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Cover illustration: The Library, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia (see page 14).
College & Research Libraries is the official journal of the Association of College and Research Libraries, a division of the American Library Association. It is published seventeen times per year—six bimonthly journal issues and eleven monthly (combining July-August) News issues—at 1201-05 Bluff St., Fulton, MO 65251.

Manuscripts of articles and copies of books submitted for review should be sent to the Editor: Richard D. Johnson, James M. Milne Library, State University College, Oneonta, New York 13820.

Instructions for authors: Manuscripts are to be sent to the Editor: Richard D. Johnson, James M. Milne Library, State University College, Oneonta, NY 13820. Manuscripts should be in two copies and typed in double space. The title, name and affiliation of the author, and an abstract of 75 to 100 words should precede the article. Notes are to be consecutively numbered throughout the manuscript and typed in double space on separate sheets at the end. The journal follows A Manual of Style, 12th ed., rev. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969) in matters of bibliographic style; and recent issues of this journal may be consulted as well.

Material for the News issues should be sent to the News Editor: Mary Frances Collins, University Library, State University of New York at Albany, 1400 Washington Ave., Albany, NY 12222.

Production and Circulation office: 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611. Advertising office: Leona Swiech, Advertising Traffic Coordinator, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611. Change of address and subscription orders should be addressed to College & Research Libraries, for receipt at the above address, at least two months before the publication date of the effective issue.

Annual subscription price: to members of ACRL, $7.50, included in membership dues; to nonmembers, $15. Retroactive subscriptions not accepted. Single copies and back issues: journal issues, $1.50 each; News issues, $1 each.

Inclusion of an article or advertisement in C&RL does not constitute official endorsement by ACRL or ALA.

Indexed in Current Contents, Current Index to Journals in Education, Library Literature, and Science Citation Index. Abstracted in Library & Information Science Abstracts. Core articles abstracted and indexed in ARTbibliographies, Historical Abstracts and/or America: History and Life. Book reviews indexed in Book Review Index.

Second-class postage paid at Fulton, MO.

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Celebrate

In this centennial year for the American Library Association, College & Research Libraries continues its mission of providing a forum for communication of matters of concern and interest to its readers. In this issue we publish the full text of the remarks by Peter Drucker at the annual meeting of the Association of College and Research Libraries in San Francisco in June 1975 on the management of public service institutions.

Through a series of articles, beginning in this issue and continuing during the year, we shall also relive and summarize major themes of academic librarianship in this nation over the past century. In this issue Edward G. Holley provides the foundation upon which developments of the century are based, with his account of academic libraries in 1876. As his article so well demonstrates, concerns of 1876 have remained among persistent issues in academic libraries today.

Forthcoming issues will present articles on the literature of academic librarianship, collection development in college and university libraries, cooperative programs among academic libraries, the role of the independent research library, leaders in academic librarianship, a century of academic library buildings, international relations of American academic libraries, services to readers in academic libraries, organizational patterns for college and university libraries, and the role of the academic librarian in the college and university. W. L. Williamson has selected for the covers of our issues illustrations of college, university, and research library buildings that recall for us a few of the structures that have housed our collections and services during this century.

Academic librarians were among the leaders in the formation of the American Library Association, and throughout the century they have assumed important roles in this organization. Librarians, working together in one association, can better assure the strengthening of all libraries; and we join now with all librarians in this centennial celebration of ALA.

R.D.J.
Managing the Public Service Institution

Important factors involved in the management of public service institutions, of which the library is one example, are discussed. Included are the requirement to know the publics and their expectations and service needs; the problems related to the introduction of new programs; the roles of the administrator and the professional; the mission of the institution; and the need to communicate effectively to society the institution's unique contribution in order to merit and to receive continuing support.

My topic is not managing the library but managing the service institution. I deliberately put it this way because, in the first place, I know nothing about running a library. I am old enough to remember when a library was a place where you kept books and made sure that those enemies of books, human beings, didn't come close to them. However, I know the situation has changed fundamentally since then, and that is the other reason I chose that title. I wanted to emphasize the fact that from a place where you kept books lovingly and with great concern for their safety and preservation, the library has become a place that serves a multitude of users—a place where the emphasis has shifted from book worship to the providing of information services.

Let me start out by noting that most of the problems one will face cannot be solved. They can only be survived. But at least one can attempt to understand them.

When I look at service institutions such as libraries, and I have done a good deal of this, I am always struck by how few are the things one has to keep in mind in order for them to carry out their functions with the greatest possible satisfaction for the people who use them and work in them. There are only a few basic essentials. Unfortunately, they are very rarely given proper attention, simply because the daily work is so demanding and pregnant with crises of all sorts. Librarians are operating people, and that means that at five minutes past 9:00 a.m. the daily crisis arrives on your desk. If it doesn't, you'll go out and start one.

Most of my friends are trained arsonists, and librarians have the same sound instincts. In the first place, the crisis is something they know how to deal with. Secondly, they sometimes react like the Irish mother of seventeen children who, as long as there is hell upstairs, goes quietly and happily about her daily chores, but when it's quiet upstairs, goes to the foot of the stairs and hollers, "Whatever you're doing up there, stop it." In other words, she creates a crisis where one might not exist. When things seem to be running smoothly, that is, when there is no crisis, it is dangerous because the fundamentals are always pushed into the background by the multitude of daily tasks which have to be
accomplished. Consequently, I'm going to concentrate on those few things that constitute the foundations for those daily tasks, the first and most patently obvious of which is the importance of knowing who your publics are. If you say you already know this, then I'm going to become nasty and snarl in reply, "Then why don't you act as if you do?"

**The Publics**

Every service institution, and libraries are probably very typical, has a fair number of different publics. Each of these publics not only makes different demands on it, but each looks at the institution and sees something entirely different. As a matter of fact, the one thing that can be said with absolute certainty about service institutions is that their publics do not have the same image of them as do the people who toil within them. If you don't have some basic understanding of and sympathy for the expectations and frustrations of your major publics, it's highly unlikely that the library will be able to function with a high degree of effectiveness.

One of the few well-proven, truly proven, laws of psychology, and a very old one, is that what is obvious to me nobody else can see at all. You know, I have no idea what's in back of me. True, I can turn around and see what is there, but I don't know. You see very clearly, I don't. On the other hand, I see what's in back of that open door at the rear of the room, and none of you can. So what is obvious is also what is directly in the field of vision, and perhaps nobody else can see it at all. Therefore, you start out with a very clear concept of what the library is, and the only thing you can say about it is that none of your publics can possibly share that vision. It's an inside vision. It's a trained one. It's a professional one. The library to you is an end, but to your publics it is a tool. Who are your publics? Find out what they see and what they expect, and I can tell you that you are going to be surprised. Oh, to be sure, you've probably got a number of faculty committees dealing with the library. But by now everyone of you knows the truth of the old Roman law that a slave who has three masters is a free man. You have faculty committees, and most of you worry about keeping them busy without ever letting them do any work. That is the first thing one has to learn in academic administration. And since academicians like to be busy, but don't like to do any work, it's easy.

How do you define a public? Let me say there are two definitions, and both are important. One is any group that can in effect stymie you, that can block you, that has a veto power. That's a very important definition and one which school administrators are rarely aware of. If they were, they would realize that the taxpayers are a public. The taxpayers can and do stymie the school superintendent unless he or she understands what they see when they look at the school system. And the taxpayer qua taxpayer sees the school very differently than when he or she looks at it as a parent, as a teacher, or as a member of the school board. They're all taxpayers; but the taxpayer's is a distinct point of view, and it's different from any of the others.

Who are your audiences in the sense of constituencies? People who can effectively impair you, block you, and veto you. And, secondly, who are the people who depend on you, who look to you for an input into their work? They may be students, they may be faculties, or people off campus. One has to find out what each of these publics sees when it looks at the library. They see the same building, but that's the only thing they see the same way. What is really of value to them is another matter, and you don't discover that by being intelligent, but by going out and asking.
There are two areas in which being intelligent isn’t enough. One is personnel decisions, the other is marketing. Finding out what a given public wants or expects from a library is basically a marketing decision. Who is the market, and what do they really want? It requires effort, not just intelligence and intuition, to find out.

Let me say that the world is full of businessmen who complain that their customers do not want to pay for quality. One has to say to them, “Look, my friends, the engineers and the manufacturer do not determine quality. The user does.” What most manufacturers mean when they say quality is an engineering matter is that it can be achieved only at a very high price. That isn’t quality, that’s incompetence.

What is quality is determined by the user. What does he or she really want? What is it that you supply? You supply information. That’s a very slippery term and a very broad one. For instance, some of the information supplied by libraries is related to making known the information content of the collections. The collections in and of themselves are not information. They are repositories of data. But, over and above this kind of descriptive information, libraries supply information-focused minds—people who can help that graduate student satisfy his or her need for information about trade in Iceland in the ninth century without themselves being very knowledgeable about it.

The librarian, however, knows what that youngster is really groping for and hears it. The process is very hard to define, but all of you have done it. All of you know what I’m talking about. That’s also information. We don’t know how one learns to do this, and we don’t know how to teach it, but a good librarian has this ability. It’s more than you’ll find in the books. Unfortunately for most of your users, the pleasures of your library are very hard to come by, because very few of them realize that the librarian is actually a catalyst who converts data into information. Most of what you have on your shelves is data. Without this kind of human input, much of it will never come to the attention of the library’s individual and collective publics. So, find out who these publics are and probe for their information needs. Discover the image of the library as they see it and work toward making them happy and satisfied—rather than keeping librarians comfortable. Discover your publics’ needs, and you will have defined your service objectives.

**SERVICE OBJECTIVES**

Now, you have to do certain things to render service. One of the most important elements is to provide an efficient and effective physical arrangement of human and material resources, and in my experience most librarians have been deficient here. In other words, you have to make things easily accessible. Let me give you an example of why I think librarians are deficient in this area.

I am very dependent upon a library that is part of a very good institution and that is a depository for U.S. government documents. When you come in, you have to wade through two floors that are stacked with Patent Office applications in order to use the rest of the collection. As it happens, this is very convenient for my wife as she is a patent agent. But it seems a little peculiar to arrange a big library serving 8,000 students and several hundred faculty members for the convenience of one faculty wife. But, in effect, that is the case because of an irrational physical arrangement of the collection. As it happens, this is very convenient for my wife as she is a patent agent. But it seems a little peculiar to arrange a big library serving 8,000 students and several hundred faculty members for the convenience of one faculty wife. But, in effect, that is the case because of an irrational physical arrangement of the collection.

Where do things belong? For that you have to know your publics, and let me say that they change more often than you think. One of the troubles with the typical library is that once librarians
have decided where to put things, they seldom, if ever, look at the problem again. Unfortunately, your publics are aware of something that my father’s generation did not know. A library is not a place where you keep books, but an institution for circulating them. It is also true that in most academic libraries, people circulate within them. Consequently, the arrangement of the library should be determined by the pattern of use, which has a way of changing over the years. Librarians need to be aware of these changes and react to them. It is a terrible job carting things around, but libraries should be rearranged so that people don’t fall over each other trying to use them, so that people can find what they’re looking for quickly and easily. A really functional library is one where people can better circulate, find what they want, and get out again with a minimum amount of exercise and irritation. Remember that the secret of any store is not to get people in, but to get them out again, satisfied. Look at the flow pattern and the physical arrangement of the library in terms of the changing needs of those who use it. I am sure that I have not said anything you haven’t heard before. I’m simply saying, “Why don’t you act on the principle you know?”

Of equal importance to knowing the needs of your publics is knowing which services in the library have become obsolete. In other words, what can be abandoned in order to reallocate resources to something that isn’t getting done? This is a very difficult matter in public service institutions of all kinds, but especially so in universities. As you know, every university follows a very simple rule: if a subject becomes totally obsolete, make a required course out of it. This is a normal human reaction.

You put twenty years of your life into building something, and the tendency is to put all of your resources into defending it in spite of the fact that it has become obsolete. Understandable though they may be, unless these emotional attachments are overcome, I can guarantee that your really effective resources, both human and money, will be invested in the defense of yesterday.

There is nothing that is more expensive in modern medicine than the dubious attempt to keep someone who is already dead from putrifying for a few more days or weeks. The terminal cancer patient, or someone turned into a vegetable by a series of strokes, requires around-the-clock service by a team of six nurses and five engineers and twenty pathologists. And what do you achieve? There are no results. The worse the case, the more energy is required to keep it from beginning to putrify, and yet eventually it will.

What I have been leading up to is the need for placing the few really performing people you have on the staff. Nobody has a great many. I’m talking of performance, not potential, and believe me, there’s very little correlation between the two. Potential very often is only skin deep. On the other hand, a great many performers are very unspectacular. They do a good job because they aren’t bright enough to do a bad one. They have no ideas or imagination, but they do a good job. And this is good, as many library jobs are very similar to putting on a fender on an automobile assembly line. Would you really want somebody with initiative and imagination in these jobs any more than you would want bank tellers with initiative and imagination if you were a bank president?

Identify your few performers, and study how they are being used. You will find, as everyone who has performed this exercise has found, that the best of your human resources are misallocated. They are not allocated to service, but to defense. In this connection, let me say the only point of a rear guard action is
to enable the main body of the army to get away. Otherwise, one doesn’t fight rear guard actions. Rear guard actions cannot gain anything except a little time. Effective resource allocation inherently involves the phasing out and phasing down of problems. Once every few years one has to ask of every activity in every service program, “If we were not doing it today, and knowing what we know now, would we do it?” If the answer is “No,” then one doesn’t ask, “Should we drop it?” One says, “How fast can we get out?”

**NEW PROGRAMS**

The great weakness of service organizations is the tendency toward middle-age spread. They put on fat, and it’s awfully hard to get rid of fat. Consequently, the next principle which you probably will honor only by not acting on it is that in service work one doesn’t start anything new unless one phases out something old. The reason is a very simple one. Everything new you go into in the information field sounds awfully easy. The IBM salesman told you so, but now that you have been involved with computers for a few years you know it isn’t. In fact, so far we have only paid for the computers. We have yet to see the results.

Let me say that I have no problems with computers. They work for me, but then I’ve always considered them large adding machines. That’s all they are, and expensive ones as far as I’m concerned. So far, as you know, IBM and the other manufacturers have only sold you computers. They haven’t delivered one yet, only do-it-yourself kits.

Utilizing the computer in libraries and moving into the area of nonprint media are actually very difficult operations, as most of you know, if only because we are so accustomed to the printed word. We are familiar with its potential and problems and have had long experience dealing with both. We haven’t really come to terms with these newer fields as yet. Consequently, we cannot predict all of their difficulties and pitfalls. The one absolutely predictable thing, however, is that there will be troubles and there will be problems. Nothing new has ever been done without running into the most unexpected and most inane crises. It’s things that just shouldn’t happen, but they do. If it’s an old thing, you have done it. You look at the problem. You understand it. If it’s a new one, you don’t. You haven’t been there.

Because of this, there is a high premium on the performer. You can’t help him or her very much. You can listen. You can make suggestions, but you haven’t had any experience with that particular project, crisis, or problem. You need someone who has been through a few troubles and doesn’t panic, someone who knows that no new system works the first time around and knows that the basic rule of new systems is that everything degenerates into work. Where are you going to get such a person? Not from the outside, because you can’t afford to take that risk. You hire people from the outside for work you understand so that you can help them when they get into trouble. No, you seek for such a person inside the organization, and once identified you have to free him or her to take on new responsibilities. That means you have to be willing to slough off or downgrade or deemphasize something else. What are the things that you are doing exceedingly well that don’t need doing at all? What are the things that forty years ago served a real purpose but whose contribution to the needs of users today is marginal? What are the things that sounded so good three years ago, but three years later we still don’t know how to do? It isn’t true that if you can define a problem you can solve it. If you cannot define it, you cannot solve it. But there are lots of problems you can define and cannot solve. We usually find this out three years too late. We find we
lack the knowledge, or we lack resources. Or we discover that what sounded so good three years ago is now out of step with user needs. For example, most of you are still geared to the concept of liberal education.

Learn today to think at least of a university which is primarily professionally focused, simply because that's going to be the American university of the 1980s. That's where the students are, and, incidentally, the students are very largely right. It may be a very different professional education which relates a profession to our intellectual traditions and heritage, which God knows is badly needed in professional education, but it's professional education which is drawing the students. You should look ahead to the needs of the professionally oriented student with respect to the crucial problem of resource allocation. Liberal education today, unfortunately, is really a kind of smorgasbord from which the student picks a course in French, another in mathematics, another in American political history, and another in the nineteenth-century novel. He or she is then supposed to integrate the whole mess into an education. No one else, least of all the faculty, is prepared to do it. That may be asking a little bit more than nineteen-year-olds can be expected to accomplish. They need help, but if it is to be forthcoming, colleges and universities are going to have to reorder their priorities, and so are college and university libraries. The question that must be asked is, "What are the few things that will really make a difference if we invest in them heavily?"

Just let me say it's a question only the administration can ask. The staff, the faculty, and the students can and should help in the process of identifying the obsolete and the potentially productive programs. But the administration must make the final decisions because they require both an understanding of the library's publics and a realistic, hard-boiled assessment of resources in relation to priorities. Nobody can be a leader in everything, and any library that tries (and I know a few that have) is not going to be a good one.

THE ADMINISTRATOR AND THE PROFESSIONAL

The administrator is paid to make the risk-taking decisions; and we are badly in need of people who are both willing and able to make them, especially at a time when all of education is attempting to adjust to the needs and realities of a rapidly emerging postindustrial society. About six months ago I spoke in San Francisco to a state teachers' convention where a principal of a high school delivered an impassioned speech to the effect that it is the duty of the state government to put more children into the classroom. I made a major tactical mistake when I ventured the opinion that I didn't think governors by themselves could really make up the entire deficit in the birthrate.

We face declining enrollments. Most importantly, we face shifting enrollments. In many ways we face people who, in terms of formal education, are far better prepared than previous generations. Don't let anybody tell you differently. It isn't true that they were better prepared fifty years ago. Moreover, demography and other factors have created a situation in which young adults will have to move into fairly responsible positions much faster than previously. Young people without any demographic knowledge sense this, and they are impatient. This means that their expectations with respect to what they will get out of those four or six or eight or ten years they sit on their backsides in our establishments are changing. Consequently, it is essential to think through what needs downgrading and where the resources thus released will be invested. This is the prime responsibility of the administrator, who, I would also hope,
occasionally spends some time as a working librarian. In professional work, one should not become purely an administrator, because, basically, one is entitled also to some human satisfaction.

Many years ago I was asked by the school of nursing of a major eastern university to make a study of career motivations of nurses, and I told them not to invest in it. I told them that every study of career motivations has shown that people go into a career for any number of reasons. There's no one reason, and the idea that one can gear admissions policies or recruitment policies to a certain motivation is a fallacy. But they insisted on it, and, indeed, I found what I expected to find. Some go into nursing because they want to help patients; others because they really want to be doctors but have neither the money nor the time; others for the perfectly sound and sane reason that it's still the easiest way to find a family and then return. That's also a very sound reason. I didn't find a single individual who went to nursing school to become a clerk.

One goes into a profession because one enjoys the work; and if you don't, don't stay in it. You will just be an unhappy person. Therefore, the idea that the administrator in professional work should be exclusively an administrator is not a good idea. There won't be much time to enjoy the "firing line," but once in a while you should get out there because that's really what you joined the profession for. Besides, it's a good idea to show the troops that you are still as good as any of them. This is a very serious point. Administrators in a profession nowadays are and must be two-headed monsters, and there is no way you can lop off one head.

If you look at the traditional approach to administration exemplified by the Ford Motor Company of 1920, you find that 99 percent of the people did essentially routine work with a minimum of knowledge, and a few people ran the shop. Today's typical organization is one which has a professional employee group, which means people who are more interested, and should be, in their profession than in the institution—people who look upon the institution very largely as a place that enables them to practice a profession. You don't have to be quite as extreme in this as the famous absent-minded professor of medieval history who after twenty years discovered that he was no longer teaching at the University of Minnesota but at Harvard; but you do have people who want to contribute to the mission of the library at a level that does not mock the word professional.

Bluntly speaking, it has been my observation that many individuals in the professions are overtrained for the responsibilities assigned to them. This is partly due to the bureaucratic nature of the public service institutions they serve in, but it also may be related to an exaggerated notion of the training needed to enter a profession. Maybe, like all the other American professions, librarianship has overdone the formal qualifications for membership.

I still remember the day when it was suggested, very timidly, that maybe five years of formal schooling were not necessary to be a registered nurse (that must have been in 1950), but the Association of Nursing Educators decided on seven years. Today, the two-year certificate programs of the community colleges produce better nurses than the five-year program ever did, largely because they get the young women into a ward faster. Nursing is 90 percent what you do at the bedside. The same principle holds true for librarians. So maybe we overdo it. I know you're all busily plotting to make the study longer and to invent new degrees; but mind you, you will not succeed. I decided around 1960 that the educational revolution was over, and I
probably had beaten the drum for it more than anybody else. I took a look at the projections and trends and came to the conclusion that if we kept on going the way we were, by 1995 or so nobody would be admitted to first grade without the Ph.D.

All schoolmasters fail to realize that we have achieved our objectives. The first piece of nonreligious literature is a Sumerian text called "The Plaint of a Schoolboy." It's actually the "Plaint of the Schoolmaster," and you could put it today in any school in the country and nobody would notice the difference. Ever since then every schoolmaster has tried to get a few more youngsters into school and to keep the able ones a little longer. We have reached that objective. The next goal, then, is to make sure they get more out of education. The present yield is low. Let's work on increasing the yield in a shorter span of time.

**The Institutional Mission**

I noted previously that professional people tend to be more interested in their profession than the institutions in which they practice it. The purpose of a hospital, however, is not to practice medicine, but to help patients. Consequently, one of the most difficult management problems in service institutions is how to imbue a staff with a sense of mission that overarches individual professional goals—to integrate them into an institution in which their professional goals are secondary. To continue the original metaphor, what matters is not whether it's good medicine that's practiced in the hospital, but whether the patient recovers. Sure, good medicine helps and poor medicine can do real damage, but, I repeat, you don't have a hospital in order to practice medicine in it.

You have the problem of integrating individuals and the institution and of establishing a sense of mission. What can you do about it? First of all, let me say that you cannot totally resolve it. The best that can be achieved is a constructive tension, but you can make it constructive in only one way, and it generally doesn't appeal to most administrators in public-service bureaucracies. It's partly work, but it's also risky. You can do it only by accepting the fact that a professional staff is a partnership or it doesn't function. Because you are affiliated with a university, which is one of the most status-conscious of institutions we know (believe me, nothing in a Catholic archdiocese is as status-conscious), establishing this concept won't be easy. However, it can be done. The first step is to sit down with all members of the professional staff and tell them to think through what the library should hold them accountable for by way of contribution and results over the next eighteen months. You can say this politely, or you can simply say, "It's your job to think through why you should be kept on the payroll." Either way, the employees are forced to think through their contribution to the institutional mission.

Let me say you will be surprised how difficult this is for people, and not because they are stupid, but because they're effort focused and work focused. I've been asking that question ever since I became a consultant, and an instant consultant at that. In April 1942 a colonel called me in and said, "Look, as of tomorrow you are the senior management consultant for production in the ordnance district." I had been a journalist, an investment banker, a teacher. How little I knew about production management and consulting you cannot imagine, because one cannot imagine an absolute vacuum. So, I said to the colonel, "What is a management consultant?" and he said, "Young man, don't be impertinent." And if you know colonels, that meant; "I don't know myself."

I learned one thing, and that was to
ask people why they are on the payroll. Very rarely does one get a real answer. One gets the reply, "I've got 5,000 accountants working for me." Well, that's a degenerative and irreversible disease. Or one gets the answer, "I do quality control." Why? Or one very often gets the answer, "I'm always here at 9:00, and I don't go home before 5:00." When people can talk about their work, their effort, they're not idle, but they really haven't thought about why they do it at all. They are simply doing what they are doing. Once in a great while you get somebody who says, "You know, it's my job to think through the decisions our top management will have to make within the next year or two, and to make sure they get the information to make them." Or somebody who says, "It's my job to think through what our customers pay us for when they buy our product and make sure they get it." That's quality control. Very rarely do you get people who think in terms of results and contributions, simply because the daily job is so consuming, so demanding, the daily crises so predictable. But it's your job to force them to. And don't be surprised if the first time you ask that question you get a dumb stare and then a list of all the things done last week.

Educate your people to think in terms of their contributions. That is the only way one can make the professional staff do professional work of quality which both satisfies them and makes them productive. It is also the only way you have to assuage what is your biggest problem; namely, that the library is a place where an incredible amount of donkey work goes on, and there's no getting away from it. Everybody thinks a library is a place where deep thoughts float around. What floats around is mostly dust.

A library is above all a continuous attempt to impose a little order on chaos. Information is basically chaotic, and in order to make it usable you have to have some order, and that requires a great deal of donkey work. In addition, all users leave disorder in their wake because they are not concerned with costs but only with their own needs; and it takes donkey work to keep things in order.

No matter what you do, your users, whether they are your best faculty or students, leave chaos in their wake, and you run after them the way the fellow in the circus runs after the elephant with the dustpan. A lot of library work consists of dustpan carrying, and there is nothing you can do about it. It is important, however, that people realize that dustpan carrying is an important contribution, and that their work is focused on results. When donkey work loses its relationship to results, it becomes drudgery. When this happens, the institutional mission suffers.

Every good pianist practices scales five hours daily. I don't think any of us in this room would have that much patience. I know I don't, or else I might have become a musician. For there is a relation between the scales and the quality of the recital the pianist gives. A lot of librarians practice scales. You have to do it, but you also have to see the relationship to the symphony, and hear it. That is your job. It requires continuous, systematic effort with respect to forcing people to ask the question and answer it: "What should I be held accountable for?" It is during the resulting dialogue that the library's program priorities, as you see them, are communicated. You have the responsibility for the institutional mission not because of your title, but because you have the vision to see the whole and the responsibility to inspire others to see it. It's the responsibility of the professional manager to understand and exploit the leadership role. If you cannot do this, you cannot manage a professional force. Leadership isn't going to solve unionization problems. It isn't going to solve budget problems. But without it they become insoluble.
Managing the Public Service Institution

THE BUDGET AND ITS JUSTIFICATION

Let me say one final thing. I intentionally didn’t talk about budget, and I’m not going to. But I am going to talk about what the budget problem is. The library is something very different from what it was fifty years ago. It has become an information center. Information is expensive. The problem with information is that like any high-cost resource it requires a trained user. We haven’t achieved this yet on any large scale, so the cost of information centers in terms of staffing at the present time is high. On the other hand, compare those costs to alternative costs, the costs of doing it any other way. You will then see that it is relatively cheap, but still expensive in terms of dollars. It’s not only expensive, but most of the outside world sees the library as a place where books are kept in and people are kept out. They do not see the library, as I hope you see it, as an information center. It will be fifty to seventy years before there is any fundamental change in this attitude. Most physicians I know see yesterday’s hospital, which was a place where the poor went to die. They don’t see today’s hospital. They don’t understand. That, too, is one of your problems.

You have to think through what are meaningful results for your users. You know how to measure, maybe. You know a few things, the number of volumes you have, how many people come in and out, and how many volumes are circulated. Whether these statistics reflect the level of user satisfaction is very doubtful. There are things we can count, but that doesn’t make them appropriate measurements of results.

Your basic financial problem is that you start out with the assumption and the assertion that books are the main business of the library, the absolute good. To the rest of us they are a relative one. Yet, you continue to hold to your position for the simple reason that it is very hard for a professional group to realize that in the end the needs of the consumer will prevail.

Now then, as long as things are booming and budgets go up, all books are good, everybody likes them, especially the nice exhibitions of early-nineteenth-century pornographic books which are so appealing to students. Books are also appealing to accrediting committees, who count the number of volumes in a library and divide the total by the number of students. I have never been able to determine what the resulting figure means, in spite of the fact that I have sat on a number of accrediting committees. I have learned, however, that one does not argue with stupidity because one can’t win. What are the things then that you are going to tell the actual and potential users about the real value of a library so that they can achieve a proper perspective on its costs? I have been helped immeasurably by librarians when I’ve come to the library with something I’m reaching for and the librarian has said to me, “This is what you’re really looking for.” This has happened again and again and again. Not that the librarian understands the subject matter, but the librarian somehow understands the dynamics of information. I don’t know how, but an amazing number of them do. They listen to the nonsense I’m saying and hear what I’m really trying to say. They discover what I really want, make sure I get it, and equally important, make sure I know that I got it. It is in developing and publicizing your unique role in the information-transfer process in an increasingly knowledge- or information-dependent society that the solution to your budget problem lies. Without this, you will be at the mercy of accountants, not because they are petty minded, but because the taxpayers are screaming and the legislature is screaming about the costs being too high. Only if your users understand what they really get from you and understand what its real value is will you get the basic
constituency support which you need to produce reasonable budgets. I'm not saying I anticipate bad times. I anticipate turbulent times. I also believe that any profession which is dependent on the acceptance by the consumer of its special expertise needs to control its own destiny and direction, and must confront the problem of real value, that is, what can it contribute to society that justifies its support. Otherwise, the bookkeepers will take over. I remember when Mr. Khrushchev was over here twenty years ago, and there was a lot of talk about who was going to bury whom. Well, it is becoming quite clear that neither the Communists nor the Capitalists are going to bury the other, but that the accountants are going to bury the both of us if we are not effective.

Perhaps this is inevitable, but maybe we can delay it a little bit, and I hope you do your part to help delay it as long as possible.

ON OUR COVER

Representative of many collegiate buildings of the late nineteenth century is the red brick and stone library of the University of Pennsylvania. Planned by architect Frank Furness, who had consulted Justin Winsor and Melvil Dewey, the new building was begun in 1888 and opened for use on October 1, 1890, having cost about $200,000. In the shadow of a 95-foot tower over the entrance, the main portion of the building was 140 by 80 feet and the book stack 96 by 110 feet. Skylights over reading rooms and offices, and glass floors in the stacks permitted entrance of natural light. Although the library served a student body of fewer than a thousand, the collection already numbered almost 200,000 volumes, and the building had a capacity of half a million. Finally succeeded in 1962 by the Charles Patterson Van Pelt Library, the Furness building now houses the library and studios of the School of Fine Arts.—W. L. Williamson, Professor, University of Wisconsin-Madison

Acknowledgments: Toby Heidtmann, University of Pennsylvania, and Stephen Slovasky, University of Wisconsin-Madison.
Academic Libraries in 1876

A librarian should be much more than a keeper of books; he should be an educator. . . . The relation . . . ought especially to be established between a college librarian and the student readers. No such librarian is fit for his place unless he holds himself to some degree responsible for the library education of his students. . . . Somehow I reproach myself if a student gets to the end of his course without learning how to use the library. All that is taught in college amounts to very little; but if we can send students out self-reliant in their investigations, we have accomplished very much.¹

Otis H. Robinson, 1876

In the leading colleges we believe there should be a chair of "books and reading" specially endowed; but in the smaller colleges its duties might be discharged by the professor of English literature, or by an accomplished librarian.²

William Mathews, 1876

A collection of good books, with a soul to it in the shape of a good librarian, becomes a vitalized power among the impulses by which the world goes on to improvement. . . . the object of books is to be read—read much and often. . . . At the average college it is thought that if anybody gets any good from the library, perhaps it is a few professors; and if anybody gets any amusement, perhaps it is a few students, from the smooth worn volumes of Sterne and Fielding. What it is to investigate, a student rarely knows; what are the allurements of research, a student is rarely taught.³

Justin Winsor, 1878

All academic librarians have heard, to the point of tedium, the story of the venerable John Langdon Sibley, librarian of Harvard from 1856 to 1877, who reportedly was met by President Charles W. Eliot one day and asked where he was going. Sibley replied with some enthusiasm that all the books were in the library but two and he was on the way to fetch those.⁴ When yet another academic administrator tells this story before any group of librarians, we laugh politely as if we had never heard the anecdote previously, look askance at such antediluvian behavior, and devoutly wish that no one had ever heard of Sibley and his custodial ways.

The moral of the story is easy enough. Librarians are supposed to be educators, fellow sufferers in chasing the elusive footnote back home, to use Catherine Drinker Bowen's felicitous phrase. Yet there is more than a hint in the relish with which our faculty colleagues tell the story that suggests librarians would still rather conserve
their wares than service them. Nonetheless, the point is made that, contrary to the bad old days of the nineteenth century, higher education has now reached the point of enlightenment where the library is the very heart of the university and essential to its fundamental purposes. After all, we trot these views out at the dedication of new library buildings and tell each other it is so. Our collective memory of 1876 says that it marked the beginning of a new era in which the academic librarian moved away from the earlier conservatorial fashion, unlocked the doors, opened the alcoves, crossed over the iron railings separating the books and readers, and led students into the promised land of multiple use of books, periodicals, and other good standard library materials.

How accurate was that picture and how much was happening to academic libraries in 1876? Was the general picture true? Or do we, as Dee Brown has noted in his book, The Year of the Century: 1876, share the nostalgia and sentimentality of that age in our understanding? That is the author's assignment for this initial article celebrating our centennial year. What kind of education, what kind of library collections, what kind of buildings, and what kind of librarians operated them as America's first century came to a close?

As the quotations at the beginning of the article indicate, the struggle to make books used and to make the library an important part of the educational process had already begun to emerge in 1876. The fact that the quotations sound as fresh today as they did in 1876 may say something about the state of library service or at least about the persistence of major issues. That there were librarians around who even believed in such statements will come as a shock to many who view the older American college library as a place of stuffiness, rarely disturbed by students or faculty, and conserved for future generations by librarians like the oft-quoted Sibley who wanted every book in its place on the shelf. Our centennial provides an opportunity to examine more closely some well-known myths as well as to sort out the origin of the concepts upon which we still base many of our actions. The intent of this article is to set the stage for those articles which will follow in the course of the year and to try to provide the background upon which subsequent efforts can be built.

**Higher Education in 1876**

Higher education in 1876 was in a major transitional phase. Basically the change involved a movement, first gradual and after 1876 more rapid, from a classically oriented and culturally elitist posture, to a more vocational, scientific, and democratic stance. If, unlike society generally, with the corruption of the closing years of the Grant administration, and the emerging warfare between capital and labor, or science and religion, the colleges and universities were not quite centers of turmoil, they were definitely beginning to examine their mission in society and evaluate the place of the newer disciplines in the curriculum. The backbone of the older curriculum, despite Thomas Jefferson's earlier attempts at change at the University of Virginia, and Francis Wayland's mid-nineteenth century attempts at Brown, had been the classical languages and mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, and moral philosophy. Courses in the modern languages and history were tolerated, but science made its way grudgingly in college classrooms. In the two decades after the Civil War all this would change dramatically. American higher education, as Sir Eric Ashby has noted recently, could be typified by the famous comment of Ezra Cornell, who in 1865, founded high above Cayuga's waters "an institution where any person can find instruction in any study." In many ways Cornell was a pacesetter for the emerging universities with its voca-
tionalism and courses in applied science added to the scholarship of the older college. Other universities might adopt somewhat grudgingly, but most would ultimately incorporate some changes from the newer approach.

Whether it had been Cornell, or President Eliot's elective system at Harvard, or Johns Hopkins' adoption of the Germanic model under Gilman, changes were inevitable as the country approached its centennial. No social institution could remain untouched by the fundamental changes caused by the Civil War. As Americans poised on the verge of their second century, they were experiencing such changes as seemed likely to many citizens to threaten the republic itself. While there was the irrational optimism that these "sentimental, reverent, earthy, skeptical, generous, rowdy, audacious people" were equal to any task they might face, many citizens also wondered if the moral decay, increasing corruption of business and government, and unemployment with its consequent poverty might not threaten a crisis more significant than that occasioned by the war itself.

Changes were occurring with such rapidity that older institutions seemed unable to cope with them. No wonder that the classical curriculum, and even the concept of Mark Hopkins and his log, gave way under the change from an agrarian society to a complex industrial era. Ironically, in the heartland of agrariansim would arise new institutions, the land-grant colleges, which would revolutionize agriculture and provide farmers better able to cope with the world of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The nation's centennial provided the opportunity to look back with pride in the achievement of a country whose boundaries now stretched from the Atlantic to the Pacific and whose institutions would be severely tested later in the year in a presidential contest where the candidate with the most votes failed to be elected. Even colleges where the students and faculty were protected from the evils of the world would have to face the consequences of the movements outside their ivy-covered walls. Their curricula, their students, their faculties, and their libraries would have to adjust to these new changes. And, as often happens to even the most perceptive individuals, they often found themselves unprepared for the changes and were ambivalent in their approach to them.

Arthur Bestor has named this period "the transformation of scholarship" and Samuel Rothstein has traced the emergence of the concept of reference service in research libraries to this period. Whenever the changes actually occurred, there is little doubt that the post-Civil War period represented a fundamental shift in higher education. Two strands appeared to be working together to change the rigid pattern and leadership-oriented curriculum of the older American college: the land-grant idea, with its emphasis upon educating the farm boy or girl in the Midwest, and the research-oriented university on the German model with American variations, exemplified chiefly by the new Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore. Both developments would owe much to the scientific spirit then abroad in the land as well as the expansion of wealth resulting from the industrial base created in the North during the Civil War. Scholarship, as Bestor has pointed out, would move from an individual to an institutionalized base, with the American university becoming the home for professional scholars and providing the necessary libraries, laboratories, university presses, and, incidentally, the indirect subsidies needed by the new professional associations and societies which made possible the dissemination of the results of the new scholarship.

To keep these changes and their impact upon libraries in perspective, one
needs to look at the broad picture of American higher education in 1876. The problem when one repeats the hoary story of Sibley and casts stones at what seems the incredibly short hours of opening, is that we tend to think in terms of modern colleges and universities trying to cope with more than ten million students, complex curricula, advanced graduate and professional work, and degree production which approaches 35,000 doctorates annually. This phenomenal growth in higher education has caused great stresses and strains in the 1960s and 1970s; just as the expansion of the 1870s did for colleges a hundred years ago.

In 1876 there were 356 colleges and universities in the United States. They had 25,647 collegiate and 597 graduate students taught by 3,352 instructors. These colleges also enrolled an additional 28,128 students and employed 568 instructors in their preparatory schools. Students and faculty members had some kind of access to 1,879,103 volumes in their college libraries plus an additional 425,458 volumes in various society libraries.

These academic institutions, plus certain other schools to be mentioned presently, conferred a total of 9,179 degrees in 1876, of which letters and science degrees (undergraduate mostly) accounted for a little over half, medicine for about one-third, and law for one-ninth. Just sixteen Ph.D. degrees were awarded in 1876, five at Harvard, three at Syracuse, seven at the University of Pennsylvania, and one at Illinois Wesleyan, while Yale, which had conferred the first Ph.D. in America in 1861, awarded none that year.

Higher education was, in some ways, more heterogeneous in 1876. The Commissioner of Education's annual reports differentiated among the various types of institutions. Separate tables were given for colleges and universities, including their preparatory, classical, and scientific departments; "superior instruction for women," including women's colleges as well as female institutes, not all of which were of college level; schools of science, by which he meant not only such institutions as the Lawrence and Sheffield Scientific Schools but also the polytechnics and land-grant colleges (agriculture and mechanic arts); and the traditional professional schools of theology, law, and medicine (including dentistry and pharmacy). Table 1 provides overall figures for students, faculty, and collections in "higher education in 1876." Not listed are the normal schools, which were essentially high schools for training elementary teachers and would, for the most part, become teachers colleges later in the century. Medicine, whose enrollment seems so large, had not yet responded to President Eliot's reforms at Harvard and was thirty-five years removed from Abraham Flexner's famous report.

From the statistical portrait one is struck by the relatively small numbers of students involved in higher education in 1876. That such extensive data are available is due chiefly to the dedicated work of the second commissioner of education, General John Eaton, a former assistant commissioner of the Freedman's Bureau, and a strong proponent of education at all levels, including that made possible by the public library. With considerable skill Eaton made his reports do double duty: they gave the facts, and he interpreted what those facts meant in a democratic society. He had noted earlier that the need for education was never greater, since the 1870 census revealed that 5,658,155 citizens over ten years of age were illiterate out of a total population above the age of ten of 28,238,945. In the spirit of Jeffersonian democracy, he did not believe that a democratic society could continue without an educated
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Total Number of Students</th>
<th>Number Required and Collected</th>
<th>Professional School and College</th>
<th>Graduates of Science</th>
<th>Schools of Law</th>
<th>Schools of Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>23,856</td>
<td>23,856</td>
<td>18,291</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>10,143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>56,481</td>
<td>56,481</td>
<td>28,128</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>2,094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>56,481</td>
<td>23,856</td>
<td>18,291</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>10,143</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 provides a list of all ten colleges with more than 300 students in 1876 and Table 3 a list of the principal college and university libraries as listed in the 1876 Report. Despite the disparaging tone of the editor of the sec-

populace, including those trained at the highest level.\textsuperscript{18} The zeal and enthusiasm with which he promoted the education cause found expression in the massive report on libraries which remains a fundamental document in library history.

Size, then, is one of the factors which must be considered when one discusses the customary triad of collections, buildings, and staff in academic libraries in 1876. If the libraries were small by today's standards, so were the numbers of students and instructors. The total collections would not be greater than those of one of the largest state universities today, e.g., Minnesota, Ohio State, or Wisconsin. The fact of small enrollments can be seen even more clearly in the data on Harvard and Yale, the largest collegiate institutions in 1876, with 821 and 571 students respectively. The total number of freshmen at Harvard was only 232 and at Yale 154. They were taught by 42 and 26 faculty members respectively.\textsuperscript{19}

Much the same point can be made about the number of graduates. In 1876 the University of Michigan was first. Michigan awarded 409 degrees of which 30 were A.M., 8 Sc.M., 2 Ph.D., 93 M.D., and 159 LL.B. The College of New Jersey (Princeton) awarded 190 degrees, of which 73 were A.M. However, one needs to be careful in assessing the A.M. degree, which often required no course work and was often not an "earned degree."\textsuperscript{20} Two southern schools reflected their general poverty in the post-Civil War period: The University of Virginia awarded only 50 degrees, and 22 of those were M.D. and 20 LL.B., while the University of South Carolina gave 12, of which 9 were LL.B.

tion on “College Libraries” in the 1876 Report, that the “tendency among librarians is to increase the number of volumes which are placed upon the library shelves” because they got the highest ratings that way, the “Sketches of Certain Noteworthy Collections” which followed his introduction includes the major academic libraries, which rank one could attain in 1876 with as few as 5,000 volumes. There were many historical societies and governmental and public libraries with larger collections.

TABLE 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Date Founded</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Lib. Vol.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yale</td>
<td>New Haven, Conn.</td>
<td>1701</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>95,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana Asbury (De Pauw)</td>
<td>Greencastle, Ind.</td>
<td>1837</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amherst College</td>
<td>Amherst, Mass.</td>
<td>1821</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>30,406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvard</td>
<td>Cambridge, Mass.</td>
<td>1636</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>212,050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Michigan</td>
<td>Ann Arbor, Mich.</td>
<td>1841</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>27,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of New Jersey</td>
<td>Princeton, N.J.</td>
<td>1746</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>461</td>
<td>29,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cornell University</td>
<td>Ithaca, N.Y.</td>
<td>1868</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>39,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of City of New York</td>
<td>New York, N.Y.</td>
<td>1847</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mt. Union College</td>
<td>Mt. Union, Ohio</td>
<td>1846</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>3,768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oberlin College</td>
<td>Oberlin, Ohio</td>
<td>1833</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: U.S. Commissioner of Education, Annual Report, 1876, Table IX; U.S. Bureau of Education, Public Libraries in the United States, 1876, Table III (p.125-26).

TABLE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date of Origin</th>
<th>Number of Volumes</th>
<th>Number of Volumes in Society Libraries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>Oakland University of California</td>
<td>1869</td>
<td>13,600</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Santa Clara Santa Clara College</td>
<td>1851</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>Hartford Trinity College</td>
<td>1824</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middletown Wesleyan University</td>
<td>1833</td>
<td>26,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New Haven Yale College</td>
<td>1701</td>
<td>95,200</td>
<td>19,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District of Columbia</td>
<td>Georgetown College</td>
<td>1791</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>4,268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>Athens University of the State of Georgia</td>
<td>1831</td>
<td>21,600</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td>Chicago Chicago University</td>
<td>1857</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chicago St. Ignatius College</td>
<td>1870</td>
<td>9,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evanston Northwestern University</td>
<td>1856</td>
<td>33,000</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>Crawfordsville Wabash College</td>
<td>1833</td>
<td>10,482</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Greencastle Indiana Asbury University</td>
<td>1837</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notre Dame University of Notre Dame du Lac</td>
<td>1843</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa</td>
<td>Iowa City Iowa State University</td>
<td>1860</td>
<td>8,823</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>Lexington Kentucky University</td>
<td>1858</td>
<td>10,845</td>
<td>2,089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>Baton Rouge Louisiana State University</td>
<td>1860</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maine</td>
<td>Brunswick Bowdoin College</td>
<td>1802</td>
<td>22,760</td>
<td>13,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lewiston Bates College</td>
<td>1859</td>
<td>6,800</td>
<td>1,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Waterville Colby University</td>
<td>1813</td>
<td>11,100</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>Emmitsburgh Mt. St. Mary's College</td>
<td>1808</td>
<td>7,000</td>
<td>1,625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
<td>Amherst Amherst College</td>
<td>1821</td>
<td>30,406</td>
<td>8,127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cambridge Harvard College</td>
<td>1638</td>
<td>212,050</td>
<td>15,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Date of Origin</td>
<td>Number of Volumes</td>
<td>Number of Volumes in Society Libraries*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Medford</td>
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<td>1854</td>
<td>16,000</td>
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<td>Wellesley</td>
<td>Wellesley College</td>
<td>1875</td>
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<td>1793</td>
<td>17,500</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brothers</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>1829</td>
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<td>1770</td>
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<td>1746</td>
<td>29,500</td>
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<td>Clinton</td>
<td>1812</td>
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<td>1824</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>1868</td>
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<td>14,000</td>
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<td>1768</td>
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<td>College of Charleston</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>1805</td>
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<td>1800</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Middlebury</td>
<td>1800</td>
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<td>Ashland</td>
<td>1834</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Charlottesville</td>
<td>1825</td>
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<td>1853</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Williamsburg</td>
<td>1700</td>
<td>5,000</td>
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<td>College of William and Mary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>Beloit</td>
<td>1848</td>
<td>8,300</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Beloit College</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Madison</td>
<td>1849</td>
<td>6,670</td>
<td>1,893</td>
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* Blanks indicate that question was not answered; the word "none" indicates that no society libraries exist.
† Includes Manhattan Academy Library.
‡ Includes society libraries.
§ Society libraries destroyed during the war; at present small, but increasing.
FINANCES

In 1876 the total income of all colleges and universities was approximately $4.5 million. With such relatively small sums available for the total programs of the colleges, it is not surprising that college libraries were poorly supported. Most of the academic library collections had been accumulated through gifts. Few college libraries had endowments, yet most had been given either books or funds for books over the years, and some institutions even charged students a special fee for library support. At Lafayette the fee for 1876 was $2 per term while undergraduates at Brown were charged $3 per year. For nearly seventy years the sole revenue of the Princeton library was derived from a tax of one dollar a term on each student. For many college libraries before 1876, $200 per year was a substantial sum for books. Librarians other than the energetic Sibley exercised their talents in fund-raising. Though they may have been part-time, W. N. C. Carlton cites the fund-raising capabilities of librarians at Colgate who appear to have been especially successful:

During thirty-six years there have been four librarians, who, in the absence of funds, have served gratuitously and made their personal efforts in the collection of money and books a good substitute for an income fund, and mainly through their efforts the library has been enlarged.

One of the few libraries to be supported generously by state funds was the University of South Carolina, which received $2,000 per year from the legislature in antebellum days. However U.S.C. received no appropriation from 1860–1869 when $2,500 was appropriated, enabling the librarian to buy 632 volumes in 1870. This brief respite did not stop the general poverty of the library which continued for the remainder of the century.

Another university library which early enjoyed regular appropriations was the University of Michigan. As early as 1847 the regents made provision for annual support. In 1865 $1,000 was set aside for the General Library, $500 for the Law Library, and $400 for the Medical Library. By 1877 this amount was increased to $5,000, and the librarian reported that the average annual increase in books was about 800 volumes. Such regular support for an academic library was definitely unusual in 1876.

Endowment funds, for those libraries fortunate enough to have them, ranged from $20,000 at Madison University (Colgate) to $169,000 at Harvard, with Yale reporting $65,500. The editors of "College Libraries" in the 1876 Report noted that there had been numerous gifts of valuable and special private collections during the past decade. A number of collections of American as well as German private libraries moved into institutional hands. Funds for buildings, as indicated in another section of this paper, had also been substantial, and would be even more notable before the end of the century.

Still the expenditures for library purposes on an annual basis were not extensive. Harvard reported spending $9,158 for books, periodicals, and binding, and $15,640 for salaries and other expenses. Only Harvard and Cornell reported substantial expenditures for 1876, with the latter reporting its expenditures for books, periodicals, and binding at $5,000 with no report on other expenses. For comparative purposes one might note that the budget of the Library of Congress for that year was $30,000, about half for salaries and half for materials. This wasn't the largest amount spent by a library that year, the Boston Public Library holding pride of place with $141,300. By contrast, in the Midwest the three-year-old Indianapolis Public Library reported $12,000. Although most of the other colleges and
universities did not report expenditures, several did report on their total yearly income from all sources. The largest sums were reported by Yale, $6,600 for the college library alone; the College of New Jersey, $4,000; Columbia, $2,000; Rochester and Brown, $1,750 each; Amherst, $1,553; and Vassar, $1,500. Clearly, even when the cost of books and salaries were low, academic library finances were uncertain and gifts played the largest role.

In the Midwest at places like the University of Wisconsin, President Bascom and his librarian pleaded constantly for larger appropriations for books. Their pleas were to be echoed in other emerging institutions as the libraries expanded their roles and found it necessary to employ full-time librarians as well as to purchase books for an expanding curriculum. The editor of the report on theological libraries noted that those libraries especially needed librarians and assistants to organize and service their collections. The same point could have been made about academic libraries. Even in 1893 Lodilla Ambrose discovered that only one-third of the 456 college libraries reported by the U.S. Office of Education had full-time librarians. She also noted that it was a good thing to study libraries with an eye to greater efficiency, but the greatest problem of the small college library was its poverty. Without money one could not buy books, and without books there was no library. Since 43 percent of the students attended colleges with libraries containing fewer than 5,000 volumes each, she wondered what kind of education they were receiving. The increasing wealth of the country would eventually supply academic libraries beyond her fondest dreams, but the inadequate resources of the small college library would remain a problem after 100 years.

College libraries, of course, shared the wealth or poverty of their institutions as a whole. State appropriations, eventually to be a major source of income, were only $667,521 in 1876. In calling attention to the uniqueness of the American college, Commissioner Eaton argued for more funds for strengthening all aspects of their program including libraries. Writing in his 1876 report, he noted:

The church, the state, and private individuals have made them the object of their large benefactions to education. On them has been concentrated from the earliest times the labors of our ablest educators. They have imparted eminence to our scholarship, literature, science, and statesmanship. They have been centres of learning, honesty, patriotism, and piety. . . . They should have more funds with less trammel; more students, larger and better libraries, more and better apparatus, especially should they be held responsible to revise and improve their methods of instruction. . . . Friends and managers of these institutions would do well to see to it that a public sentiment is created which will not permit a millionaire to die without making some suitable gift to some institution of this grade.

COLLECTIONS

What can one say about college book collections in 1876? First of all, like the colleges they served, they were small. As the "Statistics of Some of the Principal College Libraries" from the 1876 Report shows (Table 3), no college library had more than 227,650 volumes (predictably, Harvard); and the total number for 312 colleges, including their society libraries, was only 2,423,747. Most of the collections were in Northeastern colleges; and of the thirty-seven collections listed as "noteworthy" by the editors, all except seven were located east of the Allegheny Mountains.

No one has yet made a subject analysis of the collections of college libraries in 1876 as Joe Kraus has done for the colonial colleges, but the bulk of the
materials had been acquired by gifts, with all the miscellany which results from such a hand-to-mouth existence. Still, several institutions had been quite fortunate in their gifts, and none more so than Harvard, where the redoubtable John Langdon Sibley had increased the bulk of the collections fourfold during his two decades as librarian. His famous circular to the 1856 graduating class urging them to send one copy of anything published in or about the U.S. paid off handsomely, as also did his 1857 letter to the alumni. From Sanskrit literature to American history the donations arrived in increasing numbers. Typical of the long series of benefactions was that of Charles Sumner, who gave more than 250 maps, 1,300 volumes, and from fifteen to twenty thousand pamphlets during his lifetime, and added a bequest of 4,000 volumes at his death in 1874.

Addison Van Name, like his colleague at Harvard, was successful in securing both books and funds for Yale, while President McCosh, horrified at the pitiful collections at Princeton, secured many generous gifts. In 1868 John C. Green gave $100,000 for endowment under the name of the Elizabeth Fund, which made possible the college's purchases of the 10,000 volumes from the Trendelenburg Library in Berlin. Income from the Elizabeth Fund would be a source of funding for Frederic Vinton's book collecting efforts during the next decade. That such gifts made a significant difference can be seen from Daniel Coit Gilman's similar efforts at Berkeley. Gilman, two years before leaving California for the presidency of Johns Hopkins, raised $2,000 for the purchase of the Francis Lieber Collection and secured a special appropriation of $4,800 from the California legislature for the library. Despite his disappointments in trying to create a university at Berkeley, Gilman's efforts resulted in doubling the collections between 1872-1876, although the library still numbered only 12,000 volumes. Meanwhile, across the country, Trinity College (Conn.) could claim 15,000 volumes with special strength in Greek, lexicography, chemistry, French literature, ecclesiastical law, and liturgiology.

Not surprisingly, the Catholic colleges were strong in the areas of patristics, church history, and, occasionally, foreign literature. For instance, Georgetown University (D.C.) with its 28,000 volumes reported a number of thirteenth-century manuscripts, 37 incunabula, and 268 volumes of the sixteenth century, plus a host of Bibles, commentaries, complete sets of many learned society proceedings, and the best editions of many classical authors. St. Xavier in Cincinnati reported a largely theological collection, including a number of fifteenth- and sixteenth-century works, collected sets of St. Thomas, the Migne, etc., while a little farther west, at St. Louis University, the library reported not only distinguished sets in theology but also 100 folio volumes from the British Public Records Office.

Those "twin seats of learning," Harvard and Yale, held a position of leadership among academic libraries in 1876 that they would maintain for the next century, except for that upstart University of Chicago's brief usurpation of second place in the early 1890s through purchase of the 150,000-volume Berlin Library. They had been built chiefly through gifts and would continue to be the beneficiaries both of substantial funds and collections.

Perhaps more typical of the older colleges was the University of Pennsylvania. Established as a college in 1755 and as a university in 1778, Pennsylvania's library had an early start through the generosity of its trustees and a gift of Louis XVI at the request of General Lafayette. After the revolution the li-
library entered the doldrums where, according to Professor R. E. Thompson, "from the War of Independence down to our own days but few additions were made to the library, and those mostly by presents from authors and publishers." The reawakening at Pennsylvania apparently occurred soon after the Civil War when the university moved to a new campus in West Philadelphia. There quickly followed substantial gifts and one-time major purchases by the trustees. The Stephen Colwell Collection of 8,000 volumes in social science and political economy, including a fairly complete collection of pamphlets on money and banking, was given in 1869. At about the same time the trustees and alumni purchased a collection of a Professor Allen, rich in classics, bibliographical, and reference works; a Shakespeare Library; and works on military subjects. Other purchases included native and foreign historical works, as well as standard editions of English poets. The Rogers engineering collection was highly prized as were several smaller donations. Nonetheless, Pennsylvania reported its holdings as only 23,250 volumes in 1876 and would still not be included among the nine universities with more than 50,000 volumes a decade later.

If the eastern schools scarcely impress one as good college libraries, the midwestern ones were weak indeed. Because of their recent beginnings and lack of interest, they made their way but slowly. Michigan, an exceptional and early leader, reported 27,500 volumes, including law and medicine, while Illinois, not yet ten years old, seems comparatively well off with its 10,600 volumes in contrast to the 2,448 volumes at Kansas, the 6,370 volumes at Wisconsin, and the combined total of 10,540 volumes at Iowa and Iowa State.

On the eve of the Civil War, Professor James Butler wrote from Madison, Wisconsin, that he had known many poor colleges but none which didn't have a history of the U.S. and none as poor as Wisconsin in books. Some progress was made in the next fifteen years but a member of the Board of Visitors said in 1874, "I think the library of the University is a disgrace to the state." In spite of library inadequacy, the university's catalog called attention to the neighboring libraries open to its students: The Wisconsin Historical Society and the State Library, "unsurpassed in the West and equalled in very few institutions in the country." The University of Wisconsin had reason to be pleased. In 1876 the Wisconsin Historical Society boasted 33,347 volumes and 31,653 pamphlets, plus a substantial state appropriation of $3,500 for books and considerably more than that for staff. The State Library claimed an additional 25,000 volumes, and the students also found the much smaller Madison Free City Library receptive to their needs. With such resources available locally, the Wisconsin student was fortunate despite an average annual addition of only 600 volumes to the college library. In more isolated circumstances, like Urbana, Illinois; Bloomington, Indiana; Lawrence, Kansas; and Iowa City, Iowa, there were few additional resources. One institution, Washington University in St. Louis, saw no need to build up its collections except for law, since it owned several memberships in the St. Louis Mercantile Library, and a large number of its students were connected with the St. Louis Public School Library.

Another more famous university would be similarly parasitic regarding its neighbor's libraries. Since graduate work along Germanic lines began immediately when Johns Hopkins opened in 1876, there was an obvious need for library resources. Hopkins was fortunate in the presence of the excellent 60,000-volume Peabody Institute Library, which Gilman made arrangements for his fac-
ulty and students to use. As he related to his former colleagues at the ALA Conference in 1881, the Peabody Institute Library and other Baltimore libraries to a certain extent supplied the books required by the Johns Hopkins faculty and students, though the university by this point did have a 10,000-volume working collection dispersed chiefly to seminar rooms and departmental collections. Thanks to the clearly perceived need for library cooperation, Johns Hopkins published a union list of serials, probably the first regional list in the country, as one of its 1876 circulars. However, Gilman didn't really neglect the library; by the turn of the century it ranked among the ten largest academic libraries in the country.

The collections in southern colleges were not impressive except at the University of Virginia, with 40,000 volumes, and the University of South Carolina, with 27,000 volumes. The troubles of many southern colleges might be aptly summed up by the unknown student at the University of North Carolina who wrote on the blackboard in one of the classrooms, "February 1, 1871, this old University has busted and gone to hell to-day." It didn't stay there, and upon re-opening in 1875 the collections were reported to have contained 8,394 volumes in the college library and 13,813 volumes in the society libraries. Nonetheless, those collections had been built largely by gifts, and there had been a notable lack of support for the library before the Civil War.

As Benjamin Powell has noted, if the southern college libraries weren't as bad as they claimed, they were certainly poor enough. In 1860 the libraries in eight state-supported universities contained only 88,000 volumes, and about two-thirds of those were at Virginia and South Carolina. There was little or no progress during the Civil War and not much for thirty years afterwards.

Typical of the poverty of the southern college libraries is the pathetic joy reported concerning librarian William Wertenbaker at the receipt of a $500 gift at the University of Virginia in 1868. There had been no books purchased for some time, and Wertenbaker knew where to put this money to good use. As earlier mentioned, the South Carolina legislature, then under the control of the Radicals, appropriated $2,500 for the U.S.C. Library in 1869, its first appropriation since 1860, but the U.S.C. Law School had opened in 1867 without any money for enlarging the college library and no provision for establishing a law collection.

Two other southern universities fared somewhat better in 1876. Commodore Vanderbilt had just started the princely gifts of his family to the school which was to bear his name. One year after its opening Vanderbilt reported 6,000 volumes. Over in the Shenandoah Valley, Washington and Lee University, only recently presided over by the South's most famous general, received in 1872 the 4,000-volume collection of N. P. Howard, reportedly one of the best collections of classical works south of the Potomac, a gift of W. W. Corcoran of Washington, D.C. Two years later various donors contributed 1,705 volumes including works in science and law.

The next quarter century would see increasing amounts of private and public funds used to strengthen college libraries but would also see a proliferation of such institutions, some of which Melvil Dewey doubted could be called more than glorified high schools. It would be some time, however, before most of them could rival the large public, governmental, and historical society collections. Meanwhile, the merger of the society libraries into the college collections helped some institutions.

Society Libraries

According to Thomas C. Harding, the
major, and frequently the only, extra-
curricular activity of American college
students prior to the Civil War was the
literary society.67 These societies arose
in the eighteenth century, first as stu-
dent associations for religious purposes
and subsequently as outlets for student
energies in orations, debates, and dra-
matic productions. To provide resources
for debates and orations, the literary so-
cieties collected libraries, especially
those current monographs and periodi-
cals dealing with the leading issues of
the day. Usually there were two or more
societies vying with each other for the
talents of various individuals who com-
prised the student population. Since the
society libraries provided popular litera-
ture, which the college libraries did not,
they were frequently the first source
for students. A historian of the literary
societies had divided their growth peri-
od into the colonial period, 1790–1840;
the transition period, 1840–1870; and the
modern period, or period of decline,
1870–1900.68 Society
libraries seem to
have achieved their peak about the mid-
nineteenth century and, except for the
colleges in the West, to have declined
steadily after the Civil War.

The society libraries not only provid-
ed a place for the various formal activi-
ties in the rhetorical area but also a
comfortable place for reading some-
what like the private gentleman's li-
brary. W. N. C. Carlton says that their
collections were usually composed of
sets of the standard authors, the leading
literary reviews (English and Ameri-
can), together with contemporary es-
says, fiction, travel, biography, and his-
tory.69 They grew to substantial propor-
tions by 1860. One of the Yale histori-
ans said of them, "In the cultivation of
a just taste for composition, in aiding
the students in investigations relating
to subjects of academic disputation and
in supplying their hours of leisure with
the best means of gratification, these so-
cieties and libraries have proved highly
important, and have uniformly received
the encouragement of the faculty."70
William Frederick Poole's index to pe-
riodical literature emerged from a need
to supply the students in his society li-
brary at Yale with materials for their
debates. A number of prominent li-
brarians were members of literary socie-
ties during their student days, and Har-
ding believes the societies provided the
training ground for such future profes-
sional leaders as Jewett, Sibley, Winsor,
Edmands, Poole, Cutter, and Hosmer.71

Some library historians have reported
that the literary society libraries fre-
quently excelled or exceeded in size the
college library. Carlton says this was
true at Amherst, Dartmouth, Hobart,
Hamilton, and Union in 1850.72 How-
ever, a cursory review of the statistics
in the 1876 Report indicates that out of
sixty-six colleges with society libraries
containing more than 2,000 volumes,
only twenty had more volumes in their
combined society libraries than in their
college libraries, and only in another
three were the collections equal. Thus
only about one-third of those with large
society libraries could claim library col-
lection dominance. By 1876, of course,
there were many colleges which had no
society libraries. Of the really large so-
ciety library collections only five had
more than 10,000 volumes in their com-
bined society libraries: Dartmouth, the
University of North Carolina, Kenyon,
Dickinson, and Pennsylvania College
(Gettysburg).

As the curricular patterns changed in
American colleges and as other extra-
curricular activities such as athletics, so-
cial fraternities, music and drama clubs,
literary magazines, and college news-
papers emerged, the fortunes of the
literary societies declined. I. C. Seeley
made a survey in 1871 which showed
thirty societies still active in the North,
 thirty-one in the South, and 115 in ten
western states, of which thirty-five were
in Ohio.73 With the decline in student
interest the maintenance of the libraries became a burden for the societies, especially in the impoverished South. Thus soon after the Civil War the transfer of the society libraries to the administration of the college libraries began. The Linonian Society and Brothers in Unity began negotiations with the faculty at Yale in 1867 and in 1871 placed their libraries under the direction of the college library committee. The following year the society libraries were merged and their collections rearranged, though kept separate from the college library. At Dartmouth the three societies which held 27,000 volumes (vs. 20,000 for the college library) transferred the administration of their merged collections to the college in 1874. Similar actions took place elsewhere so that by 1893 George Little could write that the union of the society and college libraries had generally been carried out in the previous two decades. Some colleges, like Dartmouth, gained substantial collections from the mergers. However, by insisting upon some input to the administration of their collections, the societies also contributed to the liberalization of rules for access to the college libraries and thus helped assure their continued development after 1876.

Access for Students

Restriction on use has often been noted as one of the characteristics of the older American college library. Many writers have quoted the rules and regulations and cited the hours of opening as cases in point for the lack of access to the collections. The rise of society libraries has been noted as an example of how poorly the college library before 1876 served the students. Although there is considerable evidence that this picture is true, at least in the broad strokes, there is also something to be said on the other side.

John Boll, after studying seven college library buildings in New England and noting the difference between the administration of library services in those buildings and the theory of library building in the first three-quarters of the nineteenth century, has written that “even many early nineteenth-century librarians were not as meticulous in denying public access as the theoreticians and builders desired.” He goes on to say that the railings, either of iron or wood, erected to separate the reading area from the stack area, were never completely effective. In other words, the practice, as opposed to the theory or the rules, shows an increasing degree of public access. Moreover, Boll states that the barriers fell rapidly in the 1870s and 1880s in academic libraries while the public library, seemingly more open and accessible, maintained the principle of closed stacks for a much longer period of time.

Certainly by 1876 there were many college libraries expanding hours, discussing library instruction for students, and changing in other ways to make their collections more useful to students. Not that this occurred suddenly, but the activity did accelerate after the Civil War. As is usual in any social change, paradoxes remained. For instance, a number of colleges still were open to students for reference purposes only, and even Cornell, despite its advanced educational views, noted that the university library was “one of circulation only as far as members of the faculty were concerned.” However, the library room was open from eight to five every day for “consultation” by the students. The increasing growth of the collections and the new curricular stirrings, plus the addition of the society libraries to the college library administration, required a new approach to the total college library system, although the word “system” is probably too sophisticated a term to use for such disparate collections scattered around on the larger college campuses.
Arguments for and against centralization and decentralization emerged shortly after this period. Johns Hopkins, with its emphasis upon the seminar and seminary libraries, was emulated elsewhere. A United States Office of Education (USOE) Circular on *The Study of History in American Colleges and Universities*, edited by Herbert Baxter Adams, contains descriptions of a number of the departmental history collections which arose in an attempt to get the students and historical source books together. Not everyone approved of this dispersal of collections. John Franklin Jameson, student of Adams at Johns Hopkins, was critical of the specialized libraries, as was biblical scholar Rendel Harris. Ten years later W. I. Fletcher took note of this tendency to create "a collection of department libraries than one library having a systematic and unifying principle of growth and administration." George T. Little in 1893 would add that "the wave of combination is fast followed by that of division" and questioned whether or not the cost in duplicates was warranted by the presumed convenience.

The more important question in 1876 was whether or not students should be allowed direct access to the shelves. In his paper on college library administration in the 1876 Report, Otis H. Robinson stated that, although most colleges did not allow students immediate access to the shelves, he doubted that it was practical not to permit such activity. Moreover, if one adopted Robinson's view that the college librarian was more educator than custodian, then his logic of opening the small college library for two or three hours after chapel on Saturday and helping everyone discover the right volumes to use for his investigations would be both practical and necessary. Robinson's ten years of experience at Rochester convinced him that the "two hours" work done regularly every Saturday in this library by an average of 40 or 50 students (Rochester had only 163 and a faculty of eight) does them more good than any two hours' instruction they receive through the week. Since Robinson believed in independent study, he thought students needed face-to-face access with the books required. To reinforce his point he called attention to the uselessness of a major collection without such access:

*Notwithstanding the great advantages of the use of a library in the manner pointed out, if I mistake not, it is not usually contemplated by college library regulations. How to use books is not so much studied as how to get and preserve them. It is seldom or never made itself an end to be obtained by study. I have seen a college library of 25,000 volumes or more, all in most beautiful order, everything looking as if just fitted up for a critical examination, where the reading room was entirely apart, and the books could be seen by students only through an opening like that of a ticket office at a railroad station. The reading room contained dictionaries, cyclopedias, newspapers, and magazines, and, it was said, a well kept*
manuscript catalogue of the library. The result one can easily conjecture; the students read the newspapers, and the librarian preserved the books.88

Robinson’s paper is a landmark piece in the history of academic librarianship and its arguments for faculty and librarian working together for the education of the student sound as refreshing today as they did 100 years ago. Although he had developed notable techniques for improving service, his paper was heavily oriented toward the importance of student access and making the library a vital part of the educational process.

In another article in the 1876 Report Robinson stated his views on the matter of access succinctly: “It is clearly the duty of a librarian so to conduct his library that everything it contains shall be accessible to every reader and that with as little inconvenience as possible.”87 He advanced this argument as his reason for his creating at Rochester good catalogs and a supplement to Poole’s index, as well as an index to portions of books somewhat along the lines of today’s Essay and General Literature Index.

The editors of the section on “College Libraries” in the 1876 Report were also positive about their perception of college collections: they were for use, not to be stored up.88 There is some evidence among the “noteworthy” college libraries described for the report that this concept was taking hold. Amherst had been open five hours daily since 1870. Williams had been open four hours per day for consultation and reading, with free access to the shelves and the presence of a librarian to render assistance since 1868. Mount Holyoke’s “cozy nooks” should have been an encouragement to reading and so should Wellesley’s although the handsome bookcases at the latter had glass doors, whether for protection of the books from students or for students is not indicated.89

In January 1880 some three years after the 1876 Report appeared, Commissioner Eaton published a small pamphlet in the USOE Circular series called College Libraries as Aids to Instruction.90 Justin Winsor and Otis Robinson authored the two articles in the pamphlet and repeated here many of their earlier published views on college libraries, though Winsor’s “The College Library” was largely a bibliographic essay on what basic reference books should be in a college library. Winsor’s emphasis was upon how much good reference works could accomplish. Since he regarded bibliography as the foundation stone of the librarian’s art, his essay represents an interesting overview of the basic tools existing at the time. Prominence was given to national and trade bibliography, encyclopedias, periodical indexes, and library catalogs. Winsor, of course, had gone to Harvard as a full professor, in 1877, where his emphasis upon liberalizing the rules and promoting use would have a profound impact on college libraries generally.91 Nonetheless, for all his advanced views, he would not open the stacks to everybody, and his article on library buildings for the 1876 Report assured closed stacks as important for public libraries.92

Professor Robinson’s essay was a variation on his earlier theme: the importance of the library as a part of the educational process. He expanded his description of what happened on Saturday mornings in Rochester where he had succeeded in getting at least half his faculty, a large part of the students, and sometimes even the president, into the library to help students use the collections effectively. According to Robinson:

Scarcely a Saturday passes but every department in the library is ransacked for its best material on many subjects.
It is not claimed that such investigation leads to the discovery of new truth; but, properly directed, it cannot fail to give the student much valuable knowledge of books, and, what is better, to develop a method without which no one can acquire broad scholarship. ... In this age of libraries no course of education can be called complete which does not provide in some way for an exercise of the kind we have described.  

Some have claimed that Winsor and Robinson were much in advance of their time. They probably were, but there were others who had caught the vision of books being for use, including the much-maligned Sibley at Harvard. As Shipton has pointed out, it was during Sibley's administration at Harvard that there occurred the revolution in library hours and student use which Justin Winsor would do so much to promote. As early as 1860 the delivery hours were increased to nine to one and two to five, Monday through Friday, except when the sun set earlier (there was no artificial light in the library). In 1876 Harvard's library was open forty-eight hours per week (perhaps the longest in the country) and Sibley had earlier provided a small highly selected collection of new books as well as 200 periodicals on open shelves in Gore Hall's main reading room. Before his retirement over 50 percent of the student body used the library regularly. Sibley's problem was the same one which has always plagued librarians: the faculty pleaded for constantly increasing access which Sibley could not provide with his limited staff and increasing collections. Moreover, Sibley's donors took a dim view of the freedom of use he already permitted.

Reuben A. Guild at Brown had opened up the shelves at least as early as 1858 and had planned the new library building for maximum access. He was a favorite of Brown students and alumni, and it is probable that he permitted access to the shelves during most of his forty-six-year career at Brown. Guild himself said at the Lon-
don Conference in 1877 that the faculty and students, both undergraduates and graduates, were allowed free access to the library and to the shelves. Moreover, he added “for the past thirty years, during which I have been in charge, the public have not only been allowed free access to the library, which is open daily from 10 to 3, but also consult the librarian, instead of the catalogue, inquiries being mostly for information rather than for certain works.”

President McCosh at Princeton, finding the library open only one day a week when he arrived in 1868, commented, “This seems strange to one coming from a country where college libraries are open each lawful day of the week for five or six hours.” McCosh, a Scot, didn’t think the faculty could achieve distinction nor did he see how the students could have an exciting intellectual life under such conditions. Therefore, he employed a tutor to keep the library open six days a week, and the circulation doubled, and then tripled. Even more important was his employment of Frederic Vinton as a full-time librarian in 1873. Vinton, a dedicated bookman who was user oriented, would make the new library more used and useful. In his article on “Hints for Improved Library Economy, Drawn from Usages at Princeton,” Vinton noted that “At Princeton, the students are allowed free access to the shelves, and no privilege is so highly valued. The inquirer does not then depend on the title in deciding the fitness of a book to his purpose, but is able to reject one and take another, if examination shows it to be more suitable.” The new octagonal Chancellor Green Library at Princeton permitted the librarian to be seated in the middle of the reading room where he could not only watch the alcoves but also could help the students use the card catalog and find the books.

The October 1877 issue of Library Journal was devoted to college libraries with the above noted article by Frederic Vinton on the new library at the College of New Jersey, Robinson on “College Libraries as Semi-Public Libraries,” and Richard R. Bowker on “Learning to Read in College.” In an introductory note the editor stated that “doubtless the day is not far off when a college will be ranked and will attract students quite as much for its library advantages—practical advantages, and not the numerical size of its libraries—as for the fame of its individual professors.”

The editor of the issue was also a strong proponent of open shelves. To provide information on the status of reading he had sent a circular to about thirty leading college librarians asking them to make a brief statement about the circulation of books among faculty and students, along with comments on what their users were reading and how they used libraries. Eighteen responded, and their responses were revealing. Some had a fairly stand-pat attitude, and others exhibited the more open attitudes of Robinson and his associates. Trinity
College (Conn.) was still open only once a week, Wesleyan every other day, while Bowdoin and Kenyon apparently were not heavily used. At Yale the students were using heavily the Linonian and Brothers' Library, but apparently weren't using the college library, which aimed "chiefly to supply the wants of the professors and the advanced students."\(^\text{103}\) Colby, on the other hand, had noted a significant increase in student use, from 6.7 books per student in 1868-69 to 27.5 in 1875-76. The number of hours had increased from two and one-half weekly to one hour daily.\(^\text{104}\)

Although Brough has castigated the "incompetent and lazy" Beverley Robin­son Betts, librarian at Columbia from 1865 to 1883, for not being a more aggressive librarian,\(^\text{105}\) Betts did keep extensive records of circulation and reported that the circulation of books had risen from 360 in 1863 to 1,209 in 1877.\(^\text{106}\) At the same time the number of persons who took out books rose from 57 to 148, with undergraduates providing about three-fourths of the use. Nonetheless, Brough quotes from John William Burgess, a new professor of history in 1876, who noted his great disappointment with the resources, the building, its inadequate catalog, and Betts, who "crept up to the building about eleven o'clock in the morning and kept the library open for the drawing of books about one hour and a half daily. He generally seemed displeased when anyone asked for a book and positively forbidding when asked to buy one."\(^\text{107}\) To his ever-lasting ignominy, Betts also boasted that he turned back half the trustees' $1,500 appropriation each year.

By 1877 there was a rising concern that at least the reference collections should be kept open longer hours, Hamilton noting in its report "it is peculiarly necessary that every college library should have a complete reference library distinct from a general library, al-ways open and accessible to students."\(^\text{108}\) Not that Hamilton's was, and the librarian deplored the incompleteness of his resources.

The University of Virginia didn't reflect much liberality in its policies. Like North Carolina, the Virginia library served also for ballroom dancing, much to the annoyance of the librarian, who had been approved by Jefferson himself to protect the books.\(^\text{109}\) A student was limited to three volumes at any one time for a period of two weeks. In 1876-77 there were 351 students, and the total number of books in circulation at any one time did not exceed 300 volumes.\(^\text{110}\)

The midwestern universities were beginning to stir. Writing in 1885, Mrs. Ada North at the State University of Iowa (Iowa City) called attention to the fact that it was "about eight years since this library awoke from its semidormant condition of being open but two or three hours a day to an all-day session."\(^\text{111}\) Her predecessor must have worked miracles that first year, for he reported in *Library Journal* a circulation of 10,500 volumes to the students and 1,000 to the professors out of a total collection of 7,000 volumes.\(^\text{112}\) Four categories accounted for 25 percent each of the total circulation: (1) history, biography, and travel; (2) fiction; (3) general literature, including poetry; and (4) miscellaneous, including scientific works. Unlike his colleagues at Virginia, who took pride that there were no English novels in the library, the Iowa librarian did not discourage fiction reading, though he virtuously excluded the mass of "light, sensational, and ephemeral novels."\(^\text{113}\)

The University of Wisconsin, despite meager resources, was not only open two hours every afternoon but every day for borrowing books.\(^\text{114}\) The students were reported to be using American and English belles-lettres extensively, as well as the State Historical Society Library. Such optimism should be tempered by
a report of the university’s historians that “the rules of the University library made many prefer to use the Madison Free Library,” and library hours were not extended from nine to five-thirty until 1884.

Minnesota reported that its library and reading room were open seven to nine hours daily, except Sundays and legal holidays. The average daily attendance was about 225 students and 16 teachers. With 304 students enrolled in the preparatory and collegiate courses, plus a total faculty of only 18, these hours of opening seem generous for the period. The dedication of Minnesota to library instruction can be noted in the revised course of study, adopted by the regents, which required the president to deliver a course of lectures to each incoming class in which “the use of the library is to be particularly explained and encouraged.” Whatever impact the presidential encouragement had on the students, they borrowed 2,356 volumes and used another 3,200 in the reading room, while the faculty borrowed 669 in 1876-77. The librarian could still account for his books accurately, for the students, despite all this encouragement, were not allowed direct access to the shelves. With the faculty, as always, the story was different. “It is more difficult to secure ready returns from the faculty, who, of course, have free access to the shelves, and are constantly tempted to carry books to their class-rooms, for temporary use, without having them charged.”

Such sampling does not, of course, tell the whole story, though it may be as close to the truth as one can get from the data available. What does seem clear from the various reports is that academic libraries after the Civil War were moving slowly from their custodial role to a more important role in the educational process. About a decade after the 1876 Report William I. Fletcher, by then librarian at Amherst, would report that there was a great change taking place in teaching methods which placed more emphasis upon primary sources, with the faculty directing the students to authorities found in library books. “If I am not mistaken,” he wrote, “it is this new spirit and method in the classroom which is bringing students in our colleges into the libraries for study and genuine work with first authorities, rather than any new departure in libraries themselves.” Fletcher recognized the emergence of the idea of the college library as a separate educational force apart from the curriculum, but he thought it was an open question whether students would take that route. George T. Little, in his paper prepared for the World’s Library Congress in 1893, reported that nearly all college libraries had extended the privileges granted undergraduates. In 1877 the proportion of college libraries not open daily was one out of seven. By 1893 this proportion had changed to one out of forty, while more than one-half were open as much as thirty hours per week. Nonetheless, he felt compelled to add that many libraries still failed to allow undergraduates to borrow all the books which might be needed on a topic. He found it “not entirely clear” as to why such a privilege, “granted as a matter of course to teachers, should be refused to learners.” Although improvement had been made on a number of fronts, such as hours of opening, access to shelves, etc., when Lodilla Ambrose studied college libraries the same year as Little, she commented, “the machine is in place, but the college student, with rare exception, knows almost nothing about its use.” The promotion of library instruction, despite the pioneering work of Robinson, Vinton, Winsor, and their disciples, would still be a problem for the profession a century later, and pro-
fessorships of books and reading no more plentiful in 1976 than they were in 1876.

**Library Staff**

If students were to have access to libraries and if they were to find their way amid the growing complexities of college libraries, then some sort of assistance would become necessary. The views of Winsor, Robinson, and Vinton pointed the way, but practical matters, such as the numbers of personnel to provide that personal assistance to readers, prevented immediate fulfillment of their dreams. The 1870 census, though doubtless as unreliable as its director thought, reported only 209 librarians of all kinds in the country. Few academic libraries had full-time librarians in 1876. Mostly the individual holding the title "librarian" was a full-time faculty member who was assigned the task as an added duty. Among the notable librarians devoting full time to librarianship were John Langdon Sibley at Harvard, who had served as assistant librarian from 1841 to 1856, and then as librarian from 1856 until his retirement in 1877; Reuben A. Guild at Brown, whose career extended from 1847 to his retirement in 1893 and who had the distinction of having been present at both the 1853 and 1876 library conferences; Addison Van Name, who became Yale's librarian in 1865 and served until 1905; and Frederic Vinton at the College of New Jersey, who went to Princeton in 1873 after serving as Ainsworth Rand Spofford's assistant at the Library of Congress. Larger libraries sometimes had full or part-time assistants, but staffs of most college libraries were one-man or one-woman operations.

Under the circumstances, where professors had to teach several subjects and manage the library as well, they were unlikely to have extra time available for keeping libraries open for more than a limited number of hours, nor were they likely to give considerable time and thought to advancing the library's interests. Even the remarkable Otis Hall Robinson, who served first as assistant librarian, 1866–68, and subsequently as librarian, 1868–89, at the University of Rochester, still taught mathematics. That he found time as well to construct a supplement to Poole's index, discover the way to keep cards in a catalog through punching a hole in the center and providing an iron rod for the trays, and hold classes in bibliographic instruction on Saturday mornings after chapel can only be a tribute to his energy and enthusiasm for the place of the library in the college curriculum. The press of his instructional duties and the expansion of his subject interests to include astronomy led him to resign as librarian in 1889 because of the strain of trying to do both jobs well. In a letter to the trustees he wrote, "For nearly twenty years I was an every day worker in the library, most of the time doing the work with little or no assistance. I often found myself devoting more care and strength to it than to my instruction. . . . I think that the man who does the work in the library should be the Librarian, and be charged with the management—under the President and Library Committee."

Robinson's ideas on assistance to readers, expressed fully in several articles as well as in the 1876 Report, and in his comments at the 1876 Conference on S. S. Green's paper on personal assistance to readers, could scarcely be accomplished on a part-time basis with expanding college enrollments and expanding library resources. Yet he and Vinton, and Justin Winsor after he left the Boston Public Library for Harvard in 1877, pounded away at the idea that a college librarian ought to be in fact, as well as in name, Ralph Waldo Emerson's "Professor of Books and Read-
Other librarians picked up this same theme and advanced it in numerous locations. Even as far west as Iowa State University (Iowa City), founded only in 1860, Amos N. Currier reported that his meager collection had been heavily used by students and reported his happiness at the "rapid growth among intelligent men of the conviction that a thoroughly qualified librarian and proper facilities for the best use of books are scarcely less important than resources." Moreover, he declared it to be his judgment "that a competent librarian, i.e., a professor of books and reading— is just as essential to a college as a professor of history or geology." He didn't think the college could afford not to assign a full-time librarian to manage its library rather than a hard-worked professor.

Others echoed such sentiments, including Richard R. Bowker, whose article on "Learning to Read in College," cited the good work of Professors Gilmore and Robinson at Rochester and Tyler at Michigan to illustrate the need for a librarian as a separate officer, and a "Professor of Books and Reading," as a highly desirable officer, though if a college couldn't quite manage that then a professor of English literature might be the next best thing. Bowker was on the side of the librarian as guide, philosopher, and friend, who would point out to students what they should know and seek to improve their taste and knowledge. At an earlier time President Woolsey at Yale told the discouraged librarian, Daniel Coit Gilman, that the place "does not possess that importance which a man of active mind would naturally seek; and the college cannot, now or hereafter, while its circumstances remain as they are, give it greater prominence." Bowker saw little merit in such arguments. He stated: "Librarianship really gives an opportunity for an order of executive talent second only to that which should be found in the president himself," and he rejected the view that it should be "looked upon as a mere janitorship of books and subordinated to the keeping of the college accounts or the work of the least busy professor."

Such advanced ideas did not make their way quickly in the academic marketplace. More typical than Bowker's or Robinson's exalted view was the actual experience of William Wertenbaker, Jefferson's guardian of the books at Virginia, 1826–31, 1835–57, 1865–81, who also served as secretary to the faculty and secretary to the trustees, and in the course of his career held several additional posts as well. As previously noted, less than two decades later, when Lodilla Ambrose of Northwestern made her survey of college libraries, she discovered that only about one-third of the colleges had librarians who held no other office or whose chief duty was the library. Miss Ambrose thought that no college library could be very efficient unless there was at least one qualified person giving his or her full time and energies to it.

Other than Harvard and Yale, there were few libraries with more than one employee. By 1876 Harvard not only had a librarian and assistant librarian but had appointed in 1873 a "head of female assistants," Annie E. Hutchins, at a salary of $700 per year. Sibley had brought in several young ladies in 1858 to clean small books. He had expanded their number for other clerical duties in connection with the catalog at a compensation which reached twenty cents an hour for skilled help by 1873. Addison Van Name, who had succeeded Gilman as librarian in 1865, had a full-time assistant librarian, Franklin B. Dexter, appointed in 1869. However, Van Name also held the title of librarian of several specialized libraries at Yale, e.g., the American Oriental Society and the Connecticut Academy of Arts.
and Sciences, so the presence of two full-time staff plus student assistants does not appear noteworthy.

Melvil Dewey himself was an assistant librarian at Amherst in 1876, a position to which he was appointed upon his graduation in 1874, primarily to make a catalog. He did have some student assistants. Cornell reported that it had a principal librarian who was a member of the faculty and two assistant librarians, but only one of those was full time.

Despite Harvard's employment of women for the clerical staff, and both Winsor and Poole's defense of women as librarians at the 1877 conference in London, the academic world in 1876 was predominantly male. Although women would assume directorships of medium-sized public libraries before the end of the century, their position in academic libraries would not be a strong one for many years. When Salome Cutler Fairchild surveyed women in library work for the St. Louis Conference in 1904, she reported only four representative university libraries headed by women: Chicago, where Zella Allen Dixson held the ambivalent position of associate librarian till 1910 (there was no librarian); Northwestern, with Lodilla Ambrose; Illinois, whose prize was the indomitable Katherine Lucinda Sharp, and Vermont. Not surprisingly, there were women heading all the women's college libraries, but none heading any governmental libraries.

BUILDINGS

If reports are to be believed, the handsomest libraries in 1876 must have been at two women's colleges. Mount Holyoke occupied a new fire-proof building in 1870, thanks to an appropriation from the state to meet the conditions of a $10,000 grant from Mrs. H. F. Durnat. Access to the collections

College History Collection, Mount Holyoke College Archives
Mount Holyoke College Library
South Hadley, Massachusetts
was obviously intended, for the description in the 1876 Report notes that "the interior is furnished in chestnut; the bookcases and other furniture are of black walnut. The alcoves are arranged so as to form cozy nooks for the readers." The same could be said for the interior of the new library apartment which formed a wing of the college building at Wellesley. The photograph in the 1876 Report shows the Wellesley reading room which looks much like the one described at Mount Holyoke—a well-lighted and convenient place for young women to read and study, although the bookcases reportedly had glass doors. The Wellesley trustees were ambitious; space was provided for 120,000 volumes for a college which had opened only the year before.

Most libraries were not housed in separate buildings but in large rooms in other buildings. For instance, the Colby Library was in the eastern wing of Memorial Hall in a room the shape of a Roman cross, while Lafayette occupied the double story of the east wing of South College. Many of these rooms would overflow with books before legislators and donors could be persuaded to provide the funds for additional housing. Space was not extensive in any case, with library rooms containing 1,988 square feet at Columbia, 4,500 at Cornell, 3,750 at Hamilton, and 2,688 at the University of North Carolina.

Although separate buildings were not the norm, quite a number had been built by 1876 and, next to collections, they were favorite objects of donor interest. Harvard used the bequest of Christopher Gore to complete Gore Hall in 1841, which was modelled on King's College Chapel, Cambridge. The Williams College building was completed in 1845 as a gift of Col. Amos Lawrence, while the Yale building, completed the following year, was the result of a fund drive which raised $18,000. Three large buildings had been or were about to be completed in 1876, the Chancellor Green Library at the College of New Jersey at a cost of $120,000, the gift of John C. Green of New York;
Academic Libraries in 1876

Sibley Library
University of Rochester Library
University of Rochester, Rochester, New York

Library, Brown University
Brown University Archives
Providence, Rhode Island
the $100,000 Sibley Library at the University of Rochester, the gift of Hiram Sibley; and the Brown University Library in Providence, the gift of John Carter Brown and members of his family. As the historian of Princeton has noted, it was unfortunate that all this building at various places took place at a time when architectural taste in America reached a new low. Both the Princeton and Brown buildings reflected the general trend of the times. They were in the shape of crosses, with a large reading area in the middle; the librarian sat at a circular desk at Princeton in the middle of the room, a concept to be embodied later in the new building for the Library of Congress. Sibley Library at Rochester would be only slightly better, but one of the stipulations of Sibley's gift was that the library would be open to Rochester citizens as well as the university community.

Not many libraries were built with state funds. Even the University of Vermont building was erected through subscriptions of $6,000 raised mostly in Burlington. The significant exception to the rule of private funds for buildings was the University of South Carolina. The legislature appropriated $15,000 in 1836 for a building which was completed in the same year as Gore Hall at Harvard at a cost of $23,000.

Even buildings erected in the 1870s would soon prove too small for expanding collections. To accommodate the results of Sibley's vigorous collecting efforts, Harvard was just completing America's first book-stack and catalog room addition to Gore Hall, despite Sibley's protest that what Harvard really needed to do was build a new library to house a million volumes. Harvard administrators, whose predecessors had expected the original Gore Hall to last well into the next century, discovered by 1893 that Sibley's warning had come true. Harvard was already storing some of its library materials elsewhere on the campus, and would have to provide another stack unit in 1895. Justin Winsor, who would succeed Sibley the following year, wrote in the 1876 Report that "to have a good library building, a sufficient area should be secured to have it detached on all sides, and to provide for future additions." Most of the nineteenth century libraries made no such provision, and Princeton, whose dedication of the Chancellor Green Library provided the excuse for a separate Library Journal issue on college libraries in 1877, would find it necessary to build an essentially separate and larger building before twenty years had passed.

In some ways institutions like Northwestern, waiting for Orrington Lunt's gift to accumulate sufficient funds to start construction, would be fortunate in the delay. For the debate on what a library building should be, begun with Winsor's paper in the 1876 Report, was continued vigorously by William Frederick Poole's paper read at the ALA Conference in Washington, D.C., and later published as a USOE circular in 1881. Poole's war against waste space in libraries as exemplified in the Peabody Institute's sixty-one foot high gallery in Baltimore would never be completely won, and the battle between librarians and architects would rage through the next century. Not that many librarians had much of an opportunity to influence library design. Only Brown, of the seven library buildings studied by Boll, reflected the ideas of its librarian. The results were not only unfortunate architecturally but functionally as well. However, the college librarian in 1876, contemplating the provision for books and readers in the new Princeton and Brown libraries, could only be envious of such luxury.

THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

Of the traditional professional schools,
law, theology, and medicine, the first two had the strongest library collections on college campuses in 1876, but even these were not the strongest of their disciplines existing in the country. Law collections were strongest in state libraries and law associations in large cities, while the largest theology collections were found in the independent denominational seminaries. Medicine was almost a disaster area, with the only library comparable to good European libraries being that of the Surgeon-General’s Office in Washington. Science, except for the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard and the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale, had to be sought among the general libraries of academies and societies, such as the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia. Although already a part of the curriculum and soon to be very important in the land-grant colleges of the Midwest, science collections were not yet major units in most academic libraries.

Considering the long connection of American colleges with various denominations and the tradition of clergy donations to academic libraries, one would expect to find important theological collections in most colleges in 1876. While this is generally true, the largest theological libraries per se were to be found in seminaries. Only about one-third of the theological schools were related to universities. Of the ten libraries with more than 10,000 volumes, only that of the Harvard Divinity School was connected with a university. Yale’s 2,000 volumes are deceptive though, and one should remember that the Yale librarian served as the chief of the American Oriental Society collection with its 3,500 volumes. Still neither college could compare with Union Theological Seminary (New York) with its 34,000 volumes and Van Ess Collection or the Andover (Massachusetts) Seminary with the same number. Despite the lack of numbers though, the acquisition of such rarities as ancient manuscripts, incunabula, early printing, and biblical records had begun, and the transfer of private libraries of great German scholars such as the Friedrich Lücke to Harvard would increase. Both Georgetown University and St. Xavier’s (Cincinnati) had strong theological collections though the collections were part of the general library. Yet the period when university-related divinity schools would be “centres of theological science for the whole community,” as the editor devoutly hoped, was still some time in the future.

Since law schools have traditionally leaned heavily on the printed word, plus a fair amount of rhetoric, one might expect flourishing collections in university law libraries by 1876. The post-Civil War decade did see significant developments in at least two places: Yale and Hamilton College.

The Yale Law School in 1874 celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of its connection with Yale, though it had had a separate library only since 1845. Nonetheless its achievements during the three years prior to 1876 were notable. Some $16,000 had been raised for the Law Library which grew from 1,600 to 8,000 volumes in that same period. Stephen B. Griswold, librarian of the Law Department of the New York State Library, estimated that a fairly complete law library in 1876 would contain about 7,000 volumes and could not be secured for less than $50,000. If one were to add the non-English and non-American law, the figure for completeness would rise to 10,000 volumes. Few law libraries had attained that figure in 1876, and only Harvard’s 15,000 exceeded the magic number among law school collections.

Hamilton College in 1865 received a splendid law library from the estate of William Curtis Noyes. Containing all the American reports, including complete reports of every state in the un-
ion, as well as English law, the Noyes Collection amounted to about 5,000 volumes. The reporter noted that there was "hardly any law book which a lawyer in large practice may have occasion to consult that may not be found in this collection." The Noyes bequest did more than enrich the training of law students. The trustees began a campaign for a "library hall" in which to house it, and laid the cornerstone the following year, though it was not until 1872 that the building was dedicated.

As the largest of the university-related law schools, Harvard's Law Library received several large collections early. It was built upon the foundation of gifts supplied by Thomas Hollis in the eighteenth century and expanded by donations of Christopher Gore in 1817 and Judge Joseph Story in 1829, as well as a bequest of Roman, Spanish, and French law in 1833 by Samuel Livermore. With the largest law school collection and with the addition of 1,000 volumes the year before, the Harvard Law Library in 1876 was in an enviable position although housed in the law school building and noncirculating in character. It was reported that the Law Library was "free for consultation to all persons" and that the "students of the school do much of their reading in the library." Among the principal law school collections listed, other than the three above, were Illinois Wesleyan, Columbia, Ohio State, and the Universities of Kentucky and Michigan. Their collections ranged from 2,000 to 4,500. Other law schools connected with emerging universities shared the general library poverty of their parent institutions, e.g., Iowa, 1,823; Indiana, 700; Missouri, 1,000; and Wisconsin, 300.

If one were to consider solely the numbers of students involved, medical education would appear to have been in a healthy state. In 1876 there were 102 medical schools (including pharmacy and dentistry) with 10,143 pupils and 1,201 teachers. Nonetheless, only 712 of the medical students had received degrees in letters or science. That same year 3,066 degrees were awarded in medicine, pharmacy and dentistry. However, all was not well in medical education, or in medical libraries, as can be seen in Commissioner Eaton's Annual Report for 1876 where he noted that efforts for elevating medical education standards were receiving increasing favor and those institutions which were making the medical course more rigorous were not losing patronage and fees as had been so confidently predicted. The Johns Hopkins Medical School, to be a leader in this area, had not yet opened, and President Eliot's campaign to improve Harvard's Medical School was creating the unrest which may have prompted Eaton's remarks.

Neither Harvard nor Yale, leaders in other areas, could boast of much in the way of medical libraries. Indeed, the total number of volumes in 102 medical schools was reported as 64,858. Eaton noted the following year that "The friends of medical education would be surprised to learn the small number of volumes reported in medical libraries. Special attention to their organization, increase, and use would not fail to add to the competency and efficiency of the profession." There wasn't much in the way of medical library resources outside Washington, D.C., and Philadelphia. Washington had the Surgeon-General's Office Library of 40,000 volumes plus 40,000 pamphlets while Philadelphia had the library of the College of Physicians, which John Shaw Billings reported was "the most valuable working collection in the country," except for that of the Surgeon-General. Philadelphia also had the oldest medical collection, the 12,500 volumes of the Pennsylvania Hospital. Billings was then working on his mammoth Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office whose first volume.
would not appear for four more years. Of the principal medical libraries in the U.S. listed at the end of his essay in the 1876 Report, Billings included five connected with universities: Kentucky, Louisville, Louisiana, Harvard, and Pennsylvania. Their collections ranged from 2,000 to 5,383 volumes. Perhaps it is indicative of the low estate of medical education that the section on the Harvard College Libraries included these two sentences:

No regular fund is provided for the support and increase of the collection, and the lack of suitable accommodations has prevented the library from holding a prominent place in the college. It has been largely built up by gifts from the professors, and at one time the money resulting from matriculation fees were expended upon it, but for some years there has been no increase. 164

Yale could match Harvard, indifference for indifference: “The Medical School . . . has been less fortunate in respect to its library. . . . The library was formerly kept at the medical college, but for the past ten years has been deposited in the college library.” 165

In addition to the traditional professional schools, the previous fifteen years had seen the emergence of scientific and polytechnic institutions with their degrees in agriculture, engineering, and architecture. Other disciplines would join them, and graduate instruction would develop in many fields during the remainder of the nineteenth century. For 1876, though, there were still those admitted to practice in various professions without any formal training at all. In a section on “Degrees in Course,” Commissioner Eaton ended his “Statement Respecting American Colleges,” prepared to enlighten foreign educators, with these prophetic words:

It will be seen from the above facts that the ranks of the profession in this country are not filled exclusively by graduates from institutions for superior or professional instruction. The community, however, is beginning to look with disfavor on those who enter the profession without previous thorough preparation, and it may be said with confidence that in the course of time few will be found in the professions who are not graduates. 166

Whatever one’s own concern about the current state of the job market, Eaton’s prophecy came true. Few professions in the U.S. today admit apprentices to their number without thorough preparation, which usually means graduation from college and often professional degrees as well.

**SUMMARY**

What were academic libraries like in 1876? They were small, but expanding. They were not yet a significant part of the educational process but were striving toward that goal. Housed often in inadequate quarters, their library reading rooms and stacks would grow increasingly crowded before relief came in the form of massive, if not quite handsome, buildings.

Within these buildings a faculty member served as part-time librarian, frequently with some student assistance and occasionally with a full-time assistant librarian. Since their primary duties did not involve librarianship but classwork in several disciplines, the libraries probably received less attention than they needed, but the evidence clearly indicates that students and faculty also often received better service than they deserved. The advance guard of the full-time librarians shared the general optimism of the age, and they expected libraries to become a vital part of college experience. If they were often confused about the place of the library in the curriculum, their confusion was no more unnatural than that of their parent institutions which often were confused about their role and mission. The country was moving from an agricul-
tural to an industrial society, and higher education did not escape the stresses and strains of the changes accompanying this development. Professional education and graduate study were about to become a major concern at many universities, and extensive libraries and laboratories would be established to serve their needs.

To provide for open access to the world's knowledge and to encourage the rigorous use of the best sources, librarians would organize themselves into a profession. The fledgling American Library Association, founded on October 6, 1876, enabled them to meet, confer, publish, and encourage others to promote their cause. An academic librarian would provide leadership for ALA's first decade in the person of Justin Winsor, librarian at Harvard, and would organize the College Section in 1889 to consider topics of special interest to librarians in higher education. Academic librarians would spend much time and effort organizing their collections, strengthening their staffs, and planning buildings in which to house their books and services. In their first century as an organized profession various themes would emerge, but few seem likely to improve on Winsor's statement that "a collection of good books, with a soul to it in the shape of a good librarian, becomes a vitalized power among the impulses by which the world goes on to improvement."

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Some Effects of Faculty Status on Supervision in Academic Libraries

Faculty status may have a disquieting effect on the management of academic libraries. In this paper some of the effects that faculty status and tenure have on supervision are explored. These include the amount of time that library faculty members devote to supervision, the interaction of the library faculty and the library administration, and the role of the library faculty in participative management.

Library administrators borrow many ideas from the business field. An examination of library management literature reveals articles on topics such as planning, programming, budgeting systems (PPBS), management by objectives (MBO), and participative management. Although library administrators use much of the terminology of management, the concepts may be modified when applied to the library. For example, although librarians use the terms "supervisors" and "middle managers," these may not be comparable to similar roles in business.  

Goode states that librarians assume administrative tasks much earlier in their careers than do other professionals. Lowell indicates that a large number of professional librarians have supervisory assignments:

Most library school graduates become supervisors of clerks and pages as soon as they assume their first professional position and experienced librarians have even greater administrative responsibilities.

Except in very large organizations, librarians are involved in supervision whether they are supervisors, middle managers, or top managers.

Several managerial problems are unique to the academic library. Among them are that faculty status sometimes creates stresses in various aspects of management. In this paper we explore some of the effects that faculty status and tenure have on supervision in libraries. Relevant background information may be found in the recent article, "Faculty Status and Library Governance." For the purposes of this discussion, we use the masculine noun and pronoun to indicate both men and women librarians. The term faculty means the library faculty, unless otherwise specified. We use both the terms management and administration fairly consistently to mean the library administration. We use the term organization to mean the library.

Three Commitments

The academic library professional is faced with several areas of responsibility which must be fitted into a reasonable work week. Some of these areas are: (a) personal expertise, i.e., the person's specialty or major interest such as

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cataloging or subject bibliography or systems; (b) the administrative position, which might range from supervising a few student assistants to supervising a large unit which includes professionals; and (c) professional status, which might include elements such as publishing papers, attending conferences, or conducting research.

Two of the aspects—professional activities and administration—often seem in opposition to each other in the individual librarian's career. For example, in university and public libraries units often are open more than forty hours per week. If there is one professional supervising a unit, usually he schedules himself for the peak use hours; and, recognizing that it is impossible to provide his personal attention for all patrons, he must train his assistants to handle routine questions from users. In order for the unit to function, the librarian must delegate tasks and must train his people to handle a portion of the work; both of these are elements of supervision. Bundy and Wasserman say that librarians are much concerned with the need to transfer certain routine chores to others less qualified. However, often they do not realize that any time they spend in administrative work is time spent in nonprofessional practice.

The professional responsibilities sometimes conflict with assigned administrative responsibilities for supervising a unit. Many activities, such as conducting research or attending professional meetings, involve being away from the work station. In order to handle all aspects of his assignments, the person must either neglect his supervisory duties or become an efficient supervisor.

The "typical" day of a library faculty member who supervises a departmental library might include all three areas of responsibility. For example, it might involve discussing with a subject department representative the schedule of vacation hours for the library; interviewing two students applying for a vacancy; attending a meeting to discuss revisions to the library faculty constitution; drafting a paper concerning results of a research investigation; assigning subject headings to analytic cards which are prepared by the library assistants; discussing a change in a journal title with the serials cataloger; signing time cards; telephoning committee members long distance to discuss plans for an ARL regional workshop to be held locally; or discussing with a teaching faculty member the purchase of a $75.00 reprint of Copernicus for class reserve.

It is not easy to categorize all of these activities because the three areas are both overlapping and conflicting. Although research is considered a professional activity, if it involves a topic such as the extent to which abbreviations and acronyms are used in papers published in physics journals, it might be considered an area of expertise. If it involves a topic such as the effect of faculty status on supervision, it might be considered an area of administration. Attending workshops may be considered a professional activity, but a workshop could involve administration or faculty status or a subject specialty.

Libraries are not always conducive to professional development. They tend to be bureaucratic organizations which operate in a highly structured environment such as a state university or a city government. In a study, "Professionalism and Bureaucratization," librarians, when compared to professionals such as accountants, physicians, stock brokers, or nurses, were rated as working in highly structured organizations which placed great emphasis on the hierarchy of authority and the importance of rules and procedures.

The providing of professional time may be a problem. A study by Plate in-
icates that middle managers, whom he defined as those supervising four or more professionals, often have a negative or skeptical attitude toward research:

Sixty-eight percent of the subjects interviewed are not in favor of providing time and resources for librarians (at any level) to engage in research and writing. Research is viewed as an avenue for personal recognition at the expense of “getting the job done” and the manager believes that “librarians haven’t sufficient time to do all they must do now.” Furthermore, he doubts that librarians are capable of conducting research.  

LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

Faculty status has an unsettling effect on the traditional bureaucracy of libraries. Library faculty members tend to regard themselves in terms of their professorial rank rather than their administrative titles. For example, the associate professors and professors may feel they should have more input into operating the library than the instructors and assistant professors do.

In some library organizations academic rank may not correlate closely with administrative responsibility. Librarians may supervise people with ranks equal to or higher than their own. For example, a subject specialist or rare books librarian may have a professorial rank higher than his supervisor or middle manager. These specialists may not care to assume additional administrative duties, and, therefore, may not accept administrative promotion.

There may then be conflicts over how much faculty input there should be to managerial decisions. For example, in a unit where only one professional at a time may take vacation leave, who would have precedence—the assistant professor who is the supervisor or the associate professor who is not? Or, should the faculty advise on a change in administrative assignments, which usually is an administrative prerogative? Or, should all library faculty members have input into the allocation of the library budget although not all have administrative responsibilities?

The pattern of academic rank, or what Tallau and Beede call the “collegial body,” is superimposed on the administrative hierarchy of the library. The library organization can thus become a jumble of conflicting authorities. The middle managers must interface between the nonsupervisory librarians, the supervisors, and the library administrators. The library director, who is the chairperson of the library faculty, has the unenviable task of steering the organization through this maze of overlapping authority.

Library faculty members are promoted in professorial rank by their peers, often based on specified professional criteria. Promotion in administrative responsibility within the library is based on criteria that are established by the library administrators. Just as in any organization, the supervisors and middle managers may recommend the discharging of nontenured faculty members for poor performance, neglect of duties, and similar reasons. However, faculty status and tenure tend to erode the authority of supervisory people to hire, fire, and promote their professional staff.

ADVANCEMENT

As people advance in the administrative hierarchy, their expertise may dwindle in importance and they may concentrate only on two areas—administration and professional activities. At the lower levels of the organization librarians must determine which of the three areas will be most likely to lead to professional and administrative advancement.

If the young librarian wishes to re-
tain his job and/or advance, he does not know whether to work on his subject specialty, take courses in supervision and management, or work toward a doctorate in information science. All are legitimate pursuits, but a person can dissipate his energies if he attempts to pursue all three. His confusion is further confounded when the young professional views the current library faculty. Some of the library associate professors and professors may have professorial ranks based on their administrative titles; thus, all department heads may be associate professors. Some, perhaps, were promoted under criteria in use five, ten, or fifteen years before. Currently most faculties, due to limited budgets and the shortage of jobs, are forced to select only the best-qualified people for promotion and tenure. If the organization requires that all people must have a second master's degree in order to obtain a promotion or be granted tenure, the appropriate response is apparent. In the 1960s it was common practice for people to spend two to four years at several libraries in order to try different types of assignments before deciding upon an area of major interest. One effect of faculty status is to stifle the young professionals who wish to gain varied experiences. They may specialize very early in their careers in order to be granted tenure, thus sacrificing their long-range career development.

One problem in academic library supervision may be that the library faculty members attempt to model themselves on the teaching faculty whom they perceive do not have any supervisory responsibilities. They may tell themselves that, in order to gain promotion, the teaching faculty need only concern themselves with teaching and research; they do not have to interview people, train personnel, or handle time cards. However, every day the librarians are surrounded by supervisory concerns, and librarians must supervise if the libraries are to continue to operate.

**PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT**

In participative management people from all levels of the organization are involved in discussing problems and recommending decisions creatively, thus reducing the authority of the supervisors and middle managers. A recent editorial suggests that the positions of middle managers be abolished in order to facilitate the implementation of participative management.

Since the library faculty attempts to superimpose its academic hierarchy upon the library administration hierarchy, it may not permit nonprofessional people to participate. As Wasserman states,

> In an organization characterized by centralization of authority and responsibility, latitude in decision processes is foreclosed to those in lower-level positions.

The library faculty might argue that the teaching faculty members do not permit the departmental secretaries to make decisions on the courses that are taught, so why should the library faculty permit the support staff to have any input into the library administration.

On the other hand, from the supervisory standpoint, involving subordinates in planning and decision making is a very good way to encourage their interest and enthusiasm.

Participative management may be very difficult to implement in an academic library where there is a library faculty. If participative management is restricted to library faculty and/or professionals, it may be feasible. If it includes support staff, there may be problems.

**CONCLUSION**

We have examined some of the areas in which faculty status affects the supervision and management of libraries.
These include the demands of professional activities which take time away from supervision and the imposition of the library "collegial body" on the library administration hierarchy. Although faculty status has many professional benefits for the individual academic librarian, it may have disturbing effects on various areas of academic library management.

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Forecasting Academic Library Growth

Forecasting techniques developed by government and industry are being applied to various library statistics. These techniques are explained and examples of their use discussed.

Budgeting and planning processes in academic libraries are under great stress due to tight budgets, inflation, and uncertainty about the future. University administrators are stressing the need for cost justification and the necessity for short- and long-range planning. The future appears to be characterized by increasing stress because of higher prices for materials, demands for higher salaries, and growing uncertainty about availability of funding.

The need for planning assumes a greater importance in times of decreasing resources and retrenchment. The library manager, confronted with smaller budgets and higher prices on the one hand and demands for better service on the other, must devote considerable energy and effort to systematic planning. Thoughtful and informed planning decisions are imperative if libraries are to continue to function effectively as an interface between information and the student or researcher.

The planning process is a systematic and purposeful endeavor which involves the setting of goals for the future and strategies for realizing those goals. University libraries function within a dynamic environment in which teaching and research goals and methods are changing. Library planners must plan within this environment and within the framework of the university's goals. The role of forecasting in planning is critical. Analyses of the past and present and forecasts of probable future events and situations give the planner the framework within which decisions about future courses of action are made. Good information will not necessarily guarantee good decisions or effective planning; but no information or poor information may well result in bad decisions. At the present time, when the need for accurate predictive information is so great, library managers and planners have little analytical data about the past and poor forecasts for the future.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss one type of information needed by library planners, namely, forecasts of library growth and related factors. Forecasting techniques will be discussed, and examples of their use in libraries will be reviewed.

The purpose of forecasting is to describe what is likely to occur under a given set of circumstances at some future time. The forecast provides an indication of results at a specified time in the future if conditions are not changed. The manager can change the likelihood of given results by changing goals and making decisions which will influence the course of events. Generally, there are three types of forecasting techniques used in libraries: qualitative, time series, and causal. These techniques may be used individually or in combination.
QUALITATIVE TECHNIQUES

Qualitative techniques are used when data are sketchy or nonexistent. They rely solely on human experience and judgment to assess the future. Sometimes they are formalized by the use of rating schemes to transfer qualitative factors into quantitative estimates in a systematic fashion. Examples of qualitative methods are the Delphi approach, "visionary forecast," and historical analogy. It is difficult to find examples of systematic qualitative forecasting in academic libraries; however, judgmental forecasts have been used extensively because librarians do not have sufficient familiarity with quantitative techniques to use them effectively or to interpret the results.

QUANTITATIVE TECHNIQUES

Quantitative forecasting techniques fall into two categories, time series analysis and causal methods.

Time Series Analysis

Time series analysis is a statistical technique which assumes that patterns in the past can be identified and that these patterns will be repeated in the future. Forecasts of library growth have relied primarily on time series analysis to identify trends and to determine growth rates of trends. The technique involves fitting a line or curve to the past data and projecting the line by means of its mathematical equation. The simplest trend line is a straight line in which the variable being projected increases or decreases by the same amount in each time period. The line is fitted by the method of least squares, so called because the sum of the squares of the deviations from the line is less than the sum of the squared deviations from any other straight line. The deviations are the differences between the actual or observed values and the values produced by the straight line equation for each point in the past.

The straight line is described mathematically as

\[ Y = a + bx \]

where: \( Y \) is the variable to be forecast; \( a \) is the value of \( Y \) at the \( x \) origin; \( b \) is the slope of the line or the value to be added or subtracted in each time period; and \( x \) is the value of time. The elements \( a \) and \( b \) are both constants as their values do not change; therefore, the projection is based on the same amount of growth or decline in each period.

Figure 1 illustrates a straight line projection of nonprofessional staff size in the median Association of Research Libraries library. The median library is not a specific library; rather, it represents a library which is at the midpoint on a scale in which Association of Research Libraries libraries are ranked from highest to lowest. Half the libraries rank above the median in nonprofessional staff size, and half rank below the median. The straight line shown was plotted from a mathematical equation calculated from data for the years 1962-1973. The dots on the graph show the actual or observed values for the median library. The straight line which has been drawn is that which "fits" most closely the dots representing actual values. The line has been extrapolated to 1980, giving an estimate of the number of nonprofessional staff in the median library assuming that the trends of 1962-1973 remain unchanged.

In reality, library growth indicators such as volumes added or volumes held do not show a straight line trend. Nonlinear trends can exhibit constant growth rates or changing growth rates. A straight line shows a constant amount of growth, while a curve may be based on a constant annual rate (e.g., 20 percent) of growth or a changing rate of growth. A constant growth rate will produce an exponential curve because of the effect of compounding.

Figure 2 illustrates a projection of volumes added for the median com-


The curve illustrated in Figure 3 was also taken from The Past and Likely Future of 58 Research Libraries, 1951–1980: A Statistical Study of Growth and Change and shows growth at an increasing rate; that is, a percentage growth which is increasing each year. It is clear that neither curve is suitable for a short-range forecast of volumes added for the median library. Observed values are declining, and qualitative judgment regarding library budgets, inflation, etc., would indicate that these values will decline further. In this case, the forecaster must raise questions regarding both the long-range and short-run significance of the decline. How long will it continue? Does it represent a major change in pattern? Will long-run growth at previous rates resume? This case clearly illustrates the importance of experience and judgment in forecasting. The numbers alone do not tell the story.

Time series analysis, because it assumes that the future will repeat the past, “is more likely to be correct over the short term than it is over the long term, and for this reason these techniques provide us with reasonably accurate forecasts for the immediate future but do quite poorly further into the future.” The validity of that statement can be shown by looking at the forecasts shown in Figures 2 and 3. Another shortcoming of time series analysis for libraries is that it cannot predict irregular change in the rate of growth. It can predict only on past rates. Figure 2 clearly shows that actual values for 1972 and 1973 are deviating substantially from the trend line.

These deviations indicate that growth
may be changing. If the forecaster knows that there are factors which will change the rate of trend, such as budget constraints, then other methods or combinations of methods must be used to forecast the particular variables in question.

**Causal Models**

The most sophisticated forecasting techniques are called causal models because they relate the values of one variable to two or more other variables. Economists use a variety of these models in different applications, including input-output, multiple regression, and econometric models. Only multiple regression models will be considered here. The multiple regression technique assumes that a dependent variable, the variable to be forecast (e.g., volumes added, total operating expenditures, etc.), is related to two or more independent or causal variables which are assumed to be “exogenous,” that is, outside the control of the dependent variable. The variables which are defined as independent are those for which values are known. These values generally will not be affected directly by changes in the dependent variable. The variable to be forecast is the dependent or “resultant” variable. Its value is related to and may be estimated from changes in the causal variables. Mathematically, a functional relationship is assumed.

The standard equation is

$$ Y = a + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + \ldots + b_m x_m $$

where: $Y$ is the dependent variable; $a$ is a constant; $x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_m$ represent independent variables; and $b_1, b_2, b_3, \ldots, b_m$ represent net regression coefficients, i.e., the effect on $Y$ of a change in $x$ when "allowance has been made for other independent variables."

The choice of independent variables will depend on the variable to be fore-
cast and the reasons for the forecast. If one were trying to forecast the probable size of the library budget in a particular institution, one would need to select variables which are not affected by the library budget, such as the university budget, Ph.D. fields, etc. Relationship or lack of relationship between these independent variables or causal variables and the library budget for some years in the past would be calculated. A forecast of the library budget can be derived based on mathematical relationships between the independent variables and the library budget and forecasts of the values of the independent variables. The forecasts of independent variables may be based on time series analysis or other techniques. The forecaster would establish the mathematical relationships between the variables and test this relationship for statistical significance, which would indicate the reliability of the forecast and the likelihood of error.

This paper will not consider tests of significance. The interested reader can find information and formulas for these tests in any standard statistics textbook.

Baumol and Marcus in their book *Economics of Academic Libraries* combined time series analysis and multiple regression analysis to produce a method for forecasting academic library budgetary and staffing needs. Their model assumed that academic libraries would continue to grow at past rates and that the relationship of staff to materials would remain constant over time. By combining growth trends from the time series analysis and coefficients (or relationships) from the multiple regression analysis a projected library budget may be derived.

The example which follows applies the results of Baumol and Marcus analysis to a projection of total library costs for Purdue University Libraries for 1975.

The first step in the procedure is to fore-
cast volumes held, volumes added, and professional staff size for 1975. Purdue is classified as a small library. The average annual rate of growth of volumes held in small libraries is 5.4 percent. 7

\[ 1975 \text{ volumes held} = 1974 \text{ volumes held} \times 1.054 \]

1975 volumes held = 1,085,100 x 1.054

1975 volumes held = 1,143,695

The average annual percentage increase of volumes added is 8.1 percent.

\[ 1975 \text{ volumes added} = 1974 \text{ volumes added} \times 1.081 \]

1975 volumes added = 42,919 x 1.081

1975 volumes added= 46,395

Size of professional staff will remain constant at 41.

The next step is to consult the appropriate table of statistical data for Purdue, which is a public university with an enrollment of 10,000-20,000 in 1967-1968. 8

The formula for determining total operating costs is

\[ Y = a + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + b_3 x_3 \]

Total operating costs, 1975 = 0.5571 + .0139 (volumes held) + .8139 (volumes added) + .1317 (professional staff)

Total operating costs, 1975 = 0.5571 + .0139(114.4) + .8139(4.6) + .1317(41)

Total operating costs, 1975 = 11.2909

Costs are expressed in units of $100,000, so that projected operating costs for the Purdue Libraries are $1,129,090. The actual operating costs for the Purdue Libraries in 1975 will be more than double the projected figure.

The example above illustrates how time series analysis can be applied to project values needed as input into a multiple regression analysis. The statistical techniques used by Baumol and Marcus are useful forecasting tools; however, the results of their analyses are of limited value because the data on which the analyses were based are obsolete and not reflective of the current situation. During the period analyzed by Baumol and Marcus, 1951 through 1968, library collections were expanding rapidly while the prices of materials were relatively stable.

The high growth rates experienced during the 1960s are not holding up in the 1970s. Many universities are cutting back their purchases of materials because their purchasing power has not kept pace with inflation. Undoubtedly, there are few, if any, library directors who now can expect to receive budgets sufficient to maintain past rates of growth. While library managers welcome data and statistical analyses to justify their requests, it is unlikely that university administrators will accept the assumption that past growth rates in the libraries should continue while other parts of the university’s program must be curtailed. Universities are experiencing a period of change in which resource allocations are likely to be different from the past. Forecasting beyond two or three years is difficult; nevertheless, library managers can gain insight into the dynamics of libraries by utilizing forecasting techniques.

**CONCLUSION**

Before selecting a forecasting technique, many questions should be examined: What is the reason for the forecast, and how will it be used? Is it for budget purposes? Financial planning? Space needs? What is the time horizon? Next year? Two years? Six years? What level of detail is required? How many and what items are to be forecast? What degree of accuracy is required? Are appropriate data available? Are the variables to be forecast stable over time? How much money can be spent on forecasting?

“A manager generally assumes that when he asks a forecaster to prepare a specific projection, the request itself provides sufficient information for the forecaster to go to work and do his job. This is almost never true.” 9 The above questions suggest that forecasting is a
job shared by decision maker and forecaster. Discussion of these questions will help insure that the forecast is appropriate to managerial needs.

The need for forecasting in the academic library field is evident. Managers of libraries which are members of the Association of Research Libraries are responsible for approximately $300 million in annual operating expenses, in institutions with enrollments of 1.3 million students. Many librarians complain that adequate forecasting cannot be done because the data are less than perfect. Nevertheless, techniques exist which permit the utilization of existing data to provide significant and useful indications of future library growth. Effective planning for the immediate and long-range future depends on using the data we have, such as volumes added, book prices, publishing output, enrollment projections, etc., and applying the techniques to tell us what is likely to occur under different policies and strategies.

REFERENCES


5. Chambers, Mulleik, and Smith, "How to Choose the Right Forecasting Technique," p. 50.


8. Ibid., p. 94.

Selected Reference Books of 1974-75

This article continues the semi-annual 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.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

African Books in Print; An Index by Author, Title and Subject, 1975- . London, Mansell, [1975]- . (Distr. in U.S. and Canada by International Scholarly Book Services, P.O. Box 4347, Portland, OR 97208) 74-9951.

Ed. by Hans M. Zell.

Contents: Pt.1, English language and African languages. (1975: 441p. £ 15.50)

Compiled "to provide a systematic, reliable and functional reference tool and buying guide to African published materials currently in print" (Introduct.), this welcome new series is to be in two parts, published in alternate years: Part I for English and African language books, and Part II for French language publications. The volume in hand lists more than 12,000 books, pamphlets, and yearbooks, but not journals, from nineteen African countries. About 1,200 of these titles are in various African languages. Government documents were reluctantly excluded, but it is hoped that they will be added in future editions. Full information for each entry is given in the three alphabetical lists, author, title, and subject. For the majority of books information is very full, listing author, title, translation of title if a vernacular entry, paging, price, place, date, and country; British and American currency equivalents of price sometimes appear. There are useful lists of African publishers, government printers, and publications agencies. Updating information is to be published in the African Book Publishing Record, a quarterly which began publication in January 1975. Conscious of the shortcomings (e.g., certain publishers omitted, bibliographic information sometimes incomplete) of this first effort, the editor regards it as a pilot edition and promises improvements in those to come. Acquisitions and reference librarians will appreciate the work wherever African collections are maintained.—R.K.


The enormous store of information contained in Joseph Sabin's Dictionary (Guide AA334) will be made more readily accessible to users by this new index. All of Sabin's entries, including bibliographical notes appended to primary entries, have been indexed and are arranged here in a single alphabet of authors and titles. In addition to personal and corporate authors, editors,
compilers, illustrators, engravers, cartographers, and, in some circumstances, publishers are indexed. Title listings are broadly conceived to include “main, series, and running titles, selected alternate titles and subtitles.”—Intro. This index meets a long-felt need for standardization of access points to material in the Dictionary. Besides compensating for Sabin’s inconsistent bibliographic practices, however, the compiler has brought together multiple references to a particular item, has identified some anonymous and pseudonymous authors, and has isolated within the index a number of generic categories such as almanacs and election sermons. Although the price is unfortunately high, libraries that own the Sabin bibliography will find this Author-Title Index to be a valuable key to its contents.

-D.A.S.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS


Although it is actually a fourth edition, *The New Columbia Encyclopedia* is indeed new in a number of ways—most immediately apparent of which is probably the integration of maps and line drawings with the text itself. Another innovation—computer typesetting—has permitted presentation of more information per page, so that the 50,000 articles are still accommodated in a single volume of only slightly greater bulk than the 1963 edition (*Guide AD5*). Greater use has been made of charts and tables, and metric equivalents are supplied for most measurements given in English standard units. The work remains strong in place-names and biography (with liberal inclusion of contemporary figures); pronunciation is shown for difficult or unusual names; and bibliographic references to many recent works in English are provided. While some articles from the third edition required no change, this is a thorough revision, with material meant to be up to date as of January 1975. It is sure to retain favor as a useful home encyclopedia and as a source for quick reference in libraries of all sizes.—E.S.

NEWSPAPERS


Added title page in English: *German Newspapers in Libraries and Archives; A Survey.* Introductory matter in German and English.

“Hrsg. von der Kommission für Geschichte des Parlamentarismus und der politischen Parteien und dem Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare e. V.”—Title page.

In preparation for nearly ten years, this union catalog represents an effort to provide reasonably up-to-date information on files of German newspapers published during the period 1700 to 1969. Admittedly selective, “it covers a total of 2,018 German newspapers . . . arranged according to 222 German places of publication, within the German frontiers of 1939, which have been and are of special historic interest as far as the press is concerned.”—Publishers’ Pref. Holdings of 530 German libraries, private collections, archives, museums, institutes, and publishing houses are recorded, as are files in some 49 other European collections. Information on holdings is detailed; changes of title are indicated; and there is a title index. An interesting history of the catalog, with notes on its predecessors, methodology, selection criteria, etc., is set forth in the introduction.—E.S.

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS


Designed as a basic text for the library school students, this work “attempts to delineate the relationship between the production and distribution of government materials and their control, access, and management in libraries and information centers.”—Pref. The first four chapters discuss the Government Printing Office, the Superintendent of Documents, the depository library system, and the general administra-
tion of a documents collection; the remaining chapters cover general guides to federal publications, legislative branch materials, presidential publications, documents of independent agencies, reports of advisory committees and commissions, and judiciary publications. Each chapter concludes with bibliographical footnotes, and contains numerous tables and illustrations, generally of sample source pages. There are indexes of names/subjects and titles/series.

The user will find that Schmeckebier's *Government Publications and Their Use* (2d rep. ed., 1969; Suppl. 3AH1) is more comprehensive in its coverage of the historical development and inconsistencies of government publishing, and in its section on maps and state laws and constitutions published by federal sources. The administrative aspects of a documents collection are more fully discussed in Rebekah M. Harleston's *Administration of Government Documents Collections* (1974). However, the format and text of the Morehead volume are extremely lucid and easy to use. Its summary on tracing legislation is particularly good, and the discussion of the commercial publications which index, abstract, or reproduce government documents is invaluable, as many of these are too recent to be included in Schmeckebier. Morehead's critical evaluations of sources and general cost-consciousness are refreshing. This volume belongs next to Schmeckebier on the reference shelf and may be the one the librarian reaches for first.—D.G.

**Dissertations**


This long compilation (about 2,000 entries) of both separately published bibliographies and those appearing in larger works or as journal articles, through 1973, will be valuable to the librarian and student in searching theses and dissertations, a form of study the author recognizes as "most difficult to identify."—Intro. It is primarily a subject list, but opens with short sections of universal, national, and special/racial lists; general dissertation lists of a single institution are excluded. The major portion of the work is arranged alphabetically by large subject, from area studies to theology, with subdivisions appropriate to each. Entries give full bibliographic information and descriptive annotations on coverage, character, and special features. Since the availability of the *Comprehensive Dissertation Index* (published 1973) has greatly simplified the search for American dissertations, it will be the special features of this new work—its international coverage, frequent notes on periodic supplements to published bibliographies, and entries for those elusive in-progress lists—that will recommend it specially to the graduate student and librarian. There are indexes of (1) institutions, (2) names and titles, and (3) subjects, but certain limitations (e.g., omission of specific titles as noted in the introduction) make use of the table of contents as well as the indexes essential to thorough searching.—R.K.

**Biography**


In its never-ending attempt to provide easy access to biographical information, Marquis Publications has created yet another reference tool. Although the title of this new series implies that all of the Marquis directories are included, the ones covering the pure and applied sciences have been omitted. This, then, is an index to the latest editions of *Who's Who in America, Who Was Who in America, Who's Who in the East, Who's Who in the Midwest, Who's Who in the South and Southwest, Who's Who in the West, Who's Who in the World, Who's Who in Finance and Industry, Who's Who in Government, and Who's Who of American Women*. Arrangement is alphabetical by surname, giving a symbol for each of the directories in which information about the person can be found. With coverage of ten directories containing sketches on over 200,000 names, this index should soon prove to be indispensable and a great time-saver.—P.A.C.

Almost twenty-five years have passed since Who's Who in the United Nations was published in 1951. During the intervening years, the United Nations organization has grown in membership, and its related agencies have grown in number, size, and importance. For the latter reason this long-awaited new biographical directory has expanded coverage to include not only U.N. delegates, but, as its title indicates, senior agency personnel. All categories of persons to be included were selected by an advisory panel chaired by the late Dr. Andrew W. Cordier.

An alphabetical listing of the biographical entries comprises the main body of the work. Entries contain standard biographical data which was obtained from the biographees by questionnaire and is current to mid-1974 when the data was collected. The overwhelmingly high response rate indicated in the Preface would seem to insure a fair measure of accuracy. At the very least, the spelling and form of proper names is according to the biographee's preference. Several lists which are appended enhance the ready-reference value of this volume: an "Organizational roster"; "Installations of the U.N. system"; "Member states of the U.N., 1946-1974"; "Permanent Missions to the U.N. (both in New York and Geneva)"; "Presidents of the General Assembly"; "Principal officers of the U.N. and related agencies, 1946-1974"; "U.N. Depository Libraries"; "World Federation of U.N. Associations"; "U.N. budget, 1974-75." Although all of this material is in English, the table of contents and the "How to use" portions of the work are printed in all six official languages of the United Nations (English, French, Spanish, Russian, Chinese, and Arabic). An index to the biographical section by nationality gives the work added dimension and will be helpful when one does not know the names of a particular country's representatives. All in all, the volume will be well received by those interested in international organizations. However, in a field where current information is vital, one would hope for new editions at frequent intervals.—B.W.

Literature


Like other volumes in Ungar's Library of Literary Criticism series (e.g., Suppl. 1BD42), this work presents excerpts from critical reviews and evaluations of selected authors, the excerpts having been chosen to present a balanced view of each writer's development and achievement. Commentary is drawn from both books and periodicals, with about half of the material here newly translated from Spanish and Portuguese sources. The 137 authors treated include both living writers and those who died after 1900 whose major work belongs to the twentieth century. Writers of belles lettres are in the majority, but essayists and others who have contributed significantly to literary tradition in a given Latin American country are included. The extent to which a writer has been translated was a major factor in selection, and preference was given to authors who have attracted sufficient critical attention to permit a representative selection of commentary; availability of the critical writings in the United States was a further point of consideration. A single alphabetical sequence is employed; each author's dates and nationality are given; and there is a list of authors by country. An index of critics appears in v.2.—E.S.


Addressed to the general reader and student rather than the scholar, this well-organized bibliography lists the "best and most important" Shakespeare editions and studies, both books and articles, published from 1930 through 1970. Older works of importance also appear; foreign-language materials are almost totally excluded. A classified arrangement is followed, with general introductory sections on reference works, bibliographies, general textual studies, biography, etc.; a long section on the
individual works, with subdivisions under each work for editions, textual criticism and commentary; a commentary section, comprising a list of essay collections and works on groups of plays; and finally a section of special topics, as audience, allusions, music; authorship, etc. Entries, numbering about 4,500, are listed alphabetically by author or editor within each category and give full bibliographical information. Cross-references are used to keep duplicate listings to a minimum. The detailed table of contents and author-editor-translator index make for ready-reference use.—R.K.


Reference librarians disappointed by NCBEL's neglect of overseas literature will welcome this work intended as a guide and aid to research for those areas that share the "endeavor in the twentieth century . . . to devise . . . [an] English-language literary culture."—Foreword. Covering the English-language literatures of Africa, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, and Rhodesia, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and the West Indies, the book lists journal articles, books and parts of books, theses, and dissertations. Arrangement is geographical, with the bibliography for each area subdivided into research aids (guides, bibliographies, indexes, chronologies); a general section (language, genres, publishing, etc.); and individual author lists. Theses and dissertations, numbering more than 500, are similarly ranged in geographic scheme in a separate section. There is a list of periodical abbreviations, and an index of critics, editors, and translators, but not of authors as subjects. The work should be useful particularly for the less well-known authors and literatures.—R.K.


Having previously provided us with bibliographies of Colombian poetry and Colombian literature in general, Dr. Orjuela here focuses on Colombian theater. The main section of the bibliography is an author listing of dramatic literature by Colombian authors. This is followed by three "Secciones complementarias" which offer lists of sources for the study of the Colombian theater, for the study of Latin American theater, and for the study of theater in general. There are many bibliographical and descriptive notes, and library locations (including various United States libraries) are frequently given. There is an index of the titles in the first section.—E.S.


As a source of information and as a guide to other biographical sources, this work covers a considerable segment of the creative writing done by black American writers. Over 2,000 writers whose work represents approximately two and a half centuries of literary activity appear in the dictionary; in addition to black American novelists, poets, etc., selected important writers of nonfiction, and "those writers from Africa and the West Indies who live and-or publish in the United States, and who also identify with Black American writers" (p.x) are included. The biographical information on living authors has been supplied by the writers themselves (though in some cases it has been supplemented by reference to other sources), and it resembles the compact "who's who" type of entry in nature and organization. In contrast, the biographies of persons no longer living are often rather more detailed in information (and evaluation) and are narrative in style; they are carefully footnoted. For a number of authors, both living and dead, little or no biographical information has been located.

Although the bibliographies do not pretend to be complete, they are extensive and attempt to include for each author: (1) all known published books, (2) lists of major anthologies and periodicals in which the author's short stories, plays, etc., appear,
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(3) citations to critical articles by the author, and (4) citations to biographical and critical writings about the author. In some cases the existence of nonbook items such as recordings, taped interviews, and manuscripts is noted. An "interjection"—a quote from the author or from a "family member, peer or critic"—expressing the author's "ideas, theories, impressions, and philosophies" (p.xii) is included at the end of many of the entries.—A.L.


As the subtitle indicates, this is a "companion" rather than a second supplement to Twentieth Century Authors (Guide BD 68): it neither duplicates nor updates the biographical articles in the earlier work and its first supplement. It deals with 959 authors, "most of whom came to prominence between 1950 and 1970," yet includes "a number of writers whose reputations were made earlier, but who were absent from the previous volumes because of a lack of biographical information, or because their work was not then familiar to readers of English."—Pref. Selection of authors seems careful and judicious, and includes not only writers of unquestioned literary importance (not to mention historians, critics, etc., of stature), but some who enjoyed great popularity for a relatively brief period. (If, occasionally, there is a whiff of the "whatever became of" compilation, there is little doubt that these once-so-familiar names have a place here.) As in the companion volumes, many of the authors provided autobiographical sketches; critical comment is generally fuller than in those earlier works. Bibliographies again list principal works and a selection of writings about the author. Articles are unsigned, but a list of contributors is supplied. Now if Mr. Wakeman could just be persuaded to set to work on a second supplement to Twentieth Century Authors...

E.S.

Cinema


The Retrospective Index to Film Periodicals takes a relatively selective approach to the literature of film, indexing only fourteen major English-language film periodicals and the Village Voice (a welcome addition). All of the journals are still publishing (most of them since the 1960s), while only one, Sight and Sound (1932- ), began before 1945. The index is divided into two main sections: "Individual Films" which lists reviews, articles, etc., under the titles of the films; and "Film Subjects" which lists articles, interviews, etc., under "(1) applicable descriptors for film study, such as Aesthetics, Auteur Theory, Festivals; [and] (2) persons who are the objects of biographical and critical interest."—p.ix. In addition, many of the entries in the "Film Subjects" section have brief descriptive annotations. Citations to book reviews have been collected separately at the end of the volume. The lack of an author index is a serious detriment to the overall reference usefulness of this book.—A.L.

Statistics


At last someone has tried to organize into a unified, workable form the mass of statistical information available from the statistical annuals and series published by European governments. Besides providing easier access to the data (for many libraries may not hold the older compilations or annuals from some of the smaller countries), the compiler has tried to identify and standardize the figures and also supply missing data. Professor Mitchell is well qualified to deal with this material as he has edited several collections of British official statistics. In a concise and interesting introduction he indicates the problems one can expect to encounter in working with these varied statistical sources: definition and availability of statistics; changes in details of coverage; changes in boundaries of countries; the unknown degree of efficiency of past compilers and printers; the earlier statistics as by-
products of censuses for purposes of taxation or military preparedness. To ease some of the headaches for the user, Mitchell has included lists of boundary changes, tables of currency changes, and conversion ratios for weights and measures.

The seventy-five tables are grouped under the following topics: climate, population and vital statistics, labor force, agriculture, industry, external trade, transport and communications, finance, prices, education, national accounts. Inevitably, one can suggest other tables one wishes the compiler had included, e.g., some indication of rates of exchange for the European countries. However scholars and reference librarians will be grateful for this careful compilation and can hope that similar volumes for other large geographical areas—the Middle East, Asia—may follow.—E.M.

**LAW**


Relationships between worker and employer (wages, hours, holidays, and other conditions of employment), labor legislation, compensation for accidents and illness, vocational education and training, unemployment, collective bargaining, and unionization of workers are among the topics treated in this bibliography which attempts to cover “all the relevant literature concerned with the legal relationships of people at work” (Intro.) in England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, and the Republic of Ireland. Certain international aspects directly related to conditions in Great Britain and Ireland are also included. The more than 4,500 items represent mainly English-language materials (books, pamphlets, periodical articles) from the eighteenth century through 1972. A classed arrangement is employed; author and subject indexes are provided; and at least one library location is indicated for most books and pamphlets.—E.S.

**ATLASES**


In view of the difficulty of obtaining up-to-date cartographic information on the People’s Republic of China, this new atlas is offered “with some diffidence” by the publisher. An introductory section (p.v-ix) includes a number of historical maps, plus maps showing population, agriculture, climate, trade, and industry. The main section of the atlas (p.1-144) presents a group of regional physical maps, followed by a series of maps on the individual provinces, with historical and descriptive notes and an administrative summary for each (including map references); there is also a section of city plans. The maps of the provinces were originally compiled by the Japanese publisher Kyōbunkaku, and have been updated and improved for the present work. All maps are in color; most are double-page spreads. The Wade-Giles system of transcription of Chinese names is used on the maps; in the index, names are arranged alphabetically by Wade-Giles transcription with the Pinyin transcription following. Although the Introduction clearly states that some of the information is fairly tentative because “detailed geographical and particularly statistical information . . . is, by Western standards, hard to come by,” the atlas represents a very considerable achievement.—E.S.

**HISTORY AND AREA STUDIES**


Described as “a catalogue of articles in Western languages dealing with Africa and published from 1885 to 1965 in periodicals, Festschriften or memorial volumes, symposia, and proceedings of congresses and conferences” (Pref.), this bibliography includes more than 24,600 entries. A classed arrangement is employed, a general section being followed by sections for North Africa, West Africa, Central Africa, East Africa, and Southern Africa, each subdivided by
country, then by subject. Material relating to Islamic culture in Africa is omitted since it is covered in the Index Islamicus. There is an author index; addition of a subject index or provision of a more detailed table of contents would have greatly facilitated use of the volume.—E.S.


This is a list of 2,300 theses—British and Irish master's essays and doctoral dissertations, and American and Canadian doctoral dissertations—dealing with the history of Great Britain and Ireland during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Although “history” has been broadly interpreted, theses which treat the history of fine arts or architecture, science or technology, literature, or British foreign, colonial, and commercial policies in specific countries have been excluded. The arrangement is classified by five major sections (political history, economic history, social history, ecclesiastical history, and the history of education) with author and subject indexes. Each citation gives author, title, degree, institution, and date, plus order number if available from Xerox University Microfilms. All theses were completed between 1914 and 1972. Although it is regrettable that theses dealing with British foreign policy in particular countries have been omitted, this list is still a useful addition to reference sources in the growing field of Victorian studies.—D.G.


"Designed not only to aid university, college and high school historians in their teaching, research and publication, but also to facilitate their awareness of new and often conflicting trends in current historiography" (Pref.), this list of 1,250 studies is subdivided to cover: research methods in history; the teaching of history (at the university, college, and secondary school levels); historiography and philosophy of history; historiographical studies by area. A few short, topical sections such as economic history and medical history are included in the areas portion, which is arranged alphabetically by area and topic. Within each category writings are alphabetic by author, with full bibliographical information. There is a list of journals, with annotations on contents and requirements for contributors, and an author index. The heart of the work, covering historiography and philosophy of history and numbering more than 500 entries, would have been more useful if a classified order to show the "new and . . . conflicting trends" mentioned in the preface had been followed. Future publications to update the work are being considered.—R.K.


Contents: v.1–2, Atlantic states; v.3, Middle West, Alaska, Hawaii; v.4, The West.

In order to highlight the fact that all of the entries in this bibliography are concerned with some geographical area, the Library of Congress classification schedule has been used to provide a basic arrangement by region, state, and locality. Included are books for which cards had been filed in the Library of Congress shelflist by mid-1972. Although those cards were microfilmed, the bibliography does not give a photographic reproduction of each card: only the essential information has been retained. This includes: author's name, brief title, imprint, collation, bibliographical and/or contents notes, and LC card number and call number. The books are listed alphabetically by author under each heading, with the exception of biographies, which are arranged by subject. Supplemental finding aids are classification schedules at the beginning of each region and an index of places for each state. There are also selected bibliographies for each region and state. This catalog of one of the finest local history collections in the country should prove useful in any large
academic library.—P.A.C.

Comp. by John R. Sellers, Gerald W. Gawalt, Paul H. Smith, and Patricia Molen van Be

One of the few real benefits of a Bicentennial celebration may be the impetus it gives to libraries to survey their collections for important historical materials. The Library of Congress proves to be a leader during the current Bicentennial observance with this manuscript catalog, and an important contribution it is. The compilers surveyed the Manuscript Division, the Rare Book Division, and the Law Library for any manuscripts and transcripts, photostats, or microfilms of manuscripts that the Library of Congress might hold relating to the period 1763–1789 in American history. The catalog is divided between “Domestic Collections” and “Foreign Reproductions,” with the former subdivided as “Account books,” “Journals and diaries,” “Miscellaneous manuscripts,” and “Orderly books.” Entries are arranged alphabetically within each section, following the form of NUCMC, with the name of the collection, the number and kinds of items, the period covered, and a brief biographical or descriptive sketch which also indicates any finding aids, calendars, or published portions. There are two indexes: one of repositories from which photocopies have been obtained, and one by name and topic.

The American Revolution Bicentennial Commission has endorsed the Library of Congress’ recommendation that other institutions such as archives, historical societies, and libraries be urged to compile comprehensive guides to manuscript sources “according to scholarly standards for identifying and describing such items and to be published in a standard format.”—Foreword. With this excellent example from the Library of Congress and with the commission’s encouragement, librarians and scholars should be able to look forward to a number of similar aids to research.—E.M.
earlier title signals the greater emphasis on information regarding book dealers and distributors of French-language publications in the present directory.

The first of the series of interim indexes to the Great Soviet Encyclopedia (the English translation of the third ed. of the Bol'shaia Sovetskaia Entsiklopediia; Suppl. 3AD10) has now appeared (New York, Macmillan, 1975). Originally announced as available only at additional cost, the index is being distributed to all purchasers of the encyclopedia as part of their subscription. The first index covers v.1-5; successive indexes issued after publication of each new group of five volumes will be completely cumulative. The next index, covering v.1-10, is planned for 1976 publication.

With the appearance of Supplement Four (New York, Scribner, 1974. 951p.), coverage of the Dictionary of American Biography is extended through the 1946-50 period. John A. Garraty and Edward T. James shared the editorial burden of this volume containing 561 biographies by 437 contributors. An "index guide" provides a cumulated list of the biographical sketches in the four supplementary volumes. The first volume, covering A-H, of a new, enlarged edition of the Biographisches Wörterbuch zur deutschen Geschichte (München, Francke, 1974) has appeared under the editorship of Karl Bosl, Günther Franz, and Hanns Hofmann. Many articles from the 1952 edition (Guide AJ139a) have been fully revised and expanded, new articles have been added (the work now covers down to the present), and bibliographies have been updated; it is estimated that about four-fifths of the material in the new three-volume edition will be either new or rewritten.

Literary Terms; A Dictionary by Karl Beckson and Arthur Ganz (New York, Farrar, 1975. 280p. $6.95) is a revised and substantially enlarged edition of a Reader's Guide to Literary Terms by the same authors (1960; Guide BD17). Available also in paperback at $2.95, the work makes a useful addition to the student's personal collection as well as to the library reference shelf. Petrarch: Catalogue of the Petrarch Collection in Cornell University Library (Millwood, N.Y., Kraus-Thomson, 1974. 737p. $54) reproduces the catalog cards for works by and about Petrarch in the Cornell collection and reflects the growth of that collection since publication of the 1916 Catalogue, edited by Mary Fowler (Guide BD789). Because many of the analytic notes from the earlier work have not been carried forward and because see references to that volume are provided, libraries holding the 1916 Catalogue will want to retain it in the reference collection.

Joan Aldous and Nancy Dahl are the editors of the second volume of the International Bibliography of Research in Marriage and the Family (Minneapolis, Univ. of Minn. Pr., 1974. 1530p. $35). Covering publications mainly from the 1965-72 period, the computer-produced bibliography lists some 12,870 references. It has been followed by a supplementary Inventory of Marriage and Family Literature for 1973/74 (called "v.3" and published 1975); the Inventory is to continue as an annual. An eighth supplement to A London Bibliography of the Social Sciences has just been published in three volumes (London, Mansell, 1975. £65). Like the two previous supplements (see Suppl. 3CA6), this one is reproduced from cards added to the subject catalog of the British Library of Political and Economic Science; while it represents cards filed during the 1972-73 period, many of the entries are for earlier works. Cross-references are not provided, but a "List of subject headings used in the Bibliography" is appended to v.3 as an aid to subject searching.

Frank G. Menke's Encyclopedia of Sports (Guide CB167) is now available in a fifth revised edition (South Brunswick, N.J., Barnes, 1975. 1125p. $25) with revisions by Suzanne Treat. In general, information has been updated through 1972, with some 1973 data. Elizabeth L. Post, who undertook the revisions for the twelfth edition of "Emily Post" (1969; Suppl. 3CF5), has carried the work of revision a good deal farther in The New Emily Post's Etiquette (New York, Funk & Wagnalls, 1975. 978p. $11.95). While much has been carried over from the previous edition, there are many changes, deletions, and additions designed to reflect the "openness, freedom, and informality" of life today.—E.S.
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Sellen, Betty-Carol, and Marshall, Joan K., eds. Women in a Woman's Profession: Strategies, reviewed by Sherrie S. Bergman

Christian, Roger W. The Electronic Library: Bibliographic Data Bases 1975-76, reviewed by Sylvia G. Faibisoff

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Berninghausen, David K. The Flight from Reason: Essays on Intellectual Freedom in the Academy, the Press, and the Library, reviewed by Henry Miller Madden

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Diaz, Albert James, ed. Microforms in Libraries: A Reader, reviewed by Louis A. Kenney

Sherrod, John, ed. Information Systems and Networks, reviewed by Douglas Ferguson

Other Publications of Interest to Academic Librarians

Abstracts

BOOK REVIEWS


While not the largest of the three college-library booklists published by ALA over some forty years,1 the second edition of Books for College Libraries (BCL II) is in some respects the most sophisticated. It is more than a revision of BCL I. As explained in the admirably written introduction, it is also the product of a project undertaken by ALA with a special grant from the Council on Library Resources to provide—both by selection of titles and by addition of cataloging data—"a highly selective retrospective tool [about 40,000 titles] as a counterpart to the current services of Choice" (Vol. I, p.vii; hereinafter this introduction is cited by page only from Vol. I).

Much of its interest lies in the methods followed and in the equipment used. Novel features of importance are a "sharp reduction in number of titles to a minimal 'core collection'; the expansion of individual entries to provide more complete cataloging and classification information; and the use
of automated techniques for the production of the list itself" by use of "regular MARC records issued by the Library of Congress, MARC records released by the Library of Congress especially for use in producing this publication, and records converted expressly for this collection from older Library of Congress catalog records"—this conversion being done "by contract and according to MARC standards" (p.vii). A by-product of the list, therefore, is an enlarged data base.

The first-mentioned of these departures is the striking reduction in number of titles. While nearly half again as expensive as BCL I and nearly twice as large in number of pages, the new edition presents a total of 38,651 titles in place of BCL I's "selected list of approximately 53,400 titles." BCL I includes, for example, over sixty entries for James Joyce as author or as subject; BCL II has forty-seven. The emphasis is unchanged: the list excludes periodicals and, in general, classroom texts and readers; admittedly does little with science and technology; and concentrates on monographs in the humanities and the social sciences, with very little in any language but English. "The level emphasized is not only the undergraduate library, but primarily the undergraduate user of that library, although the necessary provision for independent study by the exceptional student requires the listing of some advanced and specialized works in each field" (p.viii).

The primary responsibility for selection rests with the corps of "contributors." "Teaching scholars, specialist librarians, and staff members of several professional associations were invited to check or compile lists of books for their specialized subject fields. Many of these subject experts are Choice consultants; some worked on sections of BCL I" (p.viii). "Editorial intervention was largely limited to holding the lists to size" (p.viii). During "Stage I" (1971) working lists were compiled from BCL I, Choice (1964-1970), and bibliographies and were checked by contributors. In "Stage II" (1972- ), with a change of editor and the establishment of a special office for the project in the Boston Public Library, additional contributors were recruited, gaps were filled in, and the work of some of the earlier contributors was reviewed for balance. In music, for example, in addition to the contributions of a number of chosen specialists, the list had the advantage of ratings made by "an independently formed committee of the Music Library Association" for all BCLI music titles and for all Choice music reviews (Acknowledgments, Vol. I, p.xi). All contributors are named and thanked, and those whose work was limited to Stage I are identified "in case they may not wish to be identified with the final selection" (Acknowledgments, Vol. I, p.xi). It is difficult to see how, in a matter of judgment, the editors could have proceeded with greater intelligence or conscientiousness than is evidenced in this list. And since their product is admittedly incomplete—a "highly recommended" selection to be supplemented by each library according to its own educational requirements—they have largely disarmed faultfinders.

The most striking difference between BCL II and its predecessors is its thorough exploitation of the ready-made cataloging available from MARC and the Library of Congress. The primary role of the editorial staff was conceived as that of a clearinghouse "to turn lists of recommended titles into catalog entries without handling the books themselves" (p.viii). Editions selected by the staff (preferably in-print hardcover American editions at minimum prices) were checked against the MARC data base held by the computer contractor, and LC catalog cards for those not already included were converted to MARC standards and added to the base, all MARC data elements being tagged for retrievability even though certain of them were not printed in the present list. There was editorial revision for uniformity and consistency in details. For some entries original cataloging was necessary. The computer sorted the entries and generated indexes of "authors," covering "all main entries (except title) and all joint authors, editors, translators, and institutions associated with the authorship of the work—in short, all tracings (except title and series) numbered with Roman numerals on LC printed cards"; and "titles," covering "main-entry titles, all title-page titles whether traced or
not, and variant titles if traced” (p.ix). The subject index, on the other hand, is not derived mechanically from traced subject headings but is a selection of nonpersonal LC subject headings with references to class numbers, not to single works. It is explained that a complete printout of traced subject headings would have required an extra volume (p.ix).

This scale of indexing is one reason for the bulk of BCL II by comparison with the more comprehensive, yet more compact BCL I. Another factor is the full cataloging detail—complete except for bibliography and contents notes, prices, and citations of foreign bibliographies, these unprinted but tagged items being retrievable from the data base. The multivolume format (with items serially numbered within each volume) was adopted in order to keep physical volumes small, to permit continuous revision, one volume at a time; and to facilitate simultaneous use of the list by more than one reader (p.ix).

Unlike BCL I, which grouped entries loosely in subject blocks based on LC class numbers, BCL II is a “shelflist,” with entries presented in strict LC call-number order. Topical headings are used to break up the pages, which are legible and attractive. Certain broad classes are moved out of alphabetical sequence for practical convenience. Each of the five subject volumes contains the full introduction and the general acknowledgments, with the addition of the appropriate subject lists of contributors for the particular volume.

Since the classification scheme used was not devised for a college library, it is easy to pick out objectionable details. Scientific and Technical Societies of the United States and Canada, being classed in A with “General Works,” falls into the “Humanities” volume. Especially unfortunate in a multivolume set is the separation of subject bibliographies in Z from the corresponding subject literatures in other classes. The Chicorel Theater Index to Plays in Anthologies, Periodicals, Discs, and Tapes, the Short Story Index, and the Bibliography of Comparative Literature (Baldensperger and Friederich) are classed in Z (Bibliography) and placed in Volume V with “Science” and escape the subject index. The reader working on “History” (Vol. III) must look in Volume V for the Harvard Guide to American History (classed in “National Bibliography”) and the American Historical Association’s Guide to Historical Literature (classed in “Subject Bibliography”). The only “national bibliographies” listed for France are subject bibliographies of philology or history, which belong with the appropriate subject classes. It is fortunate that, since the Library of Congress has begun to provide alternate subject class numbers for subject bibliographies, a better arrangement of subject bibliographies can be looked for in future editions of BCL.

It is disheartening to find that the obsolescence that is inevitable in a list of this sort has already set in. The editions listed of Cassell’s Encyclopaedia of World Literature, the Columbia Encyclopedia, the Encyclopaedia Britannica, the Harvard Guide to American History, and Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary have all been superseded by new editions. It is but a matter of time before much of this carefully drawn up list, representing the “necessary” four-fifths of a minimum-essentials college library (largely in terms of in-print American editions), will be out of date. In view of current financial pressures it would seem that an investment of this size can be justified only if it can be kept useful by conscientious, continuing revision in the light of current listings from Choice. It is encouraging to find that this requirement has been kept in mind in the work on BCL II. “Through the cooperation of Choice and the corps of BCL II contributors and through the use of computer technology, the organization, the subject and bibliographic skills, and the machinery exist to maintain a continuing and useful service to the undergraduate library” (p.ix).

BCL II is a credit to the sponsors, the contributors, and the editors: Richard Tetreau (Stage I) and Virginia Clark (Stage II).—Robert Woodman Wadsworth, Bibliographer for English, Librarianship, and General Humanities, The University of Chicago Library.

References


The urgent need to develop specific strategies to end sex discrimination in librarianship is underscored by the concurrent publication of proceedings of two conferences concerning the status of women in the profession.

The Rutgers symposium, more traditional in format, included delivery of papers with audience discussion. Harold Wooster's failure, "How the Library Changed Its Spots—An Ain't So Story," is followed by Anita R. Schiller's "Sex and Library Careers," a historical and statistical review of occupational inequality between the sexes:

Whatever occupation we examine ... very consistently ... women earn lower salaries than men ... are concentrated in the lower level jobs, and ... tend to be segregated into those positions that are typed for the female sex. ... It is not due simply to the willful discrimination of prejudiced males [but] ... institutional conditions—social, economic and cultural (p.14).

Especially pertinent for academic librarians is her analysis of varying career patterns of men and women librarians:

Women librarians are more likely to work in school libraries, where about nine out of every ten librarians are women, than in libraries of other types, and least so in academic libraries, where the corresponding figure is just over six out of ten. However, if work in each type of library is ranked by the level of esteem it is accorded, the ranking is ordered precisely in reverse ... academic libraries are at the top and school libraries at the bottom (p.15).

Psychologist Carol W. Sherif's "Dreams and Dilemmas of Being a Woman Today" pokes holes in sociological and psychological arguments about women's competence, sexuality, and mental health which are advanced to maintain the status quo. Herman Greenberg, personnel officer for The Free Library of Philadelphia, finds "Sex Discrimination Against Women in Libraries" to be largely non-existent. Lively rebuttal to his remarks is included in the text of the discussion.

Both this volume and Women in a Woman's Profession include the bibliography Women in Librarianship, 1920–1973, an excellent comprehensive chronological listing of English-language materials. (It should be noted that Ms. Myers has recently issued an updated edition.)

The appendix to Women in Librarianship also includes the useful reference chart,
“Federal Laws and Regulations Concerning Sex Discrimination in Educational Institutions, October 1972.”

The first Preconference on the Status of Women in Librarianship was planned as an action-oriented feminist experience:

The direction was always to consider specific problem areas and potential strategies for solution. From the beginning it was intended that the preconference would utilize talents and abilities already present among women librarians and not call upon experts or big names outside the profession (Introduction).

The brief history of how female librarians have organized themselves since 1969, in the introduction, points up the need for a definitive history of the role of women in libraries.

The first general session was opened by Anita Schiller with “Librarians and the Domestication of the Consciousness,” exploring why librarianship is a woman’s profession. The second general session consisted of reports by rank-and-file librarians, “resource people,” on self-image, education, affirmative action, career development, unions, regional and local organizing, and tactics. These served as a starting point for the next day’s workshops, whose form and content were determined by participants. The final action session consisted of workshop reports and the strategies formulated.

The preconference was meant to be a base for future actions and organization of female librarians. (A second preconference was held in 1975.)

Personal reactions to the preconference, lists of participants’ names and addresses, and films shown appear at the end. Photographs enliven the text. Unfortunately, the volume was poorly edited, containing numerous glaring typographical and grammatical errors. This shortcoming becomes understandable when it is realized that the editors commendably managed to publish the proceedings less than one year after the conference.

Hopefully, the two volumes, more interesting than most proceedings, will have a consciousness-raising effect on both female and male librarians (not just decision-making administrators, but staff members unhappy with low salaries and unequal bene-

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fits) to examine the personnel, salary, and staff situations in their libraries and to define possible actions for amelioration of existing inequalities.

Both of these volumes should be purchased for the professional collections of all libraries. They present a challenge to our profession to assume leadership with the other ranking female professions of education and nursing in the nationwide battle to end discrimination.—Sherrie S. Bergman, College Librarian, Wheaton College, Norton, Massachusetts.


The impact of on-line retrieval systems permitting interactive communication between the computer and the user may well be reflected in the recent upsurge in the use of machine-readable data bases and may result in an even greater proliferation of library networks in the future. However, even with the off-line capability, the database industry and library networks have been growing so rapidly since 1970 that it has been a problem to keep up with developments in both areas. Both of the reports here reviewed fall short of the goal when they attempt to project the state of the art in the growth of bibliographic data bases through 1976 and in the development of library networks through 1975.

For the price of these two publications, and even in spite of the price of these publications, they can in no way compare with the excellent chapters on machine-readable data bases by Gechman (Annual Review of Information Science and Technology [ARIST], 1972) and Williams (ARIST, 1974) or on library networks by Miller and Tighe (ARIST, 1975). Of the two works issued by Knowledge Industry Publications, however, my reaction to The Electronic Library, by Roger W. Christian, was far more positive than to Library Networks, with Seth Goldstein as its general editor. The latter would profit immeasurably by being returned to the editing board. In fairness to both authors, however, I should indicate that neither attempts to be comprehensive, but each tries to be selective in his respective presentation. It is to Christian's credit that he does not attempt an in-depth analysis of the data-base industry, but focuses instead on the structure of the industry. He presents a "brief sampling of the wares and modus operandi of representative data base publishers, indicating not only their scope and variations, but their similarities."

Christian discusses three aspects of the industry: the role of the publisher or producer of machine-readable data bases; the role of the distributors or vendors who provide access to published data bases, including the purveyors of the communication facilities that link on-line data-base vendors to their subscribers; and, finally, the role of the users (libraries, research and development, and the general public). With a series of effective brush strokes he sketches the contributions of such major nonprofit and commercial publishers as the National Technical Information Service, the American Chemical Society, the United Engineering Center, INSPEC, and the Institute of Scientific Information. He discusses the marketing techniques and services of the major vendors such as Systems Development Corporation and Lockheed, as well as provides a brief insight into the operations of the smaller vendors or the third-tier retailers. Christian points out that the structure of the industry is confusing, and that a chaotic competition appears to exist between private enterprise, the federal government, and government-subsidized services.

In his final chapters, Christian reviews the effect of the industry on libraries and those problems confronting the user relative to cost of the service, charging of fees for information, the redundant coverage of the literature, and the problem of training the
users versus providing an intermediary. Although the publication is worth reading, it is quite probable that its price and scope may limit distribution.

My initial reaction to Goldstein's work was negative. His work is poorly composed, is often grammatically incorrect and, most jarring of all, frequently contains factual inaccuracies. With all due respect, OCLC was not the first of the computerized cataloging networks, although no one would argue that it is one of the more extensive; nor did FAUL spend $13.2 million dollars on its operations in 1974, as one might infer from the statement presented by Goldstein. Furthermore, one seeking to find a definition of the term network should not attempt to locate it here. His definition, "Library networks . . . are any coalition formed by a group of similar or dissimilar libraries to share resources and centralized processing with one another," lends itself to systems, consortia, or cooperatives as well as to networks.

On the positive side, Goldstein does attempt to restrict his study to a brief overview of computerized cataloging networks. Although predominantly concerned with an analysis of OCLC, the author does discuss regional developments, such as NELINET, BALLOTS, and PALINET, and very briefly touches upon the development in SUNY, FAUL, and CUNY. He also provides a selected directory of eighteen computerized cataloging networks, for which he includes information on location, membership, administration, equipment, status, and funding.

The audience for whom these publications are intended is not quite clear. Neither publication is specialized enough for the information scientist; both are of limited interest to the general public. The price of both may certainly preclude purchase. However, academic and research libraries or library schools with comprehensive collections might consider allocating funds for Christian's book.—Sylvia G. Faibisoff, Graduate School of Library Science, University of Illinois, Urbana.


'Tis a pity that America's state of society requires as distinguished a librarian as Mr. Berninghausen to divert his energies from teaching librarianship to apprentice librarians to explaining to them and, in this book, to a journeyman audience as well, the necessity of defending the ideas of John Stuart Mill (now 116 years old). But such is our state, and his observations are not amiss.

The reviewer of any book on this subject faces a task which is vaguely distasteful. He regrets, first of all, that the subject must be written about. Second, he doubts that the book will either reach or convert the hearth. Third, he cannot escape the feeling that a dead horse is being flogged. Finally, he probably finds himself in such general agreement with the author that he is reduced to enumerating the contents or to echoing, in truncated form, the major points. So reduced, let me say that seven of the eight essays appear to be here published for the first time; the eighth is a re-
print from *Library Journal* of October 15, 1967. Four of the essays are concerned directly with librarianship, and the remainder with communications, including those of academia; an appendix gives the text of the proceedings and findings in the case of Mrs. Joan Bodger of the Missouri State Library.

Mr. Berninghausen's views are those of the traditional libertarian; they therefore express little previously unknown to any librarian of any experience, but they should be useful to those who know naught of *On Liberty*. This would appear to include 95 percent of the entering class of a well-known school of librarianship, which, by extension, does not speak well of the corpus of undergraduate learning brought to the graduate school. The volume could therefore be of great use and value to survey courses in the principles of librarianship, particularly because of the examples of suppression of writings and ideas, many of which are drawn from the author's experience of over a quarter-century. The more advanced reader, however, will find that the disorderly structure imposed, of necessity, by the assembly of diverse essays does not lead to an orderly progression of ideas. The book contains good, topical material; twenty years hence, however, it will probably be referred to only for its illustrative material drawn from the two decades between McCarthy and Nixon. It is probably vain to hope that it will not be referred to because the subject will be a dead one.—*Henry Miller Madden, University Librarian, California State University, Fresno.*

Shackleton, Robert. *Censure and Censorship: Impediments to Free Publication in the Age of Enlightenment.* (Fifth Annual Lew David Feldman Lectureship in Bibliography.) (Bibliographical Monograph Series, No.8) Austin: University of Texas, Humanities Research Center, 1975. 26p. $4.95. (LC 72-619567)

Bodley's librarian tells a lucid, even fascinating, story of some applications of censorship ("examination of a text before publication, by someone in authority, with a view to ascertaining its fitness to appear") and censure ("examination of a text, after publication, with a view to deciding whether it had been fit to appear") in the eighteenth century. Examples of censorship are drawn from France, and of censure from France and Rome—notably the Congregation of the Index. The author points out the degree of flexibility which existed among the royal censors in France, and the various loopholes which enabled the publication of such works as Helvétius' *De l'esprit* and the Abbé de Prades' thesis. After reading this bright essay, one somehow feels safer with the censors of the eighteenth century than with the censurers of twentieth-century America.

The handsome little volume is marred by a heavy ligature ff, which is particularly noticeable on p.23.—*Henry Miller Madden, University Librarian, California State University, Fresno.*


This important volume owes its origin to the initiative of Unesco. In 1968 it made a contract with IFLA for a survey of standards for libraries of all types in different countries. Fortunately, this complex task was entrusted to an authority, F. N. Withers, research associate, the Polytechnic of North London School of Librarianship, and a former official of the Department of Education and Science in London. He prepared this survey as a document in 1970. It was so well received that he revised and expanded it for general distribution in 1974.

Repeatedly, this reviewer has been concerned with library standards abroad, e.g., when editing the issue of *Library Trends*, October 1972, on standards and most recently in an article on the subject to be published in volume 16 of the *Encyclopedia of Library and Information Science*. He knows from these experiences how difficult it is to assemble up-to-date documents on the subject. Withers deserves a great deal of credit for having gathered together a wealth of information. He has been able to make use of pertinent materials not only from the Anglo-Saxon countries, but also from many other parts of the world. Includ-
ed are, among others, France, the two Germanies, the USSR, Belgium, Scandinavia, Hungary, and Poland; also Japan, India, Singapore, South Africa, and Mexico are more or less adequately represented. But the survey has still considerable gaps, e.g., concerning South America. One would wish to see them filled in another edition.

Withers has organized the material according to types of libraries. National libraries receive limited space only. Libraries in universities and colleges are more amply covered. Withers is well aware of the difficulty in making valid quantitative comparisons between academic libraries in different countries (and often even different institutions in the same country). He provides extensive abstracts from important standard documents. For instance, his summary of the ALA Standards for College Libraries (1959) occupies almost seven pages. The Canadian University Library Standards (1964), the recommendations of the Wissenschaftsrat for scholarly libraries in West Germany (1964), and the Standards for Colleges of Technology issued by the British Library Association (1971) are reproduced in considerable detail, to give but three other examples.

About half of the volume is devoted to public libraries. This rich coverage is due to the fact that standards for them have been developed in many countries. School libraries and special libraries receive much less space. The last chapter deals with the difficult subject of standards for library service in developing countries. Asked by Unesco, Withers has prepared a set of standards which might be applied in developing countries, but he recognizes the fact that the level of library service depends not only on the desire but on the capacity of a country to provide the resources needed.

Withers has been successful in avoiding partisanship and hasty judgments. The text reads well. Surprising for a publication on libraries, it lacks a comprehensive bibliography and an index. Nevertheless, this is an essential purchase for larger academic libraries.—Felix E. Hirsch, Professor Emeritus, Trenton State College.

Thomson, Sarah Katharine. Learning Re-


Statistical studies of community college libraries supported by empirical knowledge obtained by visits of informed investigators have long been needed so that valid quantitative standards may be developed. Thomson, familiar with the community college as well as an experienced surveyor, provides a solid research report which can be of great use in understanding the problems and services of such two-year institutions.

Twenty-seven community colleges in ten states were selected from among the forty with the largest expenditures. Each was visited so that financial data could be interpreted in relation to services provided. Only partial budget data were available from some of them, limiting certain conclusions.

The study confirms the greater involvement in instruction, the comprehensiveness of learning resources programs, and the difficulty in obtaining comparable financial data. The extent of computer utilization,
both in instruction and in daily operations, is but one difference from the four-year institutions which is reflected in the philosophy of the community college as reported.

The most useful aspect of the report is the synthesis of interviews of staff members of the various institutions which provide a framework within which the budget is used to interpret the services provided. As a result this is a document which can be used to evaluate possible services and to justify budget requests for expansion of services or staff. College financial and administrative officers could read the report with profit. Its best uses will come from the clearer understanding of the functions of the learning resources programs provided and as a source of management data for budget planning until a more comprehensive study is possible.—James O. Wallace, Director of Learning Resources, San Antonio College, San Antonio, Texas.


This volume contains the papers of a seminar sponsored by the Ligue des bibliothèques européennes de recherche (LIBER), held in 1972 at the University of Sussex, Great Britain, dealing with the acquisition of materials from the “Third World.” The introduction states that the purpose of the meeting was “to examine the problems of acquisition [of Third World publications]; the availability of materials in European libraries both for reference and for lending; and the feasibility of setting up a European centre for the collection of such material, to be available for loan.” These designs were clearly within the scope of LIBER’s intentions which include a special effort to encourage cooperative relationships among the research libraries of Western Europe.

The recommendations offered by the seminar are largely predictable, somewhat lacking in specificity, and reminiscent of the aims and objectives of such antecedent efforts as NPAC, LACAP, and the Farmington Plan. The seminar suggests, for example, that the acquisition of Third World material is important to meet the needs of scholars, that at least one copy of this published material should be available in a library in Europe, and that the collecting of this material must proceed from cooperation with library and book trade centers in countries of the Third World. The seminar further recommends that LIBER should establish a “working party” to undertake the implementation of these proposals.

It is particularly encouraging to note, however, that the seminar placed special emphasis on the need for general availability as opposed to widespread ownership of these materials, going so far as to suggest the establishment of a European lending library for Third World publications. In addition, the seminar made specific mention of the need to ensure the availability of information concerning the location of loanable copies. Too often, much ado is made about interlibrary loan in lieu of local ownership, but unless the scholar is provided with quick and easy information regarding alternate locations, much time and effort is lost or repeated.

The real strength of this publication is to be found in the content of the chapters of the individual contributors. One hesitates to single out any of the papers on grounds that to do so would suggest that the rest are somewhat pedestrian by comparison. It is perhaps sufficient to note that here are to be found theoretical considerations for the head of collection development, practical suggestions for the acquisitions librarians, and historical perspectives for the student. In short, the collection of parts is greater than their sum.

As is so often the case with the publication of conference proceedings, this volume did not appear until two years after the close of the seminar. It is regrettable that the publishing cycle frequently introduces such inordinate delays, and we are perhaps fortunate that the hiatus was not greater in this instance.—J. Michael Bruer, Associate University Librarian, New York University.

This book brings together and reprints some of the best basic recent microform literature selected from professional library journals and other sources. Both students and practicing librarians would benefit from reading the most significant articles. No one would want to read it from beginning to end, because a work consisting of reprints of forty-two articles on various aspects of microforms without any cutting is bound to suffer from repetitiousness and other weaknesses.

These readings cover most basic microforms knowledge and tell the experiences of academic librarians and some other authors concerning the organization, bibliographic control, selection, and use problems of microforms. It will be especially practical and useful to new microforms managers in libraries with collections of more than 15,000 microform units.

The editor’s introductory essays at the beginning of the six subject sections are good. The many bibliographies are excellent.

It would be preferable had the editor written an encyclopedic-type essay on each of the six major topics covered: introduction to microforms, organizing the microform collection, bibliographic control, applications, standards, and user reactions. Thus redundancies could have been removed, many passages synthesized, and the documentary sources put in an appendix.

These shortcomings are mentioned: (1) the same information appears in several articles; (2) lack of an index is a serious fault; (3) authors are not identified; (4) despite the compiler’s statement to the contrary some articles are excessively technical; (5) the text is “processed,” the print is small, and there are typographical errors; (6) an occasional article is too old; and (7) varying styles of writing hurt readability.

Despite shortcomings this book would be helpful to managers of large microforms collections for the general and technical information on microforms conveniently as-

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assembled here in one volume. It is not an essential reference work.—Louis A. Kenney, Director of Library Services, San Diego State University.


If you like Irish stew this book is for you. Hidden behind a vague title is a symposium on on-line interactive data base services. The Data Base Industry, or more accurately the Data Base Complex, embraces activities ranging from creating data bases to providing data base services to end-users. It faces issues of design, economics, organization, and user requirements, and hardware-software-telecommunication arrangements.

The actors in the data base drama are: organizations that create and often publish data bases; organizations that produce machine-readable versions of data bases; organizations that provide software access to data bases; organizations that supply telecommunication connections; organizations that offer services directly to users or to intermediaries such as librarians, research organizations, and their funders; the administrators and staffs of these organizations; and the end-users themselves. Most of the actors are represented in the symposium.

The issues facing these actors include the optimal design of data bases, of hardware, of software, and of service interfaces. They include issues of financing development and operation, of subsidizing and recovering costs, and of marketing and pricing services. Issues relating to users include the characteristics of various user groups, their work requirements, and the system and service functions that best meet these requirements.

Most of these issues are covered in varying depth in the symposium. Some of the more substantive presentations are Roy Kidman's statement of the harsh constraints on academic libraries in offering on-line services; Thomas Martin's review of alternatives in designing interactive retrieval software; Donald King and Raymond Brown's economic model for decisions on using interactive services; Benes Lientz's quantification of factors in deciding to secure computer services through a network; Kenneth Siler's description of criteria for evaluating data base management systems; and Paul Zurkowski's discussion of the role of the marketplace in providing access to information. In addition, there are lucid discussions of data bases and services in areas such as toxicology, medicine, aerospace, biology, and chemistry. Historical and summary papers offer background information for the nontechnical reader.

The virtue of this symposium is that the main actors and issues in the Data Base Complex are represented. Its defect is a lack of a unifying plot that highlights the parties at issue and the alternatives each face. The papers appear one after the other, covering an astonishingly wide range, more like a drama festival than an evening with Ibsen. The symposium advances our ability to reach an integrated understanding of what commercial, academic, professional, and governmental groups must do to make interactive services better and supportable. Librarians, systems personnel, administrators, and business people will each find several valuable papers in this symposium. The organizers deserve credit for making the proceedings available rapidly.

—Douglas Ferguson, Stanford University Libraries, Stanford, California.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS

Alloman, Katherine A. *A Reference Guide to Postsecondary Education Data Sources; A Directory to Data Sources Corresponding to Items in the NCHEMS Statewide Measures Inventory*. Boulder, Colo.: National Center for Higher Education Management Systems at Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1975. 1v. unpaged. $12.00.

American Library Association. Office for Library Service to the Disadvantaged. *Multi-Ethnic Media; Selected Bibliogra-


Energy Information Resources; An Inventory of Energy Research and Develop-


Film Literature Index. Albany, N.Y.: Film­dex, Inc., 1973–. $125.00, quarterly.


Look, Listen, Explain: Developing Community Library Services for Young Adults. Chicago: American Library Association, Young Adult Services Division, 1975. 24p. $2.00. (ISBN 0-8389-3171-5)


Research in Parapsychology 1974; Abstracts and Papers from the Seventeenth Annual Convention of the Parapsychological Association, 1974. Ed. by J. D.

Sackton, Alexander, comp. T. S. Eliot Collection of the University of Texas at Austin. Austin: The Humanities Research Center, University of Texas at Austin, 1975. 407p. $18.95. (LC 70-169270)


Vexler, Robert I. The Vice-Presidents and Cabinet Members; Biographies Arranged Chronologically by Administration. Dobbs Ferry, N.Y.: Oceana, 1975. 2v. $25.00 per vol. (LC 75-28085) (ISBN 0-379-12089-5, v.1; 0-379-12090-9, v.2)


Wynar, Lubomir R. Ethnic Groups in Ohio with Special Emphasis on Cleveland; An Annotated Bibliographical Guide. Cleveland: Cleveland Ethnic Heritage Studies Development Program, Cleveland State University, 1975. 254p. $6.50.

ABSTRACTS

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.

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An automated project for converting a library collection from Dewey Decimal to Library of Congress classification was compared with a manual reclassification project. The Joint University Libraries (JUL) served as an example of manual reclassification. The JUL project processed 260,703 volumes, less than half of the total collection, in six years. Automated reclassification was studied at Western Kentucky University. In that project, a computer was used to maintain a master file and to print working list, author-title book catalogs, labels, pockets, and circulation cards. An automated circulation system was developed as a by-product of the reclassification project. The project was finished in two years, having processed 390,000 volumes. Comparative cost data were not available for study. Suggestions from JUL for manual reclassification projects are included.


The feasibility of developing cooperative arrangements for sharing exotic foreign-language serial titles among the health sciences libraries of California was investigated. Preliminary circulation counts indicated that 74 percent of the seventy-seven titles counted had circulated twice a year or less and that the health sciences libraries do maintain multiple subscriptions to those titles. Because the National Library of Medicine is encouraging cooperative programs among health sciences libraries and because the libraries represented in this study now have access to an on-line serials data base to aid in the implementation of such arrangements, there exist the incentive and the means to initiate some cooperative arrangements. The study results indicate that exotic foreign-language serials might be a useful category with which to begin. Some particular titles are suggested for consideration.

Methodology and Background Information to Assist the Planning of Serials Cancellations and Cooperative Serials Collection in the Health Sciences. By Charles P. Bourne and Dorothy Gregor. Inst. of Library Research, Univ. of California, Berkeley. 1975. 69p. (ED 104 409, MF—$0.76, HC—$3.32)

To aid in controlling the cost of acquisitions in a research library, techniques were developed for the rational selection of serial titles for cancellation. The context for the proposed methodology was a network or multicampus environment rather than an individual library, and it was tested with a specific body of health sciences serial titles in the University of California library system and in Region XI of the National Library of Medicine's Biomedical Communications Network. Background data were collected on about 600 current foreign-language serial titles. Employing several different decision rules, estimates were made of the subscription cost savings that might be realized in the network. It appeared feasible to extend the same method-
ology to other groups of serial titles.

The Use Status of Books Requested from the University of California, Berkeley, Inter-Library Loan. By Barbara Nozik. Inst. of Library Research, Univ. of California, Berkeley. 1974. 18p. (ED 104 411, MF—$0.76, HC—$1.58)

The validity of the assumption that those documents which are requested from a University of California (UC) library by the California State University and Colleges (CSUC) campuses through interlibrary loan are the "low use" items, according to the in-house circulation statistics of the lending institution, was tested. This was one of the assumptions from the California State Audits Division analysis of the opportunities for increasing UC-CSUC library cooperation. In this study, however, approximately 57 percent of the CSUC requested material had "high use" status on the UCB home campus.

Interlibrary Loan Turnaround Time: A Study of Performance Characteristics of the University of California, Berkeley, Interlibrary Loan Lending Operation. By Charles R. Martell, Jr. Inst. of Library Research, Univ. of California, Berkeley. 1975. 43p. (ED 104 413, MF—$0.76, HC—$1.95)

Data from the interlibrary loan lending office files at the University of California, Berkeley, for 1971-72 were examined in order to determine the pattern of interlibrary loan traffic with other University of California campuses and California State Universities and Colleges (CSUC) in northern California. Turnaround time for the average California State University, Sacramento, request to Berkeley was more than twenty days. Other CSUC campuses had similar delays for comparable processing intervals. These results indicate a need for significant changes in current interlibrary loan procedures before the implementation of a dedicated interlibrary loan delivery system based on a twenty-four-hour turnaround time.

A Classification System and Procedure Manual for Cataloging Textbooks in a University Library Curriculum Labora-


The textbook cataloging and classification scheme described was developed to assist students in gaining easy access to the textbook collection of the Herbert H. Lehman College Library. Textbooks are cataloged in three basic divisions: texts for grades one through six, texts for grades seven through twelve, and texts which overlap or can be used at both the elementary and secondary level. Each text is further cataloged by subject area, and a specially developed taxonomy has been created for that purpose. Examples of the cataloging procedures are provided as they were applied to selected books.


The University of Calgary Library has developed an automated information system to aid decision making in the area of collections development. The traditional format for collections policies is a written description of the areas and levels where a particular institution is collecting actively. Using a computer-based management information system permits frequent and rapid updating by entering new data as required. The departmental library coordinators and the subject specialists work together to ensure that the system reflects present priorities. The system enables the library administration and the various advisory committees to obtain up-to-date information by having a sort done of the pertinent data fields.


Budgeting and accounting control of serials are examined based on a survey of 100 academic and public libraries. The ques-
tionnaire used in the survey stressed classification and encumbering of serials but was open-ended to encourage commentary. The lack of consensus among respondents regarding budgetary control of serials precluded the development of a formal procedural model, but the methods used by a few of the libraries are presented as guidelines.


The Institute of Professional Librarians of Ontario suggests that these guidelines be the minimum requirements for the employment of a registered professional librarian. Under conditions of employment, the guidelines provide for an employment contract, a probation period, job security, and promotion opportunities. Methods are suggested for making appointments and terminating employment. Under conditions of work, a thirty-five-hour work week and a twenty-day paid vacation are recommended. Other types of leave, fringe benefits, evaluation and grievance procedures, and opportunities for continuing education and professional development are also suggested.


A six-month internship at the Stanford University Library allowed the author to observe the processes of setting objectives, planning services and programs, coordinating activities, and motivating personnel to work for common goals both within and outside the library, and to draw conclusions from this experience relevant to her own library. This report outlines the segments of the internship program and the observations made on the structure of library governance at Stanford. An analysis is made of the value of the internship program and its implications for changes in management style.

**A Comparison of the 1960 Standards and 1972 Guidelines for Community College Libraries.** By John Lewis. 1975. 10p. (ED 105 885, MF—$0.76, HC—$1.58)

The history of efforts to establish standards for junior college libraries is outlined. The 1960 “Standards for Junior College Libraries” and the 1972 “Guidelines for Two Year College Learning Resources Programs” are broken down into eight main subject areas and compared item by item. The 1972 guidelines are shown to be more general, avoiding quantitative measures. Changes are noted in the stated goals of the library and in the head librarian’s control of the budget.

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<th>Age at Issue</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>$187</td>
<td>$235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>$235</td>
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<tr>
<td>35</td>
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<td>45</td>
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<tr>
<td>50</td>
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</table>

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Cash Dividend End of First Year
First Year Net Payment

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97 113 142 188 285

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