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Three years ago ACONDA (and later, ANACONDA) began to review current organizational objectives in order to establish new directions for the American Library Association. The interim has produced much professional soul-searching, and several high-priority programs were recommended: intellectual freedom, recruitment of ethnic minorities, improved membership communications, and a study of the current structure of ALA. Regrettably, there has been little visible progress in implementing any recommendation. Such inaction has prompted some members to propose censuring COPES and the Executive Board.

But lashing out at COPES or the Executive Board will not produce the needed changes, because neither body is the real culprit. The structure of ALA is the culprit. For we are members of an organization which is structured as a monolith, but we the members embrace a broad spectrum of professional interests and activities. To succeed, the structure must respond to the diversity. Academic librarians, for example, place great stress on status; children’s librarians are interested in the Newbery-Caldecott Award. What significance has the Newbery-Caldecott Award for academic librarianship? Nevertheless, our organization is expected to accommodate both interests.

While members can agree on ACONDA’s broad principles of intellectual freedom or minorities’ recruitment, we frequently bog down over specific priorities. It is unreal to suggest that each division of ALA be permitted to pursue its pet priorities: limited dollar resources prohibit such an ideal. Divisions do share resources (e.g., staff working for more than one division or on more than one program) but multiple responsibilities dilute the effectiveness of all activities. Result: almost no one is satisfied. Result: we are experiencing an almost irreconcilable clash of organizational objectives. Conclusion: can our highly structured organization respond to the diversity of its divisions and still remain a viable organization? Probably not.

The splintering of the structure is already quite visible. At the 1972 Midwinter Meeting, ALTA presented a request to the Executive Board to permit it to retain part of its own dues, and to act independently of ALA in matters on which the division was not in agreement with official ALA policy and pronouncements. Acceptance of ALTA’s request would be tantamount to granting the division federated status.

Further, two additional round tables were authorized. The growing
interest in round tables reflects the desire for greater freedom of action. And since round tables can retain their own money and control their own budgets, it is easier for these units to establish their own priorities and to bypass the usual ALA constraints. The possibilities are open: special-purpose round tables could even replace divisions. A de facto federated association would thereby exist.

The conclusion is inescapable: we must find a way to release the divisions from their organizational straitjackets so that they can pursue their own goals. Otherwise, the clash of objectives will only intensify the stridency of separatism.

R. M. Dougherty
Black studies is an educative program aimed toward eliminating the distortions and biases of traditional curricular programs. Though sometimes revolutionary, it strives to instill in black people a sense of identity, unity, and group dignity, and boldly rejects the host of standards traditionally dictated by white Americans. For the white student it offers an understanding of the black experience, and for all students it aspires to widen the channels of communication and broaden understanding among individuals of all races. The creation of these programs has variously affected the development of collections in academic libraries. It is doubtful that black studies programs will be effective agents of change until anxieties level off and more realistic approaches to the problem of developing academic libraries and their collections are formulated.

The rapidly growing recognition of black studies has been a noteworthy development in American education during the past few years. As years go by and we attempt to put the history of American education into perspective, we will undoubtedly view the decade of the 1960s as one in which issues of “integration, busing, nonviolence, violence, freedom now, law and order, black power, community control, white racism, institutional racism, separatism, black nationalism, revolution, and black studies” ran rampant.¹

But what are black studies? What are Afro-American, or Negro studies? Their role, as perceived by many advocates of black studies programs, is to counteract the fundamentally white studies programs to which all American students have been subjected throughout their educational careers. The observation is inescapable that American educational philosophy has long reinforced a rather one-sided, distorted view of American historical and cultural development. Consider for a moment the multitude of history courses which have ignored the fact that slavery once existed in such states as Connecticut, or that many American slaves actively rebelled against their servitude. Or consider the omission of Phillis Wheatley’s poetry in standard American literature texts. While both black and white students have encountered Marx in their philosophy courses, they have not been exposed to W. E. B. DuBois. The inconsistencies are irrefutable.

Stated succinctly, black studies is a curricular program aiming to assess the extent of the black man’s involvement in the American cultural experience. It strives to instill in black people a sense of identity, unity, and group dignity, and boldly rejects the host of standards traditionally dictated by white Americans.

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governing fashion, hair styles, skin coloring, and speech patterns. It is not only blacks, however, who have been deprived of an accurate portrayal of the black man. White Americans have also been provided little basis for understanding black culture; biased textbooks and cultural indoctrination have perpetuated a distorted perception of American cultural heritage among both blacks and whites.

"Black Studies" is in essence an educational program. It must admit to ideological indoctrination, but only to the extent that it attempts to eliminate the distortions and voids traditionally characteristic of curricular programs. Black studies aims to prepare blacks to participate more fully in academic and cultural activities. It provides both black and white students with the knowledge and insight requisite to mitigating the poverty and racial tension so devastating to the black ghetto dweller. It aims to develop a sense of identity and dignity among blacks, and for white people who are willing to relinquish their traditional dogmas, it offers a healthier and more sensitive approach to life. Ultimately, black studies aspires to widen the channels of communication and broaden understanding among individuals of all races.

"Afro-American Studies" is but a rose by another name. It is a term frequently used by individuals who, for reasons of their own choosing, object to using the word "black" in this racial context. Others interpret the term "Afro-American" in a much broader sense, intimating that black heritage is both African and American.

"Negro Studies" is now infrequently used, if indeed used at all. Using the term "Negro" here just does not do what needs to be done. It reflects a conservative way of thinking, and seems to suggest a quality of compatibility vis-à-vis the Establishment. Moreover, it tends to be devoid of the attitudes and seriousness of intent needed to deal adequately with the injustices and distortions levied against black people. Above all, it implies rejection of the heated demands of the black students who are supporting the black studies movement so conscientiously. The term "Negro Studies" merely suggests the type of middle-class black Sambos who would be produced from such a program.

Unlike Topsy, black studies did not just grow. Nor did it originate in any orderly, systematic manner. The black studies programs initially created in some institutions resulted directly from pressure exerted by black student groups. Pressure came in the form of "non-negotiable demands." Such demands, however, are not peculiar to black students. Many young people who have become fed up with the status quo, the Establishment, and the hypocrisy of the day resorted to expressing their disenchantment via "non-negotiable demands," strikes, destruction, obstruction, and frequently through violence. Although the motivating forces behind these acts will not be treated here, it must be pointed out that the reactions of all those who have been involved in these activities, whether students, faculty, or outside agitators, have played a part in encouraging or perpetuating this behavior.

Black studies is not new. Even during the pre-Civil Rights Bill era, individuals who were educated in the historically black institutions, located primarily in southern states, were introduced to some form of black studies. Courses in what was then called "Negro History" have been offered at these institutions for about as long as the institutions have existed. In some of these schools, this course was even a requirement for graduation. In those elementary and high schools where blacks were segregated from whites, and where forward-thinking black instructors were employed, black studies was incorporated into courses in literature and history, albeit not identifiable as such. What is new, however, is the great thrust toward black studies.
It was not until the Black Power movement of the late 1960s gained attention that American educational institutions gave any serious consideration to black studies programs. Even after the passage of the Civil Rights Bill in 1954, there was no widespread effort to reform curricular programs or initiate programs with a black emphasis until the fears of burnings, rioting, and looting were felt on college campuses. Finally, in the wake of the new black studies boom, institutions began at long last to assume their educational responsibilities toward black students. In 1968, thirty-three institutions offered black studies in Illinois; by 1969, that number had risen to sixty-five.²

Black studies programs at Cornell, Harvard, Yale, and San Francisco State are frequently cited among the outstanding black studies programs in the nation. Two years ago, educational consultant Joseph Colemen identified twenty-three colleges which planned to offer bachelor degrees in black studies by the fall of 1970. In 1969, the American Council on Education reported that approximately 480 colleges and universities were planning or examining black studies programs.³

A proliferation of black studies programs is evident throughout the country. These programs were established to rid the world of the “invisible man” concept, as C. Vann Woodward terms it.⁴ Rather than continue to ignore the black man and deprive him of identity, the programs strive to affirm his rightful place in history. They recognize the two-dimensional man who DuBois discusses in The Souls of Black Folk. The black man senses his duality; he is “an American, and a Negro; two souls, two thoughts, two unreconciled strivings; two warring ideals in one dark body....”⁵ Traditional white studies programs have consistently prevented the black man from feeling either American or Negro. He has been unable to study himself, due partly to the fact that he has not been recognized in history, literature, or the arts. His tragedy has been, as DuBois once put it, his sense of double-consciousness—a sense of always looking at himself through the eyes of others, if indeed looking at himself at all.

Three distinct points of view can be identified among advocates of black studies programs.

**SEPARATIST APPROACH**

The first point of view was represented at Antioch College, where an all-Negro black studies institute was recently established. Like many other black studies programs, this institute originated via “nonnegotiable demands” to establish a program and keep it black. The program aimed to incorporate ideas espoused by Nathan Hare, then at San Francisco State; according to Hare, the objective of a black studies program is “... to deal with the problems of the society which produced and perpetuates the predicament of blacks.”⁶ Many black students would like to see autonomous black studies programs, i.e., programs administered, taught, and attended uniquely by blacks. Proponents of such a program feel that white instructors are incapable of fully understanding black problems and the black experience. Unlike these proponents, however, Nathan Hare does not believe that whites should be excluded. He merely insists that blacks be taught to deal with society.

The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare sanctioned, in effect, a “separate but equal” doctrine when it permitted Antioch to operate an all-Negro black studies institute. The situation at Antioch is perhaps best expressed in Kenneth B. Clark’s letter of resignation from the Board of Directors of Antioch College. Clark, a noted black psychologist and author, expressed strong opposition to the college’s decision to participate in a form of racial exclusion, even though it was a mere reversal of
the racial exclusion that blacks have known traditionally:

To exclude someone of one race—or admit that it would be appropriate to do so—on the grounds that his background or experience are irrelevant, that they render him unable to achieve is precisely what white segregationists have been doing to blacks for centuries. Yet this seems to be the burden of rationalization at Antioch for a black separatist policy. Yet, it is whites who need a Black Studies program most of all.

The white liberal for his part who concedes black separatism so hastily and benevolently must look to his own reasons, not the least of them perhaps an exquisite relief. To encourage or endorse a separate black program not academically equivalent to the college curriculum generally, indeed to endorse any such program, is to reinforce the Negro's inability to compete with whites for the real power of the real world. It is no excuse to justify the deed by citing the demand....

I believe that above all under times of tension, stress, and pressures to conform to the shouting demands of the populace, colleges must have the courage to stand firmly for the rule of reason and for those principles and values considered indispensable to serious education. I do not believe that Antioch, in acceding to the demands for a separate facility for its Negro students, has showed this type of courage. I do not believe that Antioch, in permitting some of the more hostile Negro students to coerce and intimidate other Negroes and whites by quashing vocal dissent, has showed the courage necessary to maintain that type of academic climate which permits man that freedom of inquiry, freedom of thought, and freedom of dissent which are essential to the life of the intellect.

INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH

One advocate of the second point of view regarding the organization of black studies programs is Martin Kilson. Kilson, a professor of government at Harvard, was the only black member of the Harvard Faculty Committee on African and Afro-American Studies which prepared a report analyzing the feasibility of introducing an undergraduate major in Afro-American studies at Harvard. The viewpoint espoused by Kilson may well be the one most widely accepted among proponents of black studies programs. Kilson maintains that militant advocates of black studies programs who refute the essentially interdisciplinary nature of black studies have little to contribute to the formal organization of these programs. He suggests that the student of black studies first ground himself in related disciplines such as history, economics, political science, and sociology.

This point of view argues that the most effective black studies programs are those which require the prospective major to fulfill academic requirements in the established disciplines and simultaneously enroll in black studies courses. If indeed black studies aims to expand the black man's cultural experience, to approach it as an isolated curriculum is self-defeating.

At Harvard, the Afro-American studies program initially included eight courses. These were: "Africa and World Politics," "Blacks in Labor and Politics," "Black Civilization," "A Philosophy and Critique of the Black Revolution," "Poetry of the American Negro," "Legal Rights and Remedies," "The Black Community of Boston," and "African and West Indian Literature." The W. E. B. DuBois Institute for Afro-American Research was later established at Harvard. The director of the Afro-American studies program asserted that the principal problem relating to race relations and the black community can be traced to the attitudes of whites toward blacks. He shared Nathan Hare's conviction that Afro-American courses are as relevant to whites as they are to blacks. The Harvard program is interdisciplinary, and even incorporates fieldwork in black neighborhoods.

Analysis of the black studies curricula at Berkeley reveals that courses in anthropology include "Survey of African An-

Courses offered through the School of Music include “Music and the Black Man,” “Contemporary Afro-American Music,” and “History of African Influence on Western Music.” “Black Thought in the 20th Century” is offered in philosophy, while “Political Problems of Black Americans” and “The American Government—Black Perspective” are offered in political science. Students of psychology may enroll in such courses as “Psychology of Racism” and “Black Economic and Social Psychology.” Courses in social welfare include “Social Welfare Legislation” and “Policy from the Black Perspective.” Finally, courses in sociology include “Sociology of the Black Family,” “Black Social Movements,” “Black Social Institutions,” and “Urbanization of Black People.”

Courses similar to those taught at Harvard and Berkeley are offered in black studies programs at other institutions. Some highly specialized courses have raised the eyebrows of individuals who question the validity or wisdom of establishing courses which accommodate the whims of angry students. Courses in “Soul Food Cooking,” prevalent in a number of black studies programs, are frequently cited as being too overtly reconciliatory.

INTEGRATED STUDIES APPROACH

The third and final point of view argues that a separate black studies program, as such, should not be established in the first place. Proponents agree in part with those who favor the interdisciplinary approach, but they contend that it is our collective responsibility to shatter the prevailing illusion that the black man has made no appreciable contribution toward the shaping of human destiny. It is of utmost importance that each man learns to view himself within the context of his own environment. The “invisible man” approach is too shallow and ambiguous to validate the account of any people’s history.

Dr. Stephen J. Wright, former president of Fisk University, has examined some of the problems which arise when black studies programs are established on a crash basis. He found that such programs tend to foster nonexperts, a result he attributes partially to the paucity of teachers who are qualified to meet the needs of black studies programs.

Black studies programs which are conceived in panic or frustration will not progress far beyond infancy. American higher education cannot placate the impassioned hopes and pleas of idealists at the expense of sound educational and intellectual objectivity. Justification for an integrated studies program is often rooted in the belief that black history and literature cannot be perceived as meaningful unless they are presented in a cosmopolitan context. In this regard, Roy Wilkins cautions against what he terms “racial breastbeating.” Wilkins contends that his generation discovered ways to learn about the black man and his past long before black studies curricula were popularized.

The Anglo-Saxon orientation toward higher education must be replaced by a more socially conscious one. Some individuals believe that black studies, as well as all other curricula, should be incor-
porated into the study of all peoples and all nations—i.e., a fully integrated, interdisciplinary program. These individuals contend that autonomous black studies programs are simply not necessary.

Whichever viewpoint one takes is a matter of individual prerogative. What remains indisputable, however, is the present surge of interest in promoting black studies programs. The Ford Foundation and the National Endowment for the Humanities have jointly sponsored summer and year-long institutes to teach faculty members to teach courses in this field. These institutes were designed to provide in-depth coverage of black history, art, and literature, as well as a general survey of the field of black studies.

Black institutions are meeting the demands for black studies by adopting one of the types of programs already described, or by incorporating the concept of the Black University movement into the development of future trends and directions. While this movement may have been misunderstood, misinterpreted, and misguided by many educators and administrators, it has in varying degrees affected every one of the historically black institutions. Vincent Harding, director of the Institute for the Black World in Atlanta, argues that the call for a black university has nothing to do with separation or integration. He justifies the establishment of the black university as follows:

1. The black university seeks to break the long-established familiar pattern of white domination and control over black higher education.
2. It marks a clear break with the basic idea that black students should be prepared to live in a world defined and controlled by whites.
3. The black university and its students are guided essentially by the central purpose of service to the black community on every technical and personal level possible,
4. It is a movement to define education as being unashamedly political, and ties black higher education to the struggles of African peoples everywhere.
5. It is the creation of new institutions and new modes of thought on behalf of a new humanity.
6. It is a place where black people demand of each other more disciplined commitment to intellectual and physical work than ever before.
7. It calls into question white universities and challenges their adequacy and response to the most urgent needs of modern society. Black institutions are no longer needed as poorer, carbon copies of white institutions, for we now have access to the white original models where some token integration exists.10

Dr. Harding asserts that the concept of a black university is not entirely new. W. E. B. DuBois, John Hope, and Marcus Garvey are a few of the outstanding black personalities who “caught the vision” early. These men pioneered and advanced this concept in their writings and actions.

Stephen Henderson suggests that the black university should offer experiences of blackness—not indoctrination into blackness but saturation of the black experience. Simply stated, the student will absorb as much of this experience as he can, or as much as he needs to find his identity. Henderson maintains that saturation is realized only when the black man “understands, accepts, utilizes and celebrates his blackness.” Saturation, he believes, is a condition, a goal, a mechanism, or process for reaching a goal, and a strategy for reaching a condition. The ultimate product of this type of saturation is black liberation.11

What, then, is the future of black studies? It is impossible to predict where black studies will take us, for there is no common blueprint for developing and maintaining black studies programs.
These programs tend to be tailored more or less to the taste of those who create them, and sometimes by those who demand them. Some effort, however, is being exerted to coordinate programs through institutes and conferences. Yet even if there existed a common blueprint for developing and maintaining black studies programs, who could predict their future course?

There are, however, a number of predictions which can be made with certainty:

1. The new black awareness and black experience which have been fostered to some extent by black studies programs will continue.
2. History, literature, the arts, and other curricular programs in our universities, whether offered as separate black studies programs or not, will continue to include some study of the black man. The black man, as an “invisible man,” will disappear.
3. For more years than we care to admit, the black man will continue to be two-dimensional, as DuBois perceived him. He will continue to feel his twoness, his American and Negro identities. One function of black studies programs and black universities will be to rid the black man of these conflicting feelings while simultaneously educating white Americans to accept black people more fully.
4. The integration of black studies curricula into other disciplines will become more extensive. Black studies curricula will not become the ebony tower that some militants advocate.
5. The replacement of white studies, or Anglo-Saxon studies, by studies geared more to the needs of all people will gradually take place. Through exposure to a new integrated studies curriculum, both black and white students will become more cognizant and appreciative of races other than their own.
6. The inequities that exist in our educational system have long endured, and they will continue to filter through our educational system until all men unite in an effort to eliminate them. Black studies programs are merely a first step in the right direction—the real task lies in the hands of those who shape our educational system.

**Impact of Black Studies Programs on the Academic Library**

Now that we have defined black studies, explored their patterns of development, and offered some predictions regarding the future of these programs, we can proceed to assess the impact of these programs on the academic library.

By effectuating certain modifications in general collections, special collections, services, programs, and staff, black studies programs have already influenced the development of academic libraries. Even so, the real impact of these new programs has yet to be felt. It is doubtful that black studies programs will be effective agents of change until anxieties level off and more realistic approaches to the problem of developing academic libraries and their collections are formulated. Until that time, however, at least ten different areas can be identified in which black studies programs have affected the academic library:

1. Token collections of black literature have long been housed in certain white as well as in traditionally black institutions. As the black studies boom gained momentum, however, many academic libraries were caught napping. While new efforts were made to assemble collections of materials revealing the black experience, they were usually motivated by a desire to pacify demanding students. Although many of these instant collections
mushroomed, too little thought and planning went into them to increase their stature to any significant degree.

2. Other libraries have developed special collections of black literature which do not reflect the instant collection syndrome. These collections were organized by culling the shelves for black-related materials and adding to these newer titles available on the book market. Such collections were frequently assembled in order to serve more fully the requirements of a well-defined, interdisciplinary black studies program. Communities in which little or no black literature is available to the public have occasionally called upon the academic library to establish a collection as a community service.

3. An impoverished assemblage of black studies materials is developing in some academic libraries. Many of these materials, whether they are available in a special collection or not, are gathered by persons who know nothing about black literature or black authors. Many of these individuals resort to combing catalogs of publishers and reprint dealers, selecting everything listed under the heading of "Black Studies" or with the word "black" in its title. While sizeable amounts of money are invested in such efforts, the resulting collections are frequently as shabby as the manner in which they are assembled. Like southern politicians, many librarians may be trying too hard to "do the right thing." They need to reduce their pace and seek to develop their collections in an orderly and systematic manner; they must be careful to select prudently from as many subject areas as possible, insuring that many viewpoints are represented in the materials they gather.

4. There has been a clarion call for consultants in black literature. Many libraries are conscious of the inadequacies of their black studies collections, and of their limited knowledge of black literature and black experience. Many librarians are anxious to develop good collections and supplement their Anglo-Saxon collections with materials which reveal more completely the true American heritage. To guard against building an instant or mediocre black studies collection, these librarians consult experts in the field before making their selections.

5. Some librarians unfamiliar with black bibliography, literature, and history are beginning to take advantage of black studies programs by enrolling in courses which introduce them to black literature. Unfortunately, however, too few librarians are taking advantage of this opportunity.

6. Many libraries, particularly learning resources centers, are beginning to place greater emphasis on black media. As publishers and agencies produce materials in an ever-increasing variety of formats, libraries are keeping pace by collecting and building resources which incorporate the sights and sounds of black people. Recordings of black poets reading their works, slides of primitive African art, films of performing black actors and actresses, and documentaries telling the story of the black experience are all becoming a part of black studies resources in libraries.

7. Much energy is currently being channeled into the collection of original research materials in order to preserve the black heritage.
Black libraries are making a special effort to expand and preserve their archives, which are rich and invaluable sources of information. Moreover, they are attempting to gather the uncollected papers and works of black people which up until now have been gathering dust in attics and basements throughout the country. Once these materials are located, collected, and processed, scholars will have access to a wealth of information which is conspicuously absent today.

8. In addition to enabling libraries to establish a well-rounded, non-racially biased collection of black materials, black studies has helped strengthen the collections already in existence at such institutions as Howard, Fisk, Atlanta, Hampton, Tuskegee, Harvard, UCLA, and the Schomburg Collection of the New York Public Library. For many years, these collections provided the primary and secondary research materials which scholars used to produce the materials which many libraries are collecting today.

9. Black studies programs have called for greater library cooperation in providing materials needed to support the programs. For example, libraries at Fisk, Atlanta, and Oberlin have made parts of their collections available to other libraries through reprint programs and/or microform projects. Other libraries, including those at Bennett, Greensboro, and Guilford colleges in North Carolina, have formed consortia as a means of increasing the availability of collections and resources. By making its own specialized black studies collection available to other member libraries, one library can effectively eliminate the necessity for the others to collect in that area.

10. The greater utilization of black collections on the part of students, faculty, and researchers is perhaps the most obvious effect that black studies has had on the academic library. Moreover, the variety of materials needed to support the new curriculum are in greater demand throughout the academic community.

**Summary**

We have analyzed the relationship between black studies programs and academic libraries, and defined these programs as endeavors to put the black man into proper historical perspective. Black studies provides training in significant fields of intellectual inquiry. It rejects the dogmas which have traditionally disregarded the black experience, and favors an approach to life which requires greater interracial understanding and communication.

We have identified several patterns of development in black studies programs: the separate program for black students only; the separate program for all students, requiring proficiency in established disciplines; the fully integrated program offered as a part of the regular curriculum; and the black university concept, which is obviously confined to the black academic institution.

It will be possible to assess more fully the impact of this new curricular program on the academic institution once the academic community assumes its responsibility to all people with deliberation, dedication, and wisdom. While many libraries have made great strides in building collections to support black studies, others, to paraphrase Langston Hughes, are merely deferring their dreams. We do not yet know what happens to a dream deferred, but it is clear that we dare not allow it to “dry up like a raisin in the sun.” It is our
responsibility as educators and librarians to dispel the “invisible man” concept by developing programs and resources which meet the needs of all Americans.

REFERENCES

ROBERT P. HARO

Change in Academic Libraries

Never noted for their willingness to accept innovative suggestions and implement change from outside sources, academic libraries have remained institutions in which changes in service policies and programs originate from internal sources only. In order to shift to an orientation that seeks to develop new and expanding service programs, the establishment of research groups could do much to improve both the services offered by a library and its role in the academic community. While certain constraints always limit modification or the initiation of services, a properly constituted research group could do much to generate a climate for change, provide feedback to the library, and successfully continue to develop new and more effective library and information services.

Academic libraries attempting to accommodate change, aside from selecting a new chief librarian, have employed two basic strategies. The first is to establish a committee within the library organizational structure, imbue it with the necessary legitimacy, provide it with needed resources (mainly in-house talent), and attempt to integrate its activities into the normal operation of the library. Such groups vary in composition and structure. They may include specially qualified staff members operating as upper-level administrators or lower-level beginning staff.

The second basic strategy is to bring outsiders into the library organization and employ them as consultants. This alternative can also range from a serious and concerned effort to improve existing problems to an elaborate and sometimes expensive ploy. While there are many mixed strategies, requiring various combinations of external and internal assistance, most academic libraries utilize one or the other or a combination of the previously mentioned strategies.¹

The experience libraries have had with specially constituted in-house groups has varied greatly. Because most academic libraries are reactive support service institutions, several barriers which can impede successful change and innovation must be overcome.² These barriers include the bureaucratic phenomena of functional specialization, a traditional professional-managerial orientation which renders nonadministrative or nonmanagerial librarians as secondary citizens, a lack of awareness or training in administration and management by middle- and upper-level library administrators, and a lack of staff participation in the decision-making process. When closely examined, the bulk of many academic librarians' work is what administrative theorists might classify as "organizational maintenance" work.³

Even though some of these investiga-
tory or planning groups have tried to generate innovative change, the vast majority still find themselves captured and co-opted by the system, or reduced to advisory sounding boards. The difficulty was clearly stated by Robert Merton when he observed that the bureaucratic intellectual “who must permit the policy-maker to define the scope of his research problem is implicitly lending his skills and knowledge to the preservation of a particular institutional arrangement.”

Employing consultants to survey a problem or broad area of difficulty and to present findings or recommendations is a traditional method of reducing organizational barriers within academic libraries for the consideration of original alternatives. Various bureaucracies, especially municipalities, have popularized such an approach. Lack of adequate financial resources, of locally available talent, and a failure to acknowledge persistent problems have provided the primary impetus to this approach. Since most academic libraries cannot afford to fund a permanent planning or research group, the consultant is an attractive alternative.

When closely considered, the consultant approach is safer than doing nothing. Inaction, particularly if antagonists and critics inside or outside of the library perceive difficulties, can lead to review or investigations by faculty advisory committees, academic administrative boards of inquiry, etc.; the results of such investigation may provide critics with pertinent data which will catalyze radical change.

There are many ploys an academic library administrator can introduce to scuttle new ideas, however, especially in the use of consultants. One of the most popular methods is to recommend as a consultant a colleague who is the chief librarian at a large and prestigious academic library and who has a similar approach to the preservation of the traditional concept of library service, organization, and structure. Too often the chief librarian and this consultant are friends, and any recommendations that will be made can be expected to contain only minor suggestions for change or only those of an acceptable nature as perceived by the library. On the other hand, if a consultant is hired who is an unknown quantity to the library, a different strategy may be employed. Since a consultant must rely upon information to conduct his study, and as only the library possesses much of that information, the library administration if it desires can effectively reduce the impact of a consultant by cooperating with him on a selective basis only. When the consultant presents his conclusions and makes recommendations for change, the library administration simultaneously asks whether factor “x” was taken into account; when the consultant indicates that factor “x” was not cited in the set of provided data, the library administration may then produce additional information in question which may cast doubts about the validity of not only the conclusion but of the entire report.

This is but one of many situations that could describe, admittedly slightly in caricature, experience in the use of consultants to bring about change in academic libraries. This is not to say that consultant experience in academic libraries has been all bad; there are some examples of success.

THE RESEARCH GROUP APPROACH

Considering both the basic resistance to change of a library organization and the nature of changes which loom not far distant, it is imperative to pursue a strategy known as the participative management approach. My conviction that participation is a proper approach is strengthened by the fact that participation can and should be made meaningful. Therefore, the first step to be considered is the composition of a research group organized to study, recommend,
and seek the implementation of better library service policies and programs. Ideally, it should include representatives from academic teaching departments, a representative sample of managerial and nonmanagerial librarians, and where appropriate or feasible, student representatives. The research group should help define problem areas, specify areas of needed improvement, and increase relevance of the service programs of the library. In return, exposure of library members to the rigors of specifying objectives and service deficiencies will be beneficial to the library.

The research group should further the objectives of change and innovation in several ways. First, if it is to be successful and persuasive, it must develop a commitment within the group to pursue its investigations beyond the initial exploratory stages. However, once the service policy of the library is changed, or is sufficiently modified and operationally functional, the research group appears to facilitate the development of commitment to change.

Second, conversations and discussions within the research group should encompass all probable reactions to change, thereby insuring that typical reactions are easily accommodated in reports and recommendations. While recommendations may frequently be rejected because of simple, easily corrected objections, the research group can provide a forum for thoughtful interchange wherein all but substantial disagreements can be settled. In essence, the research group should provide opportunities for innumerable “dry-runs” of ideas and proposals. The questions posed by the librarian members of the group should provide a built-in screening process.

Finally, the research group should introduce a semiformal communication channel within the library and its organization structure. The normal communication channels of most academic libraries follow typical bureaucratic patterns, even though there are some well-developed informal channels. However, the research group could provide an even more effective medium for exchange within the academic library’s organizational structure. The director, the associate or assistant director, and the upper echelon library systems analyst should not, except in special cases, be full members of the committee. These individuals might, however, be acknowledged as ex officio members and be given the task of advising the research group and evaluating its work. Academic deans, heads of departments, or the director of research on campus should likewise be excluded from the group. Because of their campus positions, they could intimidate or easily monopolize the group. Hence, to insure wide participation and support, the library’s director should be convinced that he and his administrative staff should limit their roles to advisory and evaluative roles.

The Initial Approach

Once constituted, the research group should devote itself to uncovering potential areas for change and innovation. To be successful, a detailed understanding of the organization, its goals, and its needs is necessary. To accomplish this best, the research group should initiate a comprehensive interview program. Interviews should be conducted with staff of various ranks, assignments, and locations (e.g., branches outside of the main library). In addition, faculty members and key students should be identified and interviewed in order to survey library service programs peculiar to them.

These interviews should allow the research group to gain a detailed knowledge and understanding of both the basic operations and the existing service patterns of the library. During the interviews, explicit questions must be
asked to determine the areas in which members of various library departments may feel that beneficial change might be introduced. The probing should result in an extensive list of possible items of varying degrees of generality, importance, and feasibility. These items, along with items that may be generated independently by the researchers, can be reviewed and classified into categories of varying importance and level of generality. Broad areas might be classed as having substantial potential for improvement through the introduction of new service concepts or some form of technology. Because so many of the items will overlap, a detailed analysis of each would be inefficient and very probably too time consuming. Hence, a system of weighting items should be used to single out the areas with the greatest potential; a special study group from the research group could easily accomplish this ranking.

Even at this early stage, the library must be fully involved in this definition and search process. It is essential that the research group ask the proper questions. Furthermore, if change is to be implemented successfully, the library must be committed to the selection and testing process.

Creation of a workable relationship between the research group and the library administration might pose several problems. While there may be ample agreement as to the need for change, the responsibility for initiating, reviewing, and implementing change in academic libraries has traditionally rested with the chief librarian. A recent survey uncovered few change committees or task forces constituted to search out areas where change would improve either the organizational structure or service policies of academic libraries. The bureaucratic structure, traditional work roles, and the use of professional staff combine to make change difficult to implement in academic libraries.

More than one chief librarian recently interviewed was quick to suggest that the existing organizational structure of most academic libraries was a constraining influence and that an on-going research group might circumvent some existing barriers. Almost all high ranking library administrators interviewed felt that the action of the individual librarians would not suffice to change the structure of the library's organization or its service patterns.

**Organization of the Research Group**

Ideally, the research group should be organized so that representatives from academic teaching departments might raise various issues regarding protective library attitudes toward service and technology programs. The library members of the research group should bring their practical experience to bear in explaining or clarifying these issues. It is imperative that a dialog be established as soon as possible between faculty members who will be investigating the library's service programs and policies, and library staff who deal with them on an everyday basis. The organization of the group could be based on a series of assignments. In this way, the issues raised during the interview process could be examined by the entire research group and then assigned to individual members or small groups of members within the research group for detailed analysis. This would enable each meeting to consist of a general critique of work done in response to specific assignments.

Concerning the early work of the research group, much of its efforts will probably not be appreciated by its members. There are bound to be teething problems with the concomitant need to develop a feeling for its role vis-à-vis library service modification and innovation. Some members of the group seeking to protect the library might develop a defensive attitude. However, since it
would be nearly impossible to transfer recommendations from the research group into direct library service programs without the library's cooperation, and since the process of introducing service and technological improvements into the library is likely to be a lengthy process, there is little need for the library to feel threatened.

One immediate spin-off from the mere initiation of a research group will be a better understanding among the members of the academic library of the diversity of its service programs, the complexities of innovation, and of the problems associated with introducing change within complex library organizations.

One measure of the research group's effectiveness will be its ability to remain flexible enough to deal with a variety of library service issues. Issues raised during the general research group meetings can be carefully analyzed if library staff participate who possess special knowledge and experience. Such meetings could be considered as encounter sessions, conflict resolution sessions, etc., and could significantly influence the solution of many problems. While lasting operational solutions would require that appropriate library administrators and members of concerned library departments participate, the research group's meetings could outdistance the traditional library approach, i.e., working within the established organizational structure.

Having observed and reviewed the actual behavior of similar research groups in nonprofit and research organizations, especially those attached to university research bureaus and institutes, certain behavior patterns are prevalent and easily identifiable. The cited survey found that library staff members became more vocal about their problems; they were frequently able to discuss complex problems with faculty and research staff, and recommend solutions addressed to causative factors rather than symptomatic ones. Regarding leadership, a sense of group action and decision-making developed in all but two of the groups investigated. In both of these situations (one in which an assistant university librarian and the other in which the director of a research bureau were members of the research groups) the research groups had been led into belaboring the "careful problem definition" approach to service or structural change. Once a research group develops its own leadership, it can move forward to initiate and formalize test and evaluation procedures.

OBSERVATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

When evaluating the role of a research group, it is essential to remember that the basic intent is to foster a particular type of change in a specific type of library organization. The change will be primarily service-oriented, with the usual complement of social and political side effects. To foster or promote change that involves specialized knowledge within a library with the involvement of faculty talents and their specialized knowledge not present within the library's organization will present particular challenges to an academic library.

In many respects the creation of a research group and its work, especially if successful, will not bring about major or revolutionary changes in a library's service program or organizational structure. In most cases, the library will continue to function in a bureaucratic fashion while continuing to allocate the necessary resources, i.e., time and personnel. However, one long-range benefit of the group might be the fostering of an attitude which is more receptive to change. Yet once a research group begins to recommend programs for test and evaluation purposes, or begins questioning various segments of the academic community to identify and define
problems, an interesting effect may take place. As the research group begins to seek feedback from students, faculty, and staff, it can gain acceptance and become a recognized part of the library's organization. This recognition will likely enhance the group's effectiveness.

Whether or not any dramatic or far-reaching changes immediately occur in a particular academic library as the result of a research group, a new unit within the library will have been created and given life. This unit can serve an important role by providing a representative forum for the legitimate discussion of change within the library. Without such a unit, the opportunities for significant change and innovation in an academic library will continue to be minimal.

From a personnel perspective, a research group may produce some anticipated and salubrious consequences. The desire to explore new concepts and ideas in a relatively risk-free atmosphere may draw out some members who are presently reticent, especially librarians. This atmosphere can motivate individuals to adopt an active role in searching out useful information both for the research group and for the furtherance of knowledge in his or her field. Also, the research group can provide a commodity in short supply at most academic libraries—managerial slack. Too many academic librarians at middle management levels and above, or in the positions of specialists, do not have the time within the pressures of the day-to-day routines to think in terms of long-range change. Most academic libraries provide little if any opportunity for collective "thinking ahead" activities. Too often, academic libraries overburden their librarians with maintaining the status quo, or perhaps planning a suitable extension of the status quo for the future. A research group could provide the necessary time for librarians, faculty, and research staff to engage in meaning-

ful participation and individual investigation and thinking.

Conclusions about change in a library bureaucracy are very important. The primary constraints to change in a library, as in most bureaucracies, are the risk structures, the reward structures, and the structure of the organization itself. In each of these areas, the research group approach can be used to minimize these structures. First, by including faculty and research staff (and students, where feasible), the risk of proposing change in part is transferred outside of the library. This relaxing of one critical barrier to wholehearted cooperation and participation can be of enormous benefit to academic librarians and libraries as well as to the academic community in general. Second, the research group can establish a norm of participation predicated upon critical evaluation and initiation of change, thereby shifting the normal reward structure back toward symmetry. More likely than not, there will be substantial disagreement at times among the research group members and other top decision-makers in the library, and this disagreement may be generated in great measure by the freedom of expression that can and should be the norm in the research group. While criticism is always difficult for a library to absorb, a group of this nature can criticize fairly both organizational procedures and the performance of staff employed by the library. Finally, the research group could represent a beneficial aberration to the library's present organizational structure, and might be able to circumvent some of the usual library constraints. Such a group may be more successful if it can begin with a composition that includes several talented and senior grade persons from the library, the faculty, and the research staff. Although it would be premature and presumptuous to suggest that informal coalitions would develop, their existence
might signal to others their role as a change-oriented pressure group within the library’s organizational structure. Furthermore, the inclusion of high ranking personnel might tilt the bargaining scale in the research group’s favor.

The opportunities for significantly effecting change, service or organizational, can be considerably enhanced by a participative management approach. Indeed, the extent to which recommendations within a library are likely to be implemented, and innovative ideas generated and acted upon, depends upon the amount of participation by individuals committed to the process of change. The research group approach can successfully provide meaningful participation in attempts to effect important change in an academic library’s service policies and programs. Participatory management can be made to work in an academic library if improved service is the goal of change.

REFERENCES

1. David Kaser, in his excellent article, “Modernizing the University Library Structure,” CRL 31:227–31 (July 1970) discusses progressive internal changes that academic libraries should implement to streamline not only their organization structure, but their services.

2. Ibid.


5. Kenneth R. Shaffer in a paper attacked the use of consultants, especially with regard to their qualifications, Library Journal 92:3946 (1 Nov. 1967).


7. Warren G. Bennis in his stimulating article, “Post-Bureaucratic Leadership.” Trans-Ac­tion 6:45 (July/Aug. 1969), discusses motivation elements that can be employed by groups interested in fostering change and innovation. It is a highly worthwhile piece that academic librarians should not fail to read.


9. Fifty questionnaires were distributed in 1969 to a random sampling of academic libraries at two- and four-year colleges, and universities throughout the United States. Forty-four (44) of the fifty (50) institutions (88 percent) responded. Of the responding libraries only two, one a two-year college library and the other a large university library, had on-going research groups or task forces composed of faculty, library staff, and other campus elements to review library service programs and make recommendations for improvement.

10. Approximately thirty (30) chief librarians from a variety of institutions were personally interviewed by this researcher in 1968 and 1969. Various questions concerning organizational structure, strategy for change, identification of change agents, the use of consultants, etc., were put to these administrators. The concepts of a research group as suggested in this piece were presented for their consideration as a method for accommodating change.

11. Dwight Waldo, ed., Conference on the Research Function of University Bureaus and Institutes for Government-Related Research (Berkeley, Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1960). In addition to this work, a questionnaire and personal interview survey was conducted in 1968 that sought to determine the existence of group behavior, participatory management, and change groups within bureaus, research centers, and institutes devoted to governmental and public affairs research. Where possible, those research units with change groups were more closely analyzed if they had a library or materials center to more adequately understand the role played by a librarian or information manager.

Recent technological and social developments are forcing many administrators to reassess the effectiveness of traditional managerial practices. Attempts to increase effectiveness by utilizing modern theories of management have frequently ended in failure. This article maintains that features inherent in the traditional, “mechanistic” organization hamper the creation of truly flexible and adaptive organizations. If this is the case, it is crucial that administrators learn to recognize and cope with these hindrances. This article focuses on three specific areas: (1) leadership; (2) group processes; and (3) organizational structure.

Where communication is perception, information is logic. As such, information is purely formal and has no meaning. It is impersonal rather than personal.¹

When the book was preeminent and unchallenged, the function of the library in society was relatively clear. Events unfolded rather slowly and the library profession was allowed the luxury of adapting gradually. As an organization, the library conformed to the traditional mold. It was, in essence, machine-like. “A properly designed administrative machine has correctly assigned positions and levels of authority and definite rules exist for ensuring the correctness.”² This mechanistic approach tended to ignore differences between individual and organizational goals.

The book is no longer preeminent nor unchallenged. Technological developments have helped to create an environment wherein “acceleration, diversity and novelty” are the rule, and gradual adaptation has become inadequate as a generalized response to change. As Lipetz suggests, the entire fabric of traditional library practices and procedures borders on the state of chaos.³ Outmoded procedures are but one small part of a far more general, far more complex malaise, i.e., the library’s apparent inability to respond to the demands of an external reality. The library is not unique. Technological and societal developments have placed many organizations in a similar position.

For years studies in the management and behavioral sciences have dealt with the problem of rapid change and its effect on the viability of organizations. “The accelerative thrust forces time into a new perspective in our lives. It compels us to make and break our relationships with the environment at a faster and faster tempo.”⁴ Both individuals and organizations are caught in this seemingly endless spiral.

An administrator who can successfully integrate the often conflicting demands of employer and employee with-
in a responsive organizational structure has come a long way toward insuring the survival of that institution, whether it be in business, government, or education. However, there are many elements inherent in traditional management practice which militate against such responsiveness. In the following discussion, traditional practice and theory will be contrasted with certain aspects of modern management and behavioral theories; however, modern theories are frequently unsuccessful in practice because they are largely incompatible with traditional forms of organization and managerial styles. Awareness of this dichotomy should help the administrator gain a new perspective into the opportunities and shortcomings existing in his own organization and in his own leadership style.

This article will focus on three specific areas: (1) leadership; (2) group processes; and (3) organizational structure.

LEADERSHIP

Traditional managerial philosophy bases leadership on the principles of control, direction, and planning. The organization itself is structured to facilitate this arrangement. Within this structure, the manager manipulates his employee by administering rewards and punishments in a systematic way. According to McGregor (see list of Suggested Readings which follows this article) natural human tendencies are considered antithetical to regular work requirements or, at best, are merely ignored. Managerial tasks are constructed so as to counteract those internal forces which are not directly supportive of the goals of the organization.5

Throughout the twentieth century, management theory has incorporated certain findings derived from the behavioral sciences. The current emphasis upon the individual as a social being rather than as an isolated phenomenon has refined management theory; the once prominent view that saw man as a mechanical entity has changed. Management practice, however, has failed to keep in step with these developments. When defined within the context of the following chart, management practice is primarily “custodial” in nature. While most research today is being conducted at the “supportive” and “collegial” levels, managers have progressed only slightly from the “custodial” toward the “supportive” area. A manager with an affinity toward a supportive style would frequently find himself handicapped by practical organizational constraints. Unfortunately, some of these so-called practical constraints result from managerial perceptions poorly

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<td><strong>AUTOCRATIC</strong></td>
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attuned to contemporary environmental and societal developments.

The popularity of labels is not restricted to the area of management practice. They have also been used to characterize a particular manager's style of leadership. McGregor lists three categories of managerial styles: "hard, soft, and firm but fair." These categories are directly related to the Blake Managerial Grid, which is based on a manager's perception of his own style. The Grid theory suggests that there are two major variables affecting management style: (1) concern for production, and (2) concern for people. Concern for production and people are the two coordinates on the Managerial Grid. As each coordinate ranges in intensity from 1 to 9, it is possible to have eighty-one different managerial styles. For example, the team theory of management (maximum concern for production and people) would be (9,9) on the Grid.

Managerial styles are frequently unsuccessful because they ignore the significance of intrinsic rewards and punishments. Intrinsic rewards are "inherent in the activity itself: the reward is the achievement of the goal. Intrinsic rewards cannot be directly controlled externally, although characteristics of the environment can enhance or limit the individual's opportunities to obtain them. Thus, achievements of knowledge or skill, of autonomy, of self-respect, of solutions to problems, are examples." No one style of leadership is appropriate to all situations, extrinsic or intrinsic reward systems notwithstanding. Each manager is unique and this will always be reflected in his style. Nevertheless, rapid change creates conditions in which the manager will have a greater likelihood of success if he uses an "optimizing" rather than a "controlling" leadership style.

How, then, can managers change their style of leadership?

I have come to believe that the presentation of facts and theories, utilizing conventional intellectual methods of training and education, may often be ineffective when the subject matter involved is related to the perceptions of managers with respect to their own ideas and to the nature of man. The most fruitful methods are those which utilize direct experience of a not too threatening kind, a safe environment for the open examination of issues, opportunities to test new behaviors, and positive reinforcement of such changes as do occur.

**Summary**

In traditional management theory, an administrator exercises his leadership role by means of control and direction whereby important psychological needs of the employee are ignored. This often results in a mechanistic form of organization. Thus, leadership is ill equipped to cope with rapid change, since it must rely on prearranged signals rather than on the adaptive ability of the employee. Concern for production is the primary concern of the administrator in a mechanistic organization. Contemporary management and behavioral theories treat the organization as a biological entity. Administrators using an optimizing leadership style are more attuned to modern theory, which both accepts and seeks to encourage employee motivation.

**GROUP PROCESSES**

The tempo of contemporary existence is forcing management to consider ways of involving the employee in the attainment of organizational goals. Slater and Bennis state in their article entitled "Democracy Is Inevitable" that "democracy becomes a functional necessity whenever a social system is competing for survival under conditions of chronic change," but that for "adaptability to change conditions, for rapid acceptance of a new idea, for flexibility in dealing with novel problems" and for "generally high morale and loyalty, the more
egalitarian or decentralized type seems to work better.” Coordination of individual and organizational goals is one important step in the creation of an “egalitarian” organization. The mechanistic approach to management is ill suited for the task since it assumes that all but a few workers are unmotivated. Seen from this point of view, the principle of involvement is farcical. Argyris believes that “the old forms are going to be more effective for the routine, noninnovative activity that requires little, if any, internal commitment by the participant.”

The problem of unmotivated workers is based on a misconception which is common to most managers:

How do you motivate people? . . . You don’t. Man is by nature motivated. He is an organic system, not a mechanical one. . . . This is the sense in which the behavior-al scientist distinguishes between an organic and a purely mechanical theory of nature.

Involvement will tend to release motivational forces inhibited by traditional management practice. It is only after the employee recognizes that his actions will lead to a degree of self-fulfillment that he will feel a sense of commitment toward the achievement of organizational goals. There is every reason to believe that this will have a positive effect on performance (see chart below).

Participation in the decisions which affect his work situation is one means of obtaining individual commitment. Peter Drucker in his comments about the communication process and its traditional influence on motivation shows why participation is a prerequisite for commitment:

For centuries we have attempted communication downward. This, however, cannot

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Relation of Commitment to Performance*

work, no matter how hard and how intelli-
gently we try. It cannot work, first be-
cause it focuses on what we want to say. It
assumes in other words that the utterer
communicates. But we know that all he
does is utter. Communication is the act of
the recipient . . . all one can communicate
downward are commands, that is, prear-
ranged signals. One cannot communicate
downward anything connected with under-
standing let alone motivation. 12 The start
of communications in organizations must
be to get the intended recipient himself to
try to communicate. 13

Group processes through dynamic in-
teraction have the potential to bring the
individual employee into the communi-
cation process. In spite of overwel-
mong evidence to support the notion of
group participation, however, difficulties
are frequently encountered in actual
work day situations.

Interpersonal Barriers to Effective
Group Participation

Behavioral scientists romp through
management councils. Extemporizing on
modern techniques for involving the in-
dividual in the accomplishment of or-
ganizational goals, they have created
considerable interest among many ad-
ministrators who feel that their organi-
izations have shown themselves incapable
of adequately anticipating the form of
future markets, the effects of technolo-
gy, and the specialized interests of the
community served by that organization.
However, administrators implementing
programs suggested by the behavioral
scientists often find themselves thor-
oughly frustrated by the results. Partici-
patory management, T-groups, D-groups,
and a host of other laboratory-approved
techniques have usually failed to meet
management’s subjective criteria for ef-
effectiveness. A number of recent studies
have explained these failures primarily
in terms of interpersonal barriers, and
organizational structure.

At the upper levels the formal design tends
to require executives who need to manage
an intended rational world, to direct, con-
trol, reward and penalize others, and to
suppress their own and others emotionality.
Executives with these needs and skills tend
to be ineffective in creating and maintain-
ing effective interpersonal relationships;
they fear emotionality and are almost com-
pletely unaware of ways to obtain employee
commitment that is internal and genuine.
This results in upper level systems that
have more conformity, mistrust, antago-
nism, defensiveness and closedness than in-
dividuality, trust, concern and openness. 14

In the group process there must be
some balance between emotionality and
the demand for effective participation.
Unfortunately, many individuals exhib-
it little patience with emotionality. This
is especially true of administrators who
are accountable for group productivity.
Groups which do not immediately con-
form to expectations are categorized as
unsuccessful and relegated to the ad-
ministrators’ mental dumpheap, or in
rare instances disbanded. A great deal
of time and patience is necessary on all
sides before a group can even begin to
exhibit the first signs of true produc-
tivity. Openness and trust cannot be se-
cured overnight.

Summary

Social conditions are forcing admin-
istrators to consider ways to involve the
employee in the attainment of organiza-
tional goals. Group participation is one
technique that is frequently used. Un-
fortunately, administrators participat-
ing in these groups are usually condi-
tioned to a mechanistic style whereby
openness, trust, and emotionality are
suppressed. The absence of these qual-
ities causes group participation to be no
more than tolerably effective. Democra-
tic styles of organization which recognize
and seek to encourage employee motiva-
tion are inevitable, in spite of the fact
that most organizations still adhere to
more traditional forms.
Organizational Structure

Organizations are created for the purpose of exploiting a perceived need. People are grouped into various formal patterns or relationships in order to provide the most effective ordering of resources. According to traditional organization theory, this is best achieved: when workers are closely supervised, when workers and/or their superiors report to and take directions from one and only one person, and when those individuals with authority are held accountable for their actions and decisions. Such a structure lends support to a managerial philosophy which views the worker as unmotivated and mechanical.

The traditional structure is best suited to those organizations in which it is possible for the top administrator to be effectively knowledgeable about most aspects of his industry, where markets are relatively stable, and where the impact of technology is inconsequential. Frequent communication between different levels in such organizations is not essential, since it is assumed that change occurs slowly and habitual patterns of response are well ingrained.

During the 1950s, behavioral scientists offered management a systematic body of research findings which many felt would cure the ills affecting most organizations. Group participation would, if applied correctly, encourage employee involvement, motivation, and commitment. This in turn would enable individuals to cope with a rapidly changing organizational environment, and hopefully would stimulate more creativity and innovation. When group participation methods faltered, numerous studies were undertaken to determine why. The study of organizational structure and design has provided some useful insights.

What the behavioral scientists overlooked was the complex nature of an organization's internal environment. Many administrators initiating participatory management functioned within settings or structures which were inherently authoritarian. The organization was mechanistic, and it supported similar attitudes among its administrators. Accordingly, when participatory management was undertaken, the primary emphasis was still on changing technology rather than on individual needs. Besides leading to many failures, this subjugation of human considerations to those of the organization demonstrated a continuing misconception of man's nature.

The external environment has finally pushed itself right into the boardrooms. Management has been witnessing wholesale disenchantment with the traditional structure of its institutions. Consequently, the study of organizational structure and design has become a popular pastime. Unique structures have been developed to answer specific problems. Likert's "linking pin" structure, the "Matrix" concept, and the "ad hoc-racy" or transitional task group are the best known. They feature free flowing systems of communication and more effective utilization of specialized knowledge. Unfortunately, they all share one basic weakness: relative inflexibility. They are merely limited types of response to a particular set of circumstances.

Lawrence and Lorsch in Organization and Environment present a situational approach to organizational design called the "contingency" theory of organization.15 "Their general point is that there is no 'one best way' to organize, but that different companies in different industries require different kinds of organizational structures at different times."16

The process of designing an organizational structure appropriate to a particular situation is extremely difficult. The number of variables to be examined, coupled with the complexity of the
unit, precludes the creation of a “best way” structure. Three important variables to consider are: external environment, internal environment, and interaction between the two. On the surface this listing appears somewhat ludicrous. Yet how can one ever hope to reduce the size of these variables to manageable proportions? Obviously, one cannot cope with their full dimensions. The favored approach is to attempt an isolation of the most important factors. The state of the national economy certainly has an observable influence on the budgetary constraints of many organizations. Technology alone can have a distinct impact on the structure of viable institutions. Leadership styles can be determined, and clearcut suppositions based on these styles enumerated.

Since the variables affecting an organization are in constant flux, many planners are trying to create individualized, adaptive structures. Some are even ignoring formal charts—a radical event to say the least. The degree of flux is a crucial element in planning for change. Some industries are relatively static. Others are in a state of dynamic growth. It is important to recognize the vital factors. An industry is often static merely because perception of its potential has been inhibited. The railroad is a classic example of an industry which failed to develop as a viable medium of transportation because it chose to ignore the potential for expansion into other areas of transportation. An organization must be able to release the creative energies of its personnel. A sick, static industry, unable to free itself from outmoded practices, stifles the very energies which can lead to revitalization.

Studies in the design and structure of organizations have yet to make a significant impact on managerial practice. This is due in part to the traditional gap between practice and theory. More important is the magnitude of change required for an organization to restructure itself. Every function, division, and human relationship is affected. For this reason, widespread restructuring is unusual. It is more common to find administrators fiddling with their formal, organizational charts. To many, minimizing loss appears safer than maximizing profit.

Management is not riding a calm sea. As affirmed earlier, several developments are underway which seriously threaten traditional institutions. The aura of rapid change and acceleration has stimulated an entire bevy of prophets. The “knowledge worker” introduces difficulties of another kind. . . . Knowledge has become the central ‘factor of production’ in an advanced developed economy . . . to make knowledge productive will bring about changes in job structure, careers and organizations as drastic as those which resulted in the factory from the application of Scientific Management to manual operations.”17 Employees classified as knowledge workers are likely to be influenced by technical competence “rather than on the vagaries of personal whim or prerogatives of power.”18 Inevitably this will lead to a direct confrontation with traditional structural approaches. A letter written in 1750 by the Earl of Chesterfield for his son contained a truth which lasted more than two hundred years: “Knowledge may give weight, but accomplishments give lustre, and many more people see than weigh.” If knowledge has indeed become the central factor of production, however, then those who neglect to revise the Earl’s sentiment will gain little wisdom and less lustre.

Summary

Knowledge as a central factor of production creates difficulties for the typical mechanistic organization. It is possible that technical competence based on knowledge will become more valued and respected than personal power and authority. Where effective group partici-
pation is hampered by organizational structure, changes in that structure will be called for. Anticipatory measures may become a matter of survival. Administrators must try to obtain a clear perception of their industry in order to develop organizational goals and time orientations appropriate to their environment. New approaches to organizational structure stress the need for adaptability and flexibility.

CONCLUSIONS?

There are none. One should not tidy up perceptions. Hopefully they remain amorphous, and competently so. And yet . . . a few months ago I read an article in Newsweek, “New Architecture: Building for Man” by Douglas Davis. It gave me a new awareness: a mental connector between the substance of this discussion and the field of architecture . . . and further. Perceptions of structure, whether of organizations, buildings, or people, must be perceptions of life. Idealistic? But of course!

“Behind the new architecture is no one design concept or social ideology but the basic idea that structures must be part of the social organism that includes people and what they do as individuals, families and communities. . . . The new architects see that promise in the beauty of flexible forms that inspire, enhance and adjust to the changing energies of human life.”

REFERENCES

6. Ibid., p.7.
13. Ibid., p.21.
15. Paul R. Lawrence and Jay W. Lorsch, in their landmark work, Organization and Environment: Managing Differentiation and Integration (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1967), analyzed four variables crucial to the success of any organization: (1) orientation toward particular goals, (2) time orientation, (3) interpersonal orientation, (4) formality of structure.
The Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts publishes edited texts of manuscripts that are valuable primary sources for historical research. This article explains the rather complex arrangement of these publications and gives suggestions for locating them in libraries. Included is a list of indexes and bibliographies that are helpful in identifying relevant material in these reports.

In 1869 Queen Victoria appointed the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts whose mission was to inquire as to the existence and location of privately owned manuscripts, records, and archives of all kinds which might have value for the study of history. The collections to be investigated were those belonging to both institutions and families and were known to contain "... Manuscripts and Papers of general Public Interest a knowledge of which would be of great utility in the illustration of History, Constitutional Law, Science and general Literature. ..."¹ Although the existence of some of these collections was well known, many were either forgotten or neglected and were in danger of decay. The Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts, created at a time of renewed interest in historical manuscripts, has devoted itself to its primary task of locating such muniments and bringing them to the attention of scholars through the publication of edited texts.

Some of the collections investigated by the commission had been assembled by antiquaries and bibliophiles while others were simply the accumulated papers resulting from the business transactions of landed families.² Nevertheless, all of them are valuable sources for historical research and the commission continues searching for them, assisting in their preservation, and making lists of the manuscripts so that they will be available for research. The commissioners offer advice to the owners on the repair and binding of papers and, with their consent, may arrange to have collections deposited in local or county record offices or archives, such as the Lincolnshire Archives Office.

Since the time of its appointment, the commission has reported on the manuscripts of over eight hundred private owners and corporate bodies, including boroughs, cathedrals, counties, parishes, and endowed institutions, such as colleges. All collections are located in Great Britain or Ireland. The commission does not concern itself with papers which are public records by virtue of the Public Records Act and which are kept in the Public Record Office in London.

The published reports or calendars of these collections now total over two hundred and fifty volumes and more are in preparation. The bulk of this

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material is concerned with British local, national, and colonial history, including a large amount of American colonial history. There is much information on any place in the world where the British had political, economic, or military interests. The reports also contain a great deal of biography and social history, chiefly concerning the peoples of Great Britain and Ireland. Many of the reports contain the text of papers and letters of landed families, such as the Cecil family, which contributed many statesmen to national affairs. The Salisbury (Cecil) papers are of great value for the study of Elizabethan and early Stuart England since they consist largely of state documents, despatches, memoranda, and correspondence.

The value of the reports as a source for research is suggested in the following statements. Richard A. Roberts, former secretary of the commission, wrote that "They often serve every purpose that an examination of the originals would fulfil, and even a better purpose, because the Report is much easier to study, and gives the important information, omitting all trivial and negligible matter..." Speaking before the Royal Historical Society, Roberts described the wealth of material in the reports and said: "If, in 1872, the Commissioners of that day could justifiably affirm, with some amount of pride in the work so far accomplished, 'it is not too much to say that there is scarcely an important historical event, certainly no period of English history, which has not received some elucidation from the operations of the Commission,' I venture to think that the statement is true in an infinitely greater degree at the present moment." Over sixty years have passed since Roberts made that statement and it could be made with even greater force today.

Students of American history will also find source material in the reports. J. Franklin Jameson, director (1905–1928) of the Department of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution, wrote that "Many of the volumes are replete with information relating to American history, particularly of the colonial and Revolutionary periods. . . . The collection is a rich mine of knowledge for the American student, containing texts or summaries of uncounted documents inaccessible to him in his own country. . . ."

**GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE REPORTS**

The reports published by the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts are of two kinds: (1) The Commissioners' Reports to the Crown, and (2) the Inspectors' Reports to the Commissioners.

The Commissioners' Reports are formal reports of business transacted by the commission. They contain accounts of what the commissioners tried to accomplish and useful summary descriptions of the collections examined by the inspectors. They may be used as a rough guide to the contents of the Inspectors' Reports, which contain the source material needed by historians. Between 1870 and 1967, twenty-five Commissioners' Reports to the Crown were published.

The first nine of these Commissioners' Reports contained one or more appendices, bound in the same physical volume, consisting of the Inspectors' Reports on the manuscript collections they had examined. Since the aim in these early years (1870–1884) was to present a summary account of the year's work, the examination of the collections was superficial and the reports on individual collections were brief. These general surveys were intended to aid the commissioners in determining which collections deserved more elaborate treatment, such as that found in the later reports, in which many of the collections that had been briefly surveyed were given a supplementary and more systematic treatment. In these later reports, the manuscripts have been carefully exami-
ined and calendared, i.e., listed in chronological order and either quoted in extenso or summarized.

When the Inspectors' Reports became lengthy and detailed calendars rather than preliminary surveys with the tenth report (1885), they were physically separated from the Commissioners' Reports to the Crown and were published as separate volumes. The Inspectors' Reports were officially regarded as appendices to the Commissioners' Reports until the fifteenth report, published in 1899. Since then, the Inspectors' Reports have been issued as separate publications, independent of the Commissioners' Reports to the Crown. They are usually identified by a short descriptive title or by the designation "Various Collections."

**Numbering and Description of the Reports**

The Commissioners' Reports to the Crown are numbered consecutively from the first report of 1870 to the twenty-fifth report of 1967. The Inspectors' Reports that were printed as appendices are identified by both the report number and the appendix number.

In order to simplify reference to the reports, each volume containing Inspectors' Reports has been given a serial number. Volumes relating entirely to one collection are grouped together under the same serial number. For example, the ten volumes describing the Duke of Portland's papers are collected as series 29, numbers 1 to 10, even though they were published at intervals between 1891 and 1931.

Some volumes contain material on more than one collection, and in such cases it was not possible to assign one serial number to a collection. For example, the papers of the Earl of Denbigh are surveyed with other collections in series 3, 5, 6 and 7; only series 68 relates exclusively to the Denbigh collection. Sectional List Number 17 lists all of the reports in serial number order. After each serial number, the report number or descriptive title appears in boldface. There is also an index by the name or descriptive title. Using this list, it is possible to locate the serial number of a report identified in a bibliography simply by its report number or descriptive title.

In order to avoid repetition of the long full titles in footnotes, the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts recommends use of the following system of brief references.

When reference is made to volumes relating to one collection only, quote the serial number, the descriptive title, and the page number, e.g.,

**HMC 53: Montagu: p.94.**

When reference is made to papers published in separate volumes over a period of years, the reference must include the volume or part number, e.g.,

**HMC 29: Portland III: p.94.**

References to volumes relating to several collections should also include the report number, e.g.,

**HMC 2: 3rd R.: Orlebar: p.275.**

The appendix number must be cited when a report was issued with a number of appendices, e.g.,

**HMC 27: 12th R. IX: Beaufort: p.16**

(Historical Manuscripts Commission, Series 27; 12th report, appendix 9, Beaufort papers, page 16).

The Royal Commission adopted the practice of identifying and arranging the reports by serial number after a large number of volumes had been published. For this reason, some of the older guides and bibliographies will not identify the reports by their serial number, but by some combination of descriptive title, report number, or appendix number. It is necessary to read the instructions accompanying each bibliog-
raphy in order to become familiar with the particular scheme of documentation used.

GUIDES AND INDEXES TO THE REPORTS

A. Guides Published by the Royal Commission


These indexes to places and persons are cumulations of the indexes included in each volume of the reports published from 1870 to 1911. Reference is made to the volume only, not to the page number. These guides are included in the Microcard edition.


Only the Index of Persons has been published. A Topographical index is in preparation.

B. Published Bibliographies Containing Reference to the Reports

1. General


Pages 61–90 contain full descriptions of the reports through series 81. The index provides references to names of the collections and to important subjects.

2. United States History


This volume, which includes references from Jameson’s “Guide” (see below), is arranged by the location of the manuscripts and is indexed by subject.


The “Guide” provides references to items relating to the history of the United States and to those colonies which occupied any portion of the area now embraced in the United States, Newfoundland, Canada, Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands. Addenda to 1927 are printed in the Cambridge History of the British Empire, I, 837 (see below).

3. British History


On pages 837–44, there are lists of manuscripts of special value for the study of colonial history. Several pages are quoted in full from Davenport’s Materials for English Diplomatic History (see below) and there are some later references that supplement Davenport.


The bibliography includes a list of local records, special subjects, and travel diaries published in the reports.


On pages 10–22, there is a list of reports under a few major subject headings. Read gives some indication of the value of the material and provides information on some of the collections that have been reprinted elsewhere.


This is an index to subjects other than persons and places and so serves as a supplement to the guides published by the commission.

**Locating the Reports in Libraries**

Reports published up to and including 1920 appeared as Parliamentary Papers and bear Stationery Office code numbers, e.g., CD.5567 of 1911. These code numbers are given in Sectional List No. 17.

Some libraries have cataloged the reports separately, i.e., as calendars of individual collections. In such cases, the card catalog will contain a corporate entry and various added entries and subject cards. In the case of the Dartmouth (American) Papers, the following entries may be found:


Dartmouth, William Walter Legge, 5th earl of.

Gt. Britain—History—Sources.

U.S.—History—Sources.

Added entries for the editors of the various volumes.

Perhaps the most convenient method of arrangement is by the serial number assigned by the Royal Commission. (The Microcard edition, which includes all reports published from 1870 to 1946, employs this method.) When the serial number arrangement is used, the Commissioners' Reports are in numerical order, starting with number ten, followed by the Inspectors' Reports in serial number order. Each of the first nine Commissioners' Reports is bound in the same physical volume with the appendices containing Inspectors' Reports. Because all volumes containing Inspectors' Reports have been assigned a serial
number, the first nine Commissioners' Reports must be shelved in serial number order with the Inspectors' Reports with which they are bound. For example, the eighth report is found in Series 7, part I, with Appendix I, which is the Inspectors' Report. Starting with the tenth report, the Commissioners' Reports were published as separate volumes and therefore may be arranged in a separate series in numerical order.

As new Inspectors' Reports are published, they are assigned the appropriate serial number and a volume or part number. For example, new additions to the Salisbury (Cecil) Papers are assigned to series 9 and are given a volume number to keep that series in chronological sequence. Use the latest edition of Sectional List No. 17 for a complete list of all reports arranged in serial number order. For all collections arranged in serial number order, this list is an indispensable finding guide.

THE MODERN PROGRAM OF THE COMMISSION

Recent activities of the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts include maintenance of the National Register of Archives; the Joint Publication Program; the continued provision of calendars, edited texts, and other aids to research; proffering advice and assistance to owners and users of manuscripts; and cooperation with other organizations in the same field.

The National Register of Archives, located in Quality Court, Chancery Lane, London, was created as a branch of the Royal Commission in 1945 to aid in the location, description, and preservation of manuscripts. It has become a central guide to the primary material for historical research in the United Kingdom because of the special indexes it maintains.

The Joint Publication Program, established in 1958, provides that volumes prepared by local or national historical societies may be printed by the Stationery Office as publications of the Royal Commission.

The reports published by the Royal Commission so far have dealt with events before 1801. A new series will start with the papers of nineteenth-century prime ministers. A survey has been published and the first collections chosen for publication are the autobiographical writings of Gladstone, the political papers of the Duke of Wellington, and the Palmerston Papers. The Royal Commission is also expanding its program to cover the papers of British scientists and is preparing a guide to the location and content of such collections. As the Royal Commission discovers more primary material, librarians must be alert to provide their patrons with all of the published material designed to further historical research.

REFERENCES

This article applies break-even analysis to determine what magnitude of titles added per year (for which a proof slip will be used in producing card sets) is sufficient to utilize economically Library of Congress proof slips and a Xerox 914 copying machine in the cataloging operation of a library. A break-even formula is derived, and an example of its use is given using data gathered at Arkansas State University.

This article aims to derive a formula which will determine the economic break-even point for the use of Library of Congress proof slips and a Xerox 914 copying machine in the cataloging operation of a library. An example of the use of this formula will be given using statistics gathered from the cataloging department of the Arkansas State University library.

As the numerous uses of LC proof slips in libraries have been elucidated in an article authored by Samuel Waters and Salvatore Costabile, this article will focus upon the uses of proof slips only as they pertain to the production of catalog cards.\(^1\) Derivation of the formula will not reflect the fact that most libraries using a Xerox 914 to reproduce catalog cards defray their rental costs through much more extensive use of the machine than through mere reproduction of catalog cards from proof slips; on the contrary, it will be assumed that the reproduction of catalog cards from proof slips must defray the entire cost of the Xerox 914. This assumption will, of course, necessitate a very conservative break-even point figure, and any library using the formula to determine whether or not to use proof slips should bear this in mind. One other advantage of proof slips which this formula does not account for is the time savings accrued. The economic advantage of having immediate access to proof slips over delaying cataloging while cards are ordered from the Library of Congress is very difficult to assess quantitatively, and is therefore not included in this analysis.

There are three constants and two variables which comprise this equation. The constants are defined as the cost of LC card sets, the cost of Xeroxing a complete set of cards, and the cost of a proof slip subscription. The variables are the cost of student filing per year and the number of titles ordered per year. While the latter is clearly a variable dependent upon the individual library, the student filing cost varies only

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Mr. Anderson was head cataloger, Arkansas State University library at the time this article was written. He is now director, First Regional Library, Hernando, Mississippi.
as the types of arrangement, types of titles needed, and depth of proof slip file vary.

The break-even point is derived when the cost of using proof slips in the cataloging process equals the cost of ordering Library of Congress cards for each title. Represented symbolically, this is defined as

\[ ax = bx + c + d \]

where:
- \( a \) = cost of LC cards/set,
- \( b \) = Xerox cost for one set of cards,
- \( c \) = cost of proof slip subscription/year,
- \( d \) = cost of student filing/year, and
- \( x \) = number of titles added per year.

When \((bx)\) is subtracted from both sides of the equation, the formula becomes:

\[ ax - bx = c + d, \text{ or} \]

\[ x (a - b) = c + d \]

The variable \((x)\) can then be isolated by dividing both sides of the equation by \((a - b)\):

\[ x = \frac{c + d}{a - b} \]

Therefore, when the number of titles which would have a proof slip available is greater than the quantity \( \frac{c + d}{a - b} \), it would be more economical to use proof slips rather than order LC card sets for each title received.

In order to suggest how this formula might be applied in a library, and to furnish statistics which other libraries might use in computing their fixed and variable costs for a proof slip operation of this type, an actual example is presented in the following section. It is also hoped that this example will help clarify the usefulness of cost figures.

When Arkansas State University decided in 1967 to begin a subscription to Library of Congress proof slips, it was agreed that the basic need, as far as cataloging was concerned, was for current imprints in the English language. Accordingly, the procedure for handling proof slips was geared toward maintaining a three-year file of proof slips of titles in the English language. This meant that upon receiving the weekly box of proof slips from the Library of Congress, all slips for books with a copyright date older than three years, as well as those for foreign language books, were discarded. The remaining slips were alphabetized by main entry and filed in the appropriate section of the catalog for the particular year in which the book was copyrighted. At the beginning of each new year, the oldest section was discarded, thus maintaining the three-year file. We found that a three-year file of English language proof slips could easily be housed in two sixty-tray catalogs.

Over a one-year period, the number of hours spent each day sorting, alphabetizing, and filing proof slips were totaled by the filers in the cataloging department. These statistics totaled approximately 485 hours. This figure, multiplied by the hourly wage rate for student workers, $1.60, yielded the figure $776, and accounts for variable “d” in the equation. The other fixed cost is quantity “c” in the formula, which is the yearly cost of a subscription to the proof slips. This cost, which is subject to change every year, was $385 last year.

The two variable costs (costs that vary according to the number of books cataloged) are the cost of LC card sets and the cost of Xeroxing a card set from a proof slip. The cost of an LC card set was $.35. The cost of Xeroxing a card set was obtained by adding the average rental cost per card of a Xerox 914 ($0.01) to the average cost per card of card stock ($0.005), yielding a total of $0.015 per card. The operator time for the Xerox 914 is not figured into this total, because it is assumed that this time is offset by the time saved by typing the call number on the proof slip to be
Xeroxed, thereby eliminating the necessity of typing the call number on each card in the complete set. Multiplying this figure by five, which is the average number of cards per set, we produced quantity "b" in the equation, a figure of $.075.

When these figures are substituted into the original equation:

\[
x = \frac{385 + 776}{0.35 - 0.075} \text{ or } x = 4222
\]

The reader should bear in mind that this figure is not the total number of titles which must be added each year in order to realize the economies of a proof slip subscription, but rather the total number of titles for which a proof slip must be used to produce card sets.

It is the opinion of the author that a break-even analysis such as the one described in this article can be a very useful tool to librarians. Aside from the many other uses of proof slips, a medium-sized library can realize a definite savings in processing costs by utilizing a proof slip subscription and a Xerox 914 copier instead of ordering card sets from the Library of Congress.
This article highlights the career of E. C. Richardson, and includes commentary relating to the wealth and diversity of his contributions to the field of American librarianship.

E. C. Richardson was born in Woburn, Massachusetts on February 9, 1860, being one of four children in a family of modest income. He graduated from Woburn High School in 1876. His purpose in going to college was to prepare himself for the ministry. Amherst College offered him a part-time job in the library and since he had to have a source of additional support for his education, Amherst became his choice of college.

At Amherst College, Melvil Dewey had graduated in 1874 and had become the librarian of the college upon his graduation until 1876. Richardson’s first year at Amherst was Dewey’s last year as librarian, and one would like to believe that freshman Richardson, as part-time worker in the library, would come in contact with Dewey. This was not the case. Melvil Dewey’s assistant, W. S. Biscoe, succeeded him as librarian and Richardson received his official training under his supervision. In his senior year, Richardson served as assistant librarian. This position did not keep him at Amherst. He left for Hartford, Connecticut to study for the ministry at the Hartford Theological Seminary. Again, his choice of the seminary was based upon the opportunity offered there for part-time work in the library. Dr. Chester David Hartranft, Jr., the librarian of the institution, was one of the charter members and founders of the American Library Association, and Richardson worked under him during the three years of his theological education. A graduate of the seminary, Mr. Henry Hopkins Kelsey, class of 1879, was appointed as assistant librarian to Dr. Hartranft to relieve him from routine work; due to the fact that both men were also involved in teaching responsibilities, however, the library was essentially left in the hands of E. C. Richardson, who became assistant librarian in 1882 during his senior year (compare his same position at Amherst), and librarian in 1884, when Dr. Hartranft resigned only to become the president of the institution some four years later.

In a letter dated April 4, 1885, Richardson had this to say about the image of a librarian in an academic theological institution:

During my college course, I used to hear a good deal of talk among librarians, to the effect that the old conception of librarianship had passed away. . . . It was considered that the appointment of Winsor at

Mr. Hadidian is librarian at the Clifford E. Barbour library, Pittsburgh Theological Seminary, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
Harvard was a practical culmination and establishing of the idea that librarianship was a learned profession and the librarian in a literary institution, a professor. . . . In thinking, therefore of the position of "librarian" I had hardly thought of it except as ultimately a regular constituent of the faculty. With that conception I have been working and trying to fit myself for the position. I believe that in view of his large opportunities for influencing the opinions of the students . . . and that his opinions are looked on by those without as representing the Seminary, the librarian should be in direct relation with those who form the policy, whether doctrinal, pedagogical or prudential of the Seminary. The librarian, as I understand it, would stand in much the same relation to an institution as the regular professors. His pedagogical methods are different and less systematic but important, his literary relation to the Bibliography, Literary History and Encyclopedia of the Church, the same as that of the Prof. to his department, and his responsibilities not parallel to, but demanding an ideal of attainments similar in kind to those of the other departments and exceeded in extent by none. A theological librarian should at the lowest aim at a thorough knowledge of Theological Encyclopedia, Literary History, and Bibliography, some considerable knowledge of Palaeography, a knowledge of at least ten or a dozen languages, besides the technical matters of library science, collating, keeping stock, which involve a good deal of study of typography, art of binding or engraving, etc., etc., etc.1

E. C. Richardson remained in Hartford until 1890, when he left for Princeton as assistant librarian and later, librarian, until his retirement in 1925. His early years at Hartford seemed to indicate that as a librarian he did not receive either verbal recognition of his contribution to scholarly research, or adequate financial remuneration for the work performed. In his letter to the prudential committee dated June 25, 1885, he wrote, very modestly estimated at $1,000 and devoted many more hours a day to my work than any other theological librarian, almost any librarian in the country, worked voluntarily through vacations and neglected no opportunity or pains or expense to improve myself and my profession. Your misconception must be from a misconception of the nature and requirements of the profession.

A crisis, small or great, brings out the worst and the best in an individual's thoughts. The fact that the institution did not give the rank of a professor to the librarian prompted Richardson to write an eighteen-page letter to the faculty, dated April 13, 1886. "I am anxious to have the right to the title 'professor' but not so much for the 'honor' or 'position' socially, in itself considered. It is to be sure, humiliating to occupy a position which is popularly looked on as one of accepted inferiority, but it is good discipline in humility, which I need. . . . But the fact has a practical bearing too. The position has been publicly construed as well as popularly regarded as less than that of Associate Professor." The letter (page 11) is resumed on April 21: "Since writing the above I have had a visit from a gentlemen connected with the Brooklyn Library. Not long since, as you know, I had a letter from Mr. Dewey, Librarian of Columbia College and secretary of the Library Association, asking if I would accept an election to the Brooklyn Library. . . . The two other names considered were those of Justin Winsor of Harvard College and Mr. Cutter of the Boston Athenaeum." The salary of E. C. Richardson was $1,500; Mr. Winsor was receiving $4,500 and Mr. Cutter, $3,500. Brooklyn Library would not offer less than $3,500, and would perhaps offer more than $4,500 in order to bring Mr. Winsor to Brooklyn. Richardson writes in the same letter: "I told him that the money had little weight. I gave him some reasons—especially my decided theological and religious connections—
why I should not be on the whole the man for them. . . .” Richardson’s rank was raised to associate professor in May 1888, and this was perhaps due to the fact that Washington and Jefferson College was to confer on him an honorary Ph.D. degree, primarily for his contribution in preparing Bibliographical Synopsis of the literature relating to the works included in The Ante Nicene Fathers published in Buffalo by the Christian Literature Company in 1887. His leaving Hartford for Princeton in 1890 was explained in a letter dated April 1, 1894, when he wrote to Dr. Hartranft: “Do you think there is likely to be anything in the plan for my return to Hartford which you have hinted at once or twice. . . . I left Hartford under the pressure of a financial need which no longer exists. . . .” For in 1891 he married Grace Duncan Ely, and she brought a modest amount of wealth into the family which “allowed him the freedom of as many as seventeen trips to Europe for travel, professional meetings, study and book purchase.” The Princeton years were his most productive period. His first massive work was on Periodical Articles on Religion, 1890–1899, in two volumes. (The first, a subject index, and the second, an author index published in 1907.) Other works better known in college and university libraries are the following:


On March 15, 1935, Richardson read a paper on “The Future of Union Catalogs and of Cooperative Selection and Purchase” at a meeting of the American Library Institute in Atlantic City. What is significant in this paper is perhaps the final paragraph where Richardson states the following: “In view of the statement made in behalf of A.L.A. that, since less than eight percent of the A.L.A. membership is directly interested in the problems of the libraries of learning, it can do nothing to help solve them, it might seem to the members of this Institute which selects its membership from the librarians most interested in intellectual research and production rather than in administration that the duty of keeping up the burden of the research aspect of library management is thrust upon this body which is ostensibly one hundred percent interested in the problems of intellectual cooperation.” One cannot help but remind librarians of this generation of the distinction made by Richardson between administrative pursuits and scholarly and intellectual research in librarianship. His works are good examples of scholarly and intellectual research which he did not restrict to the United States. In May of the same year, 1935, Richardson read a paper at the Second International Congress of Libraries and of Bibliography in Madrid, Spain. He began his paper as follows:

“To skin a deer,” says Bracton, “first catch your deer.” “To cook a hare,” adds Mrs. Glasse in her famous cookbook, “first catch your hare.” It is the same with books. Bacon says that some books are to be tasted, some to be swallowed, a few to be chewed or digested, but to taste, chew, swallow, digest, catalogue, borrow, visit, copy, buy or steal a book, you must first find your book. . . . The task of libraries is to get together recorded ideas for the use of synthetic thinkers.” In his doctoral dissertation, Lewis C. Branscomb, Jr., writes, “Ernest
Cushing Richardson lived ahead of his day. His zeal and tireless efforts—in the area of cooperative selection of library materials, acquisition, cataloging and compilation of union catalogs, attained, in his own mind, distressingly limited realization." The Librarian of Congress paid tribute to Richardson's contribution in these words, "The Union Catalog, although many shared in its building, is in special, the effective realization of the dream of Dr. Ernest Cushing Richardson. . . . Long before Dr. Richardson came to Washington . . . he had caught the vision of the service to scholarship that could be rendered by a cooperative bibliographical undertaking such as the Union Catalogue in its present form. . . ." This bibliographic project was known as Project B. It was defined "as a task of increasing the bibliographical apparatus of the Library of Congress and more specifically the extension of the union catalogue of printed books and the catalogue of special collection." Upon conclusion of the project in 1932, when it was turned over to Library of Congress staff, Branscomb states "Original goal of 6,000,000 titles located for use [had been] reached and surpassed." "The primary material as turned back to the Library of Congress consisted of: 1. Union catalog of printed books in American Libraries. 2. A supplement union catalog of printed books in foreign libraries. 3. A union catalog of special collections in American Libraries. 4. A supplement union catalog of special collections in foreign libraries. 5. A union list of world manuscripts."

One may summarize his other contributions by brief phrases: (1) "Title—a bar" printing of card catalogs and catalogs of books; (2) Regarding classification, he believed that the cataloger should blend theory with practicality, and in case of conflict, the practical should prevail. For him, classification was the highest function of the librarian's art, and it was an art, not a science; (3) He believed in cooperative selection, cooperative purchasing, and cooperative cataloging. Full cataloging he considered "the curse of bibliographic cataloging." It is worth noting in this connection a very unusual meeting on the Princeton campus when as a result of Richardson's efforts, Grover Cleveland, Woodrow Wilson, John L. Cadwalader, and John S. Billings of the New York Public Library came together and "spent a long and serious afternoon studying the problems of the university library and chiefly the problem of encouraging cooperative cataloging by the use of printed cards. It was an impressive spectacle to a librarian to see an ex-president of the United States taking as earnest a responsibility in a matter of technical library cooperation as he did in his public duties—and his unsparing pains in these is a part of history." Branscomb comments with these words, "Seldom have library problems been pondered by such distinguished and able gentlemen." In 1925, Richardson became the Honorary Consultant in Bibliography and Research at the Library of Congress, and it was during this period that his projects listed above were accomplished. He retired to his Old Lyme home in Connecticut in 1936, and died there at the age of 79 in 1939. Thus came to an end the life of a librarian whose contribution truly fits the words spoken in 1780 by the Abbe des Housayes, librarian of the Sorbonne, "A librarian truly worthy of the name, should, if I may be permitted the expression, have explored in advance every region of the empire of letters, to enable him afterwards to serve as a faithful guide to all who may desire to survey it and though it is by no means my intention to give the preference above all other sciences to the science of bibliography . . . it will be nevertheless be permitted me to consider the science as the forerunner of all the others as their guide who is to light them with his torch."
REFERENCES

1. The letters of E. C. Richardson are deposited in the Archives Room of Case Memorial Library of the Hartford Seminary Foundation in Hartford, Connecticut.


3., 4. From a privately published source deposited at the Archives Room of Case Memorial Library.


6. Ibid.

7. Ibid., p.50.

8. Ibid., p.52.

9. Ibid., p.53.


Key Factors of Circulation System Analysis and Design

Librarians must frequently judge circulation systems on the basis of widely disparate descriptions that make comparisons difficult. A way is needed to place various systems into a common perspective or framework, so that their similarities and differences can be readily understood. This paper explains basic (and largely familiar) concepts and components that are common to manual, machine-aided, and computer-based systems, and documents their significance as key factors in the analysis and design of academic library circulation systems. Cost factors are not discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Librarians are frequently put into the position of judging circulation systems—at professional meetings, in sales presentations, upon reading library literature. The variety of systems (e.g., manual, machine-aided, computer-based) and the varying qualities of their descriptions often make understanding and comparing systems difficult, particularly since proponents of specific systems may only emphasize selected features. What is needed is an explanation of fundamental concepts and components that provides a general framework for viewing systems. This paper therefore attempts to explain key factors in the analysis and design of academic library circulation systems. Let us begin by making several assumptions and definitions.

The basic purposes of a circulation system are to record, regulate, and control the movement (absences) of library materials from their designated locations. Consequently, a circulation system for an academic library may become an intricate combination of policies, procedures, data processing, equipment, and staff, the operations of which may demand a significant portion of the library budget.

To fulfill its purposes a circulation system must contain records for items such as books, journals, and microforms that have been removed from the locations indicated for them by library catalogs. It is assumed here that a circulation system contains a file of these records, called an absence file. The term absence file is preferred to charge file, since a file of this nature will inevitably hold records for items that are absent for reasons other than library charges of items to patrons. It is important to recognize this in basic terminology and considerations, since the cause of an item’s absence determines how its absence record is processed to secure the item’s return.

A circulation system may also contain other kinds of records. The library may maintain files of user records (e.g., a
file of registered borrowers) and item
records (e.g., an accession book or com-
puter-held shelflist). Different combina-
tions of files like these may be used for
circulation control, depending upon a li-
brary’s circumstances.

Special user-held and item-held rec-
ords such as borrower identification
cards and manual or punched book cards
may also be employed in a circulation
system. Since these records serve as
sources of borrower and book informa-
tion for charges, it is convenient to
call them source records.

There are also transaction records
which may be created for a variety of
transactions that can occur between the
library and its users: charging and dis-
charging items, placing reserves on cir-
culating books for users who have re-
quested them, settling fines, etc. Charge
records may be updated for subsequent
transactions such as reserve requests and
discharges, although some transactions
such as fines handling may require new
records and special files. For a library
to ensure that items carried by exiting
users have been properly charged, some
form of transaction evidence—typically
cards or slips—is required. This evidence
may contain return dates upon which
items are due, for the borrowers’ con-
venience.

Together these elements furnish a set
of key factors by which circulation sys-
tems may be described and typed: the
media and data of source records and
absence records; the techniques of data
transfer by which book and borrower
data are combined to create charge rec-
cords; the kinds of transaction evidence;
and the existence, storage characteristics,
and processing of library files of
user, item, and absence records. This pa-
per documents the significance of these
and other factors in the analysis and de-
sign of academic library circulation sys-
tems.

It has been useful in the following dis-
cussion to introduce still more nonstan-
standard terms for concepts which are usu-
ally referenced in circulation system lit-
erature by the names of particular ex-
amples. The use of such terms may
inconvenience some readers, but that is
the cost of attempting to deal in gener-
alities rather than specifics. As the large
number of circulation systems described
here and elsewhere indicates, a range of
possibilities rather than a single an-
swer exists for many aspects of circula-
tion system design. It is therefore im-
portant to think in terms of general
concepts rather than of particular exam-
pies. Different terms have thus been
liberally used to supplement standard
ones, to avoid conceptual limits that
might otherwise be imposed. Where new
or different terms are used, the familiar
ones to which they are related are
usually mentioned as examples.

**INFORMATION REQUIREMENTS**

Two basic information needs are usu-
ally considered minimum requirements
for academic library circulation systems:
R\(^1\), the provision of locational infor-
mation about items absent from their prop-
er locations, and R\(^2\), the provision of
processing and control information nec-
essary to regulate these absences. An
optional requirement is R\(^3\), the provision
upon request of information about spe-
cified users’ transactions. There is an-
other, more general need for managerial
or statistical information about circula-
tion system operations which will not
be analyzed here.

**BASIC FILE PROCESSING
CAPABILITIES**

Beyond updating the absence file by
adding new records and changing and
removing old ones to record new trans-
actions and changes in absence status
(e.g., recording that books have been
loaned or returned or reserved by a
patron), other, special capabilities are
needed to satisfactorily process it for R\(^1\)
and R\(^2\) requirements: the capability to
answer locational queries with reasonably current information, within a satisfactory response time; the capability to discharge returned items rapidly and to identify special categories and pieces and generate appropriate notifications (e.g., identify overdue books and items that have been reserved by users, and send fines bills and reserve notices); and the capability to identify and process records for overdue loans and for other kinds of absences periodically (e.g., to search for lost books). Even a quick comparison of how systems provide these capabilities and what their methods imply for R1 and R2 performance in a particular library is one way of evaluating alternative designs.

**Key Factors**

The term item absence is used to indicate the physical removal of a library item from its assigned location. Item absences may be classified into categories like those shown in Figure 1: lost items, one-day loans, etc. Here absence categories are primarily distinguished as controlled or uncontrolled, based on accessibility by call number of corresponding absence records. If a record for a missing item can be looked up by call number, then the library knows about or has control of the absence. Whether individual absence categories are eliminated (rather minimized), allowed but controlled, or ignored defines circulation system scope and sometimes other library requirements as well. Consider, for example, trying to minimize some of the uncontrolled categories shown by Figure 1. Denying public access to bookstacks to reduce thefts and misshelving, or increasing staff to speed shelving of returned items may have been significant policy and cost implications.

To control a category of absences through a circulation system requires that special (absence) records be created and processed for them. Depending upon the category, these requirements may become major system design and cost factors. For example, if special locations of compactly stored items are shown by circulation system records instead of updates to library catalogs, then a large number of records may be added to absence files for an indefinite time. The penalties of creating a special absence file for storage items, or of enlarging existing files, may become crucial when file storage and processing costs or system response times are significantly increased.

To exercise R1 control requires accessing absence records by locational keys of missing items—in the example of Figure 1, by finding records through call number lookups.

To have R2 control requires that each absence record be periodically retrieved and processed according to its age and membership within a given absence category. When an absence record is created, some time factor such as current date or transaction due date is usually recorded. Within each category records may therefore be subcategorized according to their time factor associations, or ages. Thus at any point in time each subcategory may be scheduled for a unique processing action: some students receive first overdue notices while others receive second notices; some missing books are declared lost and are reordered, while others are simply searched for again.

Because it is generally expected that absent items can be returned or found, the circulation system may actively seek these returns by periodically retrieving and processing absence records through such actions as these. Multiple processing phases are generally prescribed for each absence category, on the order of: (1) first record retrieval and processing phase (e.g., first overdue notice, first follow-up search for a missing item, first interdepartmental notice to preservation department about an item sent there for repair, etc.); (2) one or more
Some Possible Absence Categories*

Controlled (by absence records accessible through call number)
  - circulation system R1 file
    - non-charges
      - lost items
      - reordered, lost items
      - missing items being traced
    - charges
      - to individuals
        - 1-day loans
        - overnight loans
        - student loans
        - faculty loans
        - loans of reserved items
      - to nonindividuals
        - photoduplication
        - binding
        - interlibrary loan
        - acquisitions
        - cataloging
        - reserve department
  - other files
    - compact storage files
    - binding records for items in process

Uncontrolled (not represented by records accessible through call number)
  - undetected missing items
  - specially located items whose whereabouts are not shown by library catalogs
    - folios
    - microfilm
    - new books on display

* These examples illustrate possible absences, and are not intended to represent those of any specific library.

Fig. 1
Given:
1. A category of absences for “regular loans,” which are made daily and fall due exactly one week from given charge dates.
2. A five-day week.
3. A series of R² processing phases (A, B, C) for items not returned by their scheduled due dates, the first phase of which occurs one week after a given item’s due date, and the other phases of which occur at one-week intervals thereafter.

The number of subcategories extant within a single absence category depends upon the maximum length of each absence subcategory (in this case 21 days), and the intervals at which new subcategories are begun (here the intervals all equal 1 day). It can be shown for this case that the maximum number of absence subcategories is the length (21 days) divided by the interval (1 day), plus 1. Thus at any time after day 21, twenty-two absence subcategories may be extant. Each subcategory goes through three processing phases (A, B, C), so that daily after day 21, three separate R² retrievals must be made to process one absence subcategory each through one of three phases.

Fig. 2
Absence Subcategories and Processing Phases
subsequent phases (e.g., send a second overdue notice and then a bill for a lost book, conduct a second follow-up search for missing item, etc.); and (3) a terminal phase (e.g., order a replacement copy for an unreturned item, or update library catalogs to show its permanent loss). The number of processing phases and the nature of actions taken during each depend of course upon the category of absence records being processed. The point is that items become absent for different reasons, and that the processes necessary to secure their returns vary accordingly. Enforcing a processing schedule and especially a terminal phase will ensure that absence records do not remain in files indefinitely, and that appropriate remedial action will be taken. This benefits delinquent borrowers and those with reserves on absence items, and may simplify and reduce circulation system R² activities.

Within a given absence category each absence subcategory undergoes its own series of processing phases. The number of subcategories is not necessarily related to the number of processing phases prescribed for a category. Figure 2 illustrates this.

Specifications of absence categories and subcategories and processing phases give a basic definition of circulation R² requirements, since the number of required R² retrieval categories is equal to or greater than the maximum number of absence subcategories extant at any time. That is, the system must be able to retrieve and process each subcategory of absent records. It should be realized that the number of processing phases and the number of subcategories for a single absence category may vary through time. Their dynamic nature may be attributed to changing library use patterns and circulation policies, increased processing loads, etc., which emphasize the importance of flexible system R² capabilities. How or if present and future R² requirements for a specified set of absence categories can be met is critical to circulation system design. This is especially important for manual systems, where record encoding methods and file review techniques may effectively limit the frequency of retrieval passes on large files, as well as the number of absence subcategories which can be separately retrieved during a single file pass.

**Circulation System Records**

Circulation system records are created and accessed to control users' privileges and item absences. Two general types of users' privileges are the privilege to enter the library and restricted areas within, and the privilege to initiate transactions.

Records of item absences may be accessed for several purposes. Accesses by primary item identification key (usually call number) are made to satisfy R¹ requirements for locational information. Periodic retrievals of absence subcategories by attributes such as due dates are made for R² processing. Accesses by a user identification key such as name or identification number are needed to provide information about specified users' transactions.

Records of charge transactions between the library and its users are created by combining user data, item data, and time data. Media (source records) and methods by which user data and item data may be initially presented to the system are indicated by Figures 3 and 4, which distinguish between the active participation of users in making their identifications, and the passive nature of items is being identified.

The process of identifying users to the system may be designed for different levels and qualities of user participation. The user's role may range from simply presenting an identification card to writing or speaking varying quantities of information (e.g., full data such as name, address, telephone number; or partial data such as an identification
Possible Methods of User Identification

identification card

alphanumeric data
- embossed/debossed
- printed data that are also machine-readable
  - optically readable fonts
  - magnetic-ink character recognition fonts

machine-readable coded data
- punched
- optically readable bar
- coded
- optically readable (mark-sense)
- codes
- magnetically readable

various combinations of alphanumeric and coded data

no identification card
- unverified user stipulation of identity
- user stipulation of identity and system confirmation (e.g., use of passwords)
- staff recognition
- emerging machine-aided identification systems
  - fingerprint recognition
  - voice recognition

Except for "staff recognition," each of these methods of user identification requires initial or responsive user action. It is important to recognize which user card data may or may not be visually readable or otherwise meaningful to users.

Fig. 3
### Methods of Item Identification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Cards</th>
<th>No Item Card</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Machine-readable</td>
<td>Machine-readable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- punched</td>
<td>- readable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- magnetically coded</td>
<td>- reprographic transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- optically readable</td>
<td>- manually transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- mark sense codes</td>
<td>- quick copying (e.g., xerography)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- readable fonts</td>
<td>- item/label information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machine-aided replication of item record data</td>
<td>Machine-readable item/label information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Removal of manual item card(s) for duration of item absence</td>
<td>Reprographic transfer of item/label information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item identifications are passive, in the sense that items do not initiate or enact their own identifications. Users or library employees must therefore do the implied tasks. Item card data may not be visually readable, since the same data may be printed elsewhere inside or outside the item.

Fig. 4
number). What the user must do to identify himself is critical to the sensitive user-system interface, and may significantly influence system performance.

Similarly, the complementary roles of user and system in making item identifications can be variously designed for minimal user participation (e.g., present a book for charging) to extensive participation (e.g., fill out a transaction form). It is thus important to evaluate the method and ease with which item data can be transferred, and the extent of the user's participation beyond simply designating wanted material.

TIME DATA

Time factor data are made part of a transaction record to associate it with some point in time such as a transaction date or due date, or a time clock reading. There are two basic types of time data for lending transactions: fixed time data, which are the same for all charges within a given time frame (e.g., all books charged today are due in one month); and variable time data, which differ for charges made within a given period, according to particular transaction criteria such as user and item attributes (e.g., student loans, faculty loans, loans of unbound periodicals).

Since variable time data may be determined by either a user's or item's attributes or by a combination of both, a decision-making or computing capability is required that is not needed for fixed time data. Variable time data can thus be distinguished as simple or complex. Simple data are determined by a single transaction criterion such as a single user or item attribute: e.g., two-week student loans, one-month faculty loans, overnight loans of unbound periodicals. Complex data are determined by a combination of transaction criteria, as illustrated by Figure 5.

TRANSACTION EVIDENCE

Evidence of valid charges is required to inspect items that users carry from the library building. This follows from the basic R^2 need for information to control item absences. The proliferation of library security systems in recent years emphasizes the necessity and quality of transaction evidence.

Two types of transaction evidence can be asserted. Simple evidence contains no more user and item data than are input to the system at transaction time, such as user numbers and item call numbers. Complex evidence involves user and item data other than transaction time inputs. For a system to respond with additional data for complex evidence may require special files, processing, and hardware not otherwise needed. This can be particularly demanding in online computerized systems. Consider, for example, the requirements of providing transaction time outputs of full user (e.g., name, address) and item information (e.g., call number, author, title) upon inputs of just user and item identification numbers. Real-time access to files of user and item records would be needed, in addition to terminals that can rapidly display (e.g., printout) the evidence. Think also of security systems that use special book labels or embedded book plates, which are switched
and detected to indicate “valid charge” or “no charge.”

Transaction evidence usually contains time data to remind borrowers of item return dates. Since time data are typically assigned during the creation of charge records, for both the borrowers’ convenience and system R^2 needs, the incidence and quality of these data are not questioned or used to classify types of transaction evidence.

**Transaction Data Storage and Transfer**

In examining how charge records are created, basic questions are how much transaction information is required in the system, and where data are stored and in what forms. Important factors are the media and data of source records, whether there are pretransaction system-held user or item records, the amount and methods of transaction time data transfers, and the quality of transaction evidence. Table 1 illustrates relationships among data storage and transfer, and requires a somewhat detailed explanation.

Table 1 is concerned first with relative quantities of transaction information—how much data must the system record for a charge, how much identification data are carried by user and item source records (for example, in punched identification and book cards), how much user and item data must be input to the system at transaction time, how much information must transaction evidence contain? We are dealing here with relative amounts of data—partial data and complete data—since the individual requirements of each circulation system specify for it the exact data elements that are needed. When we speak of complete data we mean all the data of a given type—e.g., complete user data. The term partial data is used when only part of the complete data is stored or transferred. It should be realized that what may serve as partial data in one system (e.g., the use of item call numbers to access full descriptive records of books) may be regarded as complete data in another system (e.g., the use of only the call number to describe the item—without citation of author or title).

The table assumes for charge records that enough data (i.e., complete data) about users and items must be held by the system for it to send sufficient descriptions (e.g., telephoned or mailed overdue messages) of unreturned items to delinquent borrowers. In some systems, call numbers alone may suffice as item data, whereas in other systems author, title, and so forth may also be used. Given that the system must hold complete charge information, we can now go back and examine the possible quantities of descriptive data that may be distributed prior to transaction time among users, items (i.e., stored in source records), and system-held files. From here we can see how much data of each type need to be transferred into the system to create a charge record. We also know from this how much data are available for simple transaction evidence, and what further data would be involved in supplying complex evidence.

Looking at Table 1, the first column is headed “Source Record System Types,” which are simply reference numbers that are used in following paragraphs to describe prototype systems. The columns headed “Pre-Transaction Data Storage” show where and how much data for each system type are held by user and item source records and by the system, prior to transaction time. The symbol “N” shows that no data are held by a given component. By definition partial data are inadequate for addressing borrower notifications or identifying items, and must therefore be matched to system-held records containing complete data. Examples of source records containing complete data are magnetic user cards and punched item cards that each contain full information.
# TABLE 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Record System Types</th>
<th>Pre-Transaction Data Storage</th>
<th>Transaction-Time Transfers</th>
<th>Post-Transaction Chrg Records</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>User Data</td>
<td>Item Data</td>
<td>User Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>User-Held</td>
<td>Item-Held</td>
<td>User-Held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sys-Held</td>
<td>Sys-Held</td>
<td>Sys-Held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>C</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Symbols:** C: complete; N: none; P: partial; -: either not applicable, or complex evidence is not required to furnish complete data.

Printed user cards could also contain complete data.

The columns headed "Transaction-Time Transfers" show for each system type how much user and item data must be transferred to create a complete charge record. The columns headed "Transaction Evidence" indicate the qualities of possible transaction evidence, using the meanings of partial and complete data, and simple and complex evidence given previously.

The following comments are made to illustrate possible influences of source records upon system design and performance. Type 1 is representative of systems with user cards that contain Hollerith-punched identification numbers, and Hollerith-punched item cards containing complete item information.

The only user data contained by simple transaction evidence are the identification numbers, which are regarded as partial data. More user data could be provided by implementing a special system response to furnish complex transaction evidence. The only user data contained by simple transaction evidence are the identification numbers, which are regarded as partial data. More user data could be provided by implementing a special system response to furnish complex transaction evidence.

Type 2 represents systems in which transaction time inputs of user and item identification numbers are made as links to complete system-held records. Using embossed/debossed cards as source records would yield simple transaction evidence that contains partial data. In an on-line system machine-readable cards or manual keystroking could be used to input identification numbers, and a system response could provide complex transaction evidence containing complete user and item data.

Type 3 suggests a system with magnetic user and item cards encoded with complete data. Another type 3 system is one that quick-copies printed user and item cards to produce a record (perhaps multiply copied to provide simple transaction evidence) containing complex user and item data.

Type 4 represents a system containing partial information for users with invalid privileges, which if matched at transaction time, triggers a system response to prohibit the charge. This feature can be incorporated by manually checking a blacklist, by building this capability into an on-line system, or by adding to any circulation system special negative authorization hardware now used in some commercial applications.

A type 5 system could be one using embossed/debossed user cards to transfer complete data to transaction forms, which are filled in manually with item data. A type 6 system is one in which complete user and item information is transcribed. In a type 7 system a user identification number and full item data could be transcribed to a transaction form, perhaps from a printed user card.
and the item itself. If the user number were mark-sense coded using a special form, it could be read by an optical reader to access a complete computer-held user record.

**FILE MEDIA AND ORGANIZATION**

Absence record media and file organization are mutually influential system characteristics which affect the response times of file-dependent activities such as querying and discharging. They are definitely related to the media and methods of data storage and transfer, as discussed above.

So far the concept of an absence file has been discussed in terms of a single file. It should now be recognized that several differently ordered files or even a single file partitioned into separate sections may actually serve the absence file functions, which are essentially to support $R^1$ and $R^2$ processing.

Table 2 illustrates possible combinations of file media, organizations, and functions. Since the $R^1$ function is viewed as essential to academic library circulation systems, systems which cannot provide locational information for specific, missing items upon request are not considered. This figure does not attempt to give comprehensive descriptions of possible file organizations. Rather, it only illustrates the significance of file characteristics by defining sample types of systems. These are explained below.

Type 1 is representative of systems in which absence records are coded for due date and put into a single manual file ordered by call number. Examples of this are some notched-card and tabbed-card systems. Examples of a type 2 system are traditional double-record (e.g., two book cards, multiple-part transaction forms) systems which have an $R^1$ file ordered by call number, and a separate $R^2$ file primarily ordered by date and secondarily ordered by call number. A type 3 system could have a single file like this $R^2$ file—a call number file partitioned into sections that each contain records with the same date due. Some $R^1$ call number queries require multiple lookups, but $R^2$ identifications are simple. A type 4 example is a system with a single machine-held file that supports $R^1$, $R^2$, and $R^3$ functions ($R^3$ is the optional requirement to provide information about specified users' transac-

### TABLE 2

**Descriptions of System Types by Absence-File Characteristics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Organizations</th>
<th>Functions</th>
<th>System Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>manual records</td>
<td>single file, call number order</td>
<td>$R^1$</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manual records</td>
<td>single file in call number order, with records coded for due dates</td>
<td>$R^1$</td>
<td>$X$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manual records</td>
<td>single file by due date, secondary order by call number</td>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>machine-held sequentially accessible records</td>
<td>single file, ordered by call number</td>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>machine-held directly accessible records</td>
<td>various files in various orders</td>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>computer printout</td>
<td>sequential listing in call number order</td>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>computer printout</td>
<td>lists of specified users' transactions</td>
<td>$R^3$</td>
<td>X X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
tions). $R^2$ and $R^3$ outputs are made by automatic, batch processing runs that generate overdue and other notices, and lists of users' transactions. $R^1$ queries are answered from periodic printouts of the file in call number order. In a type 5 system transaction data are directly processed to update a randomly accessed machine file. Printouts of the file support $R^1$ querying and $R^3$ requests, as in the type 4 system. A type 6 system would be one in which $R^1$, $R^2$, and $R^3$ functions are directly performed through on-line, real-time access to computer-held files.

**CONCLUSION**

This paper has attempted to explain basic concepts and components common to many types of circulation systems. Classifications of systems according to their source records and files have been given only as illustrations. These are not comprehensive, and other criteria and classifications are possible. To evaluate and design specific kinds of systems such as manual systems and on-line systems will require special considerations beyond the general ones that have been made here. Nevertheless, an understanding of the factors that have been discussed should benefit library managers and system designers alike, who in the process of circulation system development must establish requirements and choose among alternative designs. Once library requirements are known and a system design is well understood, questions of managerial information and costs can then be examined.

**REFERENCES**

To the Editor:

Anthony Ralston’s “The Library Lobby” perhaps should not be taken seriously, since it represents not a scholarly approach to an academic problem but a political approach. However, it does appear as the lead article in a scholarly journal, and therefore, should be criticized in the hope that it will not be taken seriously.

It is clear that Ralston does not understand the purpose of libraries, and one doubts that he understands the purposes of computers. The technology of computers, yes; the purpose, no. The purpose of the library in the university should be academic. So should the purpose of the computer. He says that the computer is a general intellectual resource for the entire university community and “all users make use of approximately the same set of resources.” True, perhaps, but the actual data useful to a large segment of academia is almost nil.

Ralston says that “lack of adequate computing facilities or fast service can be a severe, sometimes fatal impediment to effective research activity,” and “it is relatively unusual for the lack of specific items in the university library to make a research activity unfeasible.” Try that last one on the next professor requesting an interlibrary loan! Such statements reveal an ignorance of research and its techniques. Perhaps, as Professor Billington of Princeton has said, “the advent of the computer has encouraged the trivialization of scholarship and the belief that things that count are those that can be counted.”

Ralston suggests the library charge students for providing information and that each department have a budget for library usage to which each transaction be charged. So now we are to provide service only to those students and departments that can provide a budget for it. It is quite true that some departments use the library more than others, and that library services need to be evaluated, but we need more interdisciplinary cooperation, not a further fragmentation of the university based on ability to pay.

Ralston’s views are not new. They represent the narrow view that technologists have always held and which have contributed so much to the belief that if something is technologically feasible it should be done, and should be supported, without concern for the implications to society. The computer is a marvelous tool and has many applications in both data processing, and some day, information retrieval. It needs the firm hand of the humanist to guide it if it is to make a significant contribution to goals of the university.

G. M. Jenks
Ellen Clarke Bertrand Library
Bucknell University
Lewisburg, Pennsylvania

To the Editor:

Elizabeth Stone’s article, “Quest for Expertise: A Librarian’s Responsibility” (CRL, Nov. 1971), discusses ideas and makes suggestions which have wider application than just to academic librarians. All librarians, academic, special, public, school, etc., have an obligation to develop professionally. What concerns me is the narrowness of ways and subjects in which Stone suggests librarians can grow professionally.

I agree workshops are an excellent way in which to keep up with the new developments in the field of library science. Library schools should do much more in sponsoring one- or two-day meetings designed to keep professional librarians up to date. I question the advisability of taking more than two or

three more courses in library school after one has their MLS degree unless studying for a doctorate. Formal courses in library science per se can only go so far and after a while cannot really help one to grow professionally.

Also, I seriously question Stone's contention that librarians should be expected to engage in research and publication as a matter of course and that growth will automatically follow. A great deal of research and scholarly writing done today is repetitious, dull, and of little significance. It may enhance the writers' reputation and if employed in teaching it is necessary to advancing one's career. Whether it really contributes to the profession and learning in general is another question. Not all people are equipped to do research or have the incentive to do it. Testing the results of research is always a questionable task since conditions usually have to be right and situations do not always call for the application of research results.

Stone suggests that librarians become involved in the community outside the library as librarians. I would suggest librarians become involved in the community in any way they wish as individuals whose profession happens to be that of a librarian. What is necessary, I think, for the librarian is first and foremost for the librarian to develop as a person; to have other interests than the library. One may have strong interests outside the library and the library profession and still be a dedicated, up-to-date librarian; if one is aware of the world in which they live they can serve the public better than if they try to apply everything they come across to librarianship.

In this day of specialization and social upheaval it may be rather old-fashioned to suggest librarians return to the concept that a librarian should be a "Renaissance Man," but that is what I think we should aim for. Stone emphasizes the social and behavioral sciences to the exclusion of the sciences and humanities. The librarian interested in the sciences or humanities has as much to contribute to the profession as those interested in the social sciences.

Librarians deal with people in social situations, true, but they deal with individuals more. A humane and particular interest in each person's needs is more important than dealing with the library public as a social group.

Lois E. Newman
Librarian
RAND Corporation Library
Santa Monica, California

To the Editor:

Thank you for Mrs. Stone's article. I will now start reading, widely, outside library professional literature—take courses and receive formal instruction—attend every workshop I can—calm my fears, undo my ignorance—join Common Cause, and Sierra Club, the Republicans even—never miss a PTA meeting—and see how I progress. Do we report back a year from now?

For those who cannot bring themselves to any of these, be consoled. Motivation is in the genes and if Stone's findings are correct, librarians are wanting in this part of their genetic makeup. Genetic engineering is indicated; exhortations are useless.

T. Mark Hodges
Associate Librarian
Southeastern Regional Medical Library Program
Emory University
Atlanta, Georgia

P. S. Anthony Ralston's article was a real humdinger.

To the Editor:

I am a little surprised to see Mason's adjectival orgy taken so seriously (CRL, Sept. 1971). I expected Clyde King's evaluation of the Gas Bubble to conclude "but of zero scholarly value."

I find it difficult to believe that anyone ever believed all that Licklider told us in "Libraries of the Future," or that senior members of the profession should fail to recognize that the computer is to the printing press what the internal combustion engine is to our own two feet. Did you ever know anyone who sold his car after costing it against his own two feet?

Amongst the problems facing the costing of automation projects is the problem of costing our services and finding the time to do it. If Mason cared to visit the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, he could see
an order system which, when I left the post in the spring of 1970, had not been evaluated beyond “we couldn’t go back to the old system.” Amongst the benefits I would not know how to cost are monthly lists informing staff of the progress of orders placed in response to their requests, regular reminders in place of the annual dismemberment of the order file, relief from filing, a printout allowing much speedier consultation than a card file.

The early literature stressed that computers were looked to to solve problems of increasing loads which manual systems were unable to bear, especially circulation systems. This hardly tallies with the vision of manual perfection that emanates from Hofstra. If Mason has no problems he can well afford to watch from the wings until fully developed packages are available for him to take over—development costs nil.

John H. Russell
Sublibrarian
Salford University
Salford, England

To the Editor:

Re Carver’s letter re Corbin re Mason:
Carver, I think, does Mason some justice, and some too to Corbin. But, my goodness, the last paragraph of the letter—well, all one can say is: “For heaven’s sake, block that flyaway metaphor.”
Peter Gellatly
Serials Librarian
University of Washington Libraries
Seattle

To the Editor:

As a university librarian, and now a student of information problems, I could not agree more with Anthony Ralston (CRL 32:427–31, Nov. 1971). In the last few years, my entire orientation on the question of building library collections has been—in library committee meetings, at professional library meetings, and in my writings—toward making more efficient use of the books we have and by making more efficient allocation of the book budget. I have taken this stance even if it were to mean a reduction in the library’s budget, or a reduction of the percentage of the university’s budget allocated to the library.

Finding ways to “consider the utility of a particular book or periodical when ordering it,” as Ralston puts it, is one of our profession’s great unsolved problems. How do we predict demand for a book at time of purchase? And how many copies do we buy to satisfy that demand? The second question has been partially answered, but not the first. To wait until the book has or has not circulated over a period of time before determining demand merely contributes to the usual frustration in libraries. If Ralston can suggest a solution to this problem—or even suggest a research method—he would be making a contribution to our profession even greater than he has with his article. Not until we have this solution can we effectively reduce our budgets, or pacify the faculty at large who are after all the ones whose demand for large libraries accounts for library budgets which everyone except men like Ralston say aren’t large enough.

William E. McGrath
Syracuse University School of Library Science
Syracuse, New York

To the Editor:

I was astonished to find, in the annotation on p.40–41 of the January 1972 issue of CRL (“Selected Reference Books of 1970–71”) that Gazeta SSSR, 1917–1960 is the “definitive bibliography of Soviet periodical literature,” lists “journals by subject,” and omits archival locations for “journals.” This is a crucial error in a usually reliable listing such as Mr. Sheehy’s, since the highly important bibliography under review lists only newspapers, as is clearly indicated by the unambiguous title. As the volume’s preface states, this is the first attempt to compile a complete listing of post-Revolutionary newspapers printed in the USSR. And, as any Slavic librarian should know, the definitive periodical bibliography for the 1917–1960 period (covering journals, monographs in series, and miscellaneous recurrent publications) has been in print for some years. Periodicheskie pechat’ SSSR, 1917–1949 (M., 1955–63) was followed by Letopis’ periodicheskikh izdani SSSR, 1950–1954 and Letopis’ periodicheskikh

I should also like to take exception to Ms. Evelyn Lauer’s criticism of the lack of library locations for the so-called “journals.” Such a union listing would be redundant, since all the newspapers listed are available either from the Lenin Library (Moscow) or the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library (Leningrad), and the major all-Union newspapers (such as Pravda, Izvestia, Ekonomicheskaia Gazeta, Krasnaia Zvezda, etc.) are also held by the city libraries of the Republic capitals.

I hope this note will clarify the scope and intent of Gazety SSSR, 1917–1960 for librarians who otherwise might have been regrettably misled, and who might not have added this exceedingly valuable pioneer work to their collections.

Rosemary Neiswender
Slavic Bibliographer
University of California
Los Angeles

To the Editor:

Mrs. McCaghy and Mr. Purcell have made a good case study of “Faculty Use of Government Publications” at Case Western Reserve University (CRL 33:7–12, Jan. 1972) and I agree with them on suggestions made to increase user’s awareness of the documents collection. Indeed, no matter what organizational scheme the library may adopt for maintaining government publications (U.S. federal), it would very much depend upon librarian’s efforts and expertise to promote a fuller use of them to support academic and research programs of the institution and, in this sense, a closer and constant communication between faculty members and librarians should be more encouraged and desirable in the area of government publications.

The degree of using government publications by faculty members (and students) may also depend upon what type of academic and research programs the institution carries on. The paper does not include this factor in conducting the survey and the outcome of it could have been somewhat different.

Following are some of the academic and research programs at State University of New York at Stony Brook which generate a heavier use of government publications both by faculty members and students in the group, among others, of statistical/technical publications, and U.S. congressional committee hearings:

For Undergraduate Academic Programs:

1. Interdisciplinary Program in Black Studies
2. Interdisciplinary Program in Environmental Studies
3. Interdisciplinary Program in Urban Science and Engineering

For Graduate Academic and Research Programs:

1. Earth and Space Sciences
2. Ecology and Evolution
3. Marine Environmental Studies
4. Urban Science and Engineering
5. Applied Ecology Project

As you may know, the majority of publications to support the above programs are government-authored at all levels.

Jai Liang Yun
Documents Librarian
State University of New York
at Stony Brook
BOOK REVIEWS


This book is a collection of sixty-six papers by various authors. Most of the papers have previously been published elsewhere, and all are quite recent. (Only three predate 1960.) Most of the papers are important: Maron and Kuhns on probabilistic indexing, Swets on system performance, Leimkuhler on library systems analysis, Borko and Bernick on automatic classification, etc. Because these papers have appeared in journals as disparate as ETC, College & Research Libraries, the Journal and Communications of the Association for Computing Machinery, American Documentation, Nature, etc., their collection into a single volume is a signal service for which we owe Professor Saracevic and The Bowker Company a debt of gratitude. Because most of these papers have not previously been collected, and because their general quality is so high, this book should be purchased by every library that has even a minimal collection in the area of librarianship or information science.

A very regrettable feature of the volume is that in his general introduction, the editor does not help to clarify what this discipline that he calls “information science” is, but rather perpetuates and further compounds the confusion that is rampant in the promotional literature of ASIS, the bulletins of schools of “information science,” and other publications. True, “information science” is, as Professor Saracevic states, a “nascent science,” and we should therefore not expect a totally unambiguous definition of the field—especially since practitioners of even long-established disciplines often cannot do so for their own fields. Nevertheless, we do have a right to expect Professor Saracevic to explain whatever obvious lacunae and gross disparities occur in his own definition.

The evidence presented in this volume suggests that the discipline it represents—whether one calls it “information science” or something else—is substantial and shows vigorous signs of approaching maturity. This makes it all the more regrettable that the editor has so misled the reader—particularly the reader who is new to the field and has not yet learned to discount the grandiose claims information science usually makes for itself—about the nature of the discipline to which the volume is an introduction. It should be stressed again that Professor Saracevic is not alone in defining information science more broadly than he conceives it in practice. Even the constitution of ASIS delineates the Society’s area of interest as “information and its transfer” which is clearly not the Society’s interest in practice. For example, the ASIS Journal would almost certainly not accept an article, even of very high quality, on the structure of Swahili, or the imagery of Keats, or problems in teaching arithmetic to ghetto children; yet all three articles could quite reasonably be subsumed under the rubric of “information and its transfer.” (But then the Journal of ASIS has not kept up with what is going on in its parent society: it calls itself, in its “instructions to authors,” “... journal in the various fields in documentation.” However, this states better than the constitution of ASIS what the real interests of the majority of the Society’s members are.)

A final minor complaint: This book will probably be used primarily as a sourcebook. It is therefore regrettable that it does not contain an author index. This might have been more useful than the rather poor subject index that is provided.—Kelley L. Cartwright, School of Library Service, University of California, Los Angeles.

Planning the Academic Library: Metcalf and Ellsworth at York. Harry Faulkner

Recent Publications

This small volume is the edited record of a collection of informal papers given by the two internationally famous academic library consultants, Dr. Keyes D. Metcalf, Librarian of Harvard College, Emeritus, and Dr. Ralph E. Ellsworth, Director of Libraries, University of Colorado, at a short course on Academic Library Planning held at The York Institute of Advanced Architectural Studies in 1966. As the foreword indicates "brevity has dictated the elimination of certain contributions and most of the discussion." This is unfortunate, in the opinion of the reviewer, because often the most meaningful results of a gathering such as this are the questions asked and the ideas which surface in the unstructured discussions by the participants.

From its title, if indeed titles nowadays should be somewhat descriptive of a book's content, one would suppose that the major thrust of the work would be in the direction of the actual design of academic libraries. To a considerable extent this is not the case. Rather, the contribution made to the literature and thus to a part of the planning process is the verbalizing of the philosophy of the underpinning of American academic and research library development and planning since the 1940s, and the special relationships that should exist between architects and librarians. Any librarians who have ever been consultants can see their own experiences mirrored and will appreciate how often these experiences become "sticky wickets." Such candor in discussing the pitfalls of library planning on today's campuses is indeed refreshing.

The work is entirely verbal; there are no illustrations which would seem a must in a book on library planning. There is a rather curious omission of a discussion of that recent American phenomenon, the undergraduate library. There is no statement on lighting, and one final deficiency is the absence of an index.

Together, Drs. Metcalf and Ellsworth have been involved in some phase of the planning of over 600 major libraries. This makes anything they have to say regarding library planning significant and important. However, there is just no way that this book should be purchased ahead of Metcalf's Planning Academic and Research Library Buildings, 1965, and Ellsworth's Planning the College and University Library, 1968. These two titles remain the essential tools for librarians, architects, and consultants.—Kenneth S. Allen, University of Washington Libraries, Seattle.


Use of Community College Libraries, by Kenneth Allen, is a survey report that will interest many persons who feel strongly about upgrading the quality of higher education. If taken seriously, Allen's study could help in accomplishing this task. As a result, all those who believe that learning can be facilitated by incorporating a library dimension into the educational system should take it seriously indeed.

The reason why Use of Community College Libraries could contribute to such a goal is because this work supplies one more clue as to how students and faculty members perceive the teaching function of today's academic library. Unfortunately, Kenneth Allen's investigation shows that the perception is still considerably out of focus, and in doing so it becomes only the latest in a long line of surveys indicating that "the heart of the college" is anything but the center of the academic enterprise.

The impact of this study will come more from the data collected, and the conclusions which follow, than from the manner in which they are presented. This is because the entire work is organized in the form of a doctoral dissertation, even to the extent that the author subdivides the first chapter with such captions as "Statement of the Problem," and "Limitations of the Study."

Allen's survey deals with information that was obtained from faculty members and students at three community colleges. To gather these data, the author designed a number of questionnaires which could be used in conjunction with circulation records that were available from the same three Illinois schools. After assembling this considerable amount of information, Kenneth Allen analyzed the material to determine whether certain attitudes and given circumstances, such as the number of hours a student was
enrolled, or his principal area of study, had a bearing on the way he used the two-year college library.

Readers who are statistically minded will probably object that all tables are relegated to an appendix. This means that no tabulated materials are in proximity to the text and no illustrations relieve the seriousness of the style. While some persons may prefer the compactness of this arrangement, others are certain to find it a bit troublesome, especially when they realize that the writing is largely reportorial in nature. The reader is especially aware of this hindrance as he examines chapters IV and V, for in these two sections virtually every paragraph makes reference to a table that appears in another section of the book.

The college teacher and administrator who is unaware of use surveys which have been made in academic libraries over the past forty years should pay considerable attention to chapter VII. In this part, Kenneth Allen not only summarizes and discusses his findings, but he also takes up the question of why faculty members show a number of inconsistent attitudes toward the library's place in learning. Chapter VII points out, for example, that while 80 percent of the teachers in this survey felt that students could not succeed in college without using the library, only 30 percent of the students actually read or borrowed any materials that were part of the library collection itself.

Findings of this kind should be brought to the attention of teachers, librarians, and administrators who work at all levels of the learning process. As the author points out, effective utilization of libraries is no accident even though teachers seem to feel students can relate any set of holdings to the structure of a discipline. The fact is that few students have such skill, and because of this librarians and faculty members need to form a team which can facilitate individual development through a wide range of self-selected tools.

The importance of Kenneth Allen's study, then, may lie less in the fact that his data corroborate earlier findings than in his conclusion that the way to make a library truly important in everyday learning is to develop a teaching-based library staff and a library-oriented faculty.—Howard Clayton, School of Library Science, University of Oklahoma.


At a time when the tarnished reputation of higher education is the subject of intense scrutiny, it is interesting to note that many of the innovative ideas proposed by Frank Newman's Report on Higher Education and the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education were suggested by Dean Shores as early as 1934.

The collection of essays in Library-College USA presents evidence of Shores's futuristic thinking for the past thirty-seven years, and his ideas in education are still avant-garde. His philosophy of librarianship should still extend attractive goals to service-minded librarians.

The educational concepts which Shores has explained in many different contexts through the years are here represented in both their topical and chronological development. The notion of the Library-College is described in one excerpt as having at least six basic elements: Learning Mode, Library, Faculty, Curriculum, Facility, and Organization.

The difference in Learning Mode emphasizes the shift from group teaching to individual learning. Here, the alert and academically qualified librarian can lend his expertise in the utilization of resources to the professor's subject knowledge. Without the right resources at the right time, self-paced instruction cannot be realized. Such an educational strategy calls for librarians who seek to utilize their informational resources for the education of students. They cannot wait to be asked, but, rather, must actively enter into the educational process in all of its stages. Such a librarian does not have to worry about faculty status.

Dean Shores also stresses again that the library should house all the different forms of instructional materials available today. This additional complexity offers another area in which librarians can offer their services to students and faculty.

The educational ideas presented here are both innovative and invigorating. However,
the repetition in Library-College USA is a bit overwhelming. It is true that the publication of these twenty-one essays does allow the reader to observe the evolution of Shores's gospel as well as to see the various emphases delineated in the arrangement of the essays. Still, a well-edited condensation would have provided a good synopsis of the philosophy of the library-college movement in a much shorter space and in a much more readable fashion.—Richard J. Vorwerk, Governors State University, Park Forest South, Illinois.


This C.A.C.U.L. workshop continues a tradition begun in 1967 at the University of British Columbia. These workshops were started for the purpose of providing a place where "... institutions actually using or actively planning the use of computers in library operations... could keep up-to-date, share information, and discuss the problems they might have in common..." (Introduction to 1967 workshop) The present volume continues this tradition and adds one additional goal, "... to discuss the continuing need for this type of meeting..." (Introduction to 1970 workshop)

The workshop at which these papers were given was organized into a two-day session with the four working papers presented the first day, and a discussion session held on the second day. The papers cover a computerized serials system at Laval University, an interuniversity circulation data system, the use of MARC at the University of Saskatchewan, and an automated cataloging system for the University of Guelph library.

Two of these papers are unabashedly how-we-do-it-in-our-library (Tom and Burgis) and remind one of the now defunct University of Illinois Clinics on Library Applications of Data Processing. Of the remaining two, one (Anable) is a plea for library cooperation through the creation of an "... Inter-university Circulation Data System..." which would "1. Measure the quality of service; 2. Predict future demands; 3. Aid in selection of new materials; and 4. Aid in establishing hierarchical storage requirements..." (p.123) The fourth paper (DeVarennes) reflects on the trials of implementing a new computerized serials system at Laval University.

The first two papers (Tom and Burgis) are descriptive, excruciatingly detailed, and (for librarians) very technical. Their audience is, therefore, somewhat limited both by expertise and interest. What was even more distressing to this writer was the fact that both papers make assumptions about the usefulness of the manual systems which are not made explicit to the reader. Indeed, one author (Burgis) disparages the necessity for even examining the existing manual system by deciding "... that if the Manual (sic) system had not been perfected over the last 10 years to a satisfactory state, then something more than a time and motion study was needed, and therefore, decided (sic) to get MARC printouts into the hands of the Cataloging Department as soon as possible..." (p.71-72) Such an attitude ignores the most basic premise of all library systems work: that you must first study the existing operation. Ignoring this basic requirement leaves the library EDP professional vulnerable to criticism. The workshop suffered from a lack of critical analysis and review of existing procedures both in-house and in other libraries. This was evident both in the body of the papers and in their review of other systems. Only two of the papers (DeVarennes and Burgis) took the trouble to search the literature and document their work with a bibliography.

The entire conference left this reviewer with a feeling of dissatisfaction. No one can quarrel with the work described or even with the systems themselves. The new systems are innovative and a great amount of hard work has gone into their creation. Yet this reviewer was disappointed that he found only the most meager evidence that any analysis had been made of the basic assumptions (why put any label on card pockets? See p.13) governing the existing manual systems with any degree of rigor. For example, it would be nice to know why "... it was agreed that an automated library system designed to complement the
building would be a goal worth pursuing . . . ” (p.8), or why an accessions file was maintained to produce selective lists by department. (p.13) One wonders if we are still falling into the old trap of automating manual functions without first questioning their usefulness. Could it be that designing systems is fun, while making them perform is just plain hard work?

Poor editing of the papers also detracted from their effectiveness and often puzzled this reviewer. Why, for example, was there a reference on page 83 to page 17 when the page numbering had obviously been changed? Hand-lettering of the flow charts (p.51ff.) was sometimes difficult to read, and why the reader must be subjected to pictures of a map of Canada (p.118) or of a mini-reel of MARC tape (p.96) is beyond this author’s comprehension. Flow charts, tables, diagrams, and even floor plans (p.94) are also forced upon the reader with little explanation.—Robert W. Burns, Jr., Librarian for Research and Development, Colorado State University, Fort Collins.


Each new aspect of library operation produces a concomitant concern with training appropriate for the task. The relationship of the “educational technologist” or “media specialist” and the librarian, especially the school librarian, caused a great amount of curriculum study and revision. Computer entry into the library world had its impact in the “documentalist” or “information scientist” controversy with librarianship. As a result, the library school curriculum has been broadened to encompass training for computer uses. Now another library trend, that of interlibrary cooperation and especially the evolution of library networks, has made such an impact that there is a need to evaluate the training requirements of this mission. Some library schools have already enlarged their course offerings from the traditional “Larger Units of Service” to include courses in library co-

operation and networks.

Olson’s study has as its first objective: “To identify and categorize the major dimensions of interlibrary cooperation which have implications for manpower development in librarianship.” The other objectives are derivatives from the definition of these dimensions and are not fully attained, as Olson points out in the introduction.

The study centers on three dimensions which Olson feels have implications for manpower development in librarianship. From Norton Long, Olson borrows the concept of the “power budget” to ascertain capability of a cooperative as represented by its structure, resources, and decision-making processes to accomplish its goals. The domain of a cooperative is taken to mean the current and future claims the cooperative stakes out for itself in terms of the range of services and the population dealt with. The final dimension is that of opportunities and constraints which Olson restricts to the orientation of the director, the perception of carriers to goal achievement, and staff development. The study of these dimensions was conducted by means of two extensive questionnaires reproduced in the appendix of the report. The first questionnaire was entitled “Interlibrary Cooperative Service Policies Questionnaire,” while the second is called “Interlibrary Cooperative Administrator’s Questionnaire.” In terms of the dimensions considered, Olson then draws conclusions from the data collected via the questionnaire process. Olson is not sanguine about the ability of library networks to effect any social change or any significant modification in library patterns. The “power budget” does not seem to carry enough clout in cooperatives to influence members, and cooperatives have only a minimal leadership role in setting goals, resolving conflicts, and mobilizing resources. The directors of cooperatives emphasized the means of cooperation rather than the end of moving the aggregation of libraries toward substantially different goals.

Translating these dimensions into manpower requirements, Olson sees a need for significant changes in the education for staffing library cooperatives. Specifically, he mentions the principles and techniques of building interorganizational structures, communication linkages, mobilization of re-
sources, decision-making, and problem-solving. It is obvious that, because of the complexity of networks, the kinds of expertise required will vary from the technician to the planner. Field experiences are also suggested as a means of manpower development. Finally, Olson points out the need for training in the social and quantitative sciences.

These are the generalized conclusions that are drawn from the questionnaire, and some of the specific data are perhaps interesting. There is some mystification on the purpose of the "services policies" questionnaire. These seventy-three questions on twenty-two pages ask for detailed, "how do you do it" answers that do not seem to relate to the purpose at hand. The answers have not been woven into the definition of dimensions as described and only vaguely relate to the "domain" concept. The administrative questionnaire is more germane, and the relationship of conclusions drawn can be discerned in the response patterns.

Several of the responses reflecting directors' attitudes on networks' activities were quite revealing. For example, only 2 percent of the respondents felt that cooperative acquisitions could be given any priority in their cooperative endeavors, yet this phase of cooperative activity is often highly touted as a purpose.

From an analysis of the findings, it is obvious that the present attention of cooperatives is based on service. Olson sums the major objectives to be (1) handling the large volume of acquired materials, and (2) developing procedures to improve services to users. Very little attention is given to planning or research.

Training for network participation will be necessary, for as Olson points out, the directors themselves feel that lack of training, experience, and understanding are the reasons most cooperatives fail. One does wonder, however, if it took so much data to establish what some might consider an obvious conclusion. It is apparent that much additional work can be done with the data—work that may prove beneficial in completely different spheres than manpower definitions.—Donald D. Hendricks, Director of the Library, The University of Texas, Southwestern Medical School, Dallas.


This volume is one of a series of Comparative Library Studies intended for use as student texts. The book was first published in 1969, and the second edition is described as "fully revised and expanded." A comparison of the two versions indicates that this is a fair claim: 114 pages in the second as compared with 90 in the first edition; updated statistics; mention of recent developments in Quebec and Saskatchewan, for example, as well as at the national level; considerable rewriting and expansion of several sections, and the addition of a new chapter. There is a satisfactory index and a dreadful map.

One might review a book like this by quoting Dr. Johnson's observation on women preachers. One must be a bold man to undertake to summarize in such small compass the major characteristics of a nation's library service. Campbell has relied primarily on his own wide-ranging knowledge of Canadian libraries and on contacts in the field, rather than on documents for his information. This makes for a readable, highly personal impression; the student or reader who wishes to look further, however, may not always be well served. There are but nine textual references, and although a Select Bibliography is appended, it is not always easy to link the items in the bibliography with the text. Occasional errors of fact were noted: for example, not all of the new university library buildings which sound complete actually are complete.

The book is divided into four major parts of which the first—"Canadian libraries 1900-1960"—is virtually unchanged from the first edition. This occupies a mere twenty-four pages; the remaining three sections deal with post-1960 developments in "Reference and research library resources" (university, special, and government), "Provincial and regional library systems," and "Library planning and co-operation in Canada" (a chapter new to this edition). In this edition the chapter on university libraries has been considerably expanded and reorganized by province—important, because education is a provincial responsibility in Canada. Statistics dramatically illustrate the growth of university library expenditures.
and of student and faculty populations, and brief descriptions are provided of the major university libraries and their research collections. The problems facing the major libraries are reduced here primarily to a discussion of the inadequacy of research resources. One must turn to the final chapter for some indication of the strains placed on basic library resources and services by the growth of undergraduate-level populations both in these universities and in the surrounding junior and community colleges, and in some cases new universities, often founded with inadequate collections and facilities. Campbell also refers to increasing concern on the part of government and university administrations over mounting library costs, leading to proposals for sharing resources, or "rationalization," such as that in Ontario. The results of these pressures can be seen in the increasing sophistication of library procedures, including some highly successful automated systems, and the development of regional cooperation in library services for higher education—voluntary or otherwise.

Campbell points to the coordination of library services at all levels—particularly with the strong lead taken by the National Library—as one of the emerging characteristics of what may be a distinctive Canadian "style." He rightly pays tribute to the debt Canada owes to foreign methods and ideas on which our earliest services were based, and to the expertise of the many Americans who were brought in as administrators during the formative years. But it is his attempt to identify and define for us what is distinctively Canadian—difficult though such a task may be—that gives this book its strength and unity.—Anne Brearley Piternick, School of Librarianship, University of British Columbia, Vancouver.


This is a monumental work that should be of interest to all librarians. An understanding of literary property should be one of the more important attributes of librarianship, and I have always been puzzled by its omission from the library school curriculum.

The author defines literary property as that part of the law of copyright that deals with printed materials, and he excludes maps, designs, music, radio and television, and music. In other words, this is a bibliography of that part of copyright that most concerns college and research libraries—books.

This bibliography is limited to the periodical literature in English related to literary property in the United States and its international aspects. It contains 6,214 citations gathered from approximately 500 periodicals. With so many entries on one subject, a straight alphabetical listing would be too unwieldy. The author attempts to avoid this through classification. Thus, the law of literary property is divided into twenty-six classes (A-Z). Each article is listed only once in its most approximate class. The problems of placing an article with related subjects in any one class is supposedly avoided by placing at the end of each section "see" references to entries in other classes. This, at times, makes the bibliography awkward and time-consuming in its use. For example, most articles on the problem of photocopying in libraries are placed in Section V, "Fair Use," and Copyright. To find every article on this topic, one has to examine items in seventeen other classes, including 131 in Class E (Statutory Copyright in the United States—Domestic Legislation), 28 items in Class U (Copyright Infringement and Remedies), and 25 items in Class W (Copyright and the American Library).

While realizing the listing of articles in more than one class would nearly double the size of the book (and the price), an analytic subject index would have helped to eliminate much of this problem.

A spot check in the Index to Legal Periodicals and a few other bibliographies indicated that only very few articles have been overlooked by the author. I did find omitted such articles as "Revision of the Copyright Law: Statement of the American Council of Learned Secretaries on the Copyright Revision Bill" [American Council of Learned Secretaries Newsletter 16:1-15 (Dec. 1965)]; and Ernest Bruncken, "The Philosophy of Copyright" [Musical Quarterly 2:477-96 (1916)]. Admittedly, these are from obscure publications and no
bibliographer should ever be held to total perfection.

This publication, along with Henriette Mertz, "Copyright Bibliography for Checking Purposes" (Copyright Office, Library of Congress, 1950, 213p.) should be in every library. With them, adequate access to the literature of copyright and literary property will be assured.

Finally, it must be noted that although this work carries a 1971 copyright date, its cut-off date is 1968. It is to be hoped that the author is planning a supplement.—J. Myron Jacobstein, Law Librarian and Professor of Law, Stanford University, Palo Alto, California.


In order to comprehend and assess this volume as a unit, its subtitle must be taken seriously. Many who have read other works in the field of "subject analysis" will find Harris' book to be quite different from what they have come to expect. The work is not philosophical or expository in the tradition of Cutter, Mann, Pettee, Haykin, or Metcalfe. On a superficial level it could be "put down" (both literally and figuratively) as being stylistically a technical report rather than a treatise. Despite the paraphernalia of statistical analysis, however, and the formal hypothetical research terminology, Harris' work cannot be dismissed as just another library science dissertation.

Jessica Harris has already established something of a reputation in librarianship on the basis of her work with Theodore Hines, resulting in their 1966 publication, Computer Filing of Index, Bibliographic, and Catalog Entries, and as teacher at Columbia University's School of Library Service. Thus the appearance of her dissertation occasions perhaps more notice than would be accorded an unknown writer. Further, Americans have not in recent years written many entire books on subject analysis; thus, greater attention must be paid to the few that do emerge.

"Subject analysis" in Harris' work refers primarily to subject headings, and in particular, to those found in the Subject Headings Used in the Dictionary Catalogs of the Library of Congress, 7th edition. After reviewing some of the history of the development of subject headings in the United States under the aegis of Charles Cutter, Harris delineates four analyses of Library of Congress headings: (1) use of aspect subdivisions, (2) use of adjective-noun phrases, (3) relative scope of headings for use in different types of collections, and (4) use of form headings. For each of these, she designed a specific process of investigation, generally making use of sampling techniques and logical analysis to test a number of hypotheses. On the basis of her findings, she has projected certain adjustments in the form of Library of Congress subject headings which will enable them to be arranged by computer in a filing sequence acceptable for library use. Certain of the modifications are sufficiently formal in nature to be accomplished in a strictly mechanical fashion; others are more subtle, requiring complex judgments which must be implemented manually.

Harris could be charged with rewriting the Library of Congress headings in many cases. She believes, however, on the basis of her four studies, that the recommended adjustments are legitimate and express more accurately and consistently the intent of the headings. It might be noted that John C. Rather, in his "provisional version" (March 1971) of Filing Arrangement in the Library of Congress Catalogs, advocates making no such modifications, arguing, "It is illogical to construct a heading one way and then to file it as if it were constructed another way" (p.v).

Whether or not Harris' thesis is convincing, her reworking of the headings could produce a list which—especially in machine-readable form—would lend itself to a more intelligent analysis of the meaning and value of the various types of headings. For example, when inverted headings are changed to nouns with the adjective as a subdivision preceded by a dash, the resultant interfiling of "comma" and "dash" headings raises pertinent questions about the need for both punctuation patterns. From the standpoint of stimulating further research, Harris' suggestions have considerable merit, even though both theoreticians and practitioners may wish to quarrel with her about a number of points.
In sum, Harris' book, while not felicitous in style, embodies suggestions for developing a subject heading list, in machine-manipulable form, which could stimulate considerable investigation into the theory underlying the construction of the headings. Any book with such potential, in these lean years for treatises on the subject, deserves to be taken seriously, even if only to prod the library world toward further research in the field.—Dorothy J. Hickey, Associate Professor of Library Science, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Current Problems in Reference Service.

The new Bowker Series in "Problem-Centered Approaches to Librarianship" is designed "to make case studies available for instructional use in all major areas of the library school curriculum, as well as to demonstrate the value of the case study as a vehicle for presentation and analysis of professional problems." This inaugural volume of the series includes thirty-five new case studies in general reference and may be used in conjunction with the thirty case studies published in Mr. Galvin's earlier collection, Problems in Reference Service: Case Studies in Method and Policy, also published by Bowker. Those unfamiliar with case study methods and objectives are referred to the "Introduction" to this earlier collection, or to any of several other works listed in a "Selected Bibliography" appended to the present volume.

This new collection should be attractive to anyone engaged in the training of library personnel. The cases are drawn from actual library situations and have been specially selected to represent issues of current concern. One case, for example, poses a problem in performance budgeting. Another deals with the borrower's right to privacy. Several cases involve services to the handicapped or to minority groups. Many older problems are of perennial concern, and thus four cases contain variations on the theme of censorship. The situations presented sometimes go well beyond the usual concept of general reference. One of them requires the design of an acquisitions program for the reference collection of a new, two-year school of engineering technology, starting with an initial purchase of $35,000.

As raw material, the cases vary in quality. Some are much richer than others in the possibilities offered for investigation, interpretation, evaluation, and resolution. These possibilities seem greatest when the fundamental issue or problem facing the student is one of administrative decision-making. These cases have many conflicting elements to consider and no "right" answers. It is in the presentation of these kinds of problems that the case study method was developed and has demonstrated its value.

Less successful are those cases primarily concerned with the identification of reference sources and the location of specific information. Such problems are more narrowly limited in scope and lacking in the kinds of conflicting alternatives so favorable for case presentation. One questions the relative effectiveness of the case method with "reference problems" since they appear to gain less by such presentation than do the administrative issues. It is doubtful that any substantial benefit is obtained by dressing up a reference question with dialog which often sounds contrived and with characterization which tends to become caricature. The author suggests evaluating the reference interview in these cases, but this device wears thin after two or three uses.

Despite this criticism, each of the cases has some value as a tool, and the use of a tool has much to do with its effectiveness. Presumably, the successful use of these cases in the classroom has justified their publication here. Another instructor may use them or not, in any way that is profitable and convenient for his purposes. That seems to be just what Galvin intended.—Larry N. Yarbrough, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.


Was California discovered by a Buddhist monk in 458 A.D., or by the blown-off-course Chinese sailor-navigator Hee-Lai in 217 B.C.? Did the first Chinese laborers arrive in California in 1815, or in 1848, or at some date in between? Mr. Heintz' annotations, based primarily on Mrs. Hansen's
compilations, speculate on these and other historical problems relative to Chinese immigrant life in California in particular, and Chinese immigrant life in the western United States in general. Hansen selected appropriate books and pamphlets, published 1850–1968, from the California Room, San Francisco Public Library. All cited titles in English.

This "systematic bibliographic" work utilizes nineteenth-century primary sources (for example, San Francisco Municipal Reports, 1884–1885) and twentieth-century secondary sources. California county and local history sketches, travelers' narratives describing meetings with Chinese natives in California or in San Francisco's Chinatown, and both pro- and anti-Chinese propaganda tracts leading up to the Chinese temporary immigration exclusion of 1882 and the permanent embargo of 1902 are included. Two unusual entries stand out from among the 422 titles listed: (1) Chinese Criminal Photograph Key, which was contained in a ledger book that survived the 1906 earthquake; and (2) a play, Ah Sin, written by Mark Twain and Bret Harte that had been lost and recently rediscovered.

Titles cited are listed alphabetically by author. Entry data comprises author, title in capital letters, publisher, date of publication, and a sometimes brief, sometimes long, descriptive annotation. The exclusion of data relating to illustrations, maps, in-dices, and bibliographies may be a handic-cap for some users.


A short foreword penned by Mr. Thomas W. Chinn, founder and past president of the Chinese Historical Society (San Francisco) is quite informative. Ironically, Chinn's own edited work (A History of the Chinese in California: a Syllabus, Chinese Historical Society, 1969) goes unmen-tioned. Nor is any mention provided of Yung Wing, the first Chinese student graduated from an American university (Yale, 1854, A.B.). Unfortunately, Yung Wing's autobiography, My Life in China and America, is not readily available in an English translation. Nevertheless, the centennial book commemorating this accomplish-ment should have been included: A Survey of Chinese Students in American Universities and Colleges in the Past One Hundred Years ... , China Institute of America, 1954). A less glaring omission is the failure to mention Chinese employment and management of institutions such as the Trader Vic Restaurants—which originated in Oakland, California.

The most serious defect, however, is the narrow bibliographic scope of the work, confining itself to the subject holdings of one, and only one, public library. Perhaps the next step could be compilation of a union book catalog that, coupled with this bibliography, would unite "Chinese in U.S." title-holdings in a multitude of libraries. An excellent pioneering effort, nevertheless, that is recommended as indispensable for collections concentrating on Chinese settlement in the United States, or as an additional purchase for "American Minorities and Race Relations" collections.—Paul A. Snowman III, Formerly Assistant Librarian, Sullivan County Community College, South Fallsburg, New York.


Dr. Evans has brought together here the only comprehensive bibliography of archival literature in English in one volume since 1942, when Solon Buck and Ernst Posner compiled their Selected References on Phases of Archival Administration. In his words, "This guide is confined almost exclu-sively to writings in the English language, and its emphasis is upon archival theory and practice in the United States."

This is a classified bibliography, "organized according to archival functions." One weakness is that any individual writing that relates to more than one topic will not be cross-referenced for the topic(s) under
which it is not classified. However, this is clearly a minor criticism and a small subject index does help. Its positive advantage as an introduction to any aspect of archival and manuscript work is of immense value, and indeed this is clearly the purpose. How much easier it is now to be able to refer to a single volume instead of combing through The American Archivist and Archivum.

Some of the less common archival topics that librarians will find useful are chapters on: Cartographic and Related Records; Still Pictures and Other Pictorial Records; Motion Pictures and Film Archives; Sound Recordings; Microphotography and Other Copying Methods; Oral History; Automation and the Control of Archives and Manuscripts.

Librarians and archivists will benefit from this work. It is hoped that annual supplements and cumulations will follow so that maximum usefulness will be sustained.

—Richard C. Berner, University of Washington, Seattle.


This collection of twenty-five papers constitutes a record of what has been developing in the production and use of book catalogs since the publication of Kingery and Tauber's *Book Catalogs* in 1963. The papers cover the period 1964–1970; some papers were written specifically for this volume, while others are reprints of articles published in journals since 1963.

The primary emphasis of the papers is on the comparison of book catalogs to card catalogs, now that technological developments, particularly the computer, have made the production and updating of book catalogs feasible and economical. Coverage includes book catalogs as a substitute for or supplement to the card catalog, production costs, formats, production methods, and problems such as coding, computer filing, and updating techniques. Experiences with book catalogs by specific college and university libraries, medical libraries, county library systems, public libraries, school libraries, and mail order library services are recounted. A lengthy article by Hilda Feinberg, "Sample Book Catalogs and Their Characteristics," presents sample pages from thirty-two catalogs and gives the characteristics (page size, format, arrangement, general description), method of production, frequency of issue, costs, and person(s) responsible for each catalog. The one historical article is John Cronin’s "History of the National Union Catalog, Pre-1956 Imprints." A lengthy, well-chosen chronological bibliography is provided for the years 1964–1970; and the editors have appended ALA’s recent book catalog directory, "Book Form Catalogs: A Listing Compiled from Questionnaires Submitted to the Book Catalogs Directory Subcommittee, ALA, 1968."

There is considerable overlap and duplication between papers in the collection, since many papers were not written with this volume in mind. The introduction provides an overview which ties the separate papers to the main theme; the articles cannot be read separately if the reader is to get an overview of developments in the last fifteen years. Taken as a whole, however, the collection does a good job of describing new developments in and future directions of the production and use of book catalogs. On the basis of the articles, the editors predict that "Recent technological advances in computer capabilities, along with decreasing computer costs, increase the likelihood that libraries will venture in the future towards increased computer-aided book catalog production. . . . The need for card catalogs for current records and for special listings will no doubt continue."

This volume is pertinent to any librarian interested in current library technology and its effects on bibliographic control and patron usage of catalogs, and to any librarian contemplating the use of book catalogs in his library. It is a necessity for any library school collection.—Nancy L. Eaton, The University of Texas at Austin.


This book doesn't have a subtitle—and probably doesn't need one since the three-word title says it all. But even so, I am tempted to paraphrase one, something like "Plain Language from Truthful Dan." It is
the kind of book that many people would like to write but can’t, because few have the ability to express themselves as succinctly, as forcefully, and as engagingly as Melcher. For this is above all a personal book expressing the wise opinions and reasonable prejudices of a knowledgeable and rational man, one who employs wit instead of anger, and who prefers the rapier to the bludgeon as a weapon for scoring points.

Of special interest and value is that Melcher is a publisher, so that while he is viewing the common terrain, his perspective is 180° out of phase with that of the acquisitions librarian. Thus, for example, the incredibly complicated discount structure that governs relations between publishers and wholesalers, and which the librarian is probably only aware of as a molehill on the horizon, appears close-up as the formidable mountain it is, capable of inhibiting the smooth flow of books from source to ultimate consumer. This difference of perspective does not mean that Melcher is insensitive or unsympathetic to the plight of the acquisitions librarian and the problems that confront the latter at his own end of the territory. If there is criticism of some traditional library practices—and there is—it is not offered in shrill condemnation but as encouragement to change what is to what should be. Melcher not only wants us to take our dreams and pretentions at face value, but takes it for granted that we have the capability of realizing them.

Perhaps the true value of the book lies in this atmosphere of self-confidence that pervades it and in its open avowal of bootstrapism. This is not to suggest that it favors exhortation over information; on the contrary, it contains a plethora of facts and figures on the operation of the book business, especially as it relates to libraries. Nor is it a how-to-do-it book in the usual sense. Rather, it offers information with the tacit assumption that a knowledgeable librarian is more capable of shrugging off the dead hand of conventional practice and of fulfilling his purpose than one who remains wholly ignorant or poorly informed. In this respect Melcher’s book may appeal less to the neophyte than to the scarred veteran who still retains a spark that can be fanned into a flame of challenge to the status quo. Again and again the point is made, reinforced by examples, that no situation or procedure has to be accepted or continued just because it is hallowed by tradition, that all aspects of an operation should be examined and judged on how efficiently they contribute to the ultimate purpose of getting books to readers. And always Melcher advocates grass roots solutions, which he defines as “... solutions which grow out of the problems . . . ,” as opposed to “... pre-packaged solutions imported from elsewhere.” (The latter he feels “... are about as satisfactory as mail order dentures.”) It is hard not to want to respond to this kind of approach with a new surge of determination to make things better and make them work. If some of the author’s confidence in an individual’s ability to dominate the institutional system he is a part of is absorbed by the reader, librarianship in general and acquisitions work in particular cannot help but benefit.

Earlier I alluded to Melcher’s prejudices. (I called them reasonable ones and will stick with that despite the paradox.) Some of them are well known by now, but the reader should enjoy encountering these once more and others for the first time. Melcher is not one to stand mute before the sacred cows and begged questions of librarianship, but his observations are constructive, not retaliatory, and he is practically one of the family. While he may be a heretic, he is not an apostate. If I were to indulge myself in a minor disappointment, it would be that he allows to stand unchallenged the concept that a primary objective of an acquisitions department is speed in getting books to readers. Better is faster. It may well be true, but I would have enjoyed a hard-nosed Melcher appraisal of it so I could be sure. But on the other hand, I suppose a man who has lost his faith in computers and the Library of Congress has to retain belief in something.—Howard A. Sullivan, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.

OTHER BOOKS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS


ABSTRACTS

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.

Documents with an ED number may be ordered in either microfiche (MF) or hard copy (HC) from ERIC Document Reproduction Service, LEASCO Information Products, Inc., P.O. Drawer O, Bethesda, MD 20014. Orders must include ED number and specification of format desired. A $0.50 handling charge will be added to all orders. Payment must accompany orders totaling less than $10.00. Orders from states with sales tax laws must include payment of the appropriate tax or include tax exemption certificates.

Documents available from the National Technical Information Service, Springfield, VA 22151 have NTIS number and price following the citation.


A library-oriented, concentrated course in the use of computers in libraries is a definite need in the profession. Librarians can learn the use of computers even though they have no background in data processing. The profession is also in need of a course syllabus which can be used either in a formal college course or in an in-service training situation. One of the by-products of this institute will be such a syllabus. Pre-institute activities included a programmed instruction course to acquaint participants with terminology, theory, and logic of computers and to furnish all participants with a common store of background knowledge. Eight manufacturers' representatives presented their firm's hardware capabilities, library applications, cost and learning arrangements, and impending developments of interest to the library user. Fourteen papers on automating library technical processes, problems in library technical processes, systems analysis and flow charting, and COBOL programming language are included.


The report is based upon two questionnaires administered by the Office of Education. The first questionnaire, sent to each
state library agency, asked for a list of libraries in the state which served areas with at least 25,000 inhabitants. Forty-nine responding states and three outlying areas reported a total of 1,135 qualifying libraries. The second questionnaire produced a total of 1,057 responses. Table 1 presents summary data for the 1,057 reporting libraries, by population size group; tables 2 and 3 present selected summary data for these libraries, by state; and tables 4 through 9 provide detailed information for each responding library, arranged alphabetically by state and city. All annual data included in this report cover the libraries' fiscal year that ended during the period January 1, 1968, through December 31, 1968. The variation in type of fiscal year used by public libraries is shown in appendix B. The questionnaires, definitions, and instructions are reproduced as appendixes C and D.


A study of the reserve materials collection at the Main Library from a usage and cost analysis perspective revealed that 93.7 percent of all items that circulated could have been circulated an equal number of times through the standard circulation procedure which allows material to be used for seven days. The remaining 6.3 percent of the material which circulated more than five times in the five-week summer session is the only material that merits special attention as a reserve collection.

**Collection Development and the Computer: A Case Study in the Analysis of Machine Readable Loan Records and Their Application to Book Selection.** By Peter Simmons. British Columbia University, Vancouver, School of Librarianship. 1971. 63p. (Available from University of British Columbia Press, Vancouver 8, Canada, as ED 054 817, HC—$2.50)

At the library of the University of British Columbia, computers are used for a variety of tasks, including the control of book and serial acquisitions. The computer-produced circulation records have been employed to study the use of library materials at U.B.C. in three distinct areas. There have been studies of use in relation to loan policy, studies of use by defined groups of borrowers, and studies of heavily used materials. This report is an account of a group of studies of books which circulated with unusual frequency. Since these studies of the library's services have had a direct effect upon the acquisition of library materials, they provide the missing link that is helping to turn the U.B.C. library into a closed-loop control system: an integrated system that is able to alter its behavior based on accurate information about the specific demands that are being made upon it. These studies, therefore, permit the library to make the most efficient and effective possible use of its limited funds, and afford the library's users a quality of service that heretofore has not been possible.

**Information Requirements of Researchers in the Social Sciences.** v.1: Text; v.2: Tables. Bath University of Technology (England), University Library. 1971. 280p.; 214p. (ED 054 806; ED 054 807, MF—$0.65; $0.65 HC—$9.87; $9.87)

The main findings of an investigation into the information requirements of the social sciences, conducted between September 1967 and December 1970, are reported. It covers the information needs of social science researchers, and of teachers in social science departments of universities. The objective of the investigation was to provide material useful for the design of information systems. Data were collected not only on current information gathering practices and information uses but also on more fundamental issues relating to the nature of the work being carried out and the type of information required for it. Three methods of investigation were used: (1) a questionnaire circulated to a national sample drawn from a population of all the social science researchers that could be identified, (2) interviews, and (3) day-to-day observation of a very small number of social scientists. A review of relevant literature and work already conducted was an essential ingredient of this investigation.

The entire second volume of this report...

The purpose of this study is to analyze the characteristics of administrators and of the organizations and the environments in which they function in an attempt to increase understanding of the human and organizational variables which tend to spawn or to inhibit change. The instrument employed in the analysis was a mail questionnaire addressed to administrators of the four discrete types of libraries: academic library, public library, school library, and special library. In this study of the academic library administrator, from a universe made up of academic institutions with student bodies of 3,000 or more, a total of 161 administrators responded to the questionnaires. Full details of sample choice and design and an analysis of the sample are contained in the appendixes of this report. It was concluded that to realistically assess the prospects for change in academic libraries is to expect only the most minimal in the foreseeable future. For there is at present no clear and unambiguous mandate for innovation which has yet captured the imagination or provoked the conscience of the administrative class in academic librarianship.

(For other parts of this study see LI 003072 through LI 003074.)


The question of whether a library's catalog should consist of cards arranged in a single alphabetical order (the “dictionary” catalog) or be segregated as a separate file is discussed. Development is extended to encompass related problems involved in the creation of a book catalog. A model to study the effects of congestion at the catalog is created. Using a drawer chosen ran-

domly from either a dictionary catalog, or the subject or author-title part of a split catalog, three measures of congestion are considered: (1) the probability that the drawer is being used, (2) the average time needed to wait for a use, and (3) the average number of people attracted to the drawer at any time. All the parameters used and the basic relations among them are collected in Section II. The first measure of congestion considered is the likelihood that a user must wait before he can use a drawer. The next measure of congestion is the mean time a user must wait to gain access to a drawer. The final measure of congestion is the number of people contributed to the system at any time along each drawer. Section VI considers the implications of the model for the construction of book catalogs. It was found that each of the three criteria of congestion can lead to a different conclusion.


Within the public, academic, and school libraries the use of specific types of materials was examined, for example, audiovisual, reference, and bibliographic materials, and different types of catalogs. The physical layout and arrangement of the libraries and their influence on use and nonuse were also considered. The factors inhibiting the use of libraries include the geographical distribution of users, the location of the library within the community, and the educational abilities and literacy levels of the readers. The levels of usage included are: academic—professional and faculty members, postgraduate, undergraduate, research and administrative levels; public—adults and children, student, professional and business; and special provision for handicapped or homebound readers. Information for the bibliography was gathered from a search of the published literature, unpublished materials, material obtained from letters to library schools and published letters, and relevant published indexing and abstracting services, e.g., Library and Information Science Abstracts, Library Literature, and ERIC.

This document attempts to provide managers and designers of information systems with a usable, practical, "building block" system for unit costing. The model is sufficiently flexible to be applicable to a wide variety of cost control requirements; costing elements include project, product, account, organization, and function. Design of the cost system involves knowledge of basic principles and the system reporting formats, product structure and counts, function roles, nonproduction costs, and allocations. The next steps are identification of product lines, tagging cost elements, and conducting trial runs. System implementation requires design parameters which reflect human limitations, controls, and staff education and orientation. In forecasting it is equally important to know what not to do as how to do it. The design and installation of the described cost system will produce fringe benefits which almost justify the expenditures. Fourteen appendices provide working tools for system utilization.

A Survey of User Education in New York State Academic Libraries. By Arthur P. Young and others. 1971. 22p. (ED 055 621, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

The main objective of the survey was to collect and analyze data derived from a preselected list of questions pertaining to library user education services/programs, and to ascertain how librarians rate various instructional components. Specifically, the survey questionnaire attempted to identify and to compare current user education activities from their institutional categories—junior colleges, undergraduate schools, and universities. Questionnaire items covered four broad areas of interest: (1) What general instructional services are offered by libraries?; (2) What is the extent and arrangement of formal basic and advanced bibliographic instruction?; (3) What major difficulties do librarians encounter in planning and implementing their programs?; (4) How do librarians rate various instructional components? Eighty-nine percent of the responding librarians concluded that user education is relevant to libraries. A limited profile of instructional services and librarian attitudes toward user education in New York State academic libraries has been produced by this survey investigation.


The use of microforms in academic environments has become a general source of concern to all those involved with it. To some extent, the issues underlying the concerns of these groups can be summarized as a question: How can an academic library achieve full benefit from microform media? To develop information and to probe the difficulties of managing and using library microforms, a conference was held at the University of Denver in December 1970. The overall perspective of the conference treated the library administrator as a mediator between competing interests and forces that are operative in the sphere of academic microform applications. The purposes of the meeting were to foster understanding and use of microform technology in academic libraries; enhance the utility of educational microforms through the exchange of ideas; and inform the academic library community and industrial sector of microform techniques, systems, and requirements in an academic setting. Taken as a whole, this document reports constructive comment for the development of more effective microform utilization in the academic environment in differing situations.
The Production of Medieval Church Music-Drama

By Fletcher Collins, Jr., Mary Baldwin College. xiii, 356 pp., 5 color, and 70 black and white illus., index. $17.50

This inquiry considers sixteen of the music-dramas which remain from the repertory of the medieval church. In order to determine how these plays might have been produced, Collins has spent many years searching the entire realm of medieval visual art. Here he presents the results of his research and explains the production of medieval drama as it is enlightened by contemporary visual arts. Many illustrations of the art works on which Collins has based his conclusions are included. His comprehensive interpretations allow modern productions of the plays to fulfill as closely as possible the original intentions of their authors. Accurate visualization and understanding of the art form of medieval music-drama is now possible for the first time in the modern world.

Party Strength in the United States

Percentage Divisions and Index Numbers of Party Strength in Elections for President, Governor, Senator, and Representative in Congress, 1872-1970

By Paul T. David, University of Virginia. 288 pp. (Int.) $9.75

Election records from 1872 to 1970 for the offices of president, governor, senator, and representative to Congress are published here in a useable form for the first time. Paul T. David began this study by calculating the percentage divisions of the vote among Democratic, Republican, and other candidate parties. Using this as a basis, he was able to devise a new and more accurate method of measuring long-term trends in party strength at the polls for each state. These trends make up almost two hundred pages of graphic material in which states are analyzed individually, nationally, regionally, and in special groups according to their long-term partisan affiliations. This compilation of numerical data and its accompanying text is an indispensable reference work for anyone interested in election history in the United States.

Joyce's Ulysses Notesheets in the British Museum

Edited by Phillip F. Herring, University of Wisconsin. 540 pp., illus., apps., bibliog. (Bibliographical Society) $37.50

Herring has transcribed James Joyce's Ulysses notesheets in the British Museum in their entirety for the first time. The ninety pages of manuscript notes hold the ideas, words, and phrases which Joyce used to construct and expand the last seven episodes of Ulysses. They are an important source for understanding Joyce's creative technique. Joyce wrote his notes on foolscap paper, in almost every available space, rightside up or upside down, and often in a mixture of foreign languages and English. He marked through the passages he used with red, green, blue, and slate pencils. This edition of the notes finally alleviates the problem of reading Joyce's almost illegible handwriting, and the chaotic order of the manuscript is arranged into a more orderly format. Herring has also annotated the notes and written a descriptive essay for each of the seven episodes.
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nize the significance of the Mexican breakthrough was geologist Robert
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key measurements to determine feasible
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because the heat required for the latter

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des solvent. In the 1920s, they had been dril-
ning for steam at the southern end
of the Salton Sea, which has grown
popular as a sportsmen's haunt since
It formed in a below-sealevel pocket
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**PERSONAL:** Born March 24, 1906, in New York, N.Y.; son of Dwight (a lawyer) and Alice (Hedges) Macdonald; married Gloria Newman, about 1935 (divorced); married Beverly Steiner, about 1950; children: (first marriage) Michael Cary Dwight, Nicholas Gardner. Education: Phillips Exeter Academy, student, 1920-24; Yale University, B.A., 1924.


**SIDELIGHTS:** Respected as a critic both in the U.S. and abroad, Macdonald has witnessed a variety of political stand since his journalistic career began—1929. He once remarked: "The speed with which I evolved from a liberal into a radical and from a tepid Communist sympathizer into an ardent anti-Stalinist still amazes me." In 1944 he started his own political periodical, Politics, a publication in which he wished "to create a center of consciousness on the left, welcoming all varieties of radical thought..." Among the contributors were Albert Camus, Mary Jane Ward, Simone Weil, Nelson Algren, C....


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