operations.

REFERENCES

states that “Most academic librarians agree, . . . thirty acquisition librarians at an Institute on Acquisitions Procedures in Academic Libraries in San Diego, Aug./Sept. 1969, from thirty different libraries throughout the country did not have acquisitions policies and could reach no agreement on how to set up such an animal. While one staff member recommended “Collection Development Policies” another staff member discredited the idea. One participant stated that the only selection policy evident in his library was reflected in the distribution of funds, while another admitted that since funds were no longer assigned to departments in his library, he “just spent it” as requests came in. Others were more or less silent about their practices, presumably in an effort to gain some guidance toward more meaningful procedures of expenditures. No guidance was given and no consensus arrived at except, “It depends on your library,” which became a standard Institute quote.


7. It is presently a matter of fact that the university community has available to it on request through interlibrary loan facilities much more than is presently in the individual library locally. The complete list of holdings of all of the libraries from which any library may request material is the actual fact of the number of volumes and titles available. Accrediting agencies must be aware of this. Nevertheless, in May 1971 I was approached to assist in the purchase of $10,000 worth of “gaps” in runs of mathematical journals. The government funds had to be spent in a short time and the “gaps” were chosen for purchase to gain “points” (Brownie points?) with the accreditation agency which, as the mathematics professor stated, “counts each gap as a point against the department with graduate programs.” One issue may be a “gap” or many volumes may be a “gap”! And too, the “gaps” up for purchase represented titles which had just been proven to be little used or never used titles in this library by a use study of mathematical periodicals completed three weeks earlier by this reviewer.

8. If ninety academic libraries were currently participating in one or more of one agent’s approval plans in 1968 (see Morrison, “Symposium on Approval”), it might be estimated that sales amounted to over $7,200,000. What are the facts?

9. Again I refer you to the articles listed in footnote 5. However my figures do not agree with Axford’s 7.16 percent average discount. Using a sample of invoice slips
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for science books here, the average discount was determined to be 3.07 percent; and a random sample of social science books gave an average discount of 5.62 percent. The stated percentage rates on the invoice slips did not check out to be mathematically correct. When this was discovered, a call to the agent verified an extra charge of 2 percent for each invoice.

On looking through 150 invoice slips for current approval plan purchases in H to HX category, a sociology professor on this campus remarked that he would estimate about 25 percent of these titles as “junk,” and also that he hoped his students did not get hold of any of it. See also Henry Voos, “The Information Explosion; or, Redundancy Reduces the Charge!” 32:7-14 (Jan. 1971).


17. Many writers come to mind. Pings, Kraft, Rose, Boutry, Voos, Ralston—to name a few. I found the most encouraging and yet the most discouraging to be Mason’s “Libraries and Change,” PLA Bulletin (May 1971), p. 141-50.


No hard data has been found to prove or disprove these statements, however three years experience in two university libraries in acquisitions and in reference handling approval plan books gives one some insights to accompany review of the literature. Axford’s tables (“Economics of,” p. 375) could easily be interpreted to indicate that four of the five libraries did not need but one-half of the material that Library 1 was accumulating. He gives no indication of how much the material is used or how much of the unacquired 50 percent is missed in Libraries 2 to 5.

In a library with simple automation procedures which correlate the acquisition of books with circulation records it would not be impossible to actually measure the use, over five or even ten years, of 13,000 volumes received in one year on a domestic approval plan contract. The expense and tedium of such a use study probably do not seem practical in view of signs which indicate that the results will yield evidence of waste and who wants to be shown up as wasteful? Besides, at this time it may be impossible to get a government grant to finance such a study.
To the Editor:

I am one of “those idealistic librarians . . . who espouse both unionism and participation,” to quote Richard De Gennaro’s CRL editorial for May 1972, “Participative Management or Unionization?”

While De Gennaro perceives unionization and participative management as a dichotomy, I feel that the two trends are not mutually exclusive. The advent of unions on college campuses has led to staff involvement in library decision-making where often none existed before. Similarly, the growth of collective bargaining has by no means reinforced the conventional hierarchical structures; the situation at City University of New York is but one example of this.

Some of De Gennaro’s sweeping generalizations about white-collar unions are invalid and reflect his obvious managerial bias. Not all labor unions are conservative and authoritarian, with but “a veneer of democracy.” One should consider the recent emergence of AAUP as a bargaining agent.

There is a need for impartial research to determine the effects of collective bargaining upon participative management in libraries. If the facts were known, I believe that the benefits would outweigh the disadvantages of unionization.

Leonard Grundt
Director of Library
Nassau Community College

To the Editor:

Ellis Mount and Paul Fasana conclude their May 1972 article “An Approach to the Measurement of Use and Cost of a Large Academic Library System: A Report of a Study Done at Columbia University Libraries” by stating, “. . . preliminary analyses have already provided the librarian with significant results which are beginning to affect the libraries’ policies and attitudes.” Such a conclusion is outrageous. First, the results are not significant, in fact, they are seriously biased. Second, the effect upon the equity of user services could be disastrous.

Hidden among all the fairly objective surveys conducted are two that really matter—literature survey, current and retrospective. These two surveys, upon which are based the Catalog Staff Survey, Space Survey, Literature Cost Analysis, Salary Survey and Equipment and Supply Survey, are entirely subjective. Librarians and faculty, “insignificant” users of library services themselves (faculty 5.9 percent of all users—Table 2), dictate values for the remainder of the user population of over 90 percent. The basis of their judgment: an intuitive sense of the popular versus the esoteric.

The article begins simply enough. The aim of the study was to determine “the relationship between library costs incurred to support research and those incurred to support instruction.” A user survey of all users in all units of the libraries was conducted on four separate days—a total of 15,302 survey forms completed. Subsequently, a special user survey was conducted to define “in greater detail that segment of the li-

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Libraries' user population involved primarily in noninstructional activities. Unfortunately, over 40 percent of the users in the sample of 15,302 are excluded arbitrarily from the special user survey. Excluded are undergraduates, nondegree students, other staff and non-Columbia. The assumption seems to be that undergraduates and others work on a superficial basis, i.e., they only study. Graduates, on the other hand, well-adapted as they are to the system, can be relied upon to state positively, "Our work? Well, it's research of course." Indeed the most significant fact about the special user survey is the nonresponse factor of 56 percent.

The literature surveys conclude that over 80 percent of all materials are in support of "Research." Thus, the collection seems overwhelmingly in support of the research activity of groups which number well under 60 percent of the user population. It now appears that library services are going to be further tailored to meet the needs of the research groups. Someone is being short-changed!

Finally, considering the number of instructional-related materials in the collection (less than 20 percent), the undergraduate body of users, comprising more than 25 percent of all library users, can not be faulted and are making good use of that collection. Moreover, the primary effort should be to attract more undergraduates through the acquisition of more relevant materials.

"Yes, but the research funds?"

"Oh, 'tis a pity."

Charles Martell
Doctoral Student
University of California, Berkeley

To the Editor:

Although I found Mr. Holley's paper "Organization and Administration of Urban University Libraries" (CRL, May 1972) interesting reading, I would like to correct a possible false impression. On p. 186 it is indicated that union organization at the University of Chicago library has been "dropped for the present." On the contrary, library unionism is alive and well and living at the University of Chicago library!

Mr. Holley correctly states that the NLRB dismissed the original petition of Local 103—Distributive Workers of America, in the spring of 1971, on the grounds of supervisory participation. In that proceeding the question of who should be deemed a supervisor was not litigated in detail.

Since the dismissal of the original petition a number of events have occurred. The original Local 103 no longer exists, as the presence of professional and nonprofessional staff in the same unit was one of the factors involved in the supervisor problem. There are presently two locals functioning in the library: Local 103A for professionals and Local 103B for nonprofessionals. Local 103A has been involved in representational hearings before the NLRB since the beginning of 1972, and the final determination of the issues will probably determine the limits of the right to organize in private academic libraries. The transcript of the hearings already runs to 1,200 pages, and much more is expected, although the hearings are presently in adjournment pending a decision on an unfair labor practices charge filed against the university. The two key issues being litigated are who is a supervisor and who is a professional within the meaning of the National Labor Relations Act, as amended. It is the contention of the union that the criteria for supervision cannot be applied in the same manner to professional workers in an academic context as they can be applied to industrial workers. In recent cases involving university faculties, such as Fordham University and Adelphi University, the NLRB has tended to agree with this position, and
we expect that the University of Chicago case will set the standards for librarians. In the meanwhile the union remains very active in the library, and can take credit for a number of policy reforms which have taken place in the library over the last two years. The path of change is never easy, but fundamental changes in the governance of libraries must occur. If more library administrators, wiser than ours have been, recognize that fact the experience may turn out to be considerably less painful.

*Patricia S. Coatsworth
Documents Librarian
University of Chicago Library*

To the Editor:

In his discussion of the formula for collection adequacy devised by Clapp and Jordan,¹ McInnes² fails to define the term “adequacy,” as they did. It seems reasonable that such a definition is essential to the development of a formula designed to provide a theoretical measure against which the size of library collections can be judged. I suggest that adequacy should be defined as the capability of the library to respond within a given time to a given percentage of book calls in general, and to given percentages for different types of material (monographs, periodicals, etc.) and different levels of content (introductory, advanced, etc.), immediately. It is apparent that a larger collection will be required to fill 95 percent (say) of book calls immediately, than 80 percent, and that a collection adequate to fulfill the latter requirement will be inadequate to satisfy the former. Trueswell has shown that a general characteristic of inventory in business and industry—about 80 percent of transactions are satisfied from about 20 percent of the items stocked—is also exhibited by libraries.³

In 1971, I undertook partial tests of the Clapp-Jordan formula applied to the collection at Sir George Williams University,⁴ based on use surveys of social science and humanities monographs and periodicals in hard copy. Although the tests are not conclusive, they are suggestive. Application of the 80/20 rule to a random sample of monographs showed that had 80 percent of the calls been satisfied by 20 percent of the volumes sampled (instead of the 28 percent that did), the sample would have been 40 percent larger. The total real collection of monographs (including science and engineering) was 221,775, and the Clapp-Jordan “collection” was 310,300, for a deficit of 88,525; the collection should therefore, have been 40 percent larger, to meet the limit of adequacy defined by Clapp and Jordan. For the library concerned, if the validity of the 80/20 rule is accepted, there is some evidence that the formula is valid for monograph volumes. The test for periodicals was undertaken by considering the title: volume ratio, assuming that it was desirable to satisfy 90 percent of use from volumes not in storage. Application of the 80/20 rule showed that the social sciences and humanities collection should have included 1,315 titles, compared with the 3,100 titles held, and that the total collection should include between 2,000 and 2,500 titles, against the 1,500 required by the Clapp-Jordan formula. Consideration of the title: volume ratio indicated that there should be between 40,000 and 45,000 volumes in the collection, rather than the 32,000 required by the formula, or 50,000 actually held. For the collection concerned, there is some evidence that the formula underestimates the number of periodicals by title and volumes required for an adequate collection.

These observations indicate that the validity of the Clapp-Jordan formula and its derivatives could be tested by controlled experiments, in a number of libraries, provided levels of satisfaction are set.⁵ ⁶ These levels could be: (a) for
undergraduates, 95 percent of book calls satisfied immediately—on the basis that it is generally agreed that universities should provide for their own undergraduate needs without calling on other libraries, save in exceptional cases, and that it is not unreasonable to anticipate that on occasion a student will have to wait for a heavily used volume; (b) for graduates and faculty, 95 percent of calls for basic research materials satisfied immediately, 80 percent of calls for materials related to the specific project satisfied immediately, and 10 percent satisfied within a week.

A factor neither McInnes nor Clapp and Jordan take into account is obsolescence, although McInnes does suggest that some collections are larger than they need be because the institutions regard the preservation of material as a valid function. Numerous studies show that use of volumes declines at a statistically determinable rate (e.g. Brookes7), so any formula for adequacy should take this into account, by a "devaluation" factor related to the age of volumes. This factor would vary with the type of material and with the discipline, but an average or weighted average could be developed.

McInnes dismisses as lacking credibility the result of his regression analysis that only nonscience doctoral programmes are significant in determining collection size. My work on the application of the Clapp-Jordan formula to the Sir George Williams University collection indicates that the introduction of doctoral programmes has a very significant effect on the required size of collections.8 One would expect this, since it appears likely that collection size is probably more nearly related to programmes offered, and their level, than to the number of individuals involved—whether one or 100 persons are involved, the same titles would be required, and the number of volumes would not be changed significantly. An indication of this is the finding of Clapp and Jordan that the ratio of monograph titles to volumes is about 1:1.2 (the excess of volumes over titles is partly accounted for by multivolume sets, and partly by the provision of multiple copies), and of periodical titles to volumes 1:15. A way of determining the influence of the size of the faculty and student body would be to examine the percentage of titles held, on average, in multiple copy, since the main justification for multiple copies is the need to satisfy coincident demand by two or more individuals.

I suggest, in conclusion, that a viable formula for the determination of an adequate collection for the normal teaching and research activities of an academic library collection should take into account: (a) the level of service desired, in terms of immediate satisfaction of demands for volumes; (b) the rate of obsolescence of volumes; (c) the publication rate of relevant material by level of content and discipline; (d) the need for multiple copies to satisfy coincidental demand for heavily used material.

George J. Snowball  
Head, Administrative Services  
Sir George Williams  
University Library  
Montreal, Canada

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A reader concerned about the future of centralized processing for academic libraries might well ask the question: "What has become of CALBPC? Is it alive and well and still living in Boulder?" The answer is, according to the informal information network always operative in librarianship, "no, CALBPC is not well. It still lives in Boulder, but in tenuous form—a shadow of its former self." Shortly it will process materials primarily for the University of Colorado, if the rumors are to be believed.

Basic to the composition of any review of the Dougherty-Maier volume is the decision as to whether the success or failure of CALBPC has any bearing whatever on the value of the book. For the purposes of this discussion, it has been assumed that the well-being of CALBPC is not necessarily an acceptable measure of the success of the book which serves as its "final report." A factor which may link the two considerations, however, is the discernment of procedures, attitudes, or situations which carry with them the seeds of failure.

The final report does indeed record such procedures, attitudes, and situations. Phases I and II of the project developed conclusions in light of certain presuppositions which were not in fact realized in Phase III, e.g., the percentage of current domestic imprints ordered through CALBPC was considerably lower than expected; the directive to order only in-print items was consciously ignored in the case of the University of Colorado; and the percentage of budgets directed to the center proved to be less than optimum. Disappointment was also experienced in the areas of vendor discounts, speed of vendor delivery of materials, and ability to coordinate ordering among the thirteen participating libraries.

There is question, however, as to whether these problems could have been foreseen, given the more or less artificial character of Phases I and II of the experiment. What ought, nonetheless, to have been anticipated was the possible development of antagonism among the staff of the member libraries toward a center housed in the largest of those libraries. Throughout the Dougherty-Maier volume runs an undercurrent of disillusionment with the quite normal behavior of cataloging staff who have been operating independently for a good many years. Some of this disillusionment may be unwarranted in that it is based upon a simplistic concept of "library philosophy." An example of such oversimplification is encountered in the following assertion: "A librarian who believes books ought to be made available for use as quickly as possible might be willing to circulate a title before the catalog cards are filed safely in the public catalog. In contrast, a librarian who attaches greater importance to the orderliness of his records may be inclined to hold a book in a work area or an office until all records have been received, inspected and filed." (p.108) The "good guys" are those, then, who spend extra money to circulate an uncataloged volume, while the "bad guys" are those who insist on avoiding duplication of effort by processing the material once and for all. But this, too, is simplistic. There are no clearcut "good" or "bad" catalogers; there are only people with various personal histories and expectations trying to do a service job the best they know how. To suggest that all cannot be well unless a library circulates uncataloged books as a symbol of its service-orientation is to invite the hostility of those automati-
cally cast, thereby, in the role of "bad guys." If such an attitude was conveyed by CALBPC staff, then the center was probably defeated from the start.

If the Dougherty-Maier volume has a major fault, it is the fact that the center was more management-oriented than people-oriented. In the final recommendations, this deficiency is admitted. The astonishing fact is that the need for the staff's knowing "how cooperation will affect their jobs, their future, or their status" was recognized only after the experiment was concluded. If ever there were a cogent argument for requiring prospective librarians to study personnel administration and psychology, this recorded naivety would provide it. It is incredible that library administrators can, in the 1970s, still claim unawareness of the need for staff to be treated as members of a team, not as chessmen to be manipulated on the board of library efficiency.

Despite the naive personnel relations evident throughout the volume (cf. especially recommendations 4 and 5, p.119), this record of a "grand experiment" is rich in technical data. If anything, the tables are overly abundant and detailed. Every conceivable segment of the operation has been counted, timed, measured, or costed out. If for no other reason than this, every academic library catalog department ought to buy a copy of the book.

There are, as is not uncommon with Scarecrow Press volumes, a plethora of typographical errors. In a work less dependent for its value upon technical details, this problem might be more easily overlooked. The finding of, for example, three alphabetical typos in Figure 2.5 causes the reader to wonder whether some of the numbers might also have been copied incorrectly. It is unfortunate for the impact of the study that a more careful job of proofreading was not done.

In sum, the Dougherty-Maier report is a detailed, data-rich record of an important experiment in library cooperation. From a management standpoint, it will be invaluable to academic library technical services departments. From a human standpoint, however, it leaves much to be desired.—Dorothy J. Hickey, Associate Professor of Library Science, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.


After hundreds of articles and papers dealing with faculty status for librarians, this is the first regularly published book to appear on the subject. It is worthy of the honor despite certain limitations. The publication is a sociological study of librarians in the nineteen state-supported colleges and universities in a three-state area—Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, excluding the senior state institutions. The author surveys the literature of the subject, examines the sociological bases of academic librarianship as a profession, and then compares representative samples of librarians and classroom faculty members. Although written as a dissertation, completed at Michigan in 1970, it is broad-gauge and readable, soundly conceived and generally well executed.

The literature survey is done well, with no significant sources overlooked. Massman documents the history of the movement and summarizes the sociological factors upon which the movement for faculty status for librarians is based. In this section he shows good understanding and sound judgment in evaluations.

The main body of the work, however, is a very extensive comparison of librarians—92.7 percent of whom hold faculty status—and the classroom faculty in certain subjects. A wealth of information is presented in eighty-eight tables, many of which supplement even the excellent study of librarians by Anita R. Schiller. These tables and the discussion compare librarians and classroom faculty members as to age, sex, education, length of service, publications, Senate and committee memberships, faculty rank by degrees held and by sex, publication, length of academic year, tenure, sabbatical leave, and funds for research and travel.

Some interesting findings are that 92.7 percent of the librarians hold full faculty status, and that two-thirds are on nine or ten months contracts. These librarians are fortunate in this regard especially when one thinks of such states as California and New Jersey, or of some large universities. Regarding rate of publications, those on twelve-month contracts were, quite surpris-
ingly, exactly as productive as those on nine or ten months contracts. Women librarians published one-sixth as much as men. All published less than the classroom faculty. Regarding salaries, the author found librarians' salaries lower than those of classroom faculty at all ranks. However, when education was taken into account the differences were small: librarians with the doctorate averaged $13,167 compared to $13,229 for classroom faculty; librarians with two masters' degrees, $9,980; and librarians with one master's degree $8,839 versus $9,605 for a classroom teacher with the master's. The comparative maldistribution of librarians among faculty ranks is documented but not discussed. Substantial discrimination in salary by sex is revealed and commented on, both among the classroom faculty and among librarians.

Sociologists believe that the major determinants of occupational prestige are (1) education, (2) amount of systematic and general knowledge, and (3) amount of individual responsibility. The author concludes that the literature of librarianship is adequate but faults librarians on education and responsibility. He concludes that education being the most critical factor and highly important in academic life, improvements will be necessary. He sees faculty status as a major means for this continued improvement.

The work does have several shortcomings. The senior state universities are omitted; including them unquestionably would have affected the findings. Although the publication date is 1972, the field work was done in 1969 and the literature survey ends early in 1970. Much has happened in the two years since. The classroom disciplines from which the faculty sample was drawn were traditional subjects in which the doctorate usually is the terminal degree; it would have been desirable to include some subjects in which it is not, such as home economics, social work, library science, and the fine arts. Omitted is any information on several important aspects: the work week, role of the supporting staff, effects of faculty status on organization and administration, and the views of those in the profession who oppose faculty status. As to the latter, the separate but equal advocates, and the management-efficiency group, he does list the leading figures. Also omitted are the principal threats to faculty status in a state—the state civil service boards who would like to extend their domain, and the out-of-state efficiency experts who may propose to save money by operating the library on what Louis R. Wilson once called a stripped-down housekeeping level. Also, as usual with Scarecrow Press books, the format is poor and there are a number of typographical errors.

Despite these shortcomings, the book is a very welcome addition to the literature of faculty status. It provides a great deal of factual information and its conclusions will compel librarians to take stock and make plans for the future.—Arthur McNally, Director of Libraries, University of Oklahoma.


Immigrants are American history. Despite the characteristics of the American society—opportunity, mobility, and integration, and despite the rhetoric of the melting pot, we are still a pluralistic nation. In fact, there is a resurgence of ethnic activities: action programs in ethnic communities, ethnic studies at the college and university levels, etc., many recently supported with the Ford Foundation grants. Increasingly, ethnic consciousness and cultural differences are cultivated, not obliterated as in the past.

For those interested in American social and cultural development, the ethnic press is a topic deserving special attention. By ethnic press we usually mean newspapers and periodicals published in a foreign language or in English but addressing themselves to a national group. (Guidelines of Canada Ethnic Press Federation.)

So far, few studies on the ethnic press exist. One of the first ones and still important from the historical point of view—The Immigrant Press and Its Control by Robert E. Park—was published in 1922 and reprinted in 1970. It examines the period following World War I. It is a thorough descriptive study of the characteristics and varieties of one thousand immigrants' publications. In
1966, Joshua A. Fishman and others published the book: *Language Loyalty in the United States*, in which they discuss the existing methods of “maintenance and perpetuation of non-English mother tongues of American ethnic groups.” In Chapter III the writers examine “The Non-English and the Ethnic Group Press” for the period of 1910–1960. Here basic trends in the numbers of circulation of various categories of ethnic publications and data covering future prospects of these publications are given. This is a valuable, systematic study of the subject covered. However, numbers cited seem to be based primarily on the Ayer’s Directory which is not a dependable source for the ethnic press information. Also, Fishman does not present analysis of all individual ethnic presses. It groups many smaller ethnic groups under “other Slavic,” “other Romance,” “other Germanic,” which makes study of these groups’ presses and their cultural activities very difficult if not frustrating.

For the current situation, Wynar’s *Encyclopedic Directory of Ethnic Newspapers* is the only comprehensive bibliographic guide to the ethnic press in the United States. It lists 903 periodicals and newspapers published by forty-three ethnic groups. All groups including “other Slavic,” “other Germanic,” “other Romance,” which have continued to publish in their native languages, are represented. Directory is arranged in encyclopedic, alphabetical order by the ethnic group. Information in each group section is given in two parts. First part lists publications written entirely in native language and those that are bilingual—partly in native language, partly in English. Second part lists those printed in English only. Within each section titles are again arranged alphabetically.

Bibliographic information given is more or less complete. The compiler himself expresses regrets that some editors did not respond to many relevant items on the questionnaire. When necessary, titles are transliterated into the Latin alphabet. Unfortunately, there are some misspelled names and there is a lack of uniformity in the use of diacritical marks. In many instances these are completely missing. Annotations are concise, they serve their objective well in determining “the scope, content, and purpose of the publications” (Preface).

Cross references from the names of political units to those of pertinent ethnic groups are helpful (i.e., Yugoslav Press, see Slovenian, Serbo Croatian).

An added feature of the directory is the introductory article “The Ethnic Press in the United States and Its Bibliographic Control.” The compiler surveys and evaluates the few studies made in the past and compares statistical results of these with his findings which are based on a recent survey—actual examination and a questionnaire (1970 through July 1971). The results are presented in statistical tables, giving such information as a distribution of the ethnic press by type and frequency of publication, the numerical strength of individual ethnic presses and the total circulation. This statistical data is further analyzed and explained in the Appendix. Here, detailed tables are arranged again alphabetically according to the language or ethnic group. Index to the publications with title entries and ethnic press designation appears to be accurate.

The compiler states in the article that 90 percent of ethnic publications are included in the directory. Indeed, there are a few titles which are not included (e.g. Vestnik SAVE—Slovenian). There are a number of publications, intended for limited groups with a small circulation, which are not mentioned and which most compilers probably would not have included even knowing they existed.

In spite of this incompleteness Wynar’s directory remains, as stated earlier, the most complete existing guide to the current ethnic press. For the reference librarians and scholars interested in the mass media or cultural and social pluralism of the American society, it is an extremely valuable handbook filling a long existing gap.—Francka Povsic, Reference Librarian, Bowling Green State University Library.


Following in the tradition of earlier publications (*Museum Publications, 1962* and *Sculpture Index, 1970*), Jane Clapp has attempted to fill a vacuum in the bibliographic control of information on the fine
arts by providing, in this instance, a chronological and bibliographical index to art censorship. Within the context of the "liberalism" of the past ten years that has allowed the publication and exhibition of erotic art to an extent which has heretofore been difficult unless shielded behind various pretenses which might be palatable to public taste, she has taken advantage of the demand and need for research on art censorship.

From seven periodical and newspaper indexing sources and an unstated number of special library catalogs, she has culled nearly 650 references primarily in English published since 1900 which provide the data describing the events and nature of censored art in a chronological format ranging from 3400-2400 B.C. until May 3, 1971. Rather than attempting inclusion of all artforms, she has limited the references to "suppression, restriction and restraint of visual communication in the plastic arts—painting, sculpture, graphic arts, architecture—and the decorative arts." (page v.)

Although she does not make any claims to comprehensiveness, additional information that is given, delineating the scope of the work, would certainly provide a valid and useful point of departure for further research on the topic and would clarify the extent of her documentation. The reader may legitimately question what has been omitted in the course of compiling information for this book. Ms. Clapp does define her subject and states that photography and motion pictures are not included but does not indicate what has been rejected as unimportant or insignificant in terms of resource materials.

On the other hand, few reference works can offer moments of amusement such as the following cited event which occurred in 1853: "In Mannheim, Germany, 'Venus de Milo,' nude classic statue, was tried in court of law for her nudity, and 'was convicted and condemned.'" This passage is exemplary of the format of the content although many of the events described are far more detailed than this particular one. In addition, she juxtaposes both the general public's and the critics' reactions to the artform in question for exhibitions.

Even though the visual arts have been a natural communication medium to be censored, if for no other reason than for the immediacy of the visual image particularly in its conveyance of nudity, far less documentation has been offered by a formal publication such as this one than in the literary arts. Recent monographs such as Erotic Art by Drs. Phyllis and Eberhard Kronhausen (1968) and Studies in Erotic Art sponsored by the Institute for Sex Research at Indiana University (1970) in many instances exemplify the nature of art censorship (in the past many of the plates reproduced in these works could not be published without some form of censorship label covering genitalia) and are more concerned with the cultural origins and forms of erotic art rather than with society's objections to it. Morse Peckham's book, Art and Pornography (1969), does treat the concept and definitions of pornography in art but does not focus on censorship per se. Obviously, art censorship has been an enduring preoccupation of society as Ms. Clapp's book substantiates. Locating the documents of such censorship which are scattered throughout court records, legislation, newspapers, periodicals, and historical and social commentaries of a given period may well exhaust even the most voracious researcher. Ms. Clapp's book provides both a basic reference tool for art censorship research and an outline text for individuals interested in the history of art censorship.—Betty Jo Irvine, Fine Arts Librarian, Indiana University.


The title of this book raises the hope that it might be a careful consideration of alternative methods and techniques for use by a library in reclassifying its collection to the Library of Congress classification system. This hope is not realized. The authors modestly claim in the preface that "this manual is designed to make it possible for any library to change efficiently to the Library of Congress system." However, the methods, techniques, and procedures they recommend are, almost entirely, those they used in reclassifying 68,428 volumes at the
Unfortunately they never directly confront the issue of generalizing their procedures for adaptation to other sizes and types of libraries. The procedure they recommend involves changing the old main entry card and then duplicating a complete new card set. Very few alternatives to this procedure are mentioned, and none are explored in detail for changes in feasibility with variations in size and type of library, funding level, or time table for reclassification. For example, only Xerox duplicating machines are considered, yet other methods exist and are less expensive at some card production levels. The alternative of typing new LC call numbers on gummed labels and affixing them to the old cards is not even mentioned, though it seems an obvious one. Their recommended procedure does not consider the effect of branch collections on a reclassification project, though these are prevalent in university libraries and even more so in large public libraries.

If this book is considered for what it is, a report of a procedure that worked well in a particular instance, rather than what it claims to be, it may prove useful. However, much of the same information about the University of Puget Sound experience can be found in a paper delivered by Taylor at a 1968 University of Maryland Conference on Reclassification. Much of the material included in the book that was not in this earlier paper is not of critical importance to the problem of reclassification, though some items may be useful in themselves. For example, the authors devote forty-nine pages of the book to examples of the use of one table (Table IXa) from the LC literature schedules for the cutting of works by and about an author and of translations of his works. Six pages are used giving examples of serial check-in records at the University of Puget Sound. The main body of the book is not the current version; a procedure for names beginning with “Qu” has since been added.

The book does include a selected, though extensive (172 items, 46 pages), bibliography of the literature of reclassification through August 1969, with annotations which are evaluative as well as descriptive. It includes references that contrast Dewey with LC, consider centralized cataloging, describe the use of LC, etc., in addition to those that deal primarily with reclassification. The authors rely on this literature to describe the advantages and disadvantages of reclassifying to LC, spending only two pages discussing this issue themselves.

In summary, this is a disappointing book. There is a great need for the book they did not write, a careful consideration of alternative methods and techniques for reclassification by various sizes and types of libraries. There is little need for the book they did write. Taylor’s earlier paper would serve as well for a description of the reclassification project at the University of Puget Sound.—Edward A. Eaton, III, Graduate School of Library Science, The University of Texas at Austin.


By now the manual series of the WICHE group are well known in educational circles. This one manual largely devoted to academic libraries must become a part of every library manager’s working collection for the near future. Three of the four subject areas of this publication are now important to planners of large libraries (1) Study facilities (libraries), (3) Audio/Visual facilities, and (4) Computing facilities. The fourth, (2) Museum, gallery, and other exhibition facilities may be helpful.

The main body of the manual is devoted to libraries, sixty-three pages of a total seventy-two. After an introductory section placing this manual in the framework of the whole series, there is a section which abstracts and comments on other earlier methods and standards currently used for analyzing library facilities. The third section
sets forth the detailed method proposed by WICHE for evaluating existing library capacity and for projecting future library needs. The method, in each case, sets forth in outline form, logical order, and with fairly mechanical precision, every consideration needed for planning. Sample forms are included and the procedure is fully spelled out for a typical library example in an academic institution. The manual thus provides step by step guidance for anyone who might wish to apply the proposed standards to his own situation. There is accompanying text which quite reasonably comments on the possible variations from these rather rigid lines of measurement and states other possibilities. The same general arrangement is then followed for projected requirements. This chapter may be very useful, at the least, as a checklist of elements which must be included. A final example develops the procedure applied to another example for both existing facilities and the projection of requirements for the future. There is a general effect of considerable repetition throughout the text for libraries, but perhaps this is necessary. A final brief statement of "Unit floor area criteria," constitutes in effect a series of commonly used ranges of standard measures for stack space, reader space, and staff and service space. Also included here are the University of California criteria for similar functions.

The comments on A/V, Radio, and TV facilities are general and meager, representing only four pages of text. Museum, Gallery, and Other Exhibition facilities are given two pages and Data Processing and Computing Facilities just over two pages. This manual is obviously library oriented.

There is very little, if anything to criticize in the guidelines, criteria, or standards (as these terms may be variously defined). Many alternate statements are referenced in the text, and there is no real innovation in the applications of the criteria. Everyone is now aware that arbitrary regulation by fixed criteria generally produces failure; similar application of the WICHE criteria without modification for local circumstance would surely have the same effect. It seems clear from the text that the authors were fully aware of this, and they have provided some useful measures in an organized and well-presented pattern.

This manual will find a proper place in the working collections of any library planner, architect, and academic administrator. It will require judicious application and constant comparison with other sources of similar information, especially as new concepts of education and educational methods become an increasingly large factor in our planning.—Jerrold Orne, University of North Carolina.


Change in college libraries for survival in anticipation of the future is what this book is about. Hampshire College is the recent experimental college (opened for students, September 1970) in Amherst, Massachusetts. Taylor describes in this book the design of the Hampshire College Library Center.

This book is in large part a case study (with floor plans, diagrams, and other details) of what was and is involved in the design and planning of the Library at Hampshire. The problems and the objectives are described fluently. Taylor's philosophy of orienting the library to the user comes through eloquently. At this library the user is to be truly part of the picture. He is to be involved in the decision-making by the library. Also, the user's "costs" are to be considered in systems design and the provision of services. Extensive studies of what users do and do not do in the library are to be carried out. In sum, the Hampshire College Library Center has been designed to be unlike the traditional college library which, as Taylor says, is too concerned with the handling of materials and not the needs of people. This library is to be far more than a supply depot or warehouse with librarians as housekeepers.

Here's what the library involves in one building; a conventional library but with multimedia integrated in the "book" collection, a display gallery, a bookstore, an INTRAN (information transfer) Center, integrating educational technology and computing support to instruction and learning, and duplication services.

The design problems encountered are
discussed candidly. It is stated that the changing budgetary pressures in today's higher education have had a proscribing effect on much of what the library is planned to be. Because of the current economy a large share of the planned-for-functions, particularly the electronic, have yet to be realized.

There is an admirable honesty in this volume. Mistakes in building and service design are admitted, e.g. "The (library) is laced with conduits, with outlets, where we do not want them and no outlets where we need them."

The philosophy expounded is one meant to change the college library and to increase its effectiveness. It deals with, "the renewal of a static if not moribund organization—the library—and of a profession that grows in numbers but dies in content and purpose." Although the author is certainly convincing in his argument for changes to improve on current library problems there are many promising indicators that the profession is trying to get with it and sometimes succeeding. In this vein, formal experiments (sponsored by the Council on Library Resources) with the use of student assistants for reference work have been set up with good results at Brown University, Wabash College and elsewhere. We will nevertheless learn much from the Hampshire experience whether it's dramatically successful or not.

One aspect not emphasized enough by Taylor is the problem of how to change the teaching faculty's attitude toward the library. Librarians can do much to help individual students with library instructional programs of all kinds as long as the student needs to know but the real long-lasting effect must come from the teaching faculty. This can only happen when they become knowledgeable and enthusiastic library users and begin to consider the effective use of the library by students as part of the course work. We librarians can repackage systems and products and try our utmost to interrupt the cycle of library misuse and nonuse by students but to little effect if the faculty are not really with us. If the faculty are "different" at Hampshire it is not so stated in the book. Indeed they appear to be similar to professors at conventional colleges when it comes to book selection: "The faculty members were either not interested or not able to define and recommend a basic book collection in their field."—John Lubans, Jr., University of Colorado.


This bibliography is the by-product of an educational meeting entitled "Research Subject: The Book," which was held at the American Memorial Library in Berlin during February 19 and 20, 1969. The publication is intended to be a guide to literature explaining who reads what and why.

Included in the list of 1,027 articles, pamphlets, and books are 347 titles in English. The bulk of the remainder are in German, with enough other languages represented to validate the use of the word "international" in the title. Brief annotations (in German) are supplied for the less descriptively titled entries. Among the items listed are titles dealing with such questions as how television affects reading habits, what people read in various geographical areas, whether library usage increases during election years, etc.

Most of the items listed were published between 1945 and 1971. The exceptions are a few pre-1945 classics, chosen for their recognized importance to the topic. The editor cites as an example the works by Douglas Waples representing an "obvious pioneering feat" or setting an "indispensable precedent."

The entries are listed alphabetically by author and divided into three broad subject categories: (1) Communication, (2) Book-selling, and (3) Library. Each of these categories has the two subdivisions: (1) Theory and (2) Empirical observations. Because the wide variety of subjects covered do not all fit neatly into these categories, the organization seems a bit contrived; but the subject index and index of compilers, authors, and persons mentioned in titles and annotations alleviate this shortcoming to a certain degree. The subject index, however, is a rather unwieldy mixture of sub-
ject terms (in German), corporations, and locations.

For the research library this bibliography is a must because of its foreign coverage of the topic. The patron who reads only English will encounter difficulty in using this listing, but with patience he can sort out the 347 English titles. Since the cost is high and since the book would be supplementary rather than basic to many library collections, librarians will want to consider their particular situation carefully before ordering this bibliography.—Margaret Eide, Social Sciences Librarian, Eastern Michigan University Library.


The bibliography covers English language periodicals (United States, Canada, Great Britain, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand) from 1822 to August 1969. It is organized "alphabetically by journal and chronologically under each journal. . . . When known, both the title and the author of the article are given, followed by the number of illustrations in parenthesis, volume, and/or issue number, page, and date." (Introduction)

Previously published English language bibliographies are listed preceding the 414 indexed periodicals. These vary from general: Harper, Time Magazine; to specialized professional: Dental Research, Journal of Production Managers; and hobby magazines: Handicraft, Heraldic Journal. Art, history, and library periodicals are, of course, heavily represented. The largest number of citations, 1938 titles, out of the total of 5,445, come from the Journal of the Ex Libris Society.

The brief annotations which follow each title are informative, crisp, and often include direct quotations. A 1920 quote under the entry "Danish Bookplates" tells us that the "Plates are almost always sincere, very rarely extravagant, and hardly ever in bad taste."

The illustrations, although contemporary and primarily from members of the American Society of Bookplate Collectors and Designers (note sequence), represent all major styles. The plate of Clare Ryan Talbot, author of the enthusiastic preface, shows the earliest extant bookplate of a fifteenth century German monk in its center. Norman Strouse, the well-known book collector is represented with a Rococo style plate, and Rockwell Kent designed a brooding landscape for Earl H. Gibson.

Already a quick glance at this bibliography reveals that the scope of this subject goes beyond the interest in bookplate collections. Anybody studying symbolism and allegory, or the development of taste in Western Civilization, will find a wealth of material. The index entries include: Baskin and Dürer; Darwin and Einstein; Chemistry and Zoology, as well as practical subjects like repairing, buying, and selling of bookplates. References under Celebrated Women, Cultured Women, Colonial Dames, DAR, Ladies Bookplates and Women, include interesting references for those interested in Women's Liberation.

The custom of identifying books with printed labels or Ex Libris (a term introduced in seventeenth century France) developed in Germany shortly after the introduction of printing. Beginning with simple woodcuts, the engraving and etching of elaborate subjects soon became a popular art.

How bookplates can be used for ideological purposes is signified by the action in 1966 of the Cultural Council of the German Democratic Republic. Artists were invited to participate in a competition for Ex Libris design, and public libraries were asked to enhance their books with these creative plates. Ex libris, in the words of the council were given, "a new, significant function. Books available to the public must have the same identification as those of wealthy collectors, we must avoid the threat of a dead end street of art for collectors only."

This book then, is much more than a bibliography for collectors. It is a well edited and compact source book in cultural and social history. In view of its merits the imperfections are so insignificant that I hesitate to give examples. There are some misspellings and—as usual—in foreign words: Volkswagen appears also as Volkswagon, Willibald Prickheimer is called Billibald. The reference under "Packet of Sherlockian Bookplates" might be included under
"Holmes, Sherlock." The title page subtitle reads "Selective Bibliography," the subtitle on the cover "Selected Bibliography."

In the opinion of this reviewer, this volume should be in the reference collection of all academic, art, and historical libraries, as well as in public and school libraries who can afford the purchase.—Antje B. Lemke, School of Library Science, Syracuse University.

**OTHER BOOKS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS**


Chisholm, Margaret E. Media Indexes and Review Sources. College Park, Maryland: School of Library and Information Services, University of Maryland, 1972. 84p. Available from: Student Supply Store. $4.75. (72-89575).


The following abstracts are based on those prepared by the Clearinghouse for Library and Information Sciences of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC/CLIS), American Society for Information Science, 1140 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Suite 804, Washington, DC 20036.

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Planning Aids for the University Library Director. By Duane Webster. Association of Research Libraries (ARL), Washington, D.C. December 1971. 29p. (ED 061 949, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

The planning program described here focuses on the value of the planning process itself, and emphasizes that planning done by groups offers greater flexibility, creativity, and information than can be provided by a single individual. At the same time, the program stresses the importance of the planning activity as a central library function. The proposed organizational structure and managerial approaches integrate the input of the several groups with the efforts of individual administrators to develop a productive planning process. This process includes: the formal organization (the library director, the planning-budgeting officer, and unit heads); the seven steps of a planning program; and staff involvement through a senior planning board, a planning task force and program advisory groups.

The steps of the planning program are: (1) Formulation of objectives that can be used to guide future library operations, (2) Assessment of requirements for change, (3) Development of unit plans and alternative courses of action, (4) Determination of required resources for proposed courses of action, (5) Evaluation and recommendation of proposed courses of action, (6) The installation and monitoring of programs, and (7) Review and updating of plans.


The technology of communications and data processing that has had a profound impact on American society generally in recent decades promises to have powerful influences on higher education as well. What these influences may be and what steps should be taken to assure that the benefits of instructional technology will be realized in an orderly and reasonably prompt manner are the concerns of this report. The utilization of technology for administrative and research tasks in higher learning is acknowledged but the emphasis is on its role in instruction. This report also makes a distinction between instruction that is designed for a formal teaching-learning situation, and the more general information that may result from informal exposure to information and ideas. Thus, this report is only incidentally concerned with the informal educational potentials of television, while it is very much concerned with the uses of television for instruction. Particular emphasis is given to the direction of new effort that is required if the full advantages of technology in higher education are to be realized. The findings and recommendations are a blend of suggestions and practice which are considered to have the greatest merit as part of a coherent policy.

In a questionnaire survey of all libraries in New York state and subscription agents used by them, it was determined that libraries appear to know very little about what their subscription agents can be expected to do for them. The information collected in the survey is presented in tabular form and by type of library. The names and addresses of the subscription agents are presented with a description of types of materials, services rendered, business data (fees), and ratings by the libraries. The following recommendations are made: (1) that agents develop more efficient ways of claiming missing issues, (2) improvement of internal organization of the agencies, (3) development of more efficient handling of supplemental charges, (4) enhance cooperation between publishers and agents, and (5) that regular personal contact be maintained between libraries and their subscription agents.

Information Networks: Definitions and Message Transfer Models. By Richard E. Nance and others. Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas, July 1971. 28p. (ED 060 862, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

A mathematical definition of an information network is constructed with the purpose of developing a theory useful in answering practical questions concerning information transfer. An information network includes: (1) users, (2) information resources, (3) information centers, and (4) the total information transfer structure linking (1), (2), and (3). Emphasis is placed on the message transfer structure, as distinguished from the document transfer structure, to identify some basic network configurations. Any message transfer structure is shown in graph theory concepts to be either isographic or nonisographic. Among the isographic structures, the cyclic and decentralized networks are defined. The strictly hierarchial network is also defined, and the two-regular network, reflected in the ARPA design, is identified. Measures of network structure, in particular the accessibility and flexibility in message transfer, are developed. These measures for the basic structures are used to characterize more general structures. While some comparisons of message transfer structures can be made, development of more comprehensive measures is a necessity.


This report identifies steps that might be taken by organizations, individual libraries, and libraries acting collectively to work towards resolution of the many problems that create the difficult and complex situation facing research libraries, brought on by the physical deterioration of books and journals. An attempt is made to clarify the nature of the preservation problem and to assess progress made in recent years. A number of specific recommendations for action are made. In the area of research into the causes of paper deterioration and remedial techniques, a method of generating broader participation is suggested. An analytical investigation of the merits of alternate methods of text preservation is also proposed. Additional needs in the area of education and training are identified, and the importance of specific preservation activity by individual libraries is underscored. The fundamental requirement that preservation of library materials be seen as an inseparable part of the broader objective of extending access to recorded information is affirmed. Approaches to developing a capability for collective action are advanced, and measures to be taken in such areas as storage standards, identification and recording of preservation copies, and preservation priorities are suggested.

This research is a study of demands for books in library circulation systems. Demand data for random samples of books were collected and fitted to various standard distributions. The numbers of demands for collections of books are shown to be Negative Binomially distributed. As is shown, this implies that the numbers of demands for individual books in the collection are Poisson distributed and that the demand rate varies from book to book according to a Gamma distribution. Using these facts and assuming exponentially distributed loan intervals, a model is developed which will predict the availability and unavailability of a book in a library. The practicality of using the model is demonstrated.


Tables and analysis of compensation figures for academic librarians during the 1970-71 academic year are presented. The objectives of this survey were: to investigate the staff structure and compensation levels of professional librarians in college and university libraries; to explore some relatively new routes for possible advancement—such as the positions of bibliographer, collection builder, curator and other specialists; and to provide the basis for continued study of salary studies if such action seemed warranted. The rates of salary increase obtained by librarians from 1969/70 to 1970/71 appear to be about equal to or somewhat lower than those reported for a comparably paid faculty. The small number of librarians in highly paid positions offers little attraction to competent individuals not interested in an administrative career. Suggestions for ways of upgrading the profession include: (1) development of a new administrative trainee track to provide instruction in techniques needed for future libraries, (2) creation of a specialist classification outside the administrative hierarchy, and (3) upgrading the professional image.


This report summarizes the detailed case study of the organization and staffing of the research libraries of Columbia University. The study examines present patterns and recommends how the resources of thirty-five operating libraries ought better be arranged and deployed to fulfill their important roles. As a case study, the conclusions and recommendations are specifically geared to Columbia's unique requirements; certainly, no other university would completely profit from the wholesale adoption of the plan proposed for Columbia. The study may, however, be of general interest to those concerned with possible approaches to organizing for a research library's multifaceted roles in a major urban university. In particular, it is believed that the recommended plan will better accommodate the widening range of user needs and increasing sophistication of the faculty and student groups served. It should strengthen processes of collection development by bringing acquisition decision making closer to academic planning as well as help users gain more effective access to the constantly increasing volume and changing form of information resources available. The study also discusses the need to develop staff capabilities in library areas which can benefit from application of specialized talents and new technology.


A study of the applications of computer to libraries and information systems carried
out with the support of the Council on Library Resources is reported. The report presents recommendations derived from the synthesis of facts, views, and opinions obtained from sources such as: visits to selected projects and installations, published and private information, and discussions with individuals. In addition to the observations and recommendations, the report directs attention to the initial two findings which point out: (1) the primary bar to development of national level computer-based library and information systems is no longer basically a technology feasibility problem. Rather it is the combination of complex institutional and organizational human-related problems and the inadequate economic/value system associated with these activities; and (2) the quantitative contribution of information to productivity or effectiveness of industry, government, and education is unknown; therefore, the construction of value/cost analysis is severely hampered.


The purpose of this study was to examine the use made of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) products and services by members of the educational community, and in this context to evaluate the extent to which the ERIC system is achieving its objectives of guaranteeing ready access to the nation's current significant literature in the field of education. The report is prepared in four volumes and a summary volume. This, the summary volume, contains the introduction and summary of findings and recommendations. The findings presented in the summary are designed to call attention to conditions, trends, and issues concerning use and user reactions to ERIC products and services. The purpose is to provide a concise, analytical basis on which to evaluate the extent to which ERIC has met its goals, and to identify deficiencies and weaknesses. The recommendations presented in Part II of Chapter 2 propose needed improvements and courses of action to correct deficiencies identified by this study.
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Standard abbreviations for names of organizations, ALA, ACRL, LC, etc., are alphabetized as if spelled out. Other abbreviations:

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- college
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- necrology
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- review(er)
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