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Looking Forward/Looking Back

The social unrest which occupied the country’s attention during the late sixties challenged many venerated social traditions. Likewise, the professional ferment which manifested itself first during the 1968 ALA Annual Conference in Kansas City produced protracted professional reexaminations. Although the profession now seems to be backing away somewhat from the social related activities proposed by ACONDA and ANACONDA, many of the reforms advocated by the activist leadership have been implemented.

ALA has demonstrated in numerous ways its ability to play a leadership role in professional concerns such as legislation, intellectual freedom, and personnel development. But despite the strident, often persuasive rhetoric which is echoed through the halls of Council, ALA has not proven itself to be an effective agent for producing social change. Although librarians have continued to labor at the grass roots level and have achieved some measure of success, their achievement is largely due to their own intellectual vigor and persistence rather than the fact that they happened to be librarians. It is becoming increasingly apparent that ALA is not organized as a social action group. ALA might be better advised to turn its undivided attention to the advancement of library related objectives. In reviewing the CRL editorials of the last five years, I was struck by the fact that almost none of the concerns addressed has been solved. In fact, most are now worse. For example, library schools are still graduating students who cannot be absorbed into the market. The situation has become so serious in some parts of the country that graduates of library schools are asking, even demanding appointments to nonprofessional positions. What effect will this trend have on professional status and salaries? The list of unsolved problems is long and growing longer. The crisis within higher education is already upon us. Student enrollment and financial support are declining. It is now anticipated that enrollment may drop by almost 20 percent during the next decade. Society seems no longer as willing to pour money into higher education as it once was. More interest in other national priorities such as energy, ecology, law and order, and health have preempted our positions. Our pleas for more funds are falling on deaf ears. Now is the moment for ACRL to assume a leadership role and to develop alternative solutions to the commonly perceived “bottomless pit” syndrome of librarianship. It is a challenge which we cannot afford to refuse, but it is one I am convinced academic librarians are capable of meeting.

Richard M. Dougherty
Selected Reference Books of 1973-74

INTRODUCTION

This article continues the semianual series originally edited by Constance M. Winchell. Although it appears under a byline, the list is actually a project of the Reference Department of the Columbia University Libraries, and notes are signed with the initials of the individual staff members. Since the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and foreign works of interest to reference workers in university libraries, it does not pretend to be either well balanced or comprehensive. A brief roundup of new editions of standard works, continuations, and supplements is presented at the end of the column. Code numbers (such as AA71, 2BD89) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide to Reference Books and its supplements.

GUIDES


The result of a Canadian Library Association project, this selective, annotated bibliography designed "to provide librarians and students with a guide to Canadian reference material" covers "Canada in general, the ten provinces, the territories, and three cities."—Intro. Emphasis is on the country in general, the provinces receiving treatment in certain selected subjects, and the cities—Ottawa, Montreal, and Toronto—receiving merely token coverage. Publications through 1971 are included. Excluded are such specialized reference books as those dealing with individuals or particular laws.

The classified arrangement is presented in five broad categories: General Reference, History and Allied Subjects, Humanities, Science, and Social Science, with appropriate subdivisions. Full bibliographical information is given in each entry and the annotations as well as general introductory notes contain many useful references to related sources, not only by cross reference to included listings but also to works (properly) excluded. Four appendices describe in detail Canadiana, Canadian Government Publications . . ., Canadian Periodical Index, and Canadian Almanac and Directory. A fifty-page index of authors, titles, and selected subjects concludes the work. Supplements as well as subsequent editions are planned. This is a carefully edited guide, recommended for the large reference department in the U.S. and for Canadian libraries in general.—R. K.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


The first inaccuracy is in the title. This is an index to all monographic translations published in seven predominantly English-speaking countries—Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Republic of Eire, Republic of South Africa, United Kingdom, and the United States—as listed in volumes 1-21 (1948-1968) of the new series of Index Translationum (Guide AA91). Each listing includes author, title, translator, place of publication and publisher, pagination, price, and language of the original (publication date and original title are often included).

A cumulation, particularly one as highly
priced as this, should be more than a cut-and-paste job from earlier volumes, but this is not. Typographical errors abound; entries are erratic (variant forms have not been reconciled); and there are no cross references, which would have been particularly helpful. The translations are a mixed bag of literary works, monographs, doctoral dissertations, and conference proceedings. (Corporate and conference proceedings entries are particularly annoying: without cross references, how is the user to know that he should look under both “SSSR, Akademija nauk” and “Akademija nauk SSSR”?) Librarians and others have been waiting for a good cumulation of English-language translations, but at this price for this quality, many will be content to wait a little longer.—D.G.


Contents: v.1, 1501-1510. 36.00F.

Disturbed by the slowness with which the volumes of the monumental Imprimeurs et libraires parisiens du XVIe siècle (Suppl. 1AA31, 3AA37) have been fated to appear, the compiler of this inventory has proposed to make at least the fundamental information concerning sixteenth-century Parisian printing and bookselling available to scholars within a more reasonable length of time. Modeled after the English and American short title catalogs, this chronological listing gives for each entry the author and brief title, printer, month and day of publication if they can be determined, format, locations in both European and American libraries, and citations to other more specialized bibliographies where fuller descriptions may be found. It is based, like Imprimeurs et libraires parisiens, on the manuscript notes left by Philippe Renouard at his death in 1934, but is not merely a transcription of them; Mlle. Moreau has verified each entry, added (in the first volume) more than a hundred titles not known to Renouard, and furnished precise dates for many previously undated items. The inclusion of author, title, printer, and geographical indexes in each volume (of which there are to be ten) greatly increases the usefulness of this bibliography.—N.S.

Archives


This basic introduction to “the great heritage of documents in England and Wales,” and to some of the archives where they are stored, “aims to describe, in outline, the work of the county record office, the repair of manuscripts, and the method of reading old records.”—Intro. Types of documents included are those “most commonly studied by the majority of historical researchers.” The work’s clarity, wealth of illustrative examples, careful definitions, and bibliographical detail—in short, its instructional character—should make it a vade mecum for the beginning researcher in English archival material.

Chapters cover research methods, national archives, family muniment rooms, cathedral, parish, company records, solicitor’s office, newspapers, county record office, paleography, and handwriting in England. There are lists of repositories and national record societies, a helpful bibliography, and a subject index.—R.K.

Encyclopedias


Thirteen volumes (A-Kun) of the third edition of the Bol’shaia Sovetskaia entsiklopedia (Suppl. 3AD10) have been received at this writing. The item under consideration here is the first volume of an English translation of that work. The translation is “unannotated and as true as possible to the content and meaning intended by the editors of the original edition in Russian,” and as such is intended to convey the scope and point of view of the original, bringing to scholars and others an unaltered “primary source through which they can gain a richer knowledge and understanding of the contemporary Soviet Union.”—Publisher’s Foreword.

The work is being translated on a volume-
for-volume basis (only those articles that can be considered simply dictionary or gazetteer entries are omitted) and articles are arranged within each translated volume according to the English form of the entry or transliterated form of personal and place names. Thus, while the preponderance of entries in v.l begin with the letter “A”, terms such as “Diamond,” “Highway,” and “Zulu War” are also found therein because the Russian form of these terms begins with the letter “A”. Although this may make for a certain degree of awkwardness for use until the set is complete and the promised index published, it has the virtue of making the translated material available relatively soon after the publication of the parent work. Even so, the editors are taking care to make the information as current as possible by updating figures or factual information; when such updating is substantial, the translation is marked as “updated.” Bibliographies appended to the Russian articles are carried over into the translated work, with Russian titles cited in transliteration and Western-language works in their original form. Each translated article is keyed to the text of the original by volume, page, and column. A full list of entries in the Russian volume is clearly marked to indicate those articles which have not been translated.—E.S.


Contents: Propaedia (Outline of Knowledge), 1v.; Micropaedia (Ready Reference and Index), 10v.; Macropaedia (Knowledge in Depth), 19v.

To review a major, multivolume work in a brief column of this kind often borders on the impertinent; to attempt an evaluation of “Britannica 3” in so short a space is probably futile. One may try, however, to dispel some of the confusion regarding the tripartite structure of the new edition. Leaving aside, for the moment, the Propaedia, librarians familiar with Compton’s Encyclopaedia can easily relate the Micropaedia to the “Fact Index” of Compton’s: i.e., the short factual articles of the Micropaedia stand in the same relationship to the longer, more comprehensive articles in the Macropaedia as do the brief entries of the “Fact Index” to the related, full-length articles in Compton’s. The ten-volume Micopaedia, then, is both the index to the Macropaedia and an independent ready reference source offering some 102,214 articles ranging from a few lines up to 750 words in length. The nineteen-volume Macropaedia comprises 4,207 “in depth” articles, none of which is less than 1,000 words in length. These are signed articles by a worldwide roster of authorities, and include selective, briefly annotated bibliographies.

Topics in the Micopaedia which are given fuller treatment under an identical heading in the Macropaedia are signalled by a volume and page reference immediately following the boldface entry; references to related articles in the Macropaedia are supplied at the end of many entries in the Micopaedia, and cross references are used freely throughout the ten-volume set. Users of the work would be well advised to begin always with the Micopaedia entries: salient facts and dates presented here may suffice, but more importantly, time will usually be saved since topical headings in the Macropaedia show considerable variation from those of the 14th edition and the direct-entry approach of many other encyclopedias. And, while biographies abound in the Micopaedia, relatively few figures have been accorded the fuller treatment of the Macropaedia.

The division between short and long articles is, in effect, a means of having the best of two worlds: a return, in the Macropaedia, to the longer, monographic articles of Britannica’s 11th edition, while preserving in the Micopaedia the fragmented, specific-entry approach of the 14th edition. The Propaedia resulted from an attempt by the editors to construct a “workable and defensible” outline of human knowledge which would “set forth in some orderly way the major topical rubrics that must ultimately be dealt with in a general encyclopaedia.” While many will view it as mere icing on the cake, it will also have its enthusiasts: its disciplinary overviews can be useful to the beginner in a given subject field, and its references to the Macropaedia can serve as a guide for independent study.

A few final observations: most articles are newly written (those in Macropaedia usu-
ally by a scholar other than the contributor of the corresponding article in the 14th edition); maps are scattered throughout the set rather than collected in an atlas section; professional jargon has been eliminated as far as possible; and the language and style are such that “at least some portion of the article should be readable to the layman to whom, at a minimum, the significance and general bearings of the subject must be made comprehensible.”—E.S.

PERIODICALS


This twenty-one-year cumulation of New Serial Titles (Guide AF99) represents considerably more than a mere cumulation of the information in the earlier volumes (1950-60, 1961-65, 1966-69, each in two volumes, plus the previously uncumulated 1970 quarterly). The complete NST file has been converted to a computer data base, thousands of revisions have been incorporated, thousands of additional library locations supplied, and International Standard Serial Numbers (ISSN) added. The supplementary “Changes in Serials” section appears at the end of volume four. Although the cumulation was edited by the Bowker Company, utilizing that firm’s computer-produced publication system, further NST quarterly and annual cumulations will continue to be published by Library of Congress.

Throughout the preparation of the work there was close collaboration between the Bowker Company and the Library of Congress Serial Record Division to assure that the product would be well up to the standard of NST. Librarians will do well, of course, to acquaint themselves with the introductory sections “Form of entry” and “Arrangement of entries,” particularly the filing variations noted in the latter. The benefits of having this long, augmented cumulation need no comment.—E.S.

Dissertations


Contents: v.1-4, Chemistry; v.5, Mathematics and statistics; v.6-7, Astronomy and physics; v.8-10, Engineering; v.11-13, Biological sciences; v.14, Health and environmental sciences; v.15, Agriculture; v.16, Geography and geology; v.17, Social sciences; v.18-19, Psychology; v.20-24, Education; v.25-26, Business and economics; v.27, Law and political science; v.28, History; v.29-30, Language and literature; v.31, Communications and the arts; v.32, Philosophy and religion; v.33-37, Author index.

Few publications of recent years can have offered such distinct advantages as this one to the academic community in general. The time-consuming task of dissertation searching is drastically simplified and shortened through use of this computer-generated index (by key words and authors) which attempts to list all dissertations accepted at universities of the United States from the time of the first Yale dissertation in 1861 through 1972. (Numerous Canadian and other foreign universities are among the schools included, but no claim for completeness of listing is made for universities outside the United States.) In effect, CDI supersedes the Library of Congress lists of American doctoral dissertations (Guide A15), the Wilson lists (Guide A19), and the various indexes to Dissertation Abstracts (Guide A111, 3A12). It also includes some dissertations not found in those lists because the data base embraces many published and unpublished lists provided by the individual universities. (The editors note some conflicts and discrepancies resulting from reliance on these varied sources, but errors are to be corrected in forthcoming supplements, and incorrect entries will be deleted from the data base.) More than 417,000 dissertations are represented. Annual supplements are planned, and the possibility of regular cumulations is obvious.

Within each subject volume the listing is alphabetical by keyword, as in the Retrospective Index (Suppl. 3A12). Full citations appear in both the author and subject listings: these include complete title, author’s full name if known, date, university, pagination when available, citation to Dis-
We should be grateful to the publisher for making this fine bibliography available again, but the form in which it has been reissued leaves much to be desired, especially at such a high price. The set exemplifies the kind of publishing that, in an age of paper, space, and budget shortages, cannot be encouraged.—N.S.


The expanding field of African literature adds a new bio-bibliography in this guide to a major literature which to the present has been “little known and even less appreciated in the West.”—Introd. Short sketches, alphabetically arranged, of 594 poets, novelists, critics, dramatists, and journalists of sub-Saharan Africa, Malagasy, and Mauritius constitute the major portion of the work. Biographies, designed to give a survey of a writer’s life and work and a “reasonably complete summary of his achievements both in and outside of literature,” include dates, education, professional training, position, honors, genres and languages, and complete citations to publications. A hundred pages of appendixes include essays and bibliographies on various aspects of African literature, lists of authors by genre, languages, sex, dates, and directories of publishers, journals, and bookshops. Biennial publication is planned with cumulations at longer intervals.—R.K.


These two long titles (9,000 entries for English literature, 7,000 for American) of unpublished baccalaureate and master’s theses from more than two hundred universities, mainly in the United States and Canada, are intended to indicate fields of research heavily covered by students and those relatively unexplored, and to provide students with “convenient bibliographies on highly specialized topics.” Each is said to be “the beginning of a series whose goal
is to make a complete, easily accessible listing of theses in literature throughout the world."—Foreword. Only theses concerning writers are included in the volumes noted here; they are arranged alphabetically by author within an alphabetic arrangement of the author-subjects. Entry gives author's name, thesis title, degree, university, and year. There are author and "limited subject" indexes. Spot checking for one university's essays shows omissions, unexplained, since no statement of years covered for a given institution is made. The basis for inclusion is stated merely as "availability," without explanation as to whether availability for site use or interlibrary loan is meant, or whether the bibliographical description alone is "available." Only those libraries whose readers are specially interested in this type of graduate paper will need these compilations.—R.K.

FINE ARTS


The first volume of this new series is a topographically arranged cumulation of items pertinent to the history of art of specific places as drawn from the semianual lists published 1892–1967 in III. Abteilung, "Bibliographische Notizien und Mitteilungen" of the Byzantinische Zeitschrift, primarily from the subdivision "Kunstgeschichte: Einzelne Orte." Volume 2 will cover the same source for the history of Byzantine art in general and according to individual art form (i.e., architecture, painting, sculpture, minor arts, illuminated manuscripts, etc.).

Arrangement is by geographic area, alphabetic first by continent, then by country, region, and site. Text of each entry is that of its original listing in BZ, with full bibliographic details, BZ citations and, usually, critical annotation. Under a specific heading, journal articles, books, and contribu-

CINEMA


Addressing himself to teachers and to their questions about "whys and hows" of teaching about film, Manchel examines the cinema's claim to serious consideration as art and as social phenomenon. He presents a basic introduction to the elements of film and film language and to some profitable ways of approaching film in the classroom.

Although the author states that the book is not "an attempt to list definitively the various sources or materials connected with film study," the many citations in the text, footnotes, and selected bibliographies and filmographies provide a wide survey of important sources for film study and research—most of them annotated and evaluated in considerable detail. As a result, students and librarians, as well as teachers, can use the chapters on film literature, the genre film, stereotyping in film, themes in film, literature and film, early American film, and the history of film to locate relevant books, articles, and representative films. Seven indexes facilitate access to this wealth of information.—A.L.

SOCIAL SCIENCES


This work is a secondary bibliography, taking its listings of books and articles from a number of standard bibliographies, including Books in Print, Reader's Guide, P.A.I.S., Index Medicus, and Social Science and Humanities Index. It is the first volume of an annual series intended to cover each year's literature in the field defined simply as "population and the population explosion." There are two sections, one arranged by title and the other by subject, with an au-
Author index at the end. Unfortunately the method of compilation facilitates errors, and a quick comparison with the primary bibliographies does turn up several, ranging from misspelled names to transposed numbers. Although the compiler describes it as a "near-complete world bibliography covering the book and periodical literature for 1970" (Pref.), there appear to be no foreign-language entries. Furthermore, the extensive bibliographies in Population Index are not utilized, nor apparently are any national bibliographies outside the United States, nor any of the major international periodical indexes one might expect to be used in compiling a "near-complete world bibliography." A work as comprehensive as this one claims to be would be welcome in any social science reference collection, but its actual limitations make this one a disappointment.—D.A.S.

Puerto Rican Research and Resource Center.


Compiled from a survey of major United States and Puerto Rican library catalogs, this ambitious undertaking brings together a selected, though relatively comprehensive, annotated list of materials designed to offer the English-speaking reader "a complete bibliographic overview of Puerto Ricans." Since it would be unsatisfactory for a bibliography on Puerto Rico to be comprised solely of English-language materials, many important items in Spanish are listed. Entries are grouped first by type of publication (i.e., books, government publications, journals) and then by subject, rather than the more traditional classed arrangement employed by Bravo in his Bibliografía Puertorriqueña (N.Y., 1972). A subject index and an author-title index compensate for this arrangement which may initially confuse the user. A useful feature is the list of U.S. and Puerto Rican publishers who are, according to the editor, able to supply many of the works listed. The editor recognizes that many works important to Puerto Rican studies are not immediately accessible in the United States and urges that a greater effort be made on the part of the U.S. distributors to obtain in-print works from Puerto Rico. This bibliography could be a useful selection guide for librarians wishing to improve their Puerto Rican collections.—B.W.


The new edition of White's standard text reflects the growth in scope and diversity of the social sciences and their literature; it is larger than the 1964 edition by over 200 pages. The basic format remains the same. Chapters on the social sciences in general, and on specific fields, begin with a bibliographic essay by a subject specialist on the history and methodology of the field, with citations to basic monographs, and conclude with annotated lists of reference works; scholarly journals, monograph series, professional organizations, and occasionally films, maps, and photographs are also listed. A new chapter on geography has been added to the basic sections on social science literature, history, economics and business administration, sociology, anthropology, psychology, and education. The table of contents is much more detailed than that of the first edition, and the index now includes subjects as well as authors and titles. Most of White's collaborators are new to this edition, and their bibliographic essays show shifts of emphasis. Much of the core monographic literature is classic works and has simply been updated, although some fields cite a greater number of post-1964 items than others. The reference sources have often been regrouped by form, type, or area for greater utility. Their annotations are exceptionally clear and incisive; the cutoff date seems to be early 1973.

The content of the edition maintains the excellence of the previous one; the format far surpasses it. The organization and judicious use of spacing and type make the text highly legible and easy to consult. Librarians have eagerly awaited this new edition, and it is well worth the wait; it is, simply, an exceptional work.—D.G.

HISTORY


Here is a much needed bibliography of books, pamphlets, and periodical articles in Western languages discussing the African slave trade participated in not only by the English and Americans but also by France, Spain, Portugal, The Netherlands, Denmark, Brandenburg (for a short time) in West Africa, and by the Muslims in East Africa and the Sudan. Excluded are manuscripts and most government documents, and Mr. Hogg acknowledges an "unavoidable bias towards English language material."

The arrangement is by subject within two main sections: (1) Slave trade; (2) Abolition and suppression. Listing within each subject area is chronological by date of publication. An appendix brings coverage to 1972, and a second appendix lists relevant master's essays and dissertations. The volume concludes with author, personal name, geographical name, and anonymous title indexes. —E.M.


Contents: General works. 806p. £12.50.

This handsome bibliography is a joy to read and to use, from its graceful acknowledgments in the Preface and the well-written Introduction giving an overview of the study and interest in municipal history in Great Britain and Ireland, to the carefully prepared bibliography. A continuation of Gross' Bibliography of British Municipal History (Guide DC159), this work "comprises printed and published works on the history of municipal government and municipal services in Great Britain and Ireland from the earliest times to the end of 1966."

—p.liii.

In this first volume, books, documents, and journal articles are arranged in graded subdivisions under five general headings: Bibliographies and guides; General printed records (Texts and calendars); General history; The urban community; Municipal administration. These are followed by sections for materials concerned specifically with Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. The volume ends with an index of authors, publishers, sponsors, and place-names appearing in the Introduction as well as in the bibliography proper. —E.M.

Science


Although it is not specifically stated to be such, this is essentially a "spin-off" from Environment Information Access (recently retitled Environment Abstracts). It derives from the same data base and is a reassembling, with cumulated indexes, of selected abstracts appearing in the 1971-73 Access volumes. (Further volumes of the Energy Index are to appear on an annual basis.) About half the abstracts are from the "Energy" section, but energy-related items from each of the other topical sections of Access have been included. There are author and subject indexes. In addition, there are lists of recent "energy books" and "energy films," and a section of statistical charts and tables gathered from a variety of sources. (The latter is the only substantial body of material not found in the publisher's other series.)

The index brings together a wide range of references from varied sources and, as with the materials abstracted in Environment Information Access, microform or hard copy of the full article or report may be ordered from the Environment Information Center. The series may prove useful in smaller or specialized collections, but the larger library already subscribing to Environment Information Access and its cumulated index, Environment Index, will not need this additional publication. —E.S.

New Editions and Supplements

A 1971 supplement to the Union Catalogue of Asian Publications edited by David Hall (London, Mansell, 1973. 704p. £40) is the first of the annual series which will keep the original four-volume catalog up to date. As in the basic set, this supplement covers accessions reported by the cooperating British libraries during the period covered, not merely 1971 imprints. Users are urged to work backwards through the sup-
To the main set, since errors are to be corrected in the supplements and earlier entries repeated to add new locations. The Bodleian Library is represented for the first time in the 1971 volume.

Although the content of the "Rev. ed., Jan. 1973" of the U.S. Government Printing Office Style Manual (Wash., D.C., 1973. 548p. $4.70) is not greatly changed from the 1967 edition (Suppl. 2AA34), there has been some slight rearrangement of sections, and new or substantially altered rules are marked with a star.

With the 15th edition, 1973-74, Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory (N.Y., Bowker, 1973. 2,706p. $46.50) reverts to a single-volume format. Approximately 55,000 current titles are listed and, in addition to the usual directory information, the International Standard Serial Number is included for each entry. Suggested Dewey class numbers are also provided. David P. Woodworth's Guide to Current British Journals has appeared in a second edition (London, Library Assoc., 1973. 3v. $37.50) in two volumes. Volume one is the list of journals with directory information; it retains the subject arrangement (by broad UDC classes) of the 1970 edition, and has been expanded to include some 4,700 titles. The second volume is called "Directory of Publishers," and supersedes Woodworth's Directory of British Journals (1971); it is an alphabetical listing of publishers with their addresses and journals published, plus an index by titles of the journals.

Newspapers on Microfilm (6th ed., 1967; Suppl. 2AG6) has a two-part successor: Newspapers in Microform: United States (Wash., D.C., Library of Congress, 1973. 1,056p. $30) and Newspapers in Microform: Foreign Countries (Wash., D.C., Library of Congress, 1973. 269p. $10.). Both volumes cover the period 1948-72 and include reports from libraries and commercial firms through summer 1972. The United States volume lists more than 34,000 titles; the foreign volume, more than 8,600. Arrangement is the familiar geographical one, but title indexes are a new and useful feature. These hard-bound volumes are available separately, and each is a bargain.

Notable Names in American History (Clifton, N.J., J. T. White Co., 1973. 725p.) constitutes a third edition of White's Conspicuous of American Biography (2d ed., 1937; Guide AJ35). Expanded and updated to include information through 1972 in most cases, the work continues to be a useful compendium of chronological lists of officeholders of various kinds. Although an index of some 50,000 names has been added, references to biographies in the National Cyclopaedia of American Biography are not supplied, and a number of lists have been dropped from this edition.

Cassell's Encyclopaedia of World Literature first appeared in two volumes in 1953, under the editorship of S. H. Steinberg (Guide BD19). In the new edition edited by J. Buchanan-Brown (London, Cassell, 1973. 3v. £18), general articles (on literary genres, movements, terms, etc.) and brief histories of national literatures make up the whole of volume one; biographical articles, plus the occasional title entry, are now in a single alphabet (volumes two and three) rather than in the two period divisions (pre- and post-1914) of the earlier edition. Some new articles have been added, a few have been dropped, and bibliographies have been updated.


A Guide to Historical Cartography, comp. by Walter W. Ristow and Clara E. LeGear, was first published by the Map Division of
the Library of Congress in 1954 and issued in a revised edition in 1960 (Guide CK193). Ristow has now prepared a revised and greatly expanded version (nearly 400 entries) which is published under the title *Guide to the History of Cartography; an Annotated List of References on the History of Maps and Mapmaking* (Wash., D.C., Library of Congress, 1973. 96p. $.75). The title change points up the fact that the bibliography is "concerned with the literature on the history and evolution of maps and mapmaking and not specifically with historical maps."—Pref.

The first volume, "Science and Technology" (London, Library Assoc., 1973. 615p. $17.95) of the third edition of A. J. Walford's *Guide to Reference Material* again covers UDC classes five and six. It has "main entries for about 4,300 items, plus subsumed entries for roughly a further 700" *(Introdd.), an increase of about 30 percent over the previous edition (1966).—E.S.*
The Financing of the Research Library

The following is a discussion paper presented to the National Commission on the Financing of Postsecondary Education by the Association of Research Libraries, submitted August 1973.

In the completion of its mission the National Commission on the Financing of Postsecondary Education will be reviewing a broad spectrum of fiscal requirements. The supporting role of libraries may easily cause this sector of the total picture to be given minimal notice or even to be overlooked; yet the significance of the library's contribution to the educational and research processes and their substantial budgetary impact are so great as to warrant careful scrutiny by the commission.

In 1967 the American Council of Learned Societies published the following statement: "Research libraries may be defined as institutions whose collections are organized primarily to meet the needs of scholars and so to facilitate effective action on the frontier of every field of knowledge, traditional and novel. . . . At their best they are notable for the variety and depth of their holdings and for the quality of research that they support."

Dr. Dix is librarian at the Princeton University Library, Princeton, New Jersey.

These relatively well-stocked libraries make an indispensable contribution to higher education and research in every section of the country and indeed in all parts of the world. The research library is typically a university library similar to the eighty-plus which are members of the Association of Research Libraries (ARL). Much of what we say applies also to certain major nonuniversity libraries which hold some of the world's greatest research collections, such as the New York Public Library and the Library of Congress.

The seventy-eight university libraries who were members of ARL in 1971–72 had in their collections from 700,000 (Rice) to 8,700,000 volumes (Harvard). In 1971–72 they added to their collections from 34,000 (Howard) to 387,000 volumes (Harvard). Most of them maintain as well large collections of manuscripts, microforms, and other library materials not reflected in the count of printed books. These figures alone may serve to indicate that these libraries are quite different from most of the thousands of libraries which support the educational activities of two-year colleges and even the best four-year liberal arts colleges.

It is often said that universities exist for the preservation of knowledge, the transmission of knowledge, and the creation of new knowledge. The university library is deeply involved in all three functions. Aside from oral tradition and the physical monuments of art and architecture, libraries are essentially the sole repository of recorded civilization, and only the large research library performs the preservation function in anything like a comprehensive way. Collectively these libraries are the memory of mankind, organized so that it may be drawn upon as needed today and in all of our tomorrows, whether man requires information recorded at the dawn of history or only yesterday.
These libraries are essential also to the transmission of knowledge and the teaching function of the university. A simple skill, such as woodworking, may be passed on without recourse to the written word. More sophisticated disciplines (e.g., technology, science, philosophy, economics, literature), at least as essential as simple skills to the advancement of civilization, are obviously built upon and transmitted to a considerable extent through the intellectual discourse of books and serious journals. Even at the undergraduate level, education of any quality seems to require sending the student beyond the lecture-plus-single-textbook process to exploration among many printed or pictorial sources. Economy alone prescribes that these sources be shared through a library.

Graduate education demands much greater resources. Various studies indicate that graduate students use from three to five times as many books as undergraduates, as well as a far greater variety of books and other kinds of recorded information. The kind of library we are discussing is likely to be found in the universities whose graduate and professional programs have been identified in the American Council on Education (ACE) and other surveys as possessing excellence. Indeed, in the 1966 ACE report, *An Assessment of Quality in Graduate Education*, it was noted: “The library is the heart of the university; no other single non-human factor is as closely related to the quality of graduate education. . . . Institutions that are strong in all areas invariably have major national research libraries.”

While the market for Ph.D.’s in many fields may be temporarily glutted, the continuing health of much postsecondary education will obviously require continued doctoral training of quality, if only to provide competent staffing for thousands of colleges and universities. It is interesting to note that the seventy-eight universities which were members of the Association of Research Libraries in 1971–72 produced 23,885 or 69 percent of the estimated 34,600 doctoral degrees (excluding law and medicine) awarded that year in the U.S. and Canada. This is another way of saying that a great deal of graduate education is concentrated in a relatively few large universities, as it should be in terms of the economics of the situation.

The third function of the university, the creation of new knowledge, is shared with other institutions, such as the government or industrial laboratory, for example, but it is clear that it is a major function and the element which most obviously distinguishes the university from the college, the vocational institution, and other types of postsecondary educational institutions. It is equally clear that most research demands major library resources. In nearly all fields new knowledge is developed only after a careful sifting of what is already known, and work in the field or the laboratory is interspersed with work in the library. In some fields the books in the library are themselves the sole material of research.

The point which we wish to emphasize is that the three functions of the university are inseparable and the library is essential to all three. That it exists to support the university is only part of the ecological balance, for it can be said also that the university exists in part to support the library. These relationships have an important bearing upon any discussion of the financing of research libraries and of postsecondary education.

The university library and, even more, the independent research library have important relations outside the university. Almost all of them, under a variety of arrangements, provide important resources to industrial research laboratories, government agencies, independent scholars, and the whole range of organizations and activities that comprise the web of American society. These libraries are collectively the capstone of the pyra-
mid of information resources.

Together they constitute a single national resource of great importance. Increasingly and of necessity they are sharing and pooling their resources, for no library can have everything. It has been estimated that by 1974–75 the magnitude of loans of materials that will be made by academic libraries to other libraries would approximate 2,600,000, at an estimated cost on the order of $12.1 million. Typically the university library lends to other smaller libraries four or five times as much as it borrows.

A variety of devices, national and regional, has been developed by librarians for bringing the combined collections of the research libraries under bibliographic control, for telling where a particular book may be obtained. The National Union Catalog, Pre-1956 Imprints, now being published in an estimated 600 large volumes, supplements the ongoing current record by indicating holdings, mostly monographic, reported over the past seventy years of more than 800 libraries throughout North America. The NUC is one of the keys to that vast national resource represented by the combined collections of libraries. (Incidentally, with some 300 volumes already published, through the letter M, the project is facing serious financial problems.) The rapidly developing computer-based technology will almost certainly provide the basis for bibliographic control in the future through a national library communication network.

Librarians have for years been thinking of the total research library collections of the country as a single national resource. In 1940 Julian P. Boyd, then librarian of Princeton University, stated the issue succinctly: "The fallacy of an impossible completeness in any one library should be abandoned in theory and practice; librarians should now think in terms of completeness for the library resources of the whole country." Soon after, Dr. Boyd was one of the leaders in proposing and developing the Farmington Plan, under which some fifty libraries have accepted responsibility for specific fields and geographic areas in an attempt to bring to the country at least one copy of each book of potential research interest from about 150 countries and territories.

This program is now being phased out and the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging of the Library of Congress, authorized by Title II-C of the Higher Education Act of 1965, is beginning to achieve the objective of the Farmington Plan. NPAC, or the "shared cataloging" program, had its inception in the recognition of the substantial economies which could be realized if each book could be cataloged once only and the cataloging copy made available promptly to all other libraries acquiring the same book. Its import has been tremendous, even though NPAC has never been fully funded by the Congress.

One more example among many may be cited to suggest the way in which libraries are sharing their resources and serving students and scholars by drawing upon collective strength. The Center for Research Libraries in Chicago, which had its origin in 1951, is an independent "library's library," supported by its more than 100 institutional members. Its function is to collect and make available important but seldom-used materials so that each individual library will not have to preserve such things as newspaper files, which are essential but not called for frequently. Currently, with the aid of a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, the center is conducting a pilot program of subscribing to several thousand seldom-used journals in the hope that individual member libraries may find it possible to rely on the center for these titles and thus increase their available resources and stabilize the heavy load of carrying individual subscriptions.
One model for such an activity is the highly successful National Lending Library for Science and Technology in England, supported by the British government as a national resource.

Many other examples could be cited. However, it should already be clear that the university libraries and a few rather similar national and independent research libraries constitute a major national resource, a de facto network creating a vast pool of recorded knowledge and information essential to higher education and to the advancement of learning without which modern society could not exist. This network has evolved unsystematically and without adequate planning and its links are at present quite imperfect, but we are beginning to see the emergence of a coherent, integrated whole. Its viability will depend upon a judicious balance between centers of local excellence, immediately accessible to users, and a variety of centralized cooperative activities, integrated through a computer-based system of bibliographic control.

In all of these developments and activities the objective has been to provide what users need at a cost which is bearable, for a large university library is an expensive proposition. In 1971–72 the seventy-eight libraries upon which we have been concentrating spent a total of more than $76 million for the purchase of books, periodicals, and other materials. Since the associated staff costs of acquiring, organizing, preserving, and interpreting large library collections tend to be about twice the amount spent for purchases, total library expenditures of these seventy-eight libraries in 1971–72 were $260.5 million, not including great capital expenditures for housing library collections and operations.

It may be easier to comprehend what has happened if one looks at the actual dollar expenditures of a single university library. For the Princeton University Library, actual annual expenditures over the past twenty-five years increased as follows:

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<tr>
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<th>1947-48</th>
<th>1972-73</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Books, periodicals, and binding</td>
<td>$100,000</td>
<td>$1,400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salaries and wages</td>
<td>$190,000</td>
<td>$2,400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total library expenditures</td>
<td>$317,000</td>
<td>$4,100,000</td>
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</tbody>
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It should be noted that Princeton’s is an old and stable library, in an institution which has not seen the enormous growth of the great state universities. The library’s rate of growth has been one of the slowest among ARL libraries, and it is not one of the largest in the group. In 1972 it was eighteenth in the number of volumes held among U.S. and Canadian university libraries.

Costs of this magnitude are impressive and alarming, but their significance lies more in the rate of growth which they represent. Statistics are available for fifty-eight university libraries which have been members of the ARL throughout the period 1950–1969. For these libraries the average annual rate of growth was 10.5 percent over the twenty-year period. It should be underscored that this rate of growth represents an annual compounding, and that the power of compounding is such that at this rate a variable doubles in size in less than seven years and in two decades grows to about eight times its original size.

The principal causes of this growth in costs include not only general inflation and higher salaries but also several special library factors:

1. The increase in university enrollments (probably less significant than the other factors).
2. The expansion in the scope of teaching and research programs.
3. The rapid increase in the worldwide production of recorded knowledge. For example, in 1947, 7,807 new hard-cover books were published in the United States; in 1972, 26,865. To maintain the same relative sam-
ple of this information, without regard to new fields of study, libraries must increase acquisitions proportionately.

4. An increase in the unit cost of publications considerably in excess of general commodity indices for the period. For example, note the following average list prices of U.S. publications:

<table>
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<th></th>
<th>1947</th>
<th>1972</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New hard-cover books (per volume)</td>
<td>$3.62</td>
<td>$12.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodicals (annual subscription)</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>13.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We suggest that in the light of this evidence the financial problems of the university libraries and the related non-university general research libraries merit the attention of the National Commission on the Financing of Postsecondary Education. While these libraries occupy numerically a small portion of the broad spectrum of educational activities to which the commission must address itself, this is a particularly significant segment. Libraries of this type are an absolutely essential element in a very substantial amount of undergraduate collegiate education. Perhaps more important, they are even more essential to the advanced and professional education and research upon which the nation depends. One cannot conceive of a modern society without the steady infusion of highly skilled manpower and creative thinking which only the university can provide, and one cannot conceive of a university of quality without library support of equal quality. Beyond formal academic walls, these libraries collectively are a single national resource of recorded knowledge organized for use, the collective memory of mankind, constantly being applied to improving the quality of life today and tomorrow.

We recognize that this very involvement of the research library with so many aspects of education, with a complex blend of teaching and research, makes it difficult to develop a single satisfactory plan for financing libraries. University libraries have been supported by a variety of federal, state, and private funds. They have received a share of the general funds of their parent institutions, whether derived from state legislatures, endowment income, tuition, sponsored research overhead, or annual gifts from alumni. Some have separately endowed funds, and most receive direct gifts and grants from individuals, foundations, and corporations for specified activities. They have received categorical assistance directly from the federal government, such as the grants for acquisitions under Title II-A of the Higher Education Act of 1965, or as part of federal support of specific programs, such as the NDEA foreign language centers. Some charge nominal fees for certain kinds of services, such as service to industry. We trust that all of these kinds of support will continue. We urge, however, that special attention be paid to library problems as new patterns of university financing emerge.

There have been discussions of general institutional support, by which federal aid would come to the institution in a lump sum, to be distributed by the institution according to its own needs. If the library were merely a service agency, bounded by the specific needs of specific classroom activities, merely placing books on reserve for assigned reading, such a program might be fairly effective. But the university library has a multitude of other functions and relationships not bounded by the walls of a single institution. Furthermore, while institutional autonomy may be generally a worthy objective, in the case of the university library it runs directly counter not only to quality of service, for no library can have everything, but also to sensible economy, for it is becoming increasingly clear that one of the most promising means of slowing the growth
of library costs is the sharing of resources among institutions. There have been discussions of student support, by which much of the funding of institutions might come from tuition grants from the government which the student might bring with him to the institution of his choice. This plan has the great merit of encouraging free choice. Yet university library costs are related much less directly to numbers of students than they are to factors such as the number of fields offered, the nature of each field, the quality of the collections, and above all the research element. For adequate university library support to be derived entirely in this way the student grants would have to be quite large indeed. Furthermore, it would be difficult to adapt this method of funding to the highly desirable support of the great independent research libraries which are an important element of the single national resource which has been described.

We believe, therefore, that some form of categorical aid is probably essential for university and research libraries. For too long the aid which they need has tended to slip away because through the multiplicity of their involvements this aid has always seemed to be someone else's business. They need direct and massive support as libraries, or rather as elements of a single national interrelated network of libraries, an essential national resource.

We believe further that, while grants to individual libraries are useful and welcome, they are not necessarily the most economical and rational way of solving the problem of the rapid exponential growth of university library costs. Perhaps the most effective kind of assistance is massive aid applied centrally to whatever operations facilitate sharing, and thus relieve individual institutional funds to do what must be done locally.

A variety of opportunities at the federal level suggest themselves:

- Legislation already exists which has done much and could do much more if fully funded under existing authorization and under increased authorization. The shared cataloging program of the Library of Congress (NPAC) has saved university libraries millions of dollars in cataloging costs and could save millions more if adequately funded and expanded.

- The distribution of machine-readable catalog copy on computer tapes (MARC) could be quickly extended to additional categories of books and made a free service to libraries by appropriate action of the Congress.

- The development of the national computer network could be accelerated by the substantial investment of federal funds in developing a series of related networks, perhaps along the lines of the Ohio College Library Center or other tested model, which would as a federal service provide individual cataloging from MARC tapes and from pooled original cataloging to the major libraries of the country.

- The staff costs of acquisitions and cataloging consume as much as one third of the annual budgets of university libraries. By applying federal funds centrally for programs such as those outlined above, substantial savings for individual libraries might be achieved.

- In a quite different area, the creation and operation at federal expense of one or perhaps several special libraries to which research libraries could turn with confidence for the loan of journal articles, on the model of the British National Lending Library for Science and Technology, would provide for access by individual libraries to tens of thousands of scholarly journals which might otherwise be unavailable to them.

We have attempted to identify the nature and functions of the large university and research library, to indicate
the special role these libraries play in postsecondary education and the life of the country as a unified national resource, to suggest the formidable costs and the rapid exponential growth involved, to discuss alternative forms of financial support, and to suggest examples of centralized federal assistance which might be given. We would be happy to elaborate any of these points with members of the commission or its staff and to help develop specific legislative proposals.

We are grateful for the opportunity to present these views.

REFERENCE

The career development of librarians requires working conditions to foster this growth. Employee needs for development are summarized and a possible variety of developmental activities are reviewed. Problems in providing or encouraging growth opportunities are discussed. An outline is then provided for desirable general institutional goals and attitudes.

A director of a university library has many problems. Besides financial problems, he must decide how to build collections, what resources in the collections can best serve faculty and students, what kind of bibliographical control must be provided, how to cope with the growth of collections and building problems that ensue, how to make more effective public services, how to provide instruction in library use, and much more. Each of these decisions, furthermore, is dependent on persons for their management: the library staff is ultimately responsible for creating book collections and providing catalogs and services. The people form themselves into an organization having common goals, and it is through people that goals can be achieved.

Despite the great amount of literature on library personnel issues, little attention has been given to the specific topic of how the library personnel environment itself can contribute to the development of professional staff. It is necessary to examine how the organization can motivate staff in their early and mid-career years through the use of participative management, professional advancement, and continuing education so as to satisfy not only the institution's needs for an appropriate and efficiently operated library but also the individual's needs for job satisfaction and career advancement.

This study on the dynamics of library environment and its relationship to professional staff growth examines the problem in four phases: (1) employee needs for professional development—what in-house encouragement, attention, opportunities are desirable; (2) types of developmental activities that may be used toward meeting these employee needs; (3) problems involved in implementing these various types of activities; and (4) balancing institutional and personal goals where they conflict, weighing cost-efficiency versus personal benefits, and stimulating development action.

**Employee Needs**

The librarian needs a fertile seedbed for his professional development. An individual usually accepts a position for
more than salary reasons. For his personal integrity he wishes to feel pride in his work and to identify with an organization and its goals. He expects to work with individuals whom he can respect and from whom he can learn. He wishes to receive encouragement from his supervisor and administrative superiors. To enhance professional prospects, he wants to be part of a group with whom he feels a compatible professional interest, and he wishes to have reasonable opportunity for professional growth. He hopes for individual support in efforts at career advancement, including opportunities to transfer to jobs with more responsibility within the organization and recommendations for such jobs in other libraries.1

A summary of these needs is provided in University Library Administration:

The personnel goals of a library are job productivity, the individuals' personal development and satisfaction, and overall library program advancement. These can be promoted through a program of personnel development grounded upon suitable training and supervision. This development is measured by formal performance reviews or achievement ratings. Motivation of staff is not easy of attainment. It is, however, at least as important as salary and fringe benefits in enabling goals to be achieved. . . . Good personnel administration will seek ways of satisfying the employee's psychological needs, giving him a feeling of responsibility and accomplishment.2

Although these needs of the employee generally do not conflict with those of the organization, there may be some points of difference. To the extent that "job productivity" is emphasized as the organizational goal, most of the activities which might be included in programs for staff development could be precluded. This would, however, be a shortsighted view. Few organizations today have such a narrow conception of efficiency, which is equated to minimum expense for maximum library collections and services. Whenever people are involved, the organization will be only as good as its staff; line employees of today are the managers and administrators of tomorrow.

Types of Developmental Activities

A comprehensive program to help meet staff development needs might include many types of activities. Ten activities are suggested here; a reasonable program for a university library would encompass most of these.

1. Brief reassignments can be made to other jobs, perhaps across departmental lines, in order to improve orientation to the library program. Such an exchange could be between persons in two departments of the same library or even between two persons in different, perhaps foreign university libraries. This experience can add a great deal beyond knowledge gained in the formal library school training or the introductory orientation program offered all new employees. Such an exchange can provide a substantial learning experience, keeping within the framework of a regular appointment in the library system.

2. Another staff development activity might include planned regular rotation within the library system during the first two or three years of appointment at the beginning level. For example, new librarians might be assigned to work one year in the catalog department before going into any public service position; or new staff might transfer systematically among general reference, government document, and undergraduate library reference departments. Each of these moves would be a true transfer, in contrast to the temporary exchange of assignments in the arrangement above. These transfers probably would be at generally the same level of responsibility and classification.

3. Assignment to library committees
can play an important role in staff development programs. Committees formed to study proposed policies (for example, confidentiality of certain information), to review a basic management issue (e.g., a complex procedure involving two or more departments), to fill a professional vacancy, to examine graduate programs, to design orientation for incoming students, or to take part in various other library and academic issues enrich the librarian’s experience and knowledge, as well as provide contact with faculty, students, and administrators.

4. Another development activity includes membership in professional associations. Within the library there might be a staff association or librarians’ association with committees concerned with publications, a staff room, social and cultural programs promoted by the staff, or discussion groups on a wide range of professional matters. Such participation may lead to work with the Special Libraries Association, American Library Association, a regional association, or subject-related professional associations. A book selection specialist or a curator in a particular language field may find work with a committee of the Modern Language Association. Each offers opportunities for library staff to work with colleagues with similar interests in other organizations. The varieties of possibilities here are numerous although the number of opportunities may be very limited for staff in any one library.

5. Another dimension of staff development can derive from visits to university or other academic libraries. These experiences can often be more productive than attendance at professional meetings. Initially, these visits are designed to fulfill a particular need—to develop a building program or to design a new branch library facility; to consult on plans for a book buying trip abroad; or to examine a serial records system. These visits may last for one or two days and commonly result in written internal reports. They also help to serve as an in-depth introduction to problems of other organizations.

6. At mid-career levels, there may be occasional consultative opportunities, another development possibility. Whereas most of the previous staff development activities can be initiated by the employee, this one may depend on recommendation from the head librarian. In previous decades there was quite a use of surveys conducted by an expert or a team; nowadays institutions make far more use of individual consultants for building or automation programs without their having to produce a major document. Institutions in the region look to university libraries for providing the experts.

One variation of the consultanship is service as a member of an accreditation team, available sometimes through the initiation of the head librarian and for persons in mid-career. This activity commonly takes the form of joining a committee composed of various specialists. The committee spends two or three days in a consultative role with the academic institution wishing to be reaccredited and submits its evaluation and suggestions in a report to the accrediting association. These experiences not only help the institution visited but also materially contribute to the continuing education and professional stimulus of the participating staff member.

7. Another development activity, which may be initiated either by the employee or by the library administration, is writing and publishing. These opportunities are available more often than assumed to be the case by the employee. Local library bulletins, campus newspapers, and state library journals are but a few of the dozens of outlets. Every university library has problems which, if properly analyzed and described, may make suitable professional contributions in the
published literature. This includes the preparation of literature bibliographies, which may serve a public service function of the local library and in turn may become official library publications. The experience of organizing one's thoughts and submitting them to public scrutiny, no matter how small the audience, is a significant dimension of staff development opportunities. Both criticism of and support for published material further the individual's analytical powers and reasoning.

8. A somewhat more ambitious development opportunity includes research or sabbatical leave. Although less frequent than the previous opportunities, sabbaticals are designed to give time for a major study, which may include travel, research effort, and writing. The purpose is serious and scholarly, justifying the three to twelve months with salary support. In few institutions are they available for librarians who have passed the probationary period but have not yet been promoted to the senior grades of librarian. There should be many more institutions offering sabbaticals for librarians submitting substantial research proposals. The opportunity for sabbaticals merely reflects the rapidly changing nature of librarianship and the consequent need for university librarians to keep up with advances in their field as does the faculty of a university.

9. Workshops, seminars, institutes, and non-credit courses provide another development activity. A considerable range of library institutes and mini-courses now exists: ALA conference programs start with several institutes; the Office of Education has funded institutes offered by a great many library schools around the country; and many universities provide brief courses ranging from two days to a week, sometimes as part of extension programs and often as part of a deliberate university policy to utilize the physical plant during the summer and bring in income at times when students are not filling facilities. In a local context, courses can be part of a university-wide staff development program, which may include, for example, a series of sessions on supervisory training—one of the major needs in universities and in their libraries. Other mini-courses can be specially developed within the library to serve particular needs, such as a program to explore staff implications of library automation, or the integration of micro-formats into the several departmental programs of the library, or a brief course on utilization of social science data tapes.

10. Finally, formal support could be given for librarians wishing to audit a course on instruction or to pursue a degree program. This would require a policy of permissible time-off and reimbursement for partial or complete expense entailed in the program. This is the most ambitious of library arrangements to promote the development of professional staff.

These ten activities can contribute significantly to the job-related development of professional personnel. Although additional activities or variations in these programs can be pursued, these ten are intended to show the very wide range of alternatives available to enhance development through broader educational experience. They constitute a continuum, starting from simple, informal, and brief efforts and extending to far more ambitious, time consuming, and formal programs.

PROBLEMS OF IMPLEMENTATION

The actual problems resulting from these staff development activities deserve practical consideration. In contrast to the theory of development opportunities, ten types of practical problems are examined in weighing consequent advantages and disadvantages of implementing staff development programs.
1. The quality of supervision is critical in putting development activities into practice.

The good supervisor will convey a sense of the 'mission' of the library, will explain how each task is important to the overall effectiveness, will show interest in the individual's job problems, and will encourage suggestions for improving the organization. Participative-management theory states that employees are motivated by drawing them into the decision-making process so they can relate their personal goals and achievements to those of the organization. This philosophy is increasingly important in libraries as they become highly organized with hundreds on their staff.

Where libraries have a professional staff of 50 to 150 persons situated in from ten to thirty different buildings, each supervisor becomes a critical person in the organization.

The supervisor receives information and various signals from the immediate superior and passes them on to subordinate staff. The information will be so conveyed as to reflect the supervisor's values and attitudes, which in some cases may be discouraging of staff development, for whatever personal reason. The supervisor may subconsciously be less than enthusiastic about staff development, perhaps because he or she did not have ample opportunity in the early career years, or does not now feel there is a chance for further development; because of a feeling of pressure from above for quantitative achievement; or a host of other reasons. As library organizations grow, attitudes, techniques, and leadership qualities used by the supervisor become more important. University libraries should pay more attention to the development of these individuals because of the effect they have on the entire organization. Knowledge of the library organization, its policies and goals, a good working relationship with department heads, the director, and associate directors of the library, and a sensitive, responsive, judicious warmth toward the individual employee are essential qualities for this staff officer. Not merely an advocate of the administration nor only a spokesman for the employee, the supervisor works in that difficult realm between both parties. Several options under a staff development program, such as brief reassignments or even transfers, depend entirely on this officer for effectiveness. The supervisor will not always be effective in this development role.

2. The nature of a temporary transfer constitutes a second problem. The caliber of exchanged employees is never equal. Thus, one department will feel it is giving up much more than it gains; indeed the other department may also hold that view. Even though the director of libraries believes transfers are desirable for the general good of the organization or for public relations, this may not be the case at the working department level. A reassigned employee requires almost as much training as does a regular new employee, prompting the supervisor or department head to have less enthusiasm for transfers unless he is confident that the person out on loan from his department will return with a great deal more effectiveness in the organization.

The library school programs at the University of Texas and the University of Washington build in such field experience prior to employment and require a range of assignments during the month or two of internship. Because the program is limited to interns, however, the assignments obviously cannot provide the same level of responsibility as for a permanent employee. The library trying to offer temporary transfers early after employment must find ways of minimizing the practical difficulties in their execution.
3. Timing often constitutes a real inhibition to many administrative actions, not least of which is staff development. An academic year has its rhythm with an established timing for committee appointments, leaves, and budgetary planning, as well as personnel decisions, which in turn affect reassignments or transfers. Work must be reassigned or substitutes hired if a librarian is going to leave. Leave for six months with full pay requires funds to cover temporary help, if indeed a suitable temporary replacement can be found. The individual's requirements may also be affected by a spouse's ability to get away from the job, or when children will be out of school. If the individual is operating a one-librarian branch library, for example, the library administration's support for that individual's sabbatical will understandably be less than enthusiastic. Secondary issues may demand considerable advance thought: deadlines that may be required for certain applications; advance coordination if jobs are to be exchanged; support requirements for clerical assistants if there is heavy committee work. Timing, as well as the time required, are occasionally significant elements limiting the effective pursuit of staff development programs.

4. Another limiting factor derives from the fact that a library is part of the university. The library therefore cannot unilaterally adopt a staff benefit program which will place it ahead of other departments or set a precedent that will cause unwanted repercussions elsewhere. An example may be a request for sabbaticals for junior professional staff when research associates whom the academic vice-president considers a comparable group have asked and been refused. Or tuition reimbursement for part-time graduate study of full-time library employees may be vetoed if a similar benefit could not be funded on a university-wide basis.

5. Another point is the direct costs entailed. These costs include the time of the employee as well as other, less direct, participants. It would be possible to put a dollar figure on each kind of staff development effort and each action under such a program, including not only the individual but his supervisor, department chief, the head librarian, personnel officer, and perhaps one or several university offices outside the library. Therefore, far more expense is incurred than merely the time of one employee. When budgets are tight, this expense can exercise a considerable braking effect on staff development programs and their individual components. In terms of library budget priority, there may be pressure for items among which the adoption of some one staff development program may have to take a lower budgetary priority when the consequences of not funding each are evaluated and compared.

6. Time is money and it is therefore least expensive if one department head or the head librarian makes a rapid decision. But this is not the way to develop staff and increase the responsibility of young librarians. This problem derives from the delay in making a decision and implementing the action, rather than the actual dollar cost. A search committee is a good example. Although the quality of the final decision may be improved by a search committee, and it helps participants better understand management problems and decision-making processes, it might take extra time to decide on a professional appointment—or to plan a branch library building, or revise its borrowing privileges policy statement. Some issues certainly can be given that extra time; as the retirement date of a staff member is known well in advance, a search committee can be started in good season. On other issues with close deadlines, however, the extra time required presents such time
difficulties that some types of staff involvement that can contribute to staff development may not work smoothly and are thus seldom pursued.

7. Inflexibility may present a problem in a very small staff. In an office run by one person or in a branch library with one librarian or with an individual who is the sole subject expert, the priority requirement is to keep these operations going. An individual in such an organization thus would have more difficulty finding certain opportunities for staff advancement than one who is on a team of several in a general reference department. These are practical inhibitions on staff development; and the great majority of librarians, even in a university with a staff as large as Stanford's 140 professionals, will find that only a small number are team members and thus can be more easily spared and their responsibilities reassigned. Even in a reference department, each librarian may have a different set of special responsibilities so that arrangements to transfer such a person even in a large unit are by no means simple.

8. A library administration must consider that after investing in the development of a staff member, the individual may soon resign to accept a more attractive position elsewhere. The librarian who has attended an institute, visited other institutions, given a paper at a professional meeting, or had a research leave has a wider geographic visibility. The individual who seeks self-aggrandizement may use such activities to find better jobs elsewhere. Only if the employee gives evidence of unconscionable self-interest, if he fails to recognize that he is an employee with obligations to the institution, would the wise library administrator oppose a development activity because of possible loss of the employee.

Library administrators recognize the need for a reasonably stable operation. This does not mean, however, that personnel is stable. It is in fact volatile—5 to 10 percent sometimes turning over in any one year. It is almost unheard of for any librarian today to come out of a graduate library school and stay in one institution until retirement. It is normal, because of the pyramidal shape of a library staff, for most to move a few times within one institution and/or move on to more responsible jobs elsewhere. Indeed, it is for the good of the organization, the individual, and the profession for this mobility to occur. In addition, a certain proportion of the senior jobs in any university library will be filled by persons who have been brought in from outside, employees who have found ways of staff development and gained recognition at another institution. Yet volatility might still be considered a problem in some aspects of staff development.

9. Another concern is the general administrative burden on the library directors, department heads, and personnel office. It often takes an extra effort on their part to see how advancement can be facilitated, to review staff members for promotion to an upcoming vacancy, to suggest attendance at an institute, and so forth. Although some opportunities can be initiated by the employee, in practice a majority are initiated by the administrative group. Therefore, the caliber and concern of the personnel officer and others in the top administrative group are critical. For these individuals this is but one more administrative responsibility, and quite often it must be with substantial extra effort.

10. Another problem has been pointed out by Guy R. Lyle, who speaks of low salaries, relatively long hours, and frequent understaffing as three obstacles to the continuing education of the library staff. He goes on to add a fourth, saying: Even under the best of conditions, librarianship has a tendency to become
routine and largely automatic. There is routine work even in duties which are predominantly professional, and a great deal more of that in work that goes on behind the scenes. There is the ever present danger that such routines will induce a sense of complacency and an acceptance of things as they are.5

This preoccupation with daily routines, the problems of catalog records and book collections, the problems of a seemingly petty nature on top of these that seem insurmountable result in a centrifugal force which propels the librarian to the myriad mundane but practical matters rather than coming into the heart of librarianship: its philosophy of collection development, service, and the best utilization of staff and other resources. It takes a strong counterforce to overcome this sense of tradition, this condition of complacency, the need for stability in a major and expensive and often understaffed service organization.

BALANCING INSTITUTIONAL AND PERSONAL GOALS

The dynamics of this environment are complex. The interaction of development opportunities and related problems needs to be adjusted so as to create an effective personnel environment, especially for the early and mid-career advancement of professional staff. The administrator must find a reasonable balance in priorities between the institution’s immediate needs for service and efficiency and the employees’ personal goals of satisfaction, recognition, development, and advancement possibilities. Costs and benefits or time required and value derived must be weighed.

There is no one answer to the set of problems, but a general position may be stated. Although during the most austere financial periods the opportunities for staff development may be curtailed, in more normal times an institution and its library should offer a great many of the suggested developmental opportunities. Not necessarily all types of staff development can be supported in every institution or at the same time, but certainly a fair range should be offered.

Libraries have grown rapidly in the past twenty-five years, and changing service requirements and economic, machine, and systems factors require that librarians continue to develop their professional knowledge of theory and techniques in order to serve their institutions effectively. Furthermore, the director or manager is but one person expending effort. The line staff are those many whose combined efforts provide the front-line service. The lower the level at which work is achieved, the more powerful the total accomplishments of the organization. To this end, when a manager can shift attention from the pressure of immediate tasks, he is interested in (1) raising the level of employee motivation, (2) increasing the readiness of subordinates to accept change, (3) improving the quality of all managerial decisions, (4) promoting teamwork and morale, and (5) furthering the individual development of the staff. As analyzed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt, most research and much of recent experience “give a strong factual basis to the theory that a fairly high degree of subordinate-centered behavior [as the style of management’s leadership] is associated with the accomplishment of the five purposes mentioned.” They add that “to provide the individual . . . with greater freedom than they are ready for . . . may very well tend to generate anxieties and therefore inhibit rather than facilitate the attainment of desired objectives. But this should not keep the manager from making a continuing effort to confront his subordinates with the challenge of freedom.”6 The successful organization, then, is one which stim-
ulates the growth of junior staff and provides them considerable participative freedom.

An administrator realizes that if too much upward mobility were generated he would find that the institution is really running a postgraduate course in library administration. Individual circumstances, however, resolve this problem. Not every librarian can be or wishes to be part of the administrative structure of the library. For many librarians development occurs in a nonadministrative path. Those staff who have ability and motivation and show initiative should be encouraged by all means, including the staff development programs here cited.

The most effective way to increase the viability of a professional development program, given the problems inherent in its application, depends on the vigor with which this is personally pursued among the highest levels of the library's administration. Those officers will need to keep this in mind, to find ways of stimulating the department heads, to raise the issue whenever development opportunity presents itself, to understand the individual interests of professional staff, and to know what action is or is not possible in administrative terms when a propitious moment arrives. It requires a basic desire to make this work. Whether a staff development program is called “continuing education,” whether parts of it are referred to as “participative management” or “good sense,” the key library officers need to promote this as a centrally important part of their program, not as an afterthought and not as an area to be given token effort.

In these times, staff development is the single most significant aspect of a satisfactory long-term personnel program. The dynamic nature of staff relationships, the host of shifting sets of problems, and the uncertain priority in budget programs make its implementation extraordinarily difficult. It is, despite this, a major factor in fashioning a quality university library.

References

1. Note that relations with professional colleagues and “further developing professional experience” were the most important job satisfaction factors in both first and second posts of 1965-71 graduates in librarianship from Sheffield University. Norman Roberts, “Graduates in Academic Libraries: A Survey of Past Students of the Post-Graduate School of Librarianship and Information Studies, Sheffield University, 1964/65-1970/71,” Journal of Librarianship 5:106-11 (April 1973).
4. Rogers and Weber, University Library Administration, p.46.
Too many chemistry journals*

SIR: We are writing to communicate to our colleagues our joint concern over the recent proliferation of journals in chemistry.

We shall not discuss the overall growth in the number of papers published. That is another matter. We are concerned here with the quality of the literature, its cost to the libraries of our institutions, and how publication is organized.

1) Today a publisher can start a journal in almost any part of chemistry and, by charging a high subscription price, can apparently make a profit, relying only on sale to libraries. The libraries are a captive market. They have assumed that they must buy every journal published irrespective of its overall quality.

2) The new journals generally do not require publication charges from the authors, but subsist on the high subscription prices. In some countries the result of increased publication in these journals is a general shift of the burden of supporting publication from the government agencies (which generally pay the researchers’ publication charges) to universities (which support the libraries). In other countries money, which the universities could otherwise use for research, goes to meet the blowup library costs. The budgets of university library systems are overburdened. Several libraries have had to institute a freeze on the ordering of new journals and discontinue subscriptions to old journals.

3) We believe that lax refereeing standards are characteristic of some new commercial journals. Such journals necessarily have a vested interest in building up volume to maintain themselves. The quality of new journals needs to be compared carefully with the standards set by other established journals.

4) The compartmentalization of chemistry into more and more specialized sections encourages these new journals and is encouraged by them. Communication among specialists in any one field is thereby facilitated. But our general feeling is that the literature should be so constructed as to deter trends towards overspecialization, and should foster communication among chemists working in different areas.

There exists also an economic side to overspecialization, aptly expressed by L. C. Cross in the May 1973 issue of Chemistry in Britain: “Some have tried to find the answer in greater specialization, dividing new knowledge haphazardly into more and more packages of increasingly narrow interest and smaller distributions. This has merely resulted in ever-multiplying costs to the consumer and greater profits to the producer. Such results are inevitable because the package is not being altered fundamentally, only the label is being changed, with results that any housewife would predict.”

Positive action on the problem of journal proliferation is difficult to take. But we feel that the situation is sufficiently critical that such action must be

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undertaken. Accordingly we suggest the following:

• That all scientists urge their libraries to exercise the greatest reticence on subscription to new commercial journals. We realize that such a boycott of new literature will lead to some hardship; and some scientific information may take longer to get through. But we feel that there is no quicker way than this to convince publishers.

• That all scientists refrain from publishing in new commercial journals. We realize in asking this that financial support for page charges levied by some national journals is not available to all, and that some journals deplorably have imposed penalties, in the form of delay, for nonpayment of page charges. But there are, in all fields, established journals which do not impose page charges.

• Ideally, some international agency ought to be constructed for examining and assessing the foundation of new journals. At the present time this is probably an unrealistic thought. National chemical societies are not perfect, and indeed have sometimes resisted the formation of badly needed supranational journals. They should, however, be urged to set up an impartial mechanism for evaluating the need for a new journal and require that criteria for assuring the level of quality are met. A set of criteria for refereeing practice, statistics concerning rejection rates, criteria for terminating a journal, restrictions on language or national origin of work, page charges, etc., would be the proper concern of any committee.

Finally, we turn to the problem of our colleagues who staff the editorial boards and advisory committees of new commercial journals. We doubt that many of them have tried seriously to convince their respective national chemical societies to establish new journals where need clearly existed. Some have, we think, instead, taken an easy, but ultimately detrimental path of succumbing to a publisher's enticements. Membership on an editorial board has always been universally accepted as an indication of scientific expertise and sound judgment. We should like to keep it that way.

We would welcome discussion on these matters. For our own part we are of the opinion that the only way of preventing the publication of these unnecessary journals is to discourage their purchase by our libraries. We also feel that such action is needed quickly.

C. J. Ballhausen,
Copenhagen, Denmark
F. A. Cotton, College Station, Tex.
A. Eschenmoser, Zurich, Switzerland
E. Havinga, Leyden, The Netherlands
R. Hoffmann, Ithaca, N.Y.
R. Huisgen, Munich, Germany
J.-M. Lehn, Strasbourg, France
J. W. Linnett, Cambridge, England
L. Salem, Orsay, France
MICHAEL BOMMER and BERNARD FORD

A Cost-Benefit Analysis for Determining the Value of an Electronic Security System

A major problem confronting the library administrator today is the loss of an increasing number of books through theft. One solution to this problem is met by the installation of an electronic security system (ESS). Although it is relatively easy to estimate the cost of installation and operation of such a system, it is considerably more difficult to measure its benefits. In this research, two methods are presented for estimating the rate of book loss. Once the book-loss rate is determined, an analysis is presented for ascertaining the benefits yielded by an ESS relative to the cost.

INTRODUCTION

At present, there exists a critical need for improved decision making and planning to effectively utilize and allocate the library's scarce resources. This need results, on the one hand, from an increase in the intensity and complexity of demands registered by users for publications which are increasing in both numbers and cost. On the other hand, the budgets allotted to libraries are not increasing at a rate sufficient to accommodate these trends. Thus, it is imperative that funds be expended for those programs that contribute most to the library's effectiveness. Decisions must be made as to whether and at what level each program merits funding. One such program, which is a candidate for funding in most libraries, is the installation of an electronic security system (ESS) to protect the library's collection from theft. It must be determined, however, whether the benefits yielded by such a system justify the cost of installation and operation.

This article reports on a study conducted at the Van Pelt Library of the University of Pennsylvania for documents in the collection which are permitted to circulate. Two methods for estimating the current yearly rate of lost documents are compared. Based upon the estimated number of lost documents, a further estimate is made regarding the number lost by theft. Next, computations are presented which estimate the costs of an ESS. These figures include the costs for both installation and operation. An analysis is then made of the benefits gained from installing an ESS with the appropriate costs.

Mr. Bommer is assistant professor of management, School of Management, Clarkson College of Technology, Potsdam, New York. Mr. Ford is assistant director, University of Pennsylvania Libraries, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
Estimating the Number of Documents Lost as a Result of Theft

Method I

The first method involves determining the number of documents lost from a sample of documents during a one-year period. An estimate of the number of documents lost for the entire collection during a one-year period is then extrapolated, based on these sample results. Of the total number of documents estimated to be lost, an estimate is then made for the number lost by theft.

A table of random numbers was used to select a random sample of cards from the University of Pennsylvania Library shelflist. In all, 925 cards were selected, with 662 cards listing circulation documents. The 263 cards listing documents not for circulation (e.g., periodicals) were not included in this study. For each of the 662 cards (referred to here as the Van Pelt collection) the number of documents listed on the card and the publication date of the documents were recorded. These data are summarized by classes according to publication dates in columns 3 and 4 of Table 1. Data are grouped into classes in order to obtain more reliable estimates. The assumption is made that the loss rate for documents correlates with the publication date of documents. This assumption is based upon the fact that use rate of documents is correlated with document publication date (see for example Fussier and Simon, or Trueswell, or Bommer), and the belief that the more a document is used, the more susceptible it is to theft.

An estimate of the number of documents in each class of the collection was then made. This was accomplished by first measuring the number of linear inches of cards in the entire shelflist (10,442), multiplying by the average number of cards per inch (100), and then multiplying again by the estimated proportion of these cards pertaining to documents permitted to circulate which are held by Van Pelt (662/925), yielding an estimate of 747,308 cards. The estimated number of documents in each class was computed by multiplying the number of documents in the sample for each class by the ratio of the total number of cards in the sample. For example, the estimated number of documents in class I is determined by multiplying 84 by the ratio 747,308/662, yielding 94,824 documents. These results appear as column 5 in Table 1.

For each of the documents in the sample, thorough searches were conducted in December 1971 and December 1972. The number of documents that were unaccounted for is indicated in columns 6 and 7 of Table 1. The difference between these two columns represents the number of documents in the sample that were lost during this one-year period.

The estimated number of documents lost over this one-year period for the Van Pelt collection was determined by first computing the estimated proportion of documents lost in each class. The number of documents lost in the sample in the one-year period is divided by the number of documents in the sample. For example, for class I documents, one document was lost, which, when divided by 84, yields an estimated .01190 proportion of documents lost in the one-year period. These proportions appear as column 8 in Table 1. The estimated number of documents lost in each class was then obtained by multiplying the proportion of documents lost by the estimated number of documents in the class. For example, the estimated number of documents lost in class I in a one-year period is .01190 times 94,824, which equals 1,128 documents. These estimates appear as column 9 in Table 1. A summation of the entries in this column yields an estimate of the total number of documents lost in a one-year period from Van Pelt Library, which is 10,003.
TABLE 1

NUMBER OF DOCUMENTS LOST FROM COLLECTION DURING ONE-YEAR PERIOD AS ESTIMATED USING DATA COLLECTED OVER A PERIOD OF TIME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of Documents</th>
<th>Class Publication Dates</th>
<th>Shelflist Sample</th>
<th>Estimated Number of Documents Lost as of December 1971</th>
<th>Number of Documents Lost as of December 1972</th>
<th>Proportion of Documents Lost during One-Year Period</th>
<th>Total Number of Documents Lost in One-Year Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1966-1970</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>94,824</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.01190</td>
<td>1,128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>1960-1965</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>141,107</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.03200</td>
<td>4,515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>1950-1959</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>153,524</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.00725</td>
<td>1,113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>1940-1949</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>79,765</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.01471</td>
<td>1,089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>1920-1939</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>124,175</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.00909</td>
<td>1,129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>1900-1919</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>144,494</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>1870-1899</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>111,751</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.01010</td>
<td>1,129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>1700-1869</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>116,272</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>662</td>
<td>965,912</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* A sample larger than 905 documents would have afforded a greater degree of precision in our estimate. However, because of the limited resources available to collect the sample and physically determine the status of each document, this luxury was not permitted. For a sample size of \( n = 905 \) and the proportion of documents lost over a one-year period of approximately \( p = .01 \) (9/905), a crude estimate of the standard error of the estimate is

\[
s = \sqrt{\left( p \left(1-p\right) \right) / n} = \sqrt{\left( .01 \left( .99 \right) \right) / 905} = .0033.
\]

It would have been more desirable to utilize a sample size in the neighborhood of 2,500, which would reduce the standard error of the estimate to approximately .002 using the same formula for \( p = .01 \).

† The marked differences in the estimated number of documents lost in each class can be explained by the modest sample sizes for each class and by the random nature of the data. Although the estimate for the number of documents lost in a particular class may vary from the exact mark, the total for all classes represents a reliable estimate of the total number of documents lost.
Because it is expected that a portion of the total number of documents presumed to be lost will turn up, a further estimate is required to predict the number of documents lost by theft. Of the 55 documents not accounted for in December 1971, 7 have been accounted for after an exhaustive one-year search. It is doubtful that more of these documents will be accounted for in the future. Thus we estimate that approximately 7/55 or 13 percent of the documents estimated to be lost will be accounted for in the future. This would indicate that of the 10,003 documents estimated to be lost, 1,300 might be expected to turn up, with the remaining 8,700 documents assumed lost by theft.

**Method II**

The major drawback in employing method I is that a period of time must elapse between the collection of the sample data used in the estimation procedure. Using method II, the annual number of documents lost from the collection can be estimated using certain assumptions and sample data collected at a particular point in time.

Using random numbers, a random sample of cards for documents acquired in the years 1968-1971 was obtained. A search was conducted to determine the number of these documents which were unaccounted for and presumed lost. The results appear in Table 2.

The assumption is made that the annual loss rate over the past few years has been constant. It is also assumed that the loss rate for the group of most recently acquired documents (1968-71) is similar. For this group, the number of documents lost from a set acquired in a particular year is assumed to be a direct function of the length of time these documents have been on the shelf exposed to patrons. Thus, for the set of documents that has been on the shelf two years, there would be approximately twice as many losses as for the set of documents on the shelf for one year. This assumption holds over a relatively short timespan, unless the rate of book loss changes.

The sample represented in Table 2 was taken in September-October of 1971. Thus, of the 1971 acquisitions in the sample, some had been on the shelf since the first of the year (approximately 1/6 of a year) while others had just been placed on the shelf (0 years). Therefore, the average time duration for 1971 acquisitions on the shelf, assuming a constant rate of addition, was about 1/6 of a year. Similarly, the average time that documents acquired in 1970 were on the shelf at the time of the sample was about 1/3 years; 1969 acquisitions, 2/3 years; and 1968 acquisitions, 3/3 years.

To estimate the yearly rate at which the most recently acquired documents are being lost, the ratios of the number of documents lost divided by the number of years the documents were on the shelf are summed. This sum is then divided by the total number of documents in the sample. This calculation is made for the data in Table 2 as follows:

\[
\text{Estimated yearly proportion of documents lost for the most recently acquired documents (1968-71)} = \frac{5/6 + 7/12 + 17/24 + 14/33}{1391} = 0.0228.
\]

Because the 0.0228 figure represents the yearly loss rate for the most recently acquired documents, it is not justifiable to conclude that 0.0228 of the entire collection is lost each year. A more reasonable assumption is that the document loss rate is in direct proportion to the use rate: documents in a class with a relatively high circulation rate are more susceptible to loss than those in a class with a relatively low use rate. Using this assumption, circulation data were collected according to publication date of the document over a two-week period. These data appear as column 3 of Table 3. A weekly circulation rate for each
class is computed by dividing the two-week circulation data by two and then by the estimated number of documents in each class. For example, the weekly circulation rate for documents in class II is \( \frac{386}{2} \frac{141,107}{141,107} = 1.368 \times 10^{-3} \). These results are shown in column 5 of Table 3. The estimated number of documents in each class appearing in column 4 is obtained from the initial analysis of Table 1.

### TABLE 2

**SAMPLING OF DOCUMENTS LOST: SEPT.-OCT. 1971**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document Acquisition Date</th>
<th>Number of Documents in Sample</th>
<th>Number of Documents Lost as of Sept.-Oct. 1971</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,391</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*It was estimated at the beginning of the study that the proportion of documents lost of the group of most recently acquired documents was about \( p = .02 \). Again, because of the limited resources available to collect the sample and to physically determine the status of each document in the sample, it was decided that a standard error of estimate as high as \( \sigma = .004 \) could be tolerated. A crude estimate of the sample size \( n \) required to meet this specification was determined by solving the following expression:

\[
n = \frac{[(p)(1-p)]}{\sigma^2} = \frac{(.02)(.98)}{(.044)^2} = 1,220
\]

A slightly higher sample of 1,391 documents was ultimately selected.

The circulation rate of documents in each class is computed relative to the circulation rate of documents in class I. For example, the circulation rate for class II documents relative to the circulation rate of class I documents is \( .1368/.2415 = .5665 \). Thus, in general, documents in class II circulate .5665 as much as those in class I. The relative circulation rate for all classes appears in column 6, Table 3. These results are applied to estimate the annual rate at which documents are being lost for each class. Assuming that documents in class I are being lost at the rate of \( .0228 \) per year (as determined previously), then documents are being lost in class II at...
the yearly rate of \((0.0228)(0.5665) = 0.0129\) per year. Yearly document loss rates for each class are shown in column 7 of Table 3. Although the 0.0228 figure was calculated for documents acquired in recent years, this rate is now applied to documents published in recent years. Although not all documents published in a particular year are acquired in that year, the loss rate for documents published in a particular period will not be significantly different from the loss rate for documents acquired in a particular period.

Finally, given the annual loss rate for each class of documents, an estimate of the annual number of lost documents can be made. The loss rates of column 7 are multiplied by the estimated number of documents in column 4 of Table 3. For example, for class II, the estimated number of lost documents is \((0.0129)(141,107) = 1,820\). These results are shown in column 8, Table 3. Summation of this column indicates that the estimated number of documents which were lost from the Van Pelt collection during 1972 is 8,820.

As with method I, it is estimated that approximately 13 percent of the documents will eventually turn up. Thus, \(8,820 - [0.13](8,820) = 7,673\) documents lost as a result of theft. This compares with the estimate of 8,700 documents lost by theft as computed using method I. The estimates vary by a magnitude of approximately 1,000 documents. This difference probably can be attributed to sampling errors.

The loss estimates of 7,673 and 8,700 documents are slightly lower than the total number of documents lost from Van Pelt Library by theft, as these estimates are only for the set of documents in Van Pelt which are allowed to circulate. These estimates do not include such documents as reference works or periodicals, which are also susceptible to theft.

Cost of an Electronic Security System (ESS)

In this analysis, only the costs for the outright purchase of an ESS will be assessed. Other plans are available, which allow for renting an ESS or a combination of renting and purchasing over a period of time. In general, these plans are slightly more expensive than direct purchase.

The costs for the purchase and employment of an ESS can be conveniently separated into an initial cost, which includes the purchase cost and installation of the detection equipment and the purchase cost plus cost of installing detectors in documents currently held by the library, and annual future costs, which include the purchase cost plus cost of installation of detectors in newly purchased documents plus a yearly equipment maintenance cost.

For each of two commercial ESSs studied, the price for two detector equipment units—one for each of the two exits from the Van Pelt Library—was approximately $16,000. Subsequent installation of these terminals was estimated at $3,000.

Rather than placing a detector in every document, it was reasoned that the presence of the detection equipment alone would be sufficient to decrease the theft rate significantly. To reinforce the deterrent, detectors would be placed in a portion of the documents currently held by the library. Using the assumption that the most used documents are the ones most susceptible to theft, greatest protection at the least cost is offered by inserting a detector in each document that passes over the circulation desk during a future, unspecified period of time. Studies by Trueswell and also Fussier and Simon indicate that approximately 20 percent of a library's collection receives 80 percent of the collection's use.8,7 Using these findings as a guide,
if detectors were purchased and inserted in 20 percent of Van Pelt’s collection, (.20)(965,912) = 193,182 detectors would be required. With the cost of purchase ($0.13) plus insertion of each detector ($0.02) equal to approximately $0.15, the cost for placing detectors in the current Van Pelt collection is ($0.15)(193,182) = $28,977, or about $29,000.

At present, Van Pelt Library is adding approximately 50,000 documents per year. Assuming that a detector is inserted in each new document, the yearly cost for detectors is ($0.15)(50,000) = $7,500. In addition, there is an annual maintenance cost for detector equipment of about $500. Because the two exits are currently monitored by an employee at all times, there is no added personnel cost in employing an ESS.

A summary of the costs incurred by Van Pelt Library to install and employ an ESS includes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial one-time costs</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equipment (2 units)</td>
<td>$16,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Installation</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detectors</td>
<td>29,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$48,000</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Annual costs</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Detectors</td>
<td>$7,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$8,000</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**BENEFIT-COST ANALYSIS**

To assess the benefits of an ESS, the costs currently incurred by the library and the library community as a result of the theft of their documents is examined. These costs, when eliminated or diminished, represent benefits attained by the system.

An implicit assumption is made that documents have value only if they will be consulted by a user or users sometime in the future. Of the estimated 8,000 documents lost by theft last year, some undoubtedly would never be in future demand even if they were available, and they would not be replaced by the library if reported missing. Therefore, the monetary loss incurred by the library is not necessarily ($8,000)($20) = $160,000 per year, where the replacement cost of a document is estimated at $20.00. However, over the past three years approximately 1,000 documents per year were reported by users and verified by library personnel to be lost. Of these 1,000 documents, approximately 500 were replaced at a cost of (500)($20) = $10,000 per year. The remaining 500 documents were not replaced, as a newer edition or duplicate copy was available, or it was believed there would not be sufficient future interest in the document to warrant its replacement. If an ESS were 90 percent effective, the actual “out-of-pocket” cost to the library in terms of replacing documents which could be saved would be approximately (.90)($10,000) = $9,000. (No ESS is assumed 100 percent effective, particularly with only 20 percent of the documents initially protected.)

Another “out-of-pocket” cost incurred by the library results from the time consumed in tracing and evaluating for replacement the 1,000 documents reported missing per year. Assuming that each tracer and evaluation requires ½ hour and that employee salary plus benefits is $3.50 per hour, the potential savings in this area would be (.90)(1,000)(½)($3.50) = $1,575.

Often documents are requisitioned from other libraries via the interlibrary loan system (ILL) when a user requests a document which is missing from the library. In the past year, it was ascertained that approximately 200 ILLs were for documents missing from the library. Using the cost figure of $7.61 as estimated by Westat Research, Inc., the estimated cost savings in this area would be (.90)(200)($7.61) = $1,370.

The total annual “out-of-pocket” costs incurred by the library which could be saved by an ESS is then $9,000 + $1,575 + $1,370 = $11,945 per year. This sum does not include a cost to the library of “good will or confidence” incurred when the
library does not have a desired document and cannot obtain a document (out-of-print document) to replace one lost by theft. This inability to serve could lead to a reduction in the quality of research and teaching conducted at a university. Thus the benefits derived by the library as a result of installing an ESS would be $11,945 plus an increase in the "good will or confidence" factor, which is difficult to equate in monetary terms.

A cost to the user is yet another consideration in estimating the benefits of an ESS. As noted previously, only 500 documents of the estimated 8,000 documents lost by theft each year are replaced. One reason for this low replacement rate is that, for the most part, the library is unaware of which documents are lost. Usually, a user searching for stolen documents will never report them missing. Assuming that these 8,000 documents lost by theft are also in active demand, a significant number of frustrations are experienced by users seeking them. These frustrations can be measured by the time expended to locate a copy of the document in a neighboring library, delay while waiting for a replacement copy or for an ILL copy to arrive, and, finally, loss of scholarship when a user is unable to obtain a copy of the document at all within his time requirements. Unfortunately, these costs are extremely difficult to measure objectively. The benefits reaped by the employment of an ESS at Van Pelt Library include not only $11,945 per year but a confidence factor and user benefits as well.

To determine whether an ESS should be installed, a comparison is made of these benefits with the cost of installation and operation (see Figure 1), in which $t = \text{years;} \quad n = \text{planning horizon of the library;} \quad L = \text{subjective benefits accrued to the library, including confidence factor, etc.; and} \quad U = \text{subjective benefits accrued to users as a result of eliminating delays in obtaining desired document, loss of time in attempting to locate desired document, and loss of scholarship when desired document is not obtainable. Therefore, the benefit-to-cost ratio for employing an ESS at Van Pelt Library is}$

$$
\frac{B}{C} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (11,945 + L + U)}{48,000 + \sum_{t=1}^{n} (8,000)}
= \frac{11,945 + L + U}{48,000 + (8,000) (n)}
$$

For simplicity, it is assumed that the discount rate for the future stream of benefits and costs is approximately offset by the rate of inflation.

The value for the $B/C$ ratio depends in part upon the values assessed for $L$ and $U$ by the library administrator. The larger the values assessed for $L$ and $U$, the more likely it is that the ESS will be installed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cost of system</th>
<th>Installation cost</th>
<th>Yearly operating costs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$C$</td>
<td>$48,000$</td>
<td>$\sum_{t=1}^{n} (8,000)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit of system</th>
<th>Monetary benefits accrued to the library</th>
<th>Subjective benefits to the library</th>
<th>Subjective benefits to the user</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>$\sum_{t=1}^{n} (11,945)$</td>
<td>$L$</td>
<td>$U$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1

Cost-to-Benefit Comparison
the greater the ratio of benefits to costs. Thus, if the monetary benefits accrued to the library do not significantly exceed the annual operating costs of the ESS (as in this case), the decision to use an ESS is not clear. In this case, it is up to the library administrator to make the difficult assessment of the subjective library and user benefits, $L + U$.

If, for example, a library administrator estimates that $L + U$ is worth $10,000 per year, and the planning horizon for the library is 15 years, then the value of the B/C ratio is

$$\frac{B}{C} = \frac{(11,945 + 10,000)(15)}{48,000 + (15)(8,000)} = 1.96.$$ 

This implies that for each dollar expended for the ESS, $1.96 worth of benefits is reaped.

To determine whether the ESS program merits funding, the programs of the library would be ranked according to benefit-to-cost ratios for all other alternative programs. The set of programs with the highest benefit-to-cost ratios, which, if funded, would expend the library's budget, constitutes the set of programs actually to be funded. If the ESS program were included in this set, it would be funded and employed.

Alternatively, using a break-even analysis, the costs of installing and operating an ESS are equated with the benefits derived from an ESS. This equation is then solved for $t$, which provides an estimate of the number of years required before the benefits exceed the costs of an ESS.

If, for example, $L + U = $10,000 and the discount rate is neutralized by the rate of inflation as before, then equating costs with benefits yields

$$48,000 + (8,000)t = (11,945 + 10,000)t,$$

which when solved for $t$ equals 3.4 years. Thus at point 3.4 years the system has just paid for itself. If the system is employed for more than 3.4 years, the total benefits will exceed the total cost of the system.

A procedure similar to the one used in the benefit-cost approach is then applied to determine whether an ESS merits funding. The break-even point is calculated for the alternative programs available to the library. These programs are then ranked according to the break-even points. The set of programs with the smallest break-even points which expends the library's budget constitutes the set of programs to be funded. If the ESS program is included in this set, then it should be funded.

**CONCLUSION**

It is unfortunate that the problem of document theft has to be considered at all. Because of the values and actions of a few patrons, the library administrator is placed in the difficult position of either watching a vital portion of the library collection disappear or spending considerable funds on an ESS. Patron behavior in this area will probably continue; thus, administrators must confront the problem and realize that a decision must be made about employing an ESS. Ignoring this problem is tantamount to deciding not to employ an ESS. Hopefully, the analysis presented in this paper can be used by an administrator to assist in making the decision that will provide the greatest benefit for all concerned.

**REFERENCES**

3. Richard Trueswell, “A Quantitative Measure of User Circulation Requirements and
7. Fussier and Simon, *Patterns in the Use of Books*.
Equal access to library resources and services by users from outside areas has long been regarded as an ideal situation within the United States. As increasing numbers of scholars make use of libraries not affiliated with their home-base institutions or communities, however, the burden of financing these services to outside users weighs even heavier upon the libraries delivering them. This paper points to some of the problems raised by this growing scholarly mobility.

The dominant traditional concept in the United States regarding information has been that it is largely in the public domain and therefore should be equally available to all who need it. There are, of course, some situations where this general proposition is clearly excessive. The public interest itself dictates that copyrights and other patents, confidential data, and such other proprietary information always remain restricted. But, in large measure, society would appear to be best served when the information it possesses can be equitably delivered where and when it is needed, without regard to the user’s status, wealth, or other differentiating characteristics.

This ideal obviously has never been attained. Information is certain to cost someone money. Wealthy communities, and communities that have benefited from extensive philanthropies, have been able to develop great strength in their library services. Others have developed substantive library strength through extraordinary husbanding of lesser or local resources. Communities with none of these capabilities, on the other hand, have sometimes foregone library service entirely. In the higher education arena, some high quality institutions have accumulated vast library strengths, whereas others make do with only meager library resources. In short, equal access to information does not exist.

Yet among librarians it is almost an article of faith that equality of access to information should be sought—that it is a laudable, legitimate, and, indeed, almost an attainable goal. They recognize their responsibility to manage their library resources in accord with the best interests of their own institutions, a responsibility that often finds itself in conflict with another, perhaps higher, accountability, which calls for them to serve the larger community. It is an unfortunate and simplistic but frequently accepted notion that when a librarian appears over-attentive to the library’s concerns, he manifests the Natural Depravity of Man, and when he leans to community interests, he displays the Natural Goodness of Man. What is probably more often the case, however, is that the librarian has made the materials

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Mr. Kaser is a professor at the Graduate Library School, Indiana University, Bloomington.
under his stewardship as widely available as he feels he can without being called to an audit by his governing body.

This dichotomy in the responsibility of librarians has probably been most obvious in interlibrary loan. As long as a library lent and borrowed at approximately the same rate there was no problem; but the librarian who found himself lending much more than he borrowed was soon lying awake nights wondering how to justify the imbalance to his own students, some of whom had gone into debt to attend this university rather than a less expensive one, or to his own community that had perhaps overtaxed itself in order to gain a quality of library service higher than that of its neighbors. Where is justice?

In recent years this bibliothecal insomnia has been extended by the growing population of “free-standing students” and unaffiliated scholars. They are not a new phenomenon, but they are increasing in numbers. Peripatetic scholars have existed since time immemorial, and more of them probably used the library at seventh-century St. Gall than scholars from St. Gall used library resources elsewhere—perhaps to the consternation of some unchronicled and insomniac abbot—but at least, in those days, all libraries were under the general oversight of the far-flung Mother Church. Perhaps in the new “open university” plan in Great Britain, the University Grants Committee has assumed a role analogous to this former responsibility of the Church. In the United States, however, where a variety of open-university, university-without-walls, and external-degree experiments are springing up rapidly, no similar, monolithic superstructure exists to lend fiscal as well as intellectual integrity to such innovations. The fund implications resulting from this growing mobility of academic library users deserve early attention, and they will not be easy to resolve. It is the purpose of this paper to point out a number of the more immediate concerns related to this issue.

The problem is clear. Whereas the traditional college student incurred library cost only in his home library—a cost that could be easily predicted, identified, and budgeted by his home institution—the new “free-standing student” seeks out and uses the library service he needs wherever it can be found or wherever it is convenient for him. It is important to recognize that his library costs are in no way diminished by this new mobility; they do not, as some funding authorities would like to believe, simply merge imperceptibly into the landscape. His library costs, rather, are relocated from a single library-of-residence to any number of other libraries, bringing along accounting problems, which no one yet knows quite how to handle.

Ideally such mobility by unaffiliated scholars should not be impeded in any way, as far as they indeed need access to libraries apart from their own institutions. Everything reasonable should be done to accommodate them, as on a national level this would reduce the excessive costs of unnecessarily duplicating resources and services provided by libraries. Most of the larger libraries, however, and many of the smaller ones will find it impossible to foster untrammeled access to their resources by outsiders unless some kind of funding comes with them to reimburse their total out-of-pocket costs. Without such mobility of funding the whole system will eventually collapse under its own weight, as the interlibrary loan structure is now threatening to do. Funding library services for the mobile scholar may be likened to funding gasoline purchases by the free-way traveler. Oil companies frequently hold monopolistic franchises on sections of freeway so as to reduce unnecessary duplication of their services; yet no one expects travelers to carry credit cards for all oil companies. Rather such service
stations pump gasoline for all comers and charge the transactions against not only their own but also other oil company credit cards. Perhaps a common system could be developed among libraries so that all library uses were debited against the user's card with a similar periodic recharge of service costs from the servicing libraries to the user's respective fund bases.

Such a scheme would require a relatively elaborate bureaucracy for implementation. Many questions would need to be answered, and numerous systems and subsystems would need to be designed before it could be instituted. Who would eventually pay? Presumably the user's home institution or company would ultimately pay, or perhaps his tax base if he lacked institutional affiliation, or perhaps the user himself. Should the serving library concern itself over a potential user's "credit rating"? Should it fear the possibility that he might overrun his own or his institution's ability or willingness to pay? Probably not; filling stations do not fret about such things. Would this mean that every user would have to be issued an allocation of library service by his home institution or other fund base, which he himself would be held responsible for not overdrawing? Probably not; some scholars presently incur heavy costs for their libraries-of-residence without their librarians threatening to cut off their service because of "insufficient funds."

Among the many problems in funding library service for scholars "on the road," so to speak, perhaps two stand out above all others in their complexity. The first questions how scholars' fund bases would know what to budget for their uses elsewhere. The vagaries of scholarly peregrinations are inscrutable; a somewhat predictable mobility will always occur from locations of bookish poverty to those of bibliothecal wealth. Mobility, however, takes place for myriad and seemingly imponderable other reasons as well, none of which would be easy to anticipate. Can we study them to the point of being able to predict and budget for them?

The second major problem would be to determine an appropriate pricing structure for the serving library. Libraries have always had difficulty identifying the true and discrete costs of their several "product lines." Asking how much it costs to answer a reference question is like asking how much it costs to take a trip; neither question is easy to answer. The actual transaction cost of circulating a book is perhaps relatively easy to calculate, but a book cannot be circulated unless it is owned by the library in the first place, and the intricate machinery of selection, acquisition, processing, and shelving the book—often over many years but with few uses—is more difficult to calculate, and is estimated in different ways by libraries. Furthermore the factors, and their costs, by which individual institutions develop their unique and respective levels of library expectation boggle the mind. If, as some have encouraged, libraries could settle upon an "irreducible unit of productivity," in effect an "atom" of library activity, service price schedules could be easily estimated. No libraries, however, have done so, and none appear likely to do so soon. It might be that library services are too diverse and too interactive for them ever to do it.

The same problems, of course, inhere in schemes of paid interlibrary access as exist in schemes of paid interlibrary loan. These include

1. the degree of the rights of the unaffiliated user in the library to which paid access is obtained; in the past libraries have tended to accord only "second-class" service to outsiders; and
2. the comparative advantages of locally determined as opposed to
nationally determined service price schedules; if the former were adopted, unaffiliated users might “shop around” for the cheapest service, whereas if the latter were chosen, the funding agency might impose performance standards as contract specifications.

There is, however, one major cost advantage to interlibrary access over interlibrary loan. With interlibrary loans, staff members have to verify citations of requested items, determine locations if held, fetch them from the shelves, record their absence from the collections, prepare them for mailing, discharge them when the transaction is complete, and return them to the shelves. The direct labor costs of these activities in libraries are high and are unlikely to be reduced soon. The on-site user, however, does all these things for himself, thus eliminating an expensive “overhead” item from the library’s cost. If, of course, “total social costs” rather than library costs are being considered, this point becomes moot.

Other ways might be conceived to fund unimpeded access to library collections and services. An obvious and dramatic alternative would be to “nationalize” all library holdings under some kind of “federal library authority” and to operate them in accord with national interest. An appropriate sum would probably have to be settled upon present owners of libraries so taken over, and, to be realistic, this amount would have to be very high. Where nationalized collections remained in their current sites the implications for the previous owners might be minimal, because they would continue to be easily available to the scholars in those areas. In other cases, however, the national interest might dictate that whole collections or libraries be removed from such traditional, pastoral locations as Ithaca, Hanover, and Chapel Hill, into major population centers—a move that would totally emasculate the academic programs of their previous owners.

To charge for units of library service, as was discussed earlier, is to recover cost at point of output. Another way of funding unhampered library access might be to do it at point of input. Some university libraries in state-supported institutions have already begun making their services available to all state residents, on the basis either of the fact or the rationalization that part of their total budgetary allocation at point of input was to enable them to serve unaffiliated users.

Librarians must take care, however, that they do not commit themselves to incurring substantial costs at point of output in return for small budgetary increments at point of input. The total costs of universal access are high and are unlikely to differ much over time, whether calculated at input or at output. Funding library service at point of input can be compared to ownership of a home—with taxes, maintenance, and liability being equated with library selection, processing, and storage—and library funding at point of output compared to home rental—where only use is purchased rather than equity. In libraries, as in real estate, the true total costs of renting are not greatly at variance with the costs of owning. Perhaps a more apt analogy would be the difference between paying green fees to play golf (point of output) and buying a membership in the country club (point of input).

In the background of any discussion on universal access to libraries looms the high cost of rendering adequate library service under any circumstances. Many academic libraries presently spend in excess of $500 a year per student. It must be remembered, however, that this amount is an average. Many students do not use libraries at all, and others use them only minimally. The cost of serv-
ing heavy library users, therefore, might exceed $2000 annually. An unaffiliated user is, first of all, a user, and in many cases it may also be assumed (because he has made a special effort to get here) that he is a heavy user. He might, moreover, require extraordinary staff services because of his unacquaintance with this particular library, its collections, and its services. Thus the average cost of serving the unaffiliated user on a continuing basis seems likely to exceed the average cost of serving affiliated matriculants, or their local class equivalents.

These are only a few of the considerations that the higher education community must soon face if student mobility is to be realized; there are many others. Although equality of library service does not exist, nor is it likely to be attained, it is a deserving goal. Any major steps toward this goal will require evaluation of the costs and benefits, and discussion of alternative courses. Research and experimentation in the field are needed and in order.
Access Denied? The Use of Manuscript Material

Introduction

CLYDE C. WALTON

Director, Northern Illinois University Libraries
Chairman, Manuscripts Committee of the Rare Books & Manuscripts Section

On June 25, 1973, at the Las Vegas Conference, the Manuscripts Committee of the Rare Books and Manuscripts Section of the Association of College and Research Libraries sponsored the first in a series of programs which will deal with problems concerning manuscript collections and their use. The first program was titled "Access Denied? The Use of Manuscript Material Assembled to Support the Publication of 'The Collected Works of . . .'" The topic was explored by three scholars: Dr. Herman Kahn, assistant director for manuscripts and archives, Yale University; Dr. William S. McFeely, professor of history, Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts; Dr. John Y. Simon, executive director, Ulysses S. Grant Association and editor, The Papers of Ulysses S. Grant, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois.

Unfortunately, space limitations make it impossible to publish all three papers. Nevertheless, the basic issues are fully developed in the two papers we are able to present here, with Dr. McFeely speaking for "open access" and Dr. Simon pointing out the problems involved in "open access."

The Manuscripts Committee welcomes whatever comments members may care to make.
Please direct them to the chairman.
The Civility of Scholars

FREE ACCESS, NOT ACCESS DENIED, is the right policy for all of us. Librarians, archivists, and historians have a common task. We seek to make the past accessible to ourselves and to others who want to know it better. Free access to all the materials of history should be our goal. This includes the need for historians to work in the files of the editors of the collected works of presidents and other major political figures.

It is easy for a historian to take this unequivocal position. The magnificent assistance I have had from people like Sara Jackson in the National Archives before she joined the National Historical Publications Commission and Richard Harwell when he was librarian at Bowdoin is all the documentation this historian needs to acknowledge, with thanks, the importance of free access to the writer of history.

I contend, moreover, that the letterpress editors could make an equally strong case for free access. As scholars we work much of the time in a quiet and even lonely way but we do so, partly at least, because we think that the things of the past, with which we spend so much of our lives, are important to the public. I am not so naive as to fail to recognize the strain put on an archivist or an editor when a pretentious senior historian or a brash fledgling arrives to disrupt the day. But, the difficulties of attending to such types acknowledged, I contend the invasion of historical privacy is what, in the last analysis, we all seek to accomplish. We want to know as much as is possible about men so important that neither they nor other men of their era can be known without knowing what they said. The point of the letterpress editions is, after all, to make available the whole of the writings of men who have made a critical difference in our history. To collect these works the editors, who are both historians and research librarians—they illustrate perfectly how connected all our work is—had the help of archivists across the country. They should count on the help of historians as well when doing their collecting.

Due in part to a laudable insistence on accuracy, some editors and editorial boards have not been willing to grant free access to the collection prior to publication. This is an understandable position but since editions of collected papers can take decades to complete, there is the real possibility that myths about the man whose papers are being edited will persist. A historian has to use the best existing assemblage of the writings of the particular important historical figure in question if his picture is to be a true one. Free access is needed.

To grasp the principle of free access we must first examine the practical problems that might make it untenable. The editors of "The Collected Letters of . . ." have the job of locating all items, getting these photocopied, filed, and then print-
ed. The standards of editorial accuracy are exceedingly high and most editors have taken on the added responsibility to identify in notes every person and event other than the obvious. In order to do this some, but by no means all, editors claim that they must refuse access to scholars who would like to see their files while the editing is under way. Editors assert that the intruding historians would (1) impede the efficient discharge of the editorial responsibilities and (2) violate agreements of restricted access made with donors of letters. Restricted letters are filed with the bulk of nonrestricted material and it would be a costly task to prevent their use by readers of the complete files.

These problems are understandable to specialists in the field. We want and need the splendid annotated volumes of letters with the editorial finesse we have come to expect of them. But I contend that if, as scholars, we have accuracy as one of our goals, we cannot wait for these long-term projects to be completed before permitting access to the collections.

Let me illustrate this by being autobiographical. I am interested in Ulysses S. Grant. Don't ask me why; I won't know until I get the book written. But certainly one reason why is the immediate curiosity I have as a historian and a citizen in the relationship in the United States between the military and the government—in the connection between the waging of war and presidents. I think I can make a plausible case that with the possible and interesting exceptions of George Washington and Dwight Eisenhower, there was no American hero-politician who better illustrates the ambiguous attraction of Americans to warriors than Grant.

But this is an obvious op-ed page kind of observation. To say something useful about a subject I consider important I need a great deal of evidence. The questions raised by my speculations are complex ones. They involve social, economic, political, military, and psychological aspects of a life over its entire span. To get answers I need to know much about the men who were close to Grant and observed him in war and in peace. For this I must do the usual archival research, reading, for example, the papers of the men on his military staff and cabinet that are in the Library of Congress.

But ultimately, I need to get to Grant himself. And what I want is John Simon's magnificent collection of the general's papers. I can turn to page 85 of volume one and read Grant writing to his wife in 1846 during the Mexican War: "Although the balls were whizzing [sic] thick and fast and about me I did not feel a sensation of fear until nearly the close of the firing a ball struck close by me killing one man instantly, it nocked [sic] Capt. Page's under Jaw entirely off and broke in the roof of his mouth, and nocked Lt. Wallen and one Sergeant down besides, but they were not much hurt. Capt. Page is still alive." And to continue with his account of the battle of Palo Alto I can read: "It was a terrible sight to go over the ground the next day and see the amount [sic] of life that had been destroyed. The ground was litterally [sic] strewn with the bodies of dead men and horses."

All right. There we have the general reflecting on war at an early date. Move up to the Civil War. What did he have to say at the time of his face-off with Lee when wounded men of Cold Harbor were left in agony on the field for two days. I reach for a letter dated 7 June 1864 but unfortunately John hasn't gotten there yet. A lifetime of letters has been collected since the project began in 1962 but the published letters have only reached 5 April 1862 in volume four. The letter I want will be in perhaps volume ten or eleven. And what
about the general's reflections on war when he met with Bismarck in 1878? What volume will that be in?

Very well. No definitive printed source exists for the later period. Therefore, go to the archives and read the originals. This is the way historians normally work. Perhaps there I can find Grant on Cold Harbor and Bismarck's Berlin. I can locate the two letters I need; I don't have to wait for their publication.

The trouble with this procedure is that history is such complex business. It deals with people. Historians do not go point by point logically leaping time to find crystal clear observations on a given question at various steps in a man's career. The man one is looking for is not indexed yet; at least not for the questions a newly curious historian is asking. The scholarship of history and of biography is a scholarship of saturation. Somehow, despite ultimate unattainability, history demands completeness.

As a historian, I try to be complete; I track General Grant to an archive in Iowa. The archivist looks at me as if I am hopelessly naive and explains that I should be in Carbondale where copies of all Grant items were long since sent. I explain that I was denied access. He shakes his head wondering why he went to the trouble of photocopying all those pieces of papers and brings out the boxes of the originals. I dig in.

However, even if all the digging in all of the Iowas does approach completeness, no specialist in the field will have full confidence in my printed page without reference to the definitive collection at the Grant Association. The critic will ask why I have ignored the most reliable source of my subject's letters. I know that if I were reading a book about a man whose papers were being published and the author did not use the work of the scholars who carefully collected all the letters I would be skeptical as to how authoritative the book could be.

Multiarchival research is fun; I happen to love it—I recently ran across again Samuel Eliot Morison's good story about the historian who writes one lame paragraph, dawdles through a second, and then in the third, discovers the need for a fact. Joyous he runs to an archive, has fun and feels virtuous, and escapes from having to write his paragraph. But has the scholar working on a man whose collected works are being published the liberty to enjoy such innocence? Can he pretend that the Madison or Webster papers are not being published or filmed and go on about his own search of many archives already culled of such items? Of course he can try but his critics will not permit him his fantasy.

Any serious reader would know that the definitive editing of the papers was going on. That reader would expect of the scholarly world sufficient cooperation that he could be assured that any piece of historical writing worth his attention was built on the sturdiest of research foundations. And, clearly, the letterpress projects meet that test of sturdiness splendidly.

The person who makes the most sense about this problem is Elting Morison, a scholar who has been on both sides of the fence. And he sees no need for the fence being there. Morison was the editor of the Theodore Roosevelt Papers and the author of a splendid biography of Henry L. Stimson. In his view, the letterpress editions on one hand and biographies on the other "have a totally different utility." Biographies and monographs based on the letters will come and go but with the rare exception of a letter incorrectly attributed or an annotation in need of correction the letters published according to the standards of the projects we are discussing today will stand as definitive.

Precisely because these editions command so much authority, the present-day work of historians should neither
depend on less reliable and less complete sources than the files of the collected works nor on waiting perhaps fifteen years for the completion of their publication. When Morison was editing the Roosevelt Papers, the editors made copies of letters available right in the editorial shop to such writers as Carlton Putnam. In Morison’s view, there is no fundamental competition between letterpress publications and the work of historians who use the letters.

There are, I believe, two other reasons beyond efficiency impairment and restrictions by donors why the editorial boards are reluctant to have historians in their files. One is that the project will be scooped if a hitherto unknown group of letters is used by a historian before the letters reach publication in chronological order. The other is the sense that the editorial boards are somehow the keeper of the only correct memory of the man whose works they are publishing.

With respect to the first, I have no trouble putting myself in an editor’s shoes and imagining the pride I would have if I uncovered a rich vein of letters. I wonder, however, if we don’t make too much of the problem of a scoop. Every now and again the New York Times carries an item about some historical find that exposes an eminent man by uncovering long-lost letters. These usually involve an old-fashioned sin like sex and there is a brief flutter of nostalgic interest. How often, however, does this kind of expose, in which one scholar may have scooped another, compare in importance with the whole of the work of either an editor or a historian? Indeed the very nature of the letterpress publication projects, the presentation of all of a man’s words, is predicated on the need to rescue an important figure from the distortions possible when too much is made of matters of small moment.

On the second point, I have no difficulty imagining how the members of an association charged with the responsibility of publishing the collected works of a man or woman would come to have a protective feeling. You cannot help feeling close to someone with whom you work for as long as the editors do with their particular man. The editors fear a marauding historian who will come in and butcher the memory of a man to whom they have committed so much of themselves. I think the only answer is that this is a risk the editors must take. Butchers there are but I can only believe the destruction will be greater if they are denied the chance to learn as much as they can about the man from the complete files of his letters. And here again I would invoke my trust in the fraternity of scholars; editors, archivists, librarians, and historians do have a common bond. I doubt if all the users will be butchers. To be sure there are shabby books, but there is also John Clive’s Macaulay. Editors are not alone in wanting their man honorably—and honestly—handled.

To turn from my personal remarks about Grant and speak about a more recent general, I would like to mention a talk I had with Alfred D. Chandler, Jr., who was until recently the editor of the Eisenhower Papers. Attractively, I think, General Eisenhower was exceedingly open about his papers; his view was let the words speak for themselves. In fact so committed was Eisenhower to this concept that while he was alive he made the Pentagon uneasy because he was sometimes critical that certain papers were categorized as Top Secret. This categorization does require researchers to get clearance, which I am told is not hard to obtain (and, of course, is irrelevant to eighteenth- and nineteenth-century collections). In Chandler’s view both as a historian and as an editor there is no reason why, if historians are willing to stay out of the way of the particular papers being edited at the moment
and obey restrictions established by donors or by national security requirements, they should not work in the files while papers are being published. And if this principle is sound for a man as recent as Eisenhower, many of whose correspondents are very much alive, it is certainly sound for figures dead a hundred or two hundred years.5

What Mr. Chandler and Mr. Morison and in fact General Eisenhower were counting on is the civility of scholars. There is an argument for free access based on the fact that most of the letterpress compilations are, in large measure, paid for with tax revenues and are, therefore, in the public domain.6 I am persuaded, however, that what we gain as cooperating scholars is a more compelling reason for open access than the legal point. Historians should lend support to the research activities in the libraries on their campuses and in the public archives. They should follow the lead of research librarians and help in the collection of documents for the letterpress projects. When it comes to using the product of this searching once it is in the files of "The Collected Works of . . ." civility is the key to the question of access.

A scholar seeking to work in the files of a project should be expected to have a serious and defined need to use the collection. He should be expected to honor

house rules of operation and not impede the efficiency of the editorial process. He should be told about those letters that have been given with restrictions and agree not to use such material. (And shouldn't we discuss ways to discourage such restrictions?) In short, historians and research librarians and archivists and editors can sit down and work out ways to work so that each can get his work done.

I suppose I should not claim too much for my profession or for yours but I am willing—indeed eager—to claim a good deal for both. The scholarly world is quite as much the real world as is the world of the politician or the warrior or the construction worker or the gambler. All of us in this room have the great fun of taking the disparate pieces of written knowledge of our civilization and, as they say of poets, making the words work. One small sign of a better present than that of the paper shredders would be for scholars to set an example of free access to all the writings that important men have left. Only by setting the words of the past to work have we got even a fighting chance of making an acceptable present. We can do this only with a civil regard for each other's different but compatible tasks. We should help each other because there is so much work to do.

References

4. An interesting example of a book making use of a collection of letters long before their chronological publication is Claude-Anne Lopez, Mon Cher Papa (New Haven, 1966). Her book is also an example of an "in-house" book and raises the question of selective access of privileged scholars. [A section of this paper on these subjects, deleted in the interest of brevity, is in my files. WSM.]
During the last quarter century, Southern Illinois University at Carbondale has grown from a provincial teacher's college with an enrollment of a few thousand to a full-fledged university with nearly twenty thousand students. Perhaps the most remarkable aspect of this tremendous growth and expansion is how unremarkable it is: across the country state universities have followed a similar pattern. The metamorphosis has been accompanied by explanatory literature in which appropriate political, economic, and social factors march in review. Somewhere on the list, however, modern technology must appear, and in explaining how Carbondale has become a research center of sorts, capable of sustaining a project of collecting, editing, and publishing a comprehensive edition of *The Papers of Ulysses S. Grant* (in some twenty volumes) and a host of other scholarly enterprises, I am struck by the influence of both air conditioning and photocopying. The fact that cotton was grown around Carbondale during the Civil War should immediately suggest that artificial intercession with the climate is a precondition of year-round intellectual activity. The influence of photocopying, a bit more subtle, deserves closer examination.

The Xerox age—a time when photocopying became a routine part of life instead of an esoteric technique—came upon us with such dazzling suddenness that all its implications cannot yet be appreciated. In the study of American history, old distinctions between big league libraries and the bush league no longer pertain: reprinting through photocopy, a variety of microform reproductions of books, newspapers, and manuscripts, and easier access to extremely specialized material photocopied through interlibrary loan, have enabled new libraries to serve scholars as well as established libraries which have been building their collections for decades. In libraries with appropriate ambitions and resources, research collections can mushroom overnight, and provinciality becomes a matter of choice rather than location.

The Xerox age has also made possible massive comprehensive editions of basic documents in American history. By assembling files of photocopies of manuscripts scattered across the country, editors can apply comparative analysis to papers housed thousands of miles apart. Textual accuracy is obtained by repeated reference to the photocopy of the original manuscript. The diffusion of photocopying equipment permits a canvass of collections located far from the beaten scholarly path, and the incorporation of materials otherwise certain to be neglected from private autograph collections and the smallest institutional holdings. In other words, for the first time the manuscript resources of the world are available to compilers and editors. In addition to facilitating scholarship, this offers to owners, both institutional and private, a method of making available their property at remote points without parting with it. Photocopied documents have textual protection against disasters such as fire, and owners can more easily
prove ownership in case of theft.

Thanks to the Xerox age, new interest in documentary editing, and a greater demand for authenticity in American history, scholarly projects involving the collecting of the papers of leading figures in the American past have multiplied rapidly in the last twenty years. The files of photocopies for future volumes have aroused curiosity among scholars investigating related topics. Researchers who hope either to take a shortcut to research or wish to guarantee comprehensiveness in their coverage of manuscript material are now interested in examining the files assembled for editorial projects.

Certainly such requests for access cannot be denied easily. Most editorial projects are located physically within libraries which have a long tradition of providing general access to their materials and of seeking to attract visiting scholars. The projects themselves, established to provide an invaluable tool to present and future scholarship, have drawn greedily on the knowledge of existing experts in the field. Most multi-volume documentary compilations tap various forms of government funds for aid in their expensive projects, assuming additional responsibility to the public.

At the same time, requests by outside scholars for access to photocopies present important problems. The explosion of scholarly population in the same period when these documentary projects were getting underway means that considerable numbers of potential researchers are involved. Work already demanding large expenditures of time and energy might well be hampered by new claims on these resources. Practicing editors already find their versatility strained by the demands of their documents, the administration of office staff, the endless search for money, and the delicate diplomacy of publishing. They might well pause before making the transition from scholarship to service—from hammer to anvil—to consider the implications.

The difference between mammoth editorial projects involving the assembling of photocopies and the normal research of any scholar in American history is really one of degree rather than kind. Research files, once crammed with tattered transcriptions and paraphrases, now more often testify to the wisdom of early investment in photocopying stock. Individual academics, of course, feel free to share their photocopies with their friends or not, but editorial projects as organizations feel obliged to set policies, and here a sense of generosity encounters harsh reality. Editorial offices—usually too small—are designed for editorial purposes rather than for library functions. Projects limited in their personnel—and this includes almost all—will be pressed to provide the necessary aid to "qualified scholars." This last phrase, of course, presents its own problems: definitions of "qualified scholars" have always been elastic, though much of the snobbery implicit in the phrase has been eroded in the past few years as old barricades based upon degrees and academic credentials (often involving jobs) become increasingly untenable. As a result, open must mean open, closed mean closed. Time applied to the preparation of additional volumes would certainly better serve a larger number of scholars than aid provided to individual visitors. In addition, editorial project files, like individual scholarly files, are arranged for a specific purpose rather than for general use, and cannot be made available in their entirety to outside scholars without considerable rearrangement and the creation of additional finding aids. Providing half a loaf may involve confrontation with an enraged researcher with bread-knife in hand.

Long-term projects are risky enough at best; the odds against their completion are increased by any alteration of
the original purpose. They face recurrent problems of funding, which they must seek on the basis of the originality of their work and its unique importance, a case which would be weakened by prior publication of any substantial body of the documents involved. Guarding against this could involve checking scholarly credentials, integrity and intention as well, and perhaps even supervising research. Under such conditions open access would conflict with principles of free inquiry.

But by all odds the greatest difficulty does not come from within the project itself but from those institutions upon which it is dependent for documentary material. In making photocopies of manuscript material available, more and more libraries are granting only limited rights, insisting that material be used only for specific purposes and not for the creation of derivative archives based on photocopies. The arrangements between the Grant Association and the hundreds of libraries which have furnished materials for its major project are tangled and complex; yet the files of photocopies cannot be arranged so as to take into account all these varieties of conditions. When photocopies have not been provided with explicit conditions that they be used only for a documentary project, these conditions are often implicit; materials have often been furnished the Grant Association for our edition of *The Papers of Ulysses S. Grant* by libraries which would be most distressed to find them in wider use. By placing restrictions on the use of photocopies from their collections, libraries by no means follow a selfish or foolish policy. In the use of photocopied materials, misattribution of source is a constant threat stemming equally from carelessness and caution on the part of scholars. More concerned with the content than the provenance of documents, some writers will not distinguish between derivative archives and owners of original manuscripts simply because they do not want to take the time to establish the true source. Others will cite the derivative archive as a means of avoiding excessive claims to scholarship. After all, if a researcher has seen, for example, six photocopies of letters of which the originals are in a large manuscript collection in the Library of Congress, he can hardly claim to have examined that Library of Congress collection. Some believe that accuracy in citation demands reference to the photocopy rather than to the original. While the Library of Congress will hardly perish because of such misattribution, many libraries depend upon head counts for their funding; librarians, archivists, and curators believe that they have a role in the scholarly process somewhat more significant than that of the stock clerk, and they expect, and will even demand, contact with any researcher who wishes to make use of manuscript collections. They quite properly resent use of selected photocopies as a method of avoiding careful examination of coherent collections. In negotiating purchases of documents costing hundreds of dollars for relatively small numbers of sheets of paper, they must justify this expenditure in a world where research could proceed with photocopies of the same documents costing pennies. Libraries which have created microfilm editions of some of their manuscript collections have recognized that the age of the scholarly pilgrim is closing without, however, surrendering the right
to provide access to their collections on their own terms.

Confronted with various questions concerning access, the Grant Association conducted an informal canvass of similar projects, but discovered no consensus. A few projects are open, a few are closed, but many have either not yet realized the implications or have not yet decided on a policy. Some files are open to some scholars—those "who can help us more than we help them"—and closed to others. This middle course appears especially dangerous since it could give rise to charges of favoritism, heightened as some collections once open are forced either to restrict access, or to have access closed to them by essential libraries. After considering the problem with much painful ambivalence, the directors of the Grant Association finally settled upon a policy which attempts to provide the greatest aid to all other scholars in the field without harming the project itself:

Because of various problems growing out of limitations of space, staff, and time, agreements with institutions and individuals who own original documents, and publishing commitments, the Ulysses S. Grant Association has reluctantly decided that it cannot provide researchers with access to its files of photocopies of documents it does not own.

Original material, unavailable elsewhere, owned by the Grant Association, is open to all qualified researchers.

The Grant Association has been organized to prepare an edition of The Papers of Ulysses S. Grant, and cannot practically or legally assume the function of a library or archive.

In order to further scholarship, requests for information concerning the location of original documents, as well as other requests for biographical and bibliographical information, will be answered to the best of our ability within the limitations of staff and time.

If these remarks indicate strict opposition to derivative archives, then a few more words are needed. Manuscript material essential to the study of American history is scattered across this country in an illogical pattern which often frustrates or distorts research. Unique materials essential to understanding our past can be held, and abused, as private property, and there is no reasonable prospect of any massive bureaucratic shuffling of these resources to put papers physically where they belong logically. Almost all librarians and most private collectors recognize that ownership of manuscript material imposes responsibility as well as pleasure. In collecting material for documentary publication, editors have been repeatedly encouraged by generous cooperation at many points. But documentary editions meet only part of the need of making manuscript sources generally available.

Since scholarship has so long been shaped and inhibited by the physical location of the sources, and the situation is not improving, the creation of derivative archives, now technically possible, might well be placed high on the library agenda. One location, for example, for the photocopied papers of leaders of the American Revolution, or one large collection in black history drawing on manuscripts available across the country, could create new dimensions of scholarship. Such collections must, of course, be created with a full understanding of their nature and purpose in the form of a relationship between consenting libraries. Source locations must be carefully noted on the photocopies; researchers must be induced to comply with conditions for citation. In the meantime, informal dissemination of photocopies, including general use of files assembled for purposes of documentary editing, creates more scholarly problems than it solves.
To the Editor:

I should like to comment on H. W. Axford's editorial, "An Overlooked Cost of Achieving a Participatory Environment" (CRL, Jan. 1974, p.5-6). Mr. Axford points out that one of the costs to librarians in order for them to achieve "full faculty status and a larger role in the decisions which affect their professional lives" will be a raising of "the aspirations of many within the profession."

What are the aspirations? Presumably, librarians aspire to full faculty status, which implies, among other things, that they are willing to be judged by the same criteria as other faculty. But my observations suggest that many librarians have another aspiration: they want to be supervisors. These two aspirations are not necessarily incompatible but they can result in contradictory behavior patterns.

There is, I believe, a conflict of identities within many librarians, an internal conflict which results in ambivalent behavior by many individuals who are acting at the same time according to distinct and potentially antithetical models of conduct.

One model I call the industrial-business or boss-employee model. The boss-employee model of relationships poses a hierarchical relationship by which the boss is at the top issuing, through a "chain of communication," a series of dicta by which actions are to be conducted or "business" is to be carried on. All decisions are made by the boss and these decisions are to be carried out without question by the employee. This results in a dependency psychology among employees. They do not act; they only react. They rarely innovate or suggest innovations; they only follow boss-established precedents and conserve what has been. Their standards of conduct and job performance are not internal but are imposed from without. They are judged by the boss according to qualitative but more often, quantitative criteria of productivity or other contributions to the good of the corporation or business. In their public and corporate lives they must be concerned with the public image of the firm, even though at times the private realities may conflict with the public image. The viability of the firm demands this kind of loyalty to the firm. For meeting the boss and marketplace definitions of satisfactory performance of duties they are rewarded or penalized. If they feel the rewards are too slight or their penalties too severe they may have recourse to union organization which, presumably, insures a more equitable distribution of rewards and protects the employee against penalties. To insure their economic well-being, then, they enter into an adversary relationship with the boss who, hopefully, will be more charitable with rewards and less prone to impose penalties.

I think the above boss-employee model outlined is a fair description of what actually applies in the corporate and business world. At its best, it works and produces a tensely harmonious and mutually rewarding relationship between boss and employee; at its worst, it breaks down, invoking a disruptive, adversary relationship between boss and employee.

I submit that the boss-employee model has been internalized by many librarians and has become a model for conduct so deeply internalized that the fact that it is a model can be determined only in its effects. Paradoxically, the individual guiding himself by this model acts at the same time or, at least, pays lip service to another model of behavior, the professional model. This professional model has been or ought to have been arrived at, first, by rigorous formal education, an education which as it
progresses or advances imposes common and eventually internalized criteria of personal and professional integrity, honesty when confronted with often unsettling truths or with data that challenges established conclusions, and an education which, hopefully, results in a professional who can meet his professional responsibilities with a minimum of or no supervision. He is autonomous; knowing what he has to do, he does it. Under ideal conditions, the neophyte professional enters his profession with an internalized, professional code of conduct. In his profession, his colleagues are not potential threats or competitors for the beneficence of the "boss"; rather, he and his colleagues are peers, mutually respectful each of the other as professionals, and the "boss" is simply another professional with a special demanding charge of supervising other professionals and the professional activity according to commonly recognized and accepted professional standards. If there is any "dependency" psychology resulting from the professional model, it is the dependency of the professional upon the professionally recognized standards of behavior, not upon criteria imposed by the boss according to the boss-employee model.

Many librarians have internalized both the boss-employee model and the professional model of standards, relationships, and conduct. These internalized models in one person can issue in ambivalent attitudes and conflicting conduct.

To achieve full faculty status, librarians will have to pay the cost. Part of that cost will be a rigorous self-examination by each librarian. "What," the librarian must ask himself, "do I really want to be? Employee or Professional?"

William R. DuBois
Northern Illinois University
Libraries
DeKalb

To the Editor:

Mr. Edward Johnson's article "Applying 'Management by Objectives' to the University Library" (CRL, Nov. 1973) caught my attention, since the Oakland University Library, following University-wide MBO policy, is in the process of instituting such a program in all departments and faculty committees. I have also devoted a great deal of time in investigating this topic as it was the basis of my MLS project and I am currently doing further research on it in my MBA studies.

The importance of sound objectives has been recognized for some time. Peter Drucker, writing in 1954, utilized objectives as the basis for a management system. Since then MBO has been embodied successfully and unsuccessfully in many organizations. Librarians, having witnessed the popularity of MBO for the past twenty years, are beginning to jump on the bandwagon, often without due regard to whether this program can be viable in their organizations. Administrators would do well in investigating the pitfalls of MBO before "experimenting" with it as Mr. Johnson suggests. MBO is not a panacea one can simply experiment with. It has to grow and develop over a period of time. The writing of meaningful objectives requires a great deal of thought and time. F. D. Barrett, president of Management Concepts, Ltd., states that management must realize that: "The time required to realize the full impact of MBO is not a matter of months but a few years."

The popularity of MBO is largely due to logical appeal, not proven correlation to managerial effectiveness in most cases. Dale D. McConkey, who is a Management faculty member at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, has been engaged in a study of MBO and its relationship to managerial effectiveness and hopes to publish the results this year. Librarians should become familiar with the reasons for failure of MBO that are cited by him in an article in Business Horizons (August 1973).

Twenty years of MBO practice have shown that this process is effective in organizations whose management is characterized by an open style that encourages participation but does not foster permissiveness. MBO is least effective in autocratic situations or bureaucratic organizations complicated by red tape, strict procedures and several levels of outside controls. (The latter power structure is unfortunately often the case with academic libraries.)

The key word in Management by Objectives is "Management" and not "Objectives." It is a method of managing and a
poorly implemented MBO can freeze a poor organizational design so that things will never improve.

Since Mr. Johnson only cites the reclassification project as an example of MBO, it is unclear whether his entire library actually exercises this process. What his article describes under the broad guise of MBO is going through the motions of setting objectives and performance procedures in one specific narrow area. It does not necessarily follow that the true MBO concept will effectively take hold throughout the organization. I want to caution colleagues who may be unfamiliar with the MBO process that a great deal more work is involved in instituting such a program and the procedures outlined by Mr. Johnson are deceptively easy and do not include many hours of hidden costs.

Success of MBO depends on a complete understanding of the program. Mr. Johnson's very limited citation of one source, although an excellent one, does not lead to a thorough investigation of the topic. I beg to differ with Mr. Johnson's concluding statement that "the attainment of a specific goal might prove less important than the capacity to measure, quantitatively and qualitatively, the factors contributing to the success or failure of an operation through management by objectives." The most important consideration in MBO is getting results or achieving objectives. I would hate to think that MBO is nothing but a sophisticated measuring tool for factors involved in failure! In fact, MBO was originated to contain the tendency of overemphasizing the measuring process at the expense of results.

Results-centered MBO is a natural for managing task-oriented departments such as Classifying and Cataloging but it is difficult to implement this system in such areas as Public Services, Education, and Reference. The output of the latter three is difficult to measure. Getting MBO to work in these areas is a matter of using a participative style of leadership and designing an appraisal system based on output. For an organization with the right kind of management philosophy, MBO holds promise of a bright future but "canned MBO" by itself can lead to planned failure.

Librarians might be further ahead investigating the newly emerging contingency or situational management theories which show indications of being more relevant to service and educational organizations. It is predicted that by 1980 this will be the path that leads management out of the existing jungle of theories. By 1980 task-oriented MBO might be as much on the wane for service institutions as McGregor's Theory X, and librarians might be wiser to act in conjunction with the future rather than reacting to past practices of businesses, but this is a discussion outside the scope of this letter.

Rita Sparks
Business and Economics Librarian
Oakland University
Rochester, Michigan

To the Editor:

Having played an adversary role in my last interaction with Beverly Lynch in this journal, I am pleased to be able to give general support to the thrust of her recent paper, "The Academic Library and Its Environment" (CRL, March 1974). Librarians are in great need of internalizing the concepts of the open system theory and applying them to library operations.

Her paper includes two matters which I feel compelled to criticize, however. One is her definition of an open system and the other is her description of the nature of my dissertation research.

Her paper infers a basic understanding of the open system except for the deletion of one critical element. She describes the open system in terms of acquisition of resources and energy from the environment, their transformation into products, and the export of the finished products or services back into the environment. The thrust of her argument seems to be that recognition of the organization's place within its environmental setting constitutes the basic character of an open system. Actually, the input-process-output sequence characterizes general systems theory. To get from there to the open system requires the addition of the concept that the output is exchanged in the environment for the inputs needed for reenergizing the system and that the value of the output is determined in the environment. This part of the cycle is easier to follow in the sale of automobiles than in
library service, which sometimes leads librarians to act in ways that harm themselves and their libraries.

My second criticism has to do with her characterization of my dissertation research as limited to the relationship between decision making process and staff satisfaction. I built my research model on the open system theory, which recognizes several organizational subsystems including maintenance and production. In doing so, I attempted to evaluate performance manifestations of these subsystems. Staff satisfaction is part of the maintenance subsystem and is internal to the organization, as indicated by Mrs. Lynch. But I also measured faculty evaluation of the library as a production measurement. Moreover, it measures the value of the library from the perception of a vital environmental unit. The pattern of statistical interrelationships was such that I inferred a possible indirect effect of managerial style and its decision making process on the quality of the library. Staff job satisfaction was related to both of these and in such a pattern to suggest that participative management creates high job satisfaction among the staff, which in turn is associated with a pattern of performance that the faculty perceives as of high quality.

This is a simplistic statement of my research, however, which included the measurement of many other factors that were thought to have potential effect on library quality. Three of them came from outside of the library and therefore reflect the environmental forces Mrs. Lynch feels should be dealt with. These are (1) library autonomy, which is a measure of freedom delegated to the library to make decisions important to its operation, (2) the number of doctoral degrees granted by the university to which the library is attached, as a measure of graduate education and research which the library must respond to, and (3) perquisites granted to professional librarians, which almost always are determined beyond the library. Each of these had interesting relationships with intralibrary factors. For example, the number of doctoral degrees granted is highly related to the physical decentralization of the library collection which in turn is an important predictor of professional staff size. Autonomy appeared to be a rather important concept, but there was some evidence that it comes in two diverse packages. This matter was not explored in depth in the dissertation but has been examined further for a publication now under way. There appear to be two patterns by which decision making is delegated to university libraries, and they tend to be mutually exclusive. The overall autonomy granted a library might be less important than the delegation of control over key matters.

Maurice P. Marchant  
Associate Professor  
Graduate Department of Library  
and Information Sciences  
Brigham Young University  
Provo, Utah

To the Editor:

O fortunate Worcester—Heart of the Commonwealth—is number one in library resources. Extrapolating from Table I of Robert B. Downs' article "Library Resources in the United States" (CRL, March 1974), which lists "Library Centers of Not Over 50 Miles Radius (Airline) . . ." we have:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Volumes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boston</td>
<td>30,467,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowell</td>
<td>2,020,728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Springfield</td>
<td>5,729,951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester</td>
<td>3,809,191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providence</td>
<td>7,262,748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storrs</td>
<td>1,173,821</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

for a combined total of 50,463,730 volumes. This puts Worcester 3,337,812 volumes ahead of erstwhile first-place New York City.

Can one say more, except perhaps to recall Mark Twain's observation (variously attributed to Disraeli, Laborchère, Hewitt, or Frost) "There are three kinds of lies: lies, damned lies, and statistics." This caveat applies of course to the above manipulation of figures, and not to Mr. Downs' compilation.

Tilton M. Barron  
Librarian  
Clark University  
Worcester, Massachusetts
Recent Publications

BOOK REVIEWS


The initiative for the establishment of the Media Cataloging Rules Committee came from a meeting called by NCET in 1970, at which representatives of a number of associations recommended the setting up of a centrally held machine-readable file of records related to available media resources. Among the needs of such a file would be standardization of inputs; and a major recommendation of the meeting was that a standard form of description of the various types of materials was a first requirement for further development.

At the same time, the Library Association was aware of the inadequacy of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (AACR) of 1967 with respect to non-book materials. The British Text was particularly vulnerable to criticism in that it omitted much of the material drafted by the American authors (ALA, Library of Congress, Canadian Library Association) as Part 3, Non-Book Materials. Other standards of non-book materials cataloging also were published during this period—the AECT’s Standards for Cataloging Non-print Materials and the 1970 draft of Jean Riddle Weihs’ Non-book Materials: The Organisation of Integrated Collections. The interest of the NCET and Library Association in the establishment of authoritative cataloging standards for non-book materials resulted in the setting up of the Media Cataloging Rules Committee by the Library Association, with substantial financial support from the NCET. As work progressed, information and ideas were exchanged with Jean Riddle Weihs and her colleagues in Canada; and the committee was represented by its chairman at the Dallas (June 1971) and Chicago (June 1972) American Library Association meetings. At the Chicago meeting, preliminary drafts of the British “general rules” were examined in some detail and recommended in principle as a basis for the revision of the AACR.

This publication has been designed first and foremost as a self-contained code of practice in its own right. However, as the rules themselves indicate, occasional reference to the full text of the AACR is likely to be needed in the solution of more abstruse problems common to the cataloging of all categories of materials, i.e., the establishment of a particular form of heading. Often it was convenient to adopt or refer to existing rules in AACR rather than to invent new ways of saying the same thing. To facilitate eventual incorporation into the AACR, an attempt has been made to conform to the general structure and notational style of individual rules in the AACR.

In offering the rules as a draft standard for the revision of the AACR, the committee makes one very important recommendation: that the present AACR chapters 10 (Manuscripts), 11 (Maps, etc.), and 13 (Music) are not embraced by this draft, that these chapters should preferably be taken out of the present Part III and regrouped in closer relationship with parts I and II (dealing with written and printed materials) with which they have a closer affinity than with the rest of Part III. The
The present draft is seen as a replacement for the remaining AACR chapters in Part III: 12 (Motion Pictures and Filmstrips), 14 (Phonorecords), and 15 (Pictures, Designs, etc.).

The format of the rules is that Chapter 1 (General Rules) sets out the general principles, procedures, and requirements common to all the non-book materials. Chapters 2 (Graphics and Three-dimensional Representations), 3 (Motion Pictures), and 4 (Sound Recordings) are supplementary to Chapter 1; each sets out only the special provisions necessary for the range of materials it covers, where these extend, modify, or otherwise differ from the general provisions of Chapter 1.

In only one area was the committee unable to complete its work: a chapter of special rules for the cataloging of computer records. It is hoped that attention will be given to the work of Ray Wall and to the proposals of the ALA Subcommittee on Machine Readable Records in any continuing work which the Media Cataloging Rules Committee undertakes.

While this publication is still a draft, it is one of the most carefully constructed sets of standards for the cataloging of non-book materials available, with input from the Library Association, the American Library Association, Jean Riddle Weihs and her colleagues from the Canadian Library Association, and the NCET. As such it merits careful attention by all librarians and media specialists.—Nancy L. Eaton, General Libraries, The University of Texas at Austin.


There seems to be a distinct inability to realize that the miasmic swale from Boston, Massachusetts to Washington, D.C. becomes more disconnected from the United States as time goes on, more fictitious, more divorced from reality. Viz., when the Association of Research Libraries (housed in Nixon Bay) chose to sponsor a study "to provide guidance for the improvement of other university libraries," presumably its eighty-odd members, it had it funded in the Columbia University Library, the least typical library, in the least typical university, in the least typical city in the country. The typical ARL library is non-major, non-private, non-Ivy League, non-Eastern, and non-urban. The typical library disease is malnutrition, not gout. So this study was fatally flawed from the beginning.

It describes the Columbia University libraries and their present organization, analyzes their central problem in the university, and proposes a reorganization and staffing pattern to meet the problem. It concludes with a plan for implementing the reorganization.

The description of Columbia's libraries informs us early (on pages 14-15) that the university has 16,000 students, 4,100 faculty, and 7,300 staff. "Begob!" says I, "and no wonder it is that Columbia goes broke, with one employee for each 1.5 students!" Other sources inform us that BAH left out 7,000 part-time students and neglected to mention that only 1,600 of the faculty are full-time. We are once again in the wondrous presence of the mechanical tongs of the Management Consultant Experts, who manipulate facts seen through a glass darkly and even more dimly understood. We suffered through a plethora of them on Long Island in the sixties; Westat has just hung another turkey around ARL's neck. WHEN will we give up these astringent studies, totally devoid of any sensitive knowledge of the dynamics of libraries (no matter how high-priced they are) that parade under the rubric of "management"?

With our confidence in the statistics already shattered on page 15, we proceed through a thoroughly Army-type platitudinous instructional program about the Columbia libraries that feeds us a dreary, unconstructive recitation of its objectives and twelve graphs, maps, charts, and pie-graphs in ten pages of the worst tradition of useless graphics. We are then liberated from an exposition that could be intelligently presented in two pages, and launched into the Recommended Plan of Organization. Here, obviously, BAH should be at home.

But if they are, it doesn't pay to visit
them. The problem BAH see as a multiplication of specialties in the university requiring ever more sophisticated help in the libraries. Historically, Columbia has responded to this development by devising a system of thirty-five specialized libraries operating as self-contained units. BAH see the professional librarians in these units diverted by administrative and operational concerns at the expense of their development of specialized instructional, reference, and research skills. Their proposed reorganization is intended to redress this condition by freeing the specialists from their administration-oriented prisons. Unfortunately, this study does not solve the problem.

BAH do not consider the limitations inherent in the small number of specialists on the Columbia staff vis-à-vis the wide range of specialties in the university, nor the advantages of specialist-administrators, nor the enormous advantage of having the specialists on the line in the building with the subject-oriented faculty and students. They rather propose to solve the problem by redeploying and redefining the staff, with no great increase in numbers required. At this point in the book we look forward to a Loaves and Fishes act, producing help for the Old Church Slavonicists by resurrecting that journalism librarian from his daily operational tomb.

BAH never heard of Occam’s Razor, and their proposal for reorganization, which bristles with useless, unnecessary complexities, needs a good clean shave, after which we would find ourselves in approximately the kinds of solutions used elsewhere to solve the specialist problem. First of all, it leaves untouched in their self-containment the libraries for law, medicine, archives, rare books, architecture, and East Asian studies. Why it is not necessary to liberate professionals to develop specialty skills for law, medicine, and architecture, three of the most radically changing disciplines in the entire span of knowledge, is not discussed.

The rest of the libraries would be interrelated in an organization bifurcated into service and resource groups, backed up by a processing and business support group. Services are to be first line, second line, and third line (increasing in depth of sophistication with the numbers). How to make the user feel happy as he is battered about in this three-cornered ping-pong is not made clear, and where to locate the lines geographically in an extensive library system is not considered. There would be three service centers for humanities, social sciences, and sciences, each with a primary center and with allied libraries, and each with an access department and an instructional materials and services department.

The allied libraries remain small, specialized collections, each with a full range of services with minimal staff (what the report considers bad in its beginning). The senior librarians still perform multiple functions, but now with split reporting lines—to service and resource groups. Nothing here promises to free professional librarians to develop their subject specialties for the greater glory of Columbia.

The resource group contains high-powered subject specialists for third-line reference in depth, book and binding selection, original cataloging, faculty and curriculum coordination, and current awareness activities—quite a tutti-frutti of very diverse skills. It is divided into two divisions, for resource development and utilization and for bibliographical control, each with units for humanities, social sciences, and sciences. There would be a cross-over here of specialists from the service group centers. Where in the melange the user goes to dig out his specialist in Coptic village social problems is not made clear. Indeed, the entire study shows ignorance of the critical importance of the strategic location of human resources in relation to user movements in library systems. We finish off the organization with a support group that contains records and processing and business services departments that do what their titles suggest.

All of this has the true academic stink that suggests an undergraduate assignment in a field scarcely known, that has to dig up a “new” answer to show its nonexistent authority. The scheme does not even have the virtue of high imagination, rather being weighed down by the leaden shoes of the management consultant mentality.

Nothing in the reorganization promises to free the specialist librarian from his organizational chains. This can be done only
by multiplying staff members with advanced subject knowledge and springing them loose from daily duties into greater contact with the faculty and into continuing staff development programs, all of which takes time and money. There is no cut-rate solution via organization to the development of additional subject specialization on library staffs.

So, in addition to being conducted in the wrong library this study does not produce much of use to Columbia or anyone else. It does contain lots of charts and diagrams and lots of very detailed schedules, and two ideas that Columbia has used—that there be a planning department (long talked about in libraries but seldom tried), and that the university librarian be elevated to vice-president, a post that Jim Haas assumed shortly after the study. Good head, that lad! Although he was responsible for instigating this study, he has not let it infect his library system to any great degree.

—Ellsworth Mason, University of Colorado, Boulder.


Helen P. Harrison, media librarian at the Open University and a Fellow of the British Library Association, has produced an exhaustive combination state-of-the-art survey and practical technical manual dealing with film libraries.

The material covered is extensive and well organized. Information on the function and purpose of film libraries, their history and organization, and future developments is supported by highly detailed and practical technical applications presented in a scholarly and informed manner.

Cataloging and information retrieval are discussed in depth, as are matters of copyright and economics. The section on administration and planning contains prescriptive guidelines which are flexible, and which can be generalized to apply to functions and conditions in varying situations.

Film is a medium which poses a significant number of problems to the archivist, handler, and organizer. Storage and preservation, requirements for intermediary devices and utilization, copyright, and of course, cataloging procedures are examples of aspects which relate to library procedures, but which require specialized techniques for implementation.

Development and applications of techniques are further complicated by the diversity in film libraries. These can be identified as distribution, documentary production, feature production, government, government research, national archives, newsreel, and television, as well as the educational film libraries. Aims, policy, and contents will vary among these libraries, affecting their procedures.

Considerable attention is devoted to cataloging and classification, particularly shot listing. A shot list is a record of the contents of the film, with the amount of detail determined by the type and function of the film library. Essential features to be recorded include title, credits, footage, type of shot, description of shot, and sound (commentary, speech, or natural sound effects). Newsfilm and stockshots require detailed analysis in order to permit access to one short sequence among many hundreds of thousands of pieces. The analysis can extend to notes on placement of the camera, its angle and movement, and the distance of the subject from the camera. For the librarian trained in handling analytics for print cataloging, this process may seem prohibitive in terms of time and cost, yet it is an essential procedure in working with film other than feature or educational films.

Harrison's comparison of the cataloging codes of practice for use in film libraries is based on her intimate knowledge of operational techniques. While she is highly supportive of the requirement for international standards, she has good reason to express doubt that rules being formulated for general libraries and resource centers will be entirely adaptable to the needs of specialized institutions and single-medium collections. Special libraries serve their clientele in an individualized manner, and film libraries have intrinsic requirements peculiar to their function.

A brief review can merely reference the extensive information contained in this
work, which combines a high degree of scholarship and a wide practical expertise.

The monograph is well indexed and well designed as a communication arts book should be. A glossary of terms would be useful, as would be an appendix of abbreviations found throughout the book.

For the American reader, the National Film Library, formed in 1935, now the National Film Archive, and the references to BBC programming will reinforce the awareness that British techniques of information storage and retrieval are indeed highly advanced, given impetus and support by the well-supported public services aspect of British programming.

Although the work is highly specialized in its major application, it contains much practical information and is recommended as a source book of information on film and information retrieval techniques in a significant format.—Gloria Terwilliger, Director of Learning Resources, Northern Virginia Community College, Alexandria.

OTHER BOOKS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS


Downs, Robert B. British Library Re-


The following abstracts are based on those prepared by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources, Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, School of Education, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305.

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The writing of job descriptions is a universal management practice in every type of organization. Whatever the size or type of library, the need exists for written descriptions of every job performed. There are no standard job descriptions available because work duties differ among libraries. Tasks are grouped differently and jobs are given different titles. The organization of a small library, for example, is quite different from that of the large library having a high degree of specialization. Total work performed in operating different types of libraries is delegated in widely varying ways. This is a fact of librarianship and probably cannot be avoided. The job descriptions presented herein are offered as examples for library directors to use as guidelines in drafting statements to fit their own particular operations. In total, the descriptions attempt to cover most of the major work activities performed in libraries, whether they be in public, college, university, or special libraries. Although the statements were prepared for use in a small college library, they are equally adaptable to any type of library. It is highly recommended that a unique job description be written for every job in every library. Professional management requires the use of such tools in the proper allocation and division of work.


The literature of library goals and objectives is reviewed, evaluated, and structured to serve those in university, public, and special libraries who are planning the future direction of their organizations. The emphasis is upon overall goals and objectives—not low-level, organizational nor state or other area-type goals. Background factors and trends, types and definitions, benefits and importance, broad surveys, guidelines and problems of formulation, further research recommendations, and a bibliography of 141 references, arranged by author, make up the review.


A survey of faculty loan regulations in force at Association of Research Libraries (ARL) academic libraries indicated that
there is little equity, between faculty and students, of loan regulations; that it is not possible to determine loan policies from the regulations that support policy; and that many of the libraries appear to be unable to force compliance with faculty loan regulations.


Statistical data is presented in tabular form for the member libraries of the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) under the following headings: volumes in library, volumes added (gross), volumes added (net), total microform units in library, current periodicals, professional staff full time equivalents, nonprofessional staff full time equivalents, total staff full time equivalents, student assistants full time equivalents, library materials, binding, total materials in binding, total salaries and wages, other operating expenditures, total library operating expenditures, Ph.D.'s awarded, and number of Ph.D. fields.


The purpose of this article is to assist librarians who are preparing a videotape orientation program suitable for large audiences, composed mainly of college freshmen. It results from the authors' experiences of planning and taping a television library orientation program and is directed toward the librarian who is required to prepare such a program but is inexperienced in videotaping. Stress is placed upon the practical, videotaping hints and common pitfalls to be avoided, rather than the technical aspects.


It is proposed that the University of California and the California State University and Colleges systems cooperate in the development of a compatible machine-readable library patron card or badge that would meet the requirements of campuses in both systems. For discussion purposes, this report suggests the basic features to be included in such a card. As to physical characteristics, the card should be designed to be compatible with a wide variety of available badge reader/transactor equipment. As to contents, the card should include the following machine-readable elements: borrower I.D. number (Social Security number when available), borrower status code, and campus code. A campus coding scheme is suggested. Borrower name, borrower status code, university or college (including campus) name, and validation or expiration date should be human-readable. Signing of the card should be accomplished as part of the card preparation process; inclusion of photograph could be left to local option. The back of the card should carry conditions governing its use, as well as campus administrative information.


The research reported in this paper examined data related to the characteristics of interlibrary loan borrowers, the material borrowed, the question of cost and time it takes to acquire the material, and staff information and procedures. The variables were coded onto computer cards and then tabulated into frequency tables by the computer. There were four major findings discovered as a result of this investigation. First, the average total time it takes for a request to be filled is twenty-three days. Borrowing costs were insignificant, while 75 percent of the photocopied requests cost only ten cents per page. The concept of a heavy user of interlibrary loan from one de-
partment or agency was the third major finding. The fourth and final finding was the percentage breakdown of the number of requests filled on successive passes. This methodology could conceivably be applied to the interlibrary loan services of other medium and large research libraries.


As with all new programs, the costs associated with library automation must be carefully considered before implementation. This document suggests guidelines to be followed and areas to be considered in the costing of library procedures. An existing system model has been suggested as a standard (Appendix A) and a classification of library tasks originally devised for the British Library is put forward as a tentative basis for a standard (Appendix B). A check list of cost headings is given in Appendix C. Given a basis such as is provided by these, the costing of manual and automated procedures can proceed. Appendices C-F refer to particular data recording methods. The heads to be considered in costing proposed systems (in particular, automated systems) are covered in some detail, and it is recommended that decisions on implementation of new systems are made only after estimates of costs have been made for a well-defined planning period. An accurate knowledge of costs assists in the decision-making process. Costing is a straightforward exercise when carried out systematically; the difficult task is the allocation of resources. In the university field this includes a long look at the university as a whole, and this work is now beginning to be done. The appendices to this report are intended to give assistance in the analysis of costs and the preparation of budgets.


Computer-based circulation systems, it is widely believed, can be utilized to provide data for library use studies. The study described in this report involves using such a data base to analyze aspects of library use and non-use and types of users. Another major objective of this research was the testing of machine-readable circulation data serving as the resource for a variety of computer-based studies. These studies were designed to supply information for decision making in libraries in such areas as collection development and book budget allocations. This document reports upon a study of the value of computer-based circulation data in administrative decision making in a large academic library. Computer programs were written to produce a variety of outputs including listings for survey purposes of non-users/users; books most frequently used; use of the library by department or major of the user; and, the use of books by their classification code by academic level of user. It is the conclusion of this study that such experimental by-products of a computer-based circulation system offer useful data for book selection, budget allocation, and the surveying of the library's clientele. A major question is raised as to what is library use/non-use. From the survey in this study it may be incorrect to categorize users or non-users as individuals who do or do not take out books for home use.


In November 1970, the Canadian Association of College and University Libraries appointed a committee to examine existing standards and to recommend to the association's membership, standards appropriate to Canadian community colleges. Under the heading of Qualitative Standards recommendations are made for administration and organization, the budget, building, collections, services, and staff. Quantitative Standards recommendations cover the budget, collections, seating, and staff.
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