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"To Enlarge the Sphere of Human Knowledge": The Role of the Independent Research Library

Unlike the other contributions to this series, the present article does not deal with the college and university scene. What then is the role of the independent research library in such a context? The answer, of course, lies in the partnership which these distinctive institutions share with academic libraries in supporting and structuring the pursuit of scholarly research. By supplementing the resources provided in the nation’s academic libraries, these independent institutions do help to enlarge the sphere of human knowledge—as stated in the objectives of one of this group. A better perspective will be gained of the contribution made by these libraries now and through the past hundred years if their profile and place in the historical scene are briefly developed. A look at the principal categories of independent libraries and some of the outstanding examples will conclude with a review of their special services and some of the changes which they have undergone.

Nature of the Independent Libraries

The phrase “independent research library” is a relatively new tag and in order to be understood must often be continued with: “such as Folger, Newberry, etc.” Their recognition as a genre began to coalesce in late 1971 in a meeting at the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and in May 1972 the Independent Research Libraries Association (IRLA) was founded. The initial stimulus for their joining derived from the Tax Reform Act of 1969, with the threat (later actualized for some) of classification as private foundations and their ineligibility for federal funding under the Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) and the Higher Education Act (HEA). A host of other common problems and interests continue to occupy IRLA members at their regular meetings.

In a broad sense, independent research libraries are not limited to the fifteen IRLA members. The overall qualifying characteristic relates to the word “research,” as noted above, which defines the role which they fill vis-à-vis the academic libraries. While most of the institutions to be noted herein are fairly large, the relevance of a few smaller libraries warrants their inclusion as part of the spectrum. Separately, each institution answers to the definition of “research library” put forward by the American Council of Learned Societies:
Research libraries may be defined as institutions whose collections are organized primarily to the needs of scholars and so to facilitate effective action on the frontier of every field of knowledge, traditional and novel.¹

Together, these libraries represent a distinctive and largely unique segment of the total resource for scholarly study and research in this country.

Other special characteristics of the independent research libraries have contributed to the formation of collections with parameters particularly adapted to the world of research.² The principal distinguishing feature is their freestanding status—not being part of a larger institution (as is a university library), a municipal body (as is a city public library), or a corporate entity (as are company, museum, or federal agency libraries). The independent library generally operates under its own charter or articles of incorporation, has its own board of directors or trustees and issues its own financial statement and annual report. The library’s function and objective are to bring together the corpus of records necessary to intellectual inquiry in one or more disciplines, in dimensions as complete as possible, and with the optimum provision of scholarly apparatus and physical convenience.

The basis of their collection building may be usefully contrasted with academic and public libraries. In academe, response must be made to changing curricular needs, to shifting research interests of academic staff, and to project-oriented research; the public library, too, must answer to the reading interests of the hour, across a wide range of person-specific demands. These user demands thus shape the collections. The independent library, on the other hand, focuses on a relatively narrow segment of human knowledge and seeks to maintain eminence therein. The boundaries are sharpened by the nature of retrospective collections becoming available and current research output and publications acquired. At the same time, a policy of collecting broadly within a field of interest prepares the library to respond broadly to scholarly inquiry. In a very real sense, the collection thus shapes its readership, which tends to be not exclusively local but regional, national, international, and of high scholarly repute. Access to nearly all these collections is uniformly open, without restriction to any particular affiliation or membership; because of the physical nature of the materials and limitations of reader facilities, any screening (when necessary) must be based on competence and specific need.

The fiscal support of the independent libraries varies according to their institutional nature. The present discussion sets up four primary groupings: subscription—proprietary, scientific society, historical society, and donor endowed. The principal funding source may be distinctive to each category, although income is generally derived from all feasible sources: memberships, endowments, fees, grants, sales, etc. Until 1973–74, these libraries received no benefits of tax support, being excluded from eligibility for HEA and LSCA funding. In the first instance, they did not qualify as “educational institutions,” despite their near-exclusive use by academic personnel; in the second instance, not being tax-supported disqualified them as “public libraries,” despite being accessible to the public. Since the 1972 HEA amendment, most have received annual basic grants; while the 1973 LSCA amendments technically qualified the independent libraries, these funds have been channeled in other directions by the controlling state agencies.

RELATIONSHIP TO AMERICAN LIBRARY HISTORY

It should be noted that, while of research significance today, each type of
independent library came into being in response to contemporary needs at a certain period in American history. Significant library developments since 1876 trace their origins even to the colonial era. Early library facilities were a far cry from those available even in the centennial year. Prior to the American Revolution, the only significant collections of books had been brought from England and were in the hands of individual scholars. In perhaps the earliest cooperative venture, some sixty societies of owners were recorded before 1776, pooling separate collections for a wider range of inquiry. These were succeeded by subscription libraries, whose support came from annual fees paid by those desiring use privileges; this arrangement afforded access by a much wider audience. As characterized by one of their eminent directors, proprietary and subscription libraries flourished greatly just before the reorganization of social forces that brought about modern American democracy. They were, indeed, the forerunners of the public library movement in several respects, laying emphasis on and tailoring service to the localized needs of the subscribers. These needs, popular or scholarly, established the individual patterns which thereafter provided the shaping precedents.

The intellectual forces of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries tended to cluster about the fledgling colleges and the churches. Yet many individuals of active mind came together in other groupings as well, including societies with various interests. Benjamin Franklin, wishing to foster a "constant correspondence" of learned men throughout the colonies, organized the American Philosophical Society in 1743, the first of many learned societies. In due course, it assembled a library for its members' use, largely but not exclusively devoted to science. Similarly, those who nurtured pride in the new country and its political components brought into being the historical societies for the study and collecting of landmark documents and the artifacts of the burgeoning land of new freedom and new culture.

Of public libraries as we know them, the country's first century had none, yet the foundations were being laid. The subscription libraries grew and prospered; most of all, the concept of a fully literate people, venerated since the Revolution, began to take form and substance. Educational reforms in the 1830s established the principle of tax-supported school systems for all children; public secondary schools began to displace the private academies. By the mid-nineteenth century, the thrust was developing toward public libraries as a rightful handmaiden of individual education. Neither the church- nor academically based library would suit the practical knowledge needs of the general populace and the energetically maturing nation. The Bingham Library for Youth in Salisbury, Connecticut (1803), and the Peterborough, New Hampshire, town library (1833) had indeed sprung up; it took an 1848 Massachusetts law authorizing establishment of the Boston Public Library (extended in 1851 to other towns) to spark the public library movement. The 1853 New York conference of librarians did not catch the fire, but the 1876 Philadelphia conference did, and the public library became an established, growing institution.

This concept of the good which books could do for humankind was also firmly established in the tradesmen's and mechanics' institute libraries. In addition, it achieved visibility simultaneously with the building of personal fortunes, as corporate successes began to be achieved in the latter half of the nineteenth century. As such, it attracted the philanthropically inclined; all of the subsequently founded independent libraries came into being through the
beneficence of the well-to-do. Some were not bookmen themselves but caused endowed public libraries to be formed through bequests; others were avid collectors who wished their great holdings to be made available to the public for scholarly work and provided substantial buildings and permanent funding.

Thus did the subscription, society, and endowed libraries enter the current of intellectual development in America—indeed, of the church and the educational establishment which had custody of most formal libraries; responsive to otherwise surfacing information needs; paralleling the public library movement; and finally influenced by and benefiting from industrialization and capital successes. Not all such libraries survived by any means; many sank quietly; some of the weak were absorbed by some of the strong. Those continuing until today are undergoing change under fiscal stress and the strictures of space and unfriendly environments. But the collections established and nurtured by these survivors—some for over two hundred years—now provide to the world of scholarship a wealth of documentary resources, exceeding in the richness of their specific fields many of the collections of the academic community. Thus does the development of the independent research libraries relate to the history of their sister academic institutions; examination of the outstanding examples will add further historical perspective.

**Subscription Libraries**

At a time when the college libraries were inaccessible and unsuitable to general usage and public libraries were as yet undeveloped, the subscription library provided the means to accumulate books for the use of its fee-paying members. Benjamin Franklin’s Junto (or “Leather Apron Club”) was a discussion group: needing books to substantiate their topics, they established in 1731 the Library Company of Philadelphia, with fifty subscribers at forty shillings down and ten shillings per year. The first such library in the colonies, its main concern was to supply its members with the most recent books for leisure reading.7

The New York Society Library came into being in 1754, and the Boston Athenaeum appeared in 1807, patterned after the Athenaeum and Lyceum of Liverpool. The Boston group, originally fourteen men concerned with editing the *Monthly Anthology and Boston Review*, took pains to provide a facility particularly conducive to reading and the celebration of culture; its 1847 building (at 10% Beacon Street) is now a National Historical Landmark.8

In these subscription libraries, members and shareholders could borrow; anyone with serious purpose was admitted to read, through one means or another. Their distinctive source of income has been membership assessments; for the Library Company’s 450 members (reduced from 1913’s 909), a share costs about $20.00 with annual assessments around $8.00. The Boston Athenaeum’s 1,049 shares change hands (often by inheritance or gift) beyond the library’s ken, thus producing no income. Annual assessments and “book-tickets” for friends provide some funds. For both institutions, subsequent endowments and gifts have supplied a major underwriting.

Initially, the two collections were not “built” but grew in response to their members’ demands. The 1851 library survey by the Smithsonian’s Charles C. Jewett notes them as two of the five collections in the country having 50,000 or more volumes. The Library Company was second in size only to Harvard, having in fact served as the “library of the Congress” when it met on the first floor of Carpenters Hall in 1774 (the library then occupying the second floor). Through the acquisition of contempo-
rary publishing, private papers, and collections and the merging of smaller subscription libraries as well as the larger Loganian Library, the Library Company can now lay claim to the nation's best representation of books by, about, and printed in Philadelphia; the third largest collection of contemporary material on the Revolution; important holdings on Afro-American culture and women's rights; and eighteenth-century American and English medicine, science, industry, architecture, design, and natural history. Recognition of the truly unique character of the holdings came at several stages. By 1935 it was recommended that a change in policy be made, from a general circulating collection to a "collected" collection; a later survey firmly urged that the Library Company consider itself a "research library" thenceforth.

While the Boston Athenaeum maintained its role as a retreat for the intellect and the spirit, it nonetheless came by several notable holdings, including George Washington's personal library. Through judicious selecting in history and the arts, as well as acquisition of important publications in other fields, it accumulated a broadly representative collection of variable depths. It has recognized strength in New England colonial books and pamphlets. Perhaps its most outstanding corpus is Confederate literature and imprints—initiated by William Frederick Poole and Francis Parkman with a visit to Richmond in June 1865 and strengthened by purchase in 1944 of Justice Williams' Confederate collection.

**Scientific Societies**

While the scholarly societies came into being for purposes of intellectual inquiry and professional interests, their libraries were important focal elements of the society programs. Earliest among them, in 1743 as noted above, was the American Philosophical Society, with Benjamin Franklin as first secretary. Its first years were a period of stumbling; a rival group, the American Society for the Promotion of Useful Knowledge, stirred it to action, and a merger occurred in 1769, with Franklin now the president. His aim was to encourage men to discover and to communicate whatever discoveries might "tend to increase the Power of Man over Matter and multiply the Conveniences or Pleasures of Life." The library was recognized as a means for promoting, preserving, and making this knowledge available. By exchange of the society's *Proceedings* and other publications with similar institutions throughout the world, the library has made substantial additions to its collections.

In subsequent years, many other such institutions came into being, most also incorporating libraries: the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (1780), whose library later formed the nucleus of the new Linda Hall Library; the Boston Society of National History (1831); the New York Academy of Sciences (1818); the Albany Institute of Science (1824). The library of the New York Academy of Medicine was born with its founding body in 1847, its first acquisition being the three volumes of Paine's *Medical Commentaries*. Occasion for the founding was the looming fear of the practice of quackery and the dissemination of misinformation, which the library and the 185 charter applicants hoped to counter.

Founders and society members were the principal users of the scientific society libraries. The American Philosophical Society included officers of the federal, state, and city governments as qualified entrants; many members were also working scientists at the University of Pennsylvania and the Franklin Institute. There was little, if any, general access "without proper introduction" until about 1900, when scholars were encouraged to visit, use, and publish their
findings. Members’ dues provided the library’s support, with wealthy indi-
viduals occasionally asked to share in the cost of such prizes as the Audubon
Birds of America. The New York Academy of Medicine Library has always
been open to the public, welcoming physi-
cians, research scientists, teachers, stu-
dents, and writers. The academy now
numbers over 3,000 members; their dues
merge with endowment income and spe-
cial library fees to provide support. In
recent years government contracts have
supported substantial lending activity—
with the New York State Library and
the New York State Interlibrary Loan
(NYSILL) network and, as the New
York/Northern New Jersey Regional
Medical Library, with the National Li-
brary of Medicine.

The academy’s collections are perhaps
not atypical of a large, 430,000-volume
research library in the medical special-
ties and related sciences; there is heavy
emphasis on serials and strong holdings
of historically important materials (e.g.,
50,000 rare volumes, 139 incunabula).
In its early years the American Philo-
sophical Society Library collected broad-
ly in sciences, technology, zoology, and
archaeology—becoming a general “re-
search” library, without a specific acqui-
sition policy. Strengths were uneven,
varying with historical pressures, uncer-
tain support, and the librarians’ special
interests. Due to the special concerns of
Thomas Jefferson and one of the socie-
ty’s nineteenth-century committees,
American Indian history and linguistics
became a collecting specialty. A 1932 be-
quest led to reexamination of activities,
and a 1940 committee laid down guide-
lines; acquisitions policies were sharp-
ened in the 1940s and 1950s. From an
“appendage” to the society, the library
became an important resource in itself.
Presently, history of science is the prin-
cipal interest: all sciences in the col-
onies and U.S. to 1850; European back-
grounds to those sciences and periods,
especially British and French; selected
sciences and subjects since 1850 (e.g.,
Darwinism, genetics, quantum physics,
and flying objects). The library possesses
over half of Benjamin Franklin’s sur-
viving papers, and Jefferson’s manu-
script draft of the Declaration of In-
dependence is but one of many prized
holdings.

HISTORICAL SOCIETIES

From the end of the eighteenth cen-
tury until the third quarter of the nine-
teenth century, historical societies
played a particularly important role as
depositories for the records and cultural
evidences of the growing new republic.
They were largely the creations of con-
cerned book and document lovers, who
were proud of the founding events and
valued the early records of the nation
and of its component entities and re-
gions. They sought to preserve these ma-
terials, publish them as source docu-
ments, and gather together libraries for
related studies. Papers of many of the
country’s fathers have been published
through these societies: John Adams,
Madison, Jefferson, Franklin, to name
a few. Some ninety historical societies
were founded in slightly over seventy-
five years, of which perhaps thirty sur-
vived. Later growth was encouraged by
development of historical interests in
American colleges and universities, al-
though after 1875 much scholarly work
shifted to the academic world. Many
later societies became “joiner” havens,
with genealogy a principal interest. To-
day, there are perhaps 2,400 historical
societies in the U.S., more than in any
other country.12 Those established in
the early and middle eighteenth century
and surviving today add most signifi-
cantly to the resources available for aca-
demic and general scholarly investiga-
tion. The five earliest societies are
among the most notable.

In 1790 one Jeremy Belknap, clergy-
man, received the encouragement of
two New Yorkers—one a bookseller, the other a wealthy collector—to begin organization of the Massachusetts Historical Society. The following year, with charter membership of ten, the society was founded, holding forth that:

The preservation of books, pamphlets, manuscripts and records, containing historical facts, biographical anecdotes, temporary projects, and beneficial speculations, conduces to mark the genius, delineate the manners, and trace the progress of society in the United States, and must always have a useful tendency to rescue the true history of this country from the ravages of time and the effects of ignorance and neglect.

The wealthy New York collector, John Pintard, following several years of planning, also brought the New York Historical Society into being in 1804, likewise with ten charter members. Its fundamental objective, too, was to preserve the priceless documentation of the era so that it be not lost to future historians. This again was the principal concern of Isaiah Thomas, the well-to-do Boston and Worcester printer and publisher, who in 1812 founded the third organization, the American Antiquarian Society—the first of the societies to have a primarily national rather than regional scope. Next in order came the Historical Society of Pennsylvania in 1824—somewhat tardy, due to the prior historically related activities and interests at the American Philosophical Society. In addition to document preservation, the Pennsylvania society has functioned as a museum and art gallery. And in 1831, with Chief Justice John Marshall as first president, the Virginia Historical Society appeared. Its focus continues today to be in books, pamphlets, records, and manuscripts relative to the first settlement or subsequent history of the state. In general, all of these societies are open to the public, particularly encouraging those of "serious intent." Financial support is derived from dues and, in varying degrees, from endowments, gifts, and sales of publications. Perhaps least fortunate was the Virginia society. Its substantial endowment in 1861 was invested in Confederate bonds, and a large part of its collections was burned in the Union occupation of Richmond in 1865. Private support has, nonetheless, enabled its renowned continuance.

Each society library over the years has tended to "build on strength" gaining eminence in particular historical periods or forms of material. Newspaper files, manuscripts, family papers, contemporary books, and pamphlets are commonly found specialties. The Massachusetts Historical Society, for example, is reputed to have the most important collection of American historical manuscripts outside the Library of Congress. New York is strong in pamphlets of the colonial/revolutionary/Civil War periods, as well as early New York and U.S. imprints, descriptions of Indian captivities, American slavery, and abolition; it has the fourth largest collection of pre-1820 newspapers.

The latter medium is the preeminent feature of the American Antiquarian Society, newspapers being the special love of founder Isaiah Thomas, whose personal collections formed the library's nucleus. The holdings of all material printed in the geographic area of the U.S. pre-1821 are unsurpassed, with 75 percent of all such titles said to be represented; 1876 is the terminal date for collecting purposes. Specialties include almanacs, children's books, local history and genealogy, directories, songbooks, sheet music, lithography—the litany is lengthy.

History of the middle Atlantic states characterizes the holdings of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, with that state the subject of major segments. Some thirteen million manuscripts dating before 1865 incorporate papers of
the Penn family as well as military and political leaders of the Revolution. The Virginia society’s four million manuscripts include papers of English and French colonizers, colonial governors, revolutionary patriots, and founders of the Republic. As with the other societies, much of its 250,000-volume book collection is primarily designed to support scholarly exploitation of the manuscript sources. An example of special holdings is a group of architectural works; of those recorded in British North America prior to 1776, 90 percent are here represented.

Some historical societies gathered all manner of antiquities, in addition to the written and printed records. The American Antiquarian Society discontinued this museum function in 1908. The New York and Pennsylvania societies, on the other hand, still exhibit furniture, paintings, and other contemporary cultural inheritances.

**THE FRUITS OF BENEVOLENCE**

The latter half of the nineteenth century brought the gradual emergence of free public libraries. These were increasingly viewed as proper objects of public support, for the general betterment of society. At the same time, our urbanizing and industrializing nation saw the accumulation of personal fortunes whose owners also found satisfaction in the founding and endowment of such libraries. In 1848 the will of John Jacob Astor provided funds (added to by son and grandson) for books, a public library building, and the maintenance thereof. The library opened in 1854, and by 1875 it boasted 150,000 volumes, none of them “light nor ephemeral.” After 1870 the library which was brought together and endowed by James Lenox became available for public reference. And in 1866 Samuel Tilden left his own library of 20,000 volumes and the bulk of his estate to the Tilden Trust; the trust was empowered to establish a free public library in New York City, though the funds did not become available until the 1890s.

In these three beneficences is seen a pattern to be repeated a number of times in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries: on the one hand, the wealthy individual as collector who bequeaths to society his library and the funds for its maintenance; on the other hand, the individual who may not have had the time or inclination to collect books, but for whom a library was an institution of highest merit and so was established by bequest as a personal memorial. Some became integral parts of academic institutions—the Clark, Clements, Lilly, and John Carter Brown libraries need no introduction. Among the remaining “independents,” all were established in one of these two ways, subsequent to 1876: in the order of their founding, the Newberry, Crerar, New York Public Research, Huntington, Morgan, Folger, and Linda Hall libraries.

**The Newberry and the Crerar**

These two institutions have, from their founding, operated almost in tandem. Established in the city of Chicago within a period of seven years, the Newberry and Crerar libraries came into being through endowments left for the purpose by businessmen achieving their wealth in that thriving metropolis. Walter Loomis Newberry derived his fortune largely from real estate, while Crerar was in the railroad business, both as a supplier and an officer of several roads. Neither library is based on books belonging to the founder; both were incorporated as free public libraries under a special act of the Illinois legislature. The operating objectives of both institutions were determined by their first boards of trustees; so far as is known, Mr. Newberry made no specific directives, and Mr. Crerar philosophically sought as his “aim and object the
building up of character.” By this time the Chicago Public Library was already well established; after its founding in 1887 the Newberry board characterized its own mission as “primarily for the use of earnest and advanced students . . . a scholar’s library.” Similarly, the Crerar trustees recommended in 1894 “a reference library, embracing such departments as are not fully occupied by any other existing library in Chicago.”

The latter principle brought about one of the earliest examples of interlibrary cooperation, with a series of meetings between the directors of the Chicago Public, Newberry, and Crerar libraries. Heretofore, both the Chicago Public and Newberry collections had espoused general coverage. By written agreement in 1896, the public library continued to acquire “all wholesomely entertaining and generally instructive books, especially such as are desired by the citizens for general home use.” The Newberry and Crerar accepted responsibility for research-level, reference collections—the former designating the humanities (especially history, literature, philosophy, and music) and medicine (until 1906, when the collections and responsibility went properly to Crerar). The Crerar concentrated on the physical, natural, and social sciences. Both libraries then and now admitted the public freely, limited principally by their seating and user facility capacities; in addition, as with other research libraries, when the materials sought are of fragile or otherwise threatenable nature, access has been limited to scholars and others of specific proven need.

Probably 65 percent of Newberry users are connected in one way or another with the academic world; the remaining 35 percent frequent the genealogical sections or are individual (but worthy) researchers for the media, business historians, and other writers. Of Crerar’s users, some 60 percent are associated as students or faculty with one or another domestic (and even foreign) institution; the remaining 40 percent are drawn from business and the professions. Support for the two Chicago libraries is still largely from the endowments, though annual giving by friends (corporate and individual) is now critically important to each institution. Support for associated projects and activities is derived almost entirely from fees, contracts, and grants by federal agencies and various foundations.

The Newberry collections have been created over the years, as its president has said, partly by design (per the 1894 agreement), but also accidentally, fortuitously, and opportunistically. As with libraries described earlier, the availability of collections for purchase, accession of others by gift, and the adding of retrospective and current items when selected by staff have all shaped the profile of the holdings; they “grew rather than being built.” Presently, the concentrations are on western civilization from the Middle Ages to the mid-twentieth century: in Europe, through the French Revolution and Napoleonic era, especially the Renaissance; in England, deep into the nineteenth century; to the revolutionary period in Latin America, and in North America to World War I (except mid-twentieth century for the Middle West, especially in literature). The Newberry’s great “collected” collections have provided the essential structure: Count Pio Besse and Hubert Platt Main in music, the Ayer collection on the American Indian and western Americana, the Greenlee (Portuguese), the Graff, the Novacco, the Probasco, the Wing, the Silver—all names for scholarly conjuring.

In contrast to many of its companions, the Crerar Library has been relatively little influenced by addition of whole collections. As a library of science, technology, and medicine, it has tended to emphasize the wide range of current publications, especially serials
and journals. In its earlier years, the
great retrospective files were built; from
time to time, too, the landmark works
were also added so that, in the words of
Crerar's first board president, every stu-
dent could have "a knowledge of the
history of the subject he pursues, and
should have at hand the means of in-
vestigation from the beginnings." The
early works are now comprehensive in
their coverage. In a few areas, special
gifts have afforded particular strength
—the Cruele collection (pediatrics),
Pribram (bacteriology and microbiol-
yogy), Spallanzani (experimental biology
and medicine). A major modification
in Crerar’s scope came about in 1951,
when the social sciences were dropped,
being considered fully adequate in oth-
er Chicago libraries. Extensive holdings
in economics, education, labor relations,
history, religion, political science, law,
and philology were transferred gradu-
ally by sale and gift to other libraries,
first preference being given to the
Chicago area. As far as possible, recipient
institutions were recorded for each
item, since the National Union Catalog
showed (and still does) Crerar as the
holding library; requests for these items
can be usually referred to the present
locations. Regrettably, the large number
of transfers (some 150,000) did not
permit correction of NUC records.

The New York Public Library
Research Collections

Library facilities in New York City
were poised, in the 1890s, to enter a new
phase. When the Tilden Trust became
available for the establishment of a
free public library, the city fathers de-
cided to combine its resources with those
of the Astor and Lenox libraries, and
in 1895 the New York Public Library
was chartered. In 1897 the city agreed
to build and maintain the central li-
brary on the site of the old Croton Res-
ervoir, and the facility opened finally
in 1911. The Free Circulating Library,
whose support was partly private and
partly public, had been founded in
1878; in 1901 its eleven branches were
also absorbed by the new NYPL. The
branch system now consists of some
eighty-four branches and has been sup-
ported primarily by public funds. The
Research Libraries, based originally on
the Astor, Lenox, and Tilden Founda-
tions, occupy the structure at Fifth Ave-
ue and Forty-second Street and are sup-
ported primarily by endowment and
contributions; in recent years public
funds (both city and federal) have be-
come increasingly critical to continued
operations.

Some twenty subject divisions now oc-
cupy the central building and annex,
part of the Library and Museum of the
Performing Arts at Lincoln Center, and
the Schomburg Center for Research in
Black Culture, located in Harlem. Use
of the research collections by the aca-
demic community has traditionally been
heavy, especially by undergraduates; the
collections were not easy to use, yet the
wear and tear were excessive. This situa-
tion was relieved in 1970 through estab-
ishment across the street (diagonally at
Forty-first Street) of the Mid-Manhat-
tan Library. The Research Libraries
have long been recognized as having
some of the nation's (and the world's)
great collections. Thus users arrive not
only from the numerous scholarly in-
stitutions of the city but also from the
intellectual centers of other nations as
well. The business community, the arts,
the various professions—all go to make
up the vast numbers dependent on the
"library of the lions."21

The Huntington, the Morgan,
the Folger

Among the most noteworthy of the
independent research libraries are those
whose founders were also collectors,
who developed discriminating tastes and
skills in book-world dealings, who were
imbued with genuine sense and feeling
for the essence of history, culture, and scholarship. They also, fortunately, possessed the means to acquire boldly and in large numbers. Most importantly, they were committed to the idea of establishing continuing institutions in order that their libraries might be of public benefit and sustained into the future for scholarly investigation. These also belong to the century since 1876, and their enabling wealth came from the sizable business enterprises developed in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

The fortune of Henry E. Huntington was born in railroading, as was that of John Crerar, and amplified in other business enterprises. His book collecting began in personal interest and reading and mounted in the 1890s. By 1906 he had made his private decision to found an institution to preserve his library and art collection for the use of others. His interests focused on English literature and Americana, broadening to the history and literature of the English-speaking peoples. After his retirement in 1910, Huntington became an avid collector, acquiring entire private collections and multiple lots in single transactions. In 1919, by deed of trust, the Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery came into being, given to the people of California, under the direction of a self-perpetuating board of five trustees. In the first indenture the general terms of intent is stated: "to promote and advance learning, the arts and sciences, and to promote the public welfare by founding, endowing, and having maintained a library, art gallery, museum and park." Further funds were transferred to the trust prior to his death in 1927; although near the end a last codicil withdrew a substantial sum, the institution was, nevertheless, amply endowed.

The second great collector/founder was J. Pierpont Morgan, of the banking world of New York. His collecting instinct was first apparent in his boyhood accumulation of autographs. By the turn of the century he had acquired a number of important American and English literary manuscripts, his first Gutenberg Bible, copies of each of the first four Shakespeare folios; and he thus emerged as one of America's foremost collectors of books, manuscripts, and objects of art. Like Huntington, he acquired large collections which had been painstakingly brought together by the original owners, merging them into his own rapidly growing holdings. His sumptuous personal library building on Thirty-sixth Street was occupied in 1906. Following his death in 1913, the library passed to his son, the second J. P. Morgan, who made many judicious additions—not in the form of entire collections but by individual selection. In 1924 ownership was relinquished to a board of trustees, together with a sufficient endowment, for administration as the Pierpont Morgan Library, described as "an educational institution dedicated to the pleasure and enlightenment of the American public and to the furtherance of study and research by men of all nations." The third in this series of privately collected and now independent research libraries is the Folger Shakespeare Library, brought together by Henry Clay Folger and his wife, Emily. His specific interest had been ignited by an essay on Shakespeare by Ralph Waldo Emerson. An early gift to his wife was a $1.25 reduced-size facsimile of the first folio. Over the following forty-five years, during which he became president and board chairman of Standard Oil of New York, the Folgers collected books, manuscripts, objects of art, and memorabilia relating to Shakespeare and the Elizabethan age. This was done, in due course, with the full intent of establishing a research library by gift for the advancement of literary study in the U.S. To this end, property was acquired...
in the nation's capital, across the street from the Library of Congress, whose facilities would thus be easily accessible to scholars using the new building. Begun in 1930, shortly before Mr. Folger's death, the Folger Library was dedicated in 1932. The trustees of Amherst College (his alma mater) received by bequest the funds and responsibility for completing and maintaining the building and for administering and adding to the collections. The endowment, subsequently enlarged by Mrs. Folger, is the principal source of support for the library's upkeep and programs; foundation grants and gifts in cash and kind are now increasingly significant.24

Users of the Huntington, Morgan, and Folger Libraries closely resemble those of the other independent research libraries: primarily scholars from U.S. and foreign colleges and universities, most of them at or beyond the Ph.D. level and qualified to work in the fields of the respective collections. At the Huntington, 1,200 or more researchers are registered annually from over 160 institutions of higher learning. The Folger has similarly identified nearly 160 different source universities in a given year. At the Morgan (and the others) exhibitions are primarily for the public, but the reading rooms are occupied in close study by visiting scholars.

Collection profiles have built on the patterns established during their lifetimes by the founders. The Huntington's general guideline is Anglo-American civilization since the Renaissance, encompassing British history from its beginning to the start of the Victorian period; American history to the end of the nineteenth century (except to the present with respect to California), and both British and American literature to the present day. Exemplary collections include medieval manuscripts and seals from the eleventh to the fourteenth century; the history of printing (including 5,400 incunabula); Renaissance history and literature; U.S. history, including manuscripts and printed works of the colonial and early federal periods; English history from the Middle Ages to 1820; English literature from Chaucer to the present; and American literature, especially fiction, to 1930.

The Morgan Library's illuminated manuscripts are perhaps the foremost of its many jewels. Its manuscript collection, dating from the fifteenth century forward, represents every significant English and American author. For its collection of incunabula and printed books, every effort has been bent to acquire the finest copies available. The Bible and liturgy are of particular interest, as is literature of the Reformation. In printing history the Morgan Aldines and Caxtons are outstanding. Fine bindings, drawings, prints—the breadth of Mr. Morgan's interests are still reflected in the library's exhibits and catalogs.

At the Folger is to be found, not unexpectedly, the largest collection of early Shakespeare printings in the world: e.g., first folios, 79; second, 58; third, 24; fourth, 36. In its broadened scope, the collection mirrors western civilization from the invention of printing to the early eighteenth century. Scholars may measure Shakespeare's impact on his contemporaries and succeeding generations or may study the sources of his ideas and attitudes, thus reviewing the institutions and culture of the Renaissance. Modern reference and bibliographic works are also present, as required for the scholar's use.

The Last Quarter Century

Of the final two examples of independent research library collections of significance to scholarly work, one began with a bequest of money, and the other is, again, the personal collection institutionalized for continuing serious research: the Linda Hall and the Eleuth-
erian Mills Historical Libraries. The first of these was established in memory of his wife by Herbert F. Hall (a grain merchant of Kansas City) through a trust which specified only that the library be open to the public and that it be located on the grounds where the Halls had lived. After consultation with various librarians (of whom one was head of the Crerar Library), the trustees adopted a proposal that the Linda Hall Library be “a specialized library center which will make available to Kansas City and the surrounding geographic area, services and facilities not adequately provided at the present time. . . . a free library open to the public, covering the fields of basic science and technology. . . .” A research and non-circulating collection, its profile was thus nearly identical to the Crerar’s, except for the exclusion of medicine. Supported entirely by its substantial endowment, it fell victim to the regrettable IRS classification as a private, operating foundation, thus being subject to taxation and required to disburse a proportion of its assets each year. Users of the Hall Library are drawn largely from educational institutions, industries, and professions of the area; substantial service extension is also provided through interlibrary loan and photocopies.

The Eleutherian Mills Historical Library is perhaps less widely known than the other institutions. Yet it is representative of the smaller, highly specialized independent libraries whose holdings are largely unique and of considerable depth. In 1961 there was founded the Eleutherian Mills-Hagley Foundation, which brought together three distinct collections, all generally related to the Du Pont family or the corporation. Pierre S. Du Pont had received a charter in 1953 for the Longwood Library, containing his extensive collection of books and papers relating to past generations of his family. Similarly, Henry Francis Du Pont had built a somewhat smaller collection at Winterthur. Meanwhile, the corporate archives (up to 1902) had been established in the Hagley Museum. With formation of the foundation in 1961, a building was constructed for the combined collections, as the Eleutherian Mills Historical Library.

Both the Linda Hall and the Eleutherian Mills holdings have built along the original parameters. Like the Crerar, the Hall library has emphasized current serials and monographs and has also acquired great strength in historical works, with fine copies of the landmarks of science and technology. Its first growth came with the purchase of the library of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (Boston), whose holdings of basic journal and serial runs (1665-1945) were extraordinary. Some smaller collections have since been added, but current buying through the years has been the principal mode of acquisition. Especially successful have been the thousands of exchange arrangements with foreign institutions, particularly the many institutes and academies of the USSR, as well as Oriental-language purchases and other arrangements. The Eleutherian Mills Library emphasizes American economic history of the Middle Atlantic states and now also collects the records of business firms in the Delaware River area. Its three founding collections brought together some 2.5 million manuscripts, mainly from the nineteenth century but with some dating back to the fifteenth century. The papers of John J. Raskob are examples of more recent additions.

SPECIAL SERVICES AND ACTIVITIES

In addition to the basic research library functions of acquiring, organizing, preserving, and making available their scholarly resources, the independent research libraries present a variety of auxiliary activities, some common in most libraries, some unique to this
group. All undertake to provide changing exhibits drawn from their collections, for public viewing and often astonishment. Nearly all undertake programs of publishing, a commonly found genre being catalogs of collections and exhibits. The Library Company of Philadelphia issued its first catalog in 1741; the Massachusetts Historical Society's "Collecting for Clio" was a well-known exhibit catalog; the American Philosophical Society has recently produced guides to the literature of electricity and a calendar of its Darwin letters. Other publications include the Boston Athenaeum's bibliographies of Confederate literature and imprints (1917 and 1955); the Newberry's books for the Renaissance English Text Society; the Pennsylvania and Virginia Historical Societies' respective Magazines of History and Biography; the American Antiquarian Society/Readex Microprint project of providing microforms of early American imprints; and the Crerar's regularly issued journals of scientific abstracts (metals and bioanalytic technology now defunct, leukemia still current after twenty years). The foregoing can only be cited as sketchy examples of thousands of volumes issued over the centuries.

Seminars and lectures for the scholarly and cultural communities are offered by several of the libraries. At the American Philosophical Society, a University of Pennsylvania course is given in materials and methods in studies of early American science. The Newberry offers the Kenneth Nebenzahl, Jr., Lectures in Cartography, the Newberry Renaissance Conference, and the Newberry Library Seminars in the Humanities (for the Associated Colleges of the Midwest, whose secretariat is housed at the library). Both the Huntington and the Folger provide extensive educational and tour programs, with staffs of docents.

Fellowships and grants-in-aid make possible extensive as well as short-term stays by scholars at the American Antiquarian Society and at the Newberry, Huntington, and Folger Libraries. Living accommodations in library-owned properties have also been provided in some instances, and nearly all the independent libraries attempt to offer study space for optimum conditions of research. Similarly, photocopying facilities are universally present, for scholars in residence as well as the filling of requests from the world over. Conservation of the collections is a critically important function, given the nature of many of the holdings. Extensive programs of filming are under way in several institutions; staffs of conservators with special work facilities are present also, but most of the libraries are deeply concerned that not enough is being done, due primarily to lack of the necessary funds.

As academic institutions find it increasingly difficult to provide extensive facilities and resources in limited fields, several of the independent libraries have taken it upon themselves to form "centers of research" in specialties of their strength. The American Antiquarian Society has enlarged its capacity to serve as a center for advanced studies in American history, literature, and thought. The Newberry has established centers for the History of the American Indian and for the History of the Family, and most recently the Hermon Dunlap Smith Center for the History of Cartography. At the American Philosophical Society is the office of the Survey of Sources for History of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology. Foundation grants and individual gifts and bequests underlie most of such undertakings.

Activities of unique character include the Folger Theatre Group, which utilizes the theater embodied in that library's building. Crerar has, for nearly twenty years, provided contract library research in the sciences, technology, and
medicine, on a reimbursable basis. Both Crerar and the New York Academy of Medicine have contracts with the National Library of Medicine to serve as Regional Medical Libraries for two of the eleven such regions in the country. Both of these institutions serve also as special resource libraries under contract to their respective state library systems.

The Crerar has operated the National Translations Center for twenty-six years. Formerly under government funding and serving as the Special Libraries Association Translations Center, it is now self-supporting. Special services and activities of like merit can, of course, be cited in hosts of academic (and other) library contexts. Their sampling here is to emphasize that the independent libraries are not the elite, exclusive, ivory tower picture of irrelevance often laid on them. Each, in its own way, responds daily to pleas of scholars and urgent requests of wide-ranging content. The nation’s Bicentennial, as may be imagined, has been a far from peaceful time for many of these libraries.

**Requirements for Change**

As was noted earlier, several of the independent libraries are surviving examples of institutional types, many other examples having disappeared by failure or absorption. Survival has required shifts in objectives, scope, and affiliation by many of them. The Library Company of Philadelphia, in the 1930s and 1940s was uncertain of its mission, for example; from 1943 to 1955 it was, in fact, operated by the Free Library of Philadelphia (the city’s public library). Affiliation was considered with the University of Pennsylvania, the American Philosophical Society, and the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. A new location next to the last-named institution was decided upon in 1960; in a cooperative mode, the society now houses the manuscript holdings of both libraries, while the Library Company cares for the two rare book collections. A new role as a fully research-oriented library was finally arrived at by the company.

Crerar Library added a new role in 1962, when it moved from its outgrown 1920 building in Chicago’s Loop to the south-side campus of Illinois Institute of Technology (IIT). Though fully independent of IIT, it entered into a lease-contract with the Institute to manage the IIT libraries, one of which shares the Crerar building. Simultaneous operation as an independent research library, a quasi-academic library, and a free public library has presented challenging and generally satisfactory experiences.

Sharpening of acquisition policies has been undertaken in several of the institutions—enforced either for efficiency or fiscal economy. The American Antiquarian Society, by 1900, discontinued its interest in anthropology, archaeology, ethnology, and ethnography, and in 1908 it closed its museum. A sharpening of acquisition policy was instituted in 1940 at the American Philosophical Society, and the Crerar restricted itself in 1951 to the physical and natural sciences as described earlier. The Newberry stopped trying to be a general reference library; it also trimmed its purchases of works of the period after World War I (except for the Midwest), in Russian history, and of current periodicals of contemporary interest only. In many of the libraries, de facto modification of acquisition policies has occurred, as funds become increasingly limited; and offers of purchase of individual items or collections which would once have been snapped up are now declined.

Funding difficulties have been experienced in some degree in nearly all the institutions, in company with their academic colleagues, although fund raising has also met with moderate success. The Library Company obtained private funds for its new building in 1960, and
the American Antiquarian Society raised $1 million for its renovation. At the American Philosophical Society, a fund cut of 30 percent was budgeted in 1974—fortunately offset by a newly arriving endowed fund. The Boston Athenaeum, in its 1975 report, noted the sale of various objects d’art to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts for $1,225,000. Even despite other gift income of $600,000, it was determined that another $1 million is needed in the Athenaeum’s endowment, and a “quiet effort” is being made among the proprietors—the first such effort since 1874.

CONCLUSION

In retrospect, the independent research libraries have diverse origins and have traveled many paths toward today’s complex of library resources in this country. The motives for their founding are many, and their varying sizes belie the uniform significance of their collections to the national resource. In one sense, our national libraries might be thought to constitute “independent” libraries, for their development has been directed to the information needs and records of a whole discipline or, for the Library of Congress, to the whole of the American people. Their essential role in the federal structure and their dependence on the political process have caused them to be excluded from this review, recognizing nonetheless that academic library history must still pay them obeisance. Undoubtedly, too, other “independent” libraries deserve more visibility than is afforded herein. The James Jerome Hill Library has acquired new and perhaps yet undefined roles in the academic world of Minneapolis/St. Paul. In Cincinnati the Lloyd Library has recorded over a century of meaningful contributions in the pharmaceutical, botanical, and biological sciences. Space, regrettably, must call a halt at this point.

By their distinctive modes of formation, support, and collections “built to strength” rather than curricula, the independent research libraries attract the best of scholarship. In doing so, they supplement academic library resources in unique and unmatchable dimensions. In truth, to quote again from the objectives set by Isaiah Thomas in 1812 for the American Antiquarian Society (from which our title derives), they “have a tendency to enlarge the sphere of human knowledge, aid the progress of science, to perpetuate the history of moral and political events, and to improve and instruct posterity.”

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William S. Budington is Executive Director,
The John Crerar Library,
Chicago, Illinois
Academic Library Buildings: A Century in Review

It is appropriate that following ten years of unprecedented expansion of academic library building we should pause to review the experience of a century in this aspect of our country's development. Just as 1876 was a banner year for landmark events in the library world of that time, 1976 will soon be read as a key year to mark the close of one glorious century of change and the bellwether of good planning for the next. In the 1876 record one can discern the germination and early flowering of many library building planning ideas for the century ahead.

In his introductory essay for this centennial series, Edward G. Holley briefly sketched the academic library building scene in 1876. He neatly recorded and characterized the notable libraries of that time. Few institutions had separate buildings designed exclusively for library use. Harvard, Yale, Princeton (then the College of New Jersey), Rochester, and Brown were among the best known. Mount Holyoke and Wellesley were reported as having distinctive library space. Most of the smaller institutions had what is often described as the library "apartment," consisting of one or more rooms in a school building serving a variety of functions.

In the 1876 report of the Bureau of Education, a landmark source for all library history, one finds a list of seventy-one principal academic libraries. Only eight of these had more than 30,000 volumes in 1876. Forty-nine, more than two-thirds of the list, possessed fewer than 20,000 volumes. One-third of the seventy-one reported 10,000 volumes or less. These statistics alone suggest little need for separate or very extensive library space.

Another view of academic libraries in 1876 as shown in that list reveals that fifteen of the twenty largest reported libraries were in private institutions. Of the twenty claiming more than 20,000 volumes, only five were public institutions, and only one of the eight largest collections was in a public institution. At least in size of collections, the pre-eminence of private academic libraries over those funded by public moneys was evident.

Holley's paper records in detail other aspects of the educational system of 1876 having considerable bearing upon the state of library building at that time. The size and character of the student population, the numbers and qualifications of the faculty, the provision of library staff, the curriculum—all of these as well as other factors surely influenced library development (or lack thereof) in academic institutions. The influence of society libraries was considerable. Teaching methodology of that time placed little emphasis on library reading or research, and the almost total lack of library staff certainly
had its effect. The production and distribution of library materials then was vastly different from what we know today. Relatively few books were being published in the U.S., and procuring books from abroad was both difficult and costly. Library budgets were minuscule or nonexistent, and great dependence was laid upon begging from known potential donors and upon the assessing of small student library fees.

**THE BEGINNINGS**

All of these factors conspired to create a climate for the development of academic libraries that could only improve. Reading the sparse literature of librarianship and academic history of the years up to 1876, one reaches the conviction that leaders of academic institutions then perceived the "library" as a collection of books, not a building or a place.

The centennial year was really a starting point for many aspects of librarianship, including library planning and building. The earliest reports of ALA conferences reveal frequent discussions, often passionate, on numerous topics related to building planning. Full-length illustrated papers began to appear in the *Library Journal* when new libraries were built; many smaller reports were made as their numbers increased. Some of the great names of the time recorded their views in print: Justin Winsor, W. F. Poole, A. van Name, Melvil Dewey, Frederic Vinton, R. A. Guild among others. An early synthesis of library planning of that period is found in C. C. Soule's eleven points of agreement, which appeared in 1891.³

Almost from the start, prime topics of contention included interior design, light, heat, and ventilation. There was a sprinkling of disagreement on the functional versus the aesthetic, with librarians and architects in close combat; there was so little real understanding on both sides that the result was a standoff.

For the most part, a library before 1876 was usually planned as a lofty room, either with galleries on one or more levels around the perimeter, or with a series of double-faced bookshelves arranged to create alcoves based upon the outside walls with a reading space in the center between the rows of alcoves. Administrative functions were lodged almost at random, witness:

. . . inexperienced, though well-meaning, architects and building committees have erected library buildings that are little less than monstrosities. . . . There was no place for the librarian to sit down, or even to hang his hat; there was no place for the library assistants to deposit their umbrellas or to wash their hands. In fact, there was not a single one of the many conveniences necessary for doing the work of the library—no place for unpacking, classifying and cataloging books; no place for labelling, numbering, repairing books; no place for reading or for anything except taking books from the shelves and handing them to applicants, or reversing the process. . . . The librarian drove a nail into a window casing upon which to hang his hat; he drove nails into the bookcases upon which the attendants hung their wraps; he put a table into one corner for his own seat, and into another for his cataloguers; he fixed up a dark basement for a reading room. . . . It is to be feared that there is more than one library in this country, fair without and impressive to look upon, but within as ill-contrived for its purposes as possibly can be.⁴

This castigation of the architect is extreme, but it must be said that there was often great provocation. Charles A. Cutter and R. R. Bowker, then editors of the *Library Journal*, published a hot exchange of opinion between librarians and architects in 1888.⁵ This was one of many contentions certainly not limited to that period of time. One extremely well-balanced dispassionate statement by an architect developed out of a talk at
the 1891 conference of ALA by an architect, Normand S. Patton, of Chicago. A quite comparable treatment of this relationship appeared more than fifty years later in John E. Burchard’s paper on postwar library buildings. This kind of natural wisdom has no time.

The last twenty-five years of the nineteenth century can only be characterized as experimental for academic library planning. There was a growing appreciation of the prime considerations of good library planning, but no approved design pattern. There was evidence of the librarian’s determination to have a share in planning with the architect and some acquiescence by architects, but no assurance of coordination. There was a growing understanding of environmental needs, temperature control, lighting, traffic patterns, and user access, but no accepted standards. Most important of all, there was an evident increase in professional concern, not just for more library space but for proper housing for the functions then recognized.

Brown University dedicated its new library on February 16, 1878, having enforced a close collaboration between librarians and architects to resolve the difficult problems of library planning. Built in the form of a cross, with a large center, it had a large reading room, thirty-five feet wide and sixty-eight feet high with two galleries running around it and into its wings. Each wing was octagonal and alcoved, also on three levels. Even a very detailed description, while it describes the book capacity of the new library (15,000 volumes) says nothing of the available seats.

The University of California was not long (1881) in following the lead of Brown with a large library and art gallery. The library, like Brown, had a central main reading area, rising fifty-seven feet to a high dome, with three levels in the main floor and two galleries. Entrance areas and the art gallery occupied the forward part of the building with the reading areas and book stock at the rear. Alcoves were used throughout the book stock areas.

In the University of Pennsylvania library (1888) there is found an early example of separation of the bookstack from the reading rooms and general user. The design is in two parts, with extraordinary space provided for staff and users in the main body and what was described as a “greenhouse-looking shed” designed to hold 455,616 volumes. This was nine times the number of volumes the library then owned.

In 1889 Yale University moved its library into a new building, Chittenden Hall, as one of the interim steps before the much later Sterling Library. The Chittenden Library replaced and was attached to the “Old Library,” but the construction was reported as expedient, simply because “of the space available for the use of the library . . . . The central part was already occupied by the old building; too good to be removed at present, but too poor a specimen of library architecture to be preserved and incorporated in our future building.” The combined capacity of the two buildings was reported as 400,000 volumes, with seats for ninety readers.

Cornell, another in the list of the early principal libraries, also hit a new high in 1891, when it dedicated a building designed to hold 475,000 volumes and with seats in one reading room for 232 readers. Not one, but three bookstack areas were planned in this library, still using the cross as the core pattern, with a high vaulted reading room and another with book ranges in alcoves.

Northwestern’s Orrington Lunt Library was announced in September 1892, but not completed until two years later. The building was more than a library. All of the second floor was used for lecture hall, assembly room, and
THREE GENERATIONS OF LIBRARIES
AT NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY
EVANSTON, ILLINOIS

Orrington Lunt Library, 1894–1932

Charles Deering Library, 1932, in foreground connected with the Northwestern University Library, 1970
other educational functions. The main floor provided a reading room and large book room only slightly set back from a central entry. The reading rooms were modern in design; the exterior, described as Italian Renaissance or Romanesque, was relatively simple, compared with most of its Gothic and highly ornamented predecessors.

1895 was a banner year for smaller libraries, with Ohio Wesleyan ($50,000), Kansas State University ($75,000), Wabash College ($35,000), and the University of Nebraska ($75,000), all funded and completed that year. In each case nonlibrary functions filled important parts of the new "libraries," in some more than half of the new space.

One small college, Carleton, and two universities, City College of New York and Western Reserve, occupied new libraries in 1896. Of these only the City College of New York had grandiose plans. The great ones came to the fore in 1897. Princeton built a large addition to its already widely known Green library.

Columbia built one of the largest libraries of its time. Planning began in 1894, but the building was not dedicated until October 4, 1897. The dominant influences of that time are abundantly evident in its description by its planners:

In style it is purely classic, with a line of columns across the front, and a low dome somewhat similar to that of the Pantheon, and reminiscent of the administration building of the Columbian Exposition. Entering from 116th Street, one will ascend by a great flight of steps 330 feet broad, to the first terrace, paved with stone, and then by successive flights to the portico of the li-
library, at a distance of 205 feet from the street, the plan of this grand entrance being somewhat similar to that of the capitol at Washington. The front of the building will consist of a portico with 10 Ionic columns, reached by a flight of steps.9

The University of Illinois made a start at this time, announcing its funding and plan in 1895, and the building was dedicated in June 1897. The design was by then more standard, with service and reading areas on the broad front and a multitier bookstack to the rear. Illinois then had 30,000 volumes, and the library was built to accommodate 150,000. Someone, even that far back, had the wisdom to know what kind of a library Illinois was to become.

To characterize this period as experimental is perhaps misleading. It was experimental only in seeking ways in which architectural expression of earlier periods could be superimposed upon space that might serve library purposes. Within the design and skin of the building the input of the librarian was devoted almost entirely to fitting necessary functions into the kinds of space assigned for library use and resolving some of the difficult problems imposed by architectural design. It should be remembered also that at this stage of institutional development, scarcely any library was planned exclusively for library use.

The Columbia University library initially housed the president’s office, offices for his secretary, the assistant secretary, the faculty of political science, the faculty of philosophy, the law library, and lecture rooms. Illinois devoted the library’s second floor to the president’s suite of rooms, the trustees’ rooms, and the registrar and business agent’s headquarters. Many of these libraries served also as art galleries, museums, lecture or assembly halls, faculty offices, and seminar rooms.9

Even the small college libraries, afflicted by the limited support of that period, followed this pattern. A description of the new library at Wabash College stated “the second story contains an art gallery, a statuary hall, and a trustee’s room.” The first separate library building at the University of North Carolina also served as the university ballroom at a time when dancing was seen as an essential function in the academic community. The Lincoln University library (1898) in Pennsylvania, which cost “over $20,000,” reported “an interesting feature of the building is the bowling alley in the basement for the use of students.”

In this period (1876–1900) some progress was made in physical planning. Librarians began to make their operational needs known and better understood. Staff working spaces began to appear. Separate book rooms or bookstack structures were often included. Greater provision was made for readers, as well as for books. Although the lofty reading rooms persisted, the gallery concept was less frequently planned. There was, however, no progress of any visible consequence in coping with the strong compulsion to build the grandiose, the traditional, or with the near-complete domination of the aesthetic over the functional.

**Evolution**

A useful theory of academic library building evolution was developed by Helen Reynolds for university libraries;10 it is equally appropriate for smaller academic libraries. Beginning with 1890, she outlines three distinct periods, based upon campuswide architectural planning. Beginning with the Romanesque, she characterizes the time from 1893 to 1917 an eclectic period and from 1917 to 1939 as the modern period.

My own division is more simple and is based upon library planning alone. In it, the time before 1900 can only be designated “primitive,” no matter what the
size or character of the institution. I would describe the period from 1900 to 1945 as “evolutionary,” notwithstanding the obvious conclusion that everything continues to evolve. In those forty-five years, academic libraries, librarians, and their architects reached a thoroughgoing understanding of their respective functions and what was needed to serve them. In the period since 1945 most developments in library planning have resulted more from increased numbers and size, than from changes in function.

By 1900 many engineering problems had found better solutions. Gas light had been replaced by electricity. Heating and ventilation had been improved somewhat. Steel frame construction was better understood, leading to new designs for bookstacks. While these environmental needs were gradually being resolved, at least three other major problem areas came to dominate this period. Foremost was the steady increase in the numbers of those who used the libraries. This was the time when many private and public colleges and universities came into being. The establishment of the land grant colleges and many new state universities brought the cost of higher education to an easily attainable level. This also was the period out of which came the universal conviction that education was the undeniable right of every individual.

The swift increase in student numbers, proportionate increases in faculty, and the inevitable changes in educational methodology made an ever-growing place for the library in the academic community. Growing production of books, journals, and other library materials demanded better and larger spaces for holding as well as access to the collections. Finally, recognition of the need for working space for staff became a fully accepted part of library planning.

Reynolds described three basic design patterns of early libraries:

(a) a linear arrangement with the reading room and storage element arranged in a line to form a rectangular group; (b) a centralized plan which had a square or octagonal reading room around which the other elements of the library were distributed, making a ground plan of a Greek cross, usually surmounted with a dome; (c) an angular arrangement of two wings, one containing the reading room, the other the storage element, making a ground plan of an L or T, sometimes with other wings added to form an I or U.

Smaller college libraries often departed from these types, since they were so often subjected to the use of part of their library building space for extraneous academic functions. In later libraries of this period, as the numbers of both users and collections increased, buildings were built or planned to accommodate large multiples of their known numbers, resulting in the rapid spread of the compact plan, usually a rectangle, sometimes broken internally by light wells, or various configurations based upon the T. The bookstack was usually to the rear, or it formed a central core. Also as the volume and variety of functions increased, the larger libraries often moved the public service areas, reading rooms, and circulation-control area to the second floor, leaving the noise of the entrance and heavy traffic to the first level. Those which also had graduate programs and research responsibilities went up to a third floor for seminars, studies, and group study areas.

A few libraries tried the stack tower, but both aesthetic and practical considerations limited its adoption. Many libraries used multitier stacks of ten or more levels, usually contained within the building structure, either central or at the rear. Another concept which had only modest success was the browsing room, a recreational reading area; it did
not endure in later planning.

The University of Texas (1911) is a good example of the T design, with the second floor service area and a stack tower central and to the rear. The Columbia University library is offered as the prototype of the compact plan with a core stack, surrounded by reading rooms and service functions and using the resulting common floors as main service areas. This second-floor service concept was common even in the smaller college libraries, since the entrance level frequently was planned to accommodate other college functions such as the president's office, trustees' room, registrar, or an auditorium.

Examples of this period in the college group generally fall in the range of $200,000 to $250,000, with a notable exception, Dartmouth, which cost $1,200,000 and Vassar, at $500,000. Some good examples of the types of planning described can readily be selected from the following chronological list: Radcliffe (1905), Vassar (1905), Amherst (1917), Williams (1923), Emory (1926), Hendrix (1927), Knox (1928), Dartmouth (1928), Reed (1930), Coe (1931), Agnes Scott (1936), Denison (1937), and Franklin and Marshall (1938).

Among many in the university group, typical of this period were Chicago (1912), Harvard (1914), Stanford (1919), Michigan (1920), Minnesota (1924), Alabama (1925), Washington (1926), Duke (1927), Illinois (1926-29), North Carolina (1929), Yale (1931), Rochester (1931), Southern California (1932), Atlanta (1932), Columbia (1934), and Oregon (1937).
By the end of the 1930s, university library design had become so standardized that for many the external aesthetics constituted their only distinguishing difference. The exuberant growth that was to follow World War II had not yet arrived, and although the numbers were larger, there was a fairly consistent pattern of size for comparable institutions. This period ends with 1945, due consideration being given to the great variations in development resulting from a long depression and the subsequent World War. Academic development plateaued (at least for library planning and building), and a period of relative inactivity preceded the final third of the century when library development and planning attained their highest apparent level.

THE POSTWAR YEARS

The factors determining the character of academic library planning of the last three decades were abundantly evident, proliferating rapidly, and well identified by competent library planners. Early in this final period of our century, a University of Chicago Graduate Library School Institute, 1946, took as its subject Library Buildings for Library Service. In the introduction to the published record, Herman Fussler wrote:

There is an early era in library design that might be called the period of improvisation, followed by the monumental or ornamental era as revealed in most of our existing library buildings today. It has been only very recently that the monumental type of building has been subjected to serious and critical scrutiny. Beginning with the late nineteen thirties there began to appear a few library buildings . . . that showed distinct signs of functionalism in their design, that were attractive, yet completely lacking in ornamental and monumental characteristics. It seems reasonable to expect that these few buildings, together with the delays in construction caused, first, by the economic depression of the thirties and, then, by World War II have placed us at the threshold of a new era in library building design that will reveal a major preoccupation with function rather than with traditional architectural style or ornament.

Fussler's characteristic prescience was good for twenty years. From 1945 to 1965 the steadily growing proliferation of ever more and larger educational institutions was matched by the growing
competence of librarians and architects in planning library facilities to serve their part of the enterprise. It was in this period that the productive series of conferences of the Cooperative Committee on Library Building Plans were held. Many articles and books appeared, and virtually every new library building was reported, explained, dissected, and reviewed in the library press. Every librarian who became responsible for planning his or her new library became an expert, if not a consultant, on academic library planning.

Since more library buildings were being planned, architects became more involved. Many of them accepted the new technical competence of the librarians, and some of them, having designed a number of libraries, became increasingly understanding of the functional requirements of such structures. Program documents were generally prepared, and often thoughtfully used by the architect. There was a preoccupation with function, and the results are apparent in many good libraries of those years. By 1965 the modular design became the dominant central pattern of new library buildings.

Although the numbers and variety of academic libraries of this double-decade were not as great as in the final ten years of the century, they are far too numerous to list or comment completely. Some had better reporting than others and deserve mention; many equally deserving were reported only in local or regional sources.

The Lamont Library, the prototype of the undergraduate library, was completed in 1949. Its conception was widely debated then and is still controversial. The University of Michigan occupied its undergraduate library in 1958.

In the small-college field a large number of new libraries were built. Bucknell (1952), Wheaton (1953), Claremont (1953), Harding (1954), Carleton (1955), Antioch (1955), DePauw (1956), Cornell (1957), Drury (1959), Hampden-Sydney (1961), Beloit (1962), Adelphi (1963), Earlham (1963), Simpson (1964), Bowdoin (1965), Asheville-Biltmore (1965), St. John's (1966), Chabot (1966), are only a few of numerous examples.

Far more new libraries fall into a general category of medium-sized institutions, comprising the fast growing list of colleges and universities just beginning to experience the shock of rapidly expanding enrollments and the concomitant need for larger physical plants. Among many others deserving equal mention are Rice (1949), MIT (1950), Southern Illinois (1954), Louisville (1955), North Carolina State (1955), Western Reserve (1959), Rutgers (1957), Louisiana State University (1958), Drexel (1959), Washington University in St. Louis (1962), Nevada (1962), University of South Florida (1961), Delaware (1963), Tufts (1965), Oral Roberts (1966), and Arizona State (1966).

Of the large universities the list is more limited, but a few merit particular attention. In 1948 the great Princeton library was completed, one of the finest of its time. In 1953 both Georgia and Georgia Tech occupied extensive new buildings. Nineteen sixty marked the completion of the Cornell University library. Nineteen sixty-four was a notable time for Johns Hopkins and Notre Dame, each having its distinctive place in the design of large libraries. UCLA occupied the first large unit of its library in 1964.

A few libraries of that period were distinctively different because of the nature of their parent institutions. Four of these, Bennington (1960), Barnard (1960), Simmons (1961), and Douglass College (1961), were in predominantly women's institutions. One was a military academic library, the Air University (1955), and one a rare-book library, the Beinecke at Yale (1963).
TWO GENERATIONS OF LIBRARIES
AT WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY
ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI

Ridgley Library, 1905-1962

John M. Olin Library, 1962-
It may be useful also to note a few of the libraries which were enlarged by sizable additions. Duke University in 1950 and its neighbor, the University of North Carolina in 1952, followed this pattern. Ohio State also built an addition in 1952, and Kent State did so in 1958. The growth rate accelerated so swiftly in this period, however, that most libraries were planned as completely new units on a very grand scale.

Compared with libraries of earlier periods, most of these libraries met the program requirements for the functions then recognized. Many of them found felicitous aesthetic response in skin or design treatments reflecting innovative use of new materials, uninhibited by traditional architecture of any earlier period. The major criticism of many of these new libraries grew out of the failure to read far enough into the future of the library's functions and academic change. Despite the then ample provision of planning information, decades of experience, and highly advanced technology, we seem to have reached the last decade still planning libraries that often prove to be inadequate. There were some successes, but time revealed more often than not that new buildings were inadequate for the rapidly changing academic world. In addition to running the full gamut of design, academic libraries changed in patterns of service.

The separate undergraduate library came into its own, and professional and subject branch libraries again found new acceptance on large campuses. Internally, the old concept of the browsing room evolved into a wide range of types of reading and study spaces interspersed throughout the book stock areas. New kinds of service areas for computer operations, photocopy use and production, communication centers, and audiovisual facilities appeared ever more often in library planning. On many college campuses the library became a "learning resources center," while the librarian found a new title, as "dean of learning resources."

Thus the last decade of this centennial period began auspiciously with the full range of experience in methodology and materials, in the traditional and novel, and with powerful forces of change and new magnitudes of size to challenge the imagination. Federal funding was timely, recognizing the great stresses derived from increased enrollments and the explosion of information. Beginning with 1967, the annual record of academic library building clearly reveals the rapidly escalating pace of library building in our country. These and other individual library reports in many library publications now constitute the most extensive recording of academic library planning and construction we have ever known in our country.

In view of the vast resources available to planners in this decade, a prolific literature, decades of arduous learning, well-oriented and knowledgeable professionals (both librarians and architects), large and readily available funding, one might expect this ten-year period to reach the highest pinnacle of successful implementation of all that was good in the past record. The statistical data for these last ten years have been recorded as reliably as any such data collection can be made. It is by far easier to judge or make historical comparisons of measurable data than to interpret changes in quality, whether it be of planning or effectiveness. It may be even more difficult to project and predict future goals, however irresistible the pressure is to do that. For better or worse, we will naturally turn to our most recent experience to seek guidance.

In these past ten years, more, larger, and more-varied library buildings have been built than in the ninety years preceding 1966. We have had more than 600 new library projects in less than ten
years. Many are over 200,000 square feet, and a major university administration now contemplates a probable new library cost of over ten million dollars with equanimity.

Design possibilities now include every variety in space, the high, the broad, or the deep. We have a tower nearly three hundred feet high (University of Massachusetts, Amherst), a number of libraries having vast acreage (Notre Dame, Indiana), and a number below ground level (Illinois, the Pusey at Harvard, Hendrix College). We have libraries where bodies of water are an integral factor of the design (Lyndon State, Loyola-Notre Dame, U.S. Naval Academy), and others where local materials and terrain have been ably incorporated in architectural design (Southern Utah, Indiana). We have many varieties of imaginative architectural design (Northwestern, California at San Diego, Clark, PMC College), good or bad, depending upon who is judging.

We continue to have a liberal infusion of design modes coming from other cultures, in buildings of Breuer, Aalto, Pereira, Netsch, Yamasaki. It would be patently impossible to enumerate all the good or bad in anyone's judgment; suffice it to say, there are many of each. Only time can tell which of these new libraries will be most successful. One is constrained then to speculate on the product of one hundred years of learning about library planning and on its usefulness for future planning.

One lesson we have certainly acquired from past experience is that nothing we do is static, and the speed of change is ever more swift. However great our concern for coping with this change, we are increasingly aware that library planning for an academic institution can only be as good as the planning for the whole institution and its place in that planning. Though we have learned this, we still have not only enduring and retrograde influences of the past, but the ageless legacy of human frailty and simple arrogance which can frustrate the best efforts of the able and earnest. Planning for any aspect of academic building often is also affected, if not determined, by economic or political factors within or beyond the institution. New technology has solved some troublesome problems of earlier years, but it has also created some new problems of its own.
CONCLUSION

Any thoughtful review of a century-long experience with academic library building and even casual awareness of current library planning must lead to the rueful conviction that though we have a large body of experience and considerable professional awareness, we may not have learned very much. We know a great deal about what is good and productive, yet every year we see some examples of design as benighted as those of a hundred years ago. We find libraries built tall, deep, or broad for reasons hard to comprehend. Even worse, we see new libraries planned for numbers, purposes, or goals not clearly established. How then have we grown, or even changed, in the past one hundred years? And what are the lessons we can garner from this century of experience?

We have grown larger; that much is certain. We build more libraries in one year now than the whole country had a hundred years ago. One of these modern libraries commonly holds greater resources than the entire list of libraries in 1876.

We have made great advances in solving many of the vital issues in academic library building planning which plagued our peers a century back, yet
many of the problems of 1876 are still with us today, despite the great claims of new technology.

In the early period we succeeded in establishing the function of the library in the academic community, and we began to move away from medieval design. In the second period we developed functional patterns for interior space and reached a high point in coordinated planning. Architects and librarians listened well to each other, and the functional requirements of libraries and their patrons were prominent in library planning. In the last period this trend has been reversed, and architects and architecture have reached a new low in matching good functional design with the architect's imagination. Many of our new libraries are now monuments again, but not in the sense of a hundred years ago. These are monuments to some architect's ego, and a disgraceful evidence of the low estate of the librarian who was unable to reorient this monumental waste. This is not to say that all are bad. Some excellent libraries can now be found in any state of our country. Some can also be found whose planning is little short of hopeless.

These, then, are the advances of the century. We now have a multitude of libraries on academic campuses. We know a good deal about how to plan libraries to fit our present goals and possibly a little about future needs. We are sometimes effective in working with administrators, architects, and the body politic in the detailed development of library building planning. We are usually not very effective in influencing the coordination of library resources and functions with the academic goals of
our parent institution, even less with the reverse. It is readily apparent to all who now plan libraries that technology has not resolved our century-old difficulties of coping with light, heat, and ventilation. Many architects of our affluent time are again planning from the outside in, rather than from the inside out; they are quite naturally more interested in aesthetics than pedestrian engineering.

We are now entering a new century of library development, rich in experience, resources, and learning. We ought to be able to read out our earlier weaknesses or failures and readily recognize our singular successes. Ours is a swiftly changing world where every advance seems to bring with it new problems. Compared to the academic library world of 1876, ours seems very large and complex. Since we cannot turn back time, we must bend all of our strength, our wisdom, and our judgment to understanding all that a century has given us to help make the century ahead a better one.

REFERENCES

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Jerrold Orne is professor emeritus, School of Library Science, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.
IT HAS BEEN DIFFICULT to select a half dozen persons as subjects for this article, because I have known or known about so many important librarians during my library career, which began in 1902. I find on checking that I have met seventy-nine of the ninety presidents of the ALA in the past 100 years and had indirect connection with three of the other eleven. I shall simplify the arrangement of my story by dealing with the individuals concerned in order of their birth dates. I never met two of the men included here; they died before my library career commenced, though after I was born. With each of the four others I had professional dealings and friendly associations for an average of over forty years.

WILLIAM FREDERICK POOLE

William Frederick Poole was the second president of the American Library Association. His term began in 1885, and he was reelected the following year, making him one of the four men who have held that office for more than a one-year term. The others were his predecessor, Justin Winsor, Melvil Dewey, and Herbert Putnam. It had been hoped that the 1853 Library Conference, at which Mr. Poole had an important part, would be the first of a series of annual occurrences. But, because of a series of mishaps, the next meeting did not come until the 1876 conference. Poole had

the distinction of being the only librarian who had an important part in both of these meetings. He was born in December 1821, one month before my father's birth. Lack of funds delayed his graduation from Yale until 1849. While going to college, he served as librarian of the Brothers in Unity Society Library, and by the time he graduated he had already published Poole's Index, a deservedly famous reference work which, in its later editions, is still in use.
After Poole's death, in 1894, his index was continued for some seventeen years, in one form or another, edited by William I. Fletcher, one of Dewey's successors at Amherst, on a partially cooperative basis. It was then found that it could no longer compete with H. W. Wilson's *Readers' Guide*. My library sister, Antoinette Metcalf, prepared the index for the *Harper's Monthly* during the last of these years.

Soon after I took charge of the stacks in the New York Public Library in 1913, I was asked by Harry Miller Lydenberg to go down to the New York Mercantile Library and arrange to bring back with me that library's gift of a large quantity of volumes. The library had stored them, because of lack of space, on the tops of bookcases in great piles three feet high. Over them I found about an inch of dust so I bought a pair of overalls before I brought them down from their perches. Among them were many, comparatively scarce, bound volumes indexed in *Poole*, that the New York Public Library did not have. Most of these were published before the Astor Library was founded in the middle of the last century. In checking, I found that the New York Public Library had lacked, surprisingly, well over 1,100 volumes that were indexed in *Poole*, and several hundred of these were among the Mercantile Library's discards.

I immediately decided to take on as a special project an attempt to complete the library's collection of *Poole* sets and began to check the current second-hand book catalogs and continued this as what might be called my first "research project," until I left the library in 1937. By this time the missing volumes had been reduced to well under fifty. In the meantime a second large windfall had come with volumes transferred to the New York Public Library from the New York Society Library, which was founded in the 1750s and was the third oldest surviving proprietary library in the country. Again we found hundreds of volumes indexed in *Poole* not yet in the New York Public Library.

My other special interest in Mr. Poole comes from the fact that he was the first, and, to all intents and purposes, the only librarian in his day who pursued a special interest in library building planning and had an important influence in that field. He might well be regarded as our first library building planning consultant. During the last forty-five years I have been one of his numerous successors, a group which includes James Thayer Gerould, Joseph Wheeler, Ralph Ellsworth, Ellsworth Mason, Hoyt Galvin, Ralph Ulveling, and Charles Mohrhardt.

Mr. Poole was librarian of the Boston Athenaeum from 1856 to 1869, and my wife, Elinor Gregory Metcalf, was his fourth successor in this position. In spite of never having met Mr. Poole, I have a feeling that I knew him. Mr. Poole's life has been written by William L. Williamson, in his *William Frederick Poole and the Modern Library Movement*.1

JUSTIN WINSOR

Justin Winsor was born in 1831 and became a librarian by an unusual route. In 1866 he was appointed a trustee of the Boston Public Library, and he became the librarian, or superintendent as he was called, only two years later as a result of a report on the library which he had written. This report pleased the other trustees so much that they offered him the position, succeeding Charles Coffin Jewett. (Jewett had been the first librarian of the Smithsonian Institution and the first advocate of cooperative cataloging who did anything about it; it was he who was more responsible than anyone else for the 1853 Library Conference.)

Nine years later, in the autumn of 1877, after several disagreements, to put it mildly, with the city authorities and his trustees, Mr. Winsor moved to Har-
vard. He had turned down that assignment earlier after tentatively accepting it. When the city authorities made trouble for him again, he reversed himself once more and became the librarian of Harvard College. I have been told that Mr. Winsor reported his final acceptance at Harvard only a few hours before Melvil Dewey (Melvil Dui if you prefer it that way, as he sometimes did) arrived in Cambridge at President Eliot’s request, prepared to accept the position that Winsor had just taken. Winsor was the first president of the American Library Association. He served in that position for nine consecutive terms and was elected again in 1897, so that he could represent the American Library Association at the Second International Library Conference in London later that year, shortly before his death.

I have chosen Winsor to write about for several personal reasons. First, Mr. Winsor was my fourth predecessor at Harvard College, just as Poole was Elinor’s fourth predecessor at the Boston Athenaeum.

Second, his only daughter was a very close friend of my wife’s mother, and his granddaughter is a good friend of the Harvard and Radcliffe libraries as well as of my own family.

Third, I sat during my eighteen years at Harvard at the very unusual desk that Mr. Winsor purchased for his own use in 1877 when he first came to Harvard. It was so large that it had ample knee-holes on all four sides, to say nothing of four sliding shelves over its four sets of drawers. On the under side of one of the sliding shelves I found a notation in Mr. Winsor’s handwriting reading, “Purchased in November, 1877,
Justin Winsor.” The desk is still in use by one of my successors, Louis Martin. Mr. Winsor had a superstructure built over the desk to hold maps, in which he was greatly interested, but this had disappeared before my time.

Fourth, the Harvard Library’s financial officer when I came to Harvard in 1937, Mr. Gookin by name, had worked for Mr. Winsor as a young man, typing letters for him on the first typewriter that the library owned; it was purchased especially for Mr. Gookin, who was always glad to talk to me about Mr. Winsor.

Fifth, I kept near my desk Mr. Winsor’s handwritten order book of instructions to the staff. It said among many other things that staff members must be sure not to use the library telephone (note: not telephones) for personal calls, and other strict rules which were pertinent in the nineteenth century, but many of which seem completely outdated or perhaps absurd today.

Mr. Winsor was a historian of note and perhaps the leading cartographer of his time. His writings on Boston and on American history are still important and useful. In one way he might be called very much up to date because he taught a course in the field of geography but refused to give marks to the students at the end of the term. Finally, as a result of this, President Eliot told him that he could no longer teach the course. A biography of Mr. Winsor by Joseph Alfred Borome goes into his career in detail.2

HERBERT PUTNAM

Herbert Putnam, who is remembered primarily as the Librarian of Congress for the forty years from 1899 to 1939,
was born in 1861. He was a Harvard graduate, a member of the Putnam publishing family, and trained as a lawyer. But before admission to the bar, he became the librarian of the Minneapolis Athenaeum and later of the Public Library in the same city. He then practiced law briefly in Boston, before becoming the librarian of the Boston Public Library, which was in somewhat of a crisis in 1895 while its great McKim, Mead and White library building was under construction. Not long after this, when the appointment of a new Librarian of Congress was under consideration, Herbert Putnam was a representative of the American Library Association at the congressional hearing. He made such an impressive presentation that three years later, when the position was again open due to the death of John Russell Young (who was a journalist, not a librarian), President McKinley appointed Putnam to the post. He finally retired in 1939, after forty years of service but continued for many more years to go into an office assigned to him in the library. He lived until he was ninety-four in 1955.

I first met Mr. Putnam in the fall of 1911 when Mary Wright Plummer, the principal of the Library School of the New York Public Library, arranged to have him speak to the school's first class, of which I was a member. During the Christmas holidays in 1913, I visited the Library of Congress for the first time in order to fulfill one of the requirements for the diploma of the library school. I was a shy young man, and I was alone, not having come with the others in the class, which was made up largely of girls. I did not dare to ask to see Mr. Putnam, but while looking around the reading room, I saw him proceeding briskly past the round circulation desk, walking very straight as he always did and, I am sure, trying to conceal the embarrassing fact that one of his garters was dragging along behind him, still attached to a sock that had fallen down to his shoe-top.

Although I saw him at American Library Association meetings several times after 1913, it was not until seventeen years later, in 1930, that I had my first opportunity to talk with him. In connection with my work as chairman of the American Library Association cooperative cataloging committee for a half a dozen years, beginning in 1930, I spent approximately one day a month at the Library of Congress with Winifred Gregory, who was in charge of the committee's work. On arriving at the Library of Congress on the night train from New York, I was generally waiting at the door to enter the library when it was opened. I always went directly to Mr. Putnam's office to make a courtesy call as I did not think it proper to be talking with members of his staff on library problems without his knowledge. He was always at his desk. He customarily arrived in his office between 7:00 and 7:30 a.m., long before opening time. He always greeted me cordially. Sometimes he asked me to lunch with him at noon in the library cafeteria which was then in the library tower. He often invited me to go around the library with him on one of his regular daily tours through it, and as we walked he would talk with me about the problems he faced in the library.

Cooperative cataloging work started to go very well, increasing the number of Library of Congress printed cards considerably. In due course it was found that the library's catalogers were unwilling to accept the copy for the cards that came in from the cooperating libraries. They held them up and revised them, thus delaying their publication as well as adding to the cost of the whole procedure. Mr. Hastings, Miss Gregory, and I were all concerned. Finally I spoke strongly to Mr. Putnam. In his younger days he had been a very able administrator and judge of the
ability of librarians and had built up a superb staff between 1900 and 1920. But by 1930 he had lost contact with the younger members of the profession. The quality of the staff had deteriorated as a result of his shyness and aloofness—as well as from poor salaries and poor selection. Mr. Putnam said he would do something about the head of the catalog department so as to improve the situation we had talked about. The next morning he made what proved to be a poor appointment. The individual was a very capable man who had good ideas, but he was completely unable to put them into effect with a group of “perfectionist” catalogers. (I have always felt somewhat responsible for that appointment.) As a result, the situation did not improve, and the American Library Association committee agreed that there was nothing to do but wait for Mr. Putnam’s retirement, keeping the project alive even if it were less successful than had been hoped.

I hesitated to write the foregoing paragraph because Dr. Putnam, like the two men of whom I have written earlier in this article, and the three who follow, were among our greatest librarians. Indeed, these six men did more, perhaps, than any others to bring American libraries to the stage they had reached by 1940 (Melvil Dewey and John Shaw Billings might be added to the list). I met Melvil Dewey on three occasions but never felt acquainted with him; I did know his son, Godfrey, who was a good deal of a “chip off the old block,” and I had dealings with him in connection with the great shorthand collection in the New York Public Library.

EDWIN HATFIELD ANDERSON

Edwin Hatfield Anderson was born in 1861, just six days after Herbert Putnam, in the little town of Zionsville in central Indiana. He graduated in 1883 from Wabash College and received his M.A. three years later. I never knew what he did in the years that followed until he went to Melvil Dewey’s library school at the New York State Library in the autumn of 1889. William F. Poole offered him the position of cataloger in the newly opened Newberry Library in Chicago before he graduated, and he gave up the Library School and spent a year at the Newberry. He then organized the Carnegie Free Library of Braddock, Pennsylvania, and served as its librarian for three years. This was followed by ten years in a similar position at the Carnegie Library at Pittsburgh, where he became well known. His work in book selection was noteworthy, the library’s book form catalog was remarkable, and he built up the strongest staff to be found in any large public library. After a year in other work, he served for two and a half years as successor to Melvil Dewey at the New York State Library and Library School following Dewey’s discharge from that position. During these thirty months he strengthened the library and the school and add-
ed James I. Wyer, Frank K. Walter, and Frank Tolman to the staff. He then went to the New York Public Library as assistant director under Dr. Billings on June 1, 1908.

Dr. Billings died in April 1913. Mr. Anderson's appointment as director in place of Dr. Billings took place in May. He had two years earlier found financial support from Mr. Carnegie for a library school at the library and I became a member of its first class in September 1911.

Early in 1912 Azariah Root, who was to be absent on a sabbatical, asked me to take charge of his office in the Oberlin College Library. Mr. Anderson tried to discourage me from accepting the position, saying that I would find the college students immature and boring. But I went anyway, fearing that as a result he would hold it against me on my return in January 1913 to finish the school year. This proved to be an erroneous assumption, and in the spring Mr. Anderson appointed me chief of stacks in the New York Public Library.

But my close connection with Mr. Anderson did not come until six years later in 1918 when, in addition to my stack work, I was asked to take over the administration of the economics and documents division following the departure of Adelaide Hasse from the library and until her permanent successor became available.

I saw a good deal of Mr. Anderson during the next six weeks. He had a bad lumbago attack and was quite provoked on one occasion when he could not reach me in either of my positions within a few minutes. This was one of the few times while I was working with him that he showed any sign of irritation with me.

I was asked by EHA (as we called him) to come into his outer office on January 1, 1919, as executive assistant. My only directions were to make myself useful to him and Mr. Lydenberg, the chief reference librarian. I soon found that my duties included those of personnel officer. Mr. Anderson also asked me to prepare the budget for the reference department, suggesting salary changes and drafting the budget letter. I spent on the average at least an hour a day in his office during the next sixteen years and soon discovered the source of his greatest service to his profession—his insistence that improving the quality of the staff was the most important thing a librarian can do.

Comparatively few people remember Edwin Hatfield Anderson today, but he did more than anyone else in his time to improve the quality of library personnel, and clearly he was one of our most important and influential librarians. Twenty-four ALA presidents in the fifty years between 1910 and 1960 had worked closely with him or under his direction. EHA was very helpful to me personally. I have always had difficulty in finding the right word in talking and in writing—I was extremely left-handed and was made to write with my right hand in the fifth grade. Mr. Anderson often asked me to draft important letters for him, and perhaps because he had had difficulty himself in writing, he recognized my situation and helped me to become a better if not a good writer.

I well remember the first time when finally after years of effort I prepared a budget letter for him in which he did not change a single word.

EHA was not a tall man but always stood very erect and seemed taller than he was. He was handsome, with a fine, strong face. But in spite of my close contact with him, I never felt that we were personal friends. A close friend of mine, Paul North Rice, who had comparatively little to do with him professionally, however, talked with him casually much more easily than I could.

After Mr. Anderson retired in 1934, I saw him only once. We happened to be in the Williamsburg Inn in Virginia
at the same time. We met in the lobby and had our last talk. He still walked as straight as ever but was noticeably frailer. He died only a few years later at the age of eighty-four.

HARRY MILLER LYDENBERG

Harry Miller Lydenberg was born in Dayton, Ohio, in November 1874. He was still young when his father died as a result of a Civil War wound. His boyhood gang had fights with the gang to which Orville and Wilbur Wright belonged. Harry delivered newspapers winter mornings while the stars were still shining and would speak of it with pleasure forty years later when I used to drive him to the Catskills before daylight for a weekend of hiking. He worked in the Dayton Public Library through his high school days and then graduated from Harvard in three years, in spite of working long hours under Justin Winsor in the library. He did so well that Mr. Winsor wanted to keep him. But he shifted to the newly consolidated New York Public Library under John Shaw Billings, believing that it would be a better preparation for his life work.

Dr. Billings recognized his ability and saw to it that he had a great variety of experience in various parts of the library, including work with Wilberforce Eames, the great bibliographer. He soon made Mr. Lydenberg his personal assistant, and in that position Harry helped to develop the library's new classification and its subject heading list, edited its bulletin, and took a leading part in book selection and in the indexing of periodicals not included in standard periodical indexes. He was very much involved in the preparation for and the carrying out of the complicated move from the Astor and Lenox library buildings into the building built by the city for the private institution at Forty-second Street and Fifth Avenue. Before the move in 1911, he became chief reference librarian and the head of the reference department. Its research collection was one of the three finest in the country then as it is today, sixty-five years later. (The two others are those of the Library of Congress and Harvard.)

I first met HML (as we called him behind his back and as he signed his notes to us) soon after I entered the New York Public Library School in September 1911. He was slender, rather short, and wiry and energetic physically; he always climbed stairs two or three at a time. It seemed to me that he was a little gruff in his manner, but there was a warmth close to the surface. I went to work indirectly under him while still in library school early in 1913, and in July of that year, as chief of stacks, I came into regular contact with him. At first he seemed cold and unsympathetic when I appealed to him about problems that
I and others were facing. I am sure that he thought I was what we would call today an “activist,” although I do not believe that I was inclined to be a troublemaker. But within a year, I came to understand that his gruffness was only a thin veneer covering one of the warmest and most likable and friendly persons I have ever known.

When I first became well acquainted with Mr. Lydenberg in 1913, I thought he was the most conservative and inflexible man I had ever met. By the time I moved into the main office of the library in 1919, as his executive assistant with contact many times a day, I began to realize that he was not so conservative that he would not listen to the other side of questions on which we disagreed. In another ten years we had become close friends, and he seemed “middle of the road,” and in the 1930s I realized that he was becoming more liberal every year. Few of us in any profession as we grow older become less conservative as he did. This flexibility in the other direction was combined with tremendous ability in many fields of library work. I am ready to say without hesitation that in 1940 he stood at the top of the library profession. In his sixty years of active library service from 1890 to 1950, he was, all things considered, our greatest librarian.

But now I should explain the reasons for this conclusion.

(1) If you take the long-term view, success in book selection and building up collections are the most important parts of a librarian’s task. In the more than forty years during which he was directly responsible or had close oversight over this phase of the NYPL’s work, HML built up the collections in the fields that the library covered more successfully than any librarian in the United States and probably in the world. This fact is shown very clearly by the results of a study made by Professors Douglas Waples and Harold D. Lasswell of the University of Chicago, who reported in National Libraries and Foreign Scholarship that after consulting with top scholars in the fields of the social sciences broadly interpreted in France, Germany, and England, they had prepared lists of some 600 of the most important books and journals published in these fields in the years 1927-33. These were checked by the Library of Congress, Harvard, the New York Public Library, the University of Chicago, the University of Michigan, and the University of California at Berkeley, each of which was covering the fields included. The western university libraries had 30 to 50 percent of the books; Harvard and the Library of Congress had 60 to 62 percent. Despite the fact that the New York Public Library book funds were smaller than those of the five other libraries, it had 92 percent, except for law which it did not attempt to cover because the Bar Association Library was only two blocks away.

(2) While he was less interested than some librarians in administration pure and simple, that is, making the “wheels go around smoothly,” he realized the importance of understanding persons and their abilities. While willing to give up detailed administration to others, HML saw to it that he was surrounded by able administrators and that their duties were carried out successfully. He retired before he needed to so as to avoid administrative crises which he saw coming; he preferred to leave these to others, who could deal with them as well as he could, while he went on to different and important work elsewhere.

(3) Although he suffered from color blindness, HML was interested in color and in good printing and with the able help of John Archer, the chief of his library’s printing office, its printing was outstanding and a large number of its publications were chosen among the Graphic Arts Fifty Books of the Year.
Mr. Lydenberg saw to it that the library did more with new photographic methods of reproduction and with the preservation of paper and leather than any other institution. In 1912 he purchased what I believe to have been the first photostat machine in a library, and its use by the library and its readers grew by leaps and bounds. By 1937 it was doing a quarter of a million dollars a year in business.

In 1914 the library, which had been without a shelflist, made one by copying the cards required from the public catalog onto a specially designed photostat paper stock, fifteen years before Yale undertook a similar, more widely advertised project. During the World War I years, Mr. Lydenberg made over twenty studies of methods of preserving paper stock that was deteriorating in a frightening manner, finally deciding to paste thin Japanese rice paper on both sides of each sheet of New York newspapers, which lengthened their life some twenty years; but then, alas, it gave out. He studied the life and strength of modern leather and buckram bindings, finding that most American leather was improperly tanned. As a result it gradually flaked badly. He obtained first-class leather for use by his library, particularly for heavily used reference books. Grease from hands kept it in good shape, and it was strong enough to prevent broken bindings.

In the early 1930s microphotography for libraries came into use for the first time. (The Library of Congress had copied American Archives before that for later enlargement for use.) He obtained a foundation grant for studying the suitability of microfilm for reference books and found that it was not desirable for material where one must continually look back to the index for the particular reference wanted, as is the case in genealogies, dictionaries, encyclopedias, etc.

HML also encouraged me to experiment for the first time with reduced-size offset, which resulted in a trial of reducing the New York Times to a page one-fourth the size of the original, printed on a better paper. This reduced the bulk so much that the value of the space used for files equaled the cost of the reproduction. Unfortunately, this took place during the depression, and not enough subscriptions could be obtained to make it feasible. By the time the depression was over, use of microfilm had become so common for newspaper reproduction that it seemed unwise to make the change for the Times, which was the one paper in the U.S. for which it would have been feasible.

But this experiment led directly to reduced-size offset reproductions and Albert Boni's later success and that of others in this field. These are simply samples of the problems in the use of new scientific methods. HML was a leader in this field—a conservative librarian had become the leading innovator in his time, along with Robert Binkley with whom he worked very closely in the field of the reproduction of research materials.

Meanwhile, during this same period Mr. Lydenberg demonstrated his reference ability by pursuing to a successful conclusion and putting into print solutions to previously unsolved reference questions such as the origin of much quoted sayings attributed to Abraham Lincoln.

In all of these matters, HML was the driving figure but, in addition, he realized by 1930 that the time had come for him to take a leading part in the outside library world. He became the president of the American Library Association in the early 1930s at a critical time when the association was struggling to obtain federal aid for libraries. After his retirement this was to grow into the great program supported by the government, particularly in the 1960s.

With the aid of William War-
ner Bishop, Andrew Keogh, C. C. Williamson, and James Thayer Gerould, he took the lead in bringing about the publication of the Library of Congress Catalogs; the British Museum Catalogue; the first two editions of the Union List of Serials; as well as the cooperative cataloging enterprise, started with the Library of Congress in 1930 but which did not come into full fruition until forty years later.

(8) After his retirement in 1941, at an age just under sixty-seven, instead of settling down for a well-earned period of reading and recreation in his beloved garden, he organized the first large information library in an underdeveloped country, the Benjamin Franklin Library in Mexico City.

He presided over the ALA International Relations Committee Office in Washington during World War II, succeeding, with foundation aid, in collecting important monographs and serials, to fill in or replace the volumes lacking in libraries of European countries because of the war. The U.S. Book Exchange later developed from this enterprise. And finally, he became the senior member of the Library of Congress mission, which, in 1946, brought back from Europe over a million volumes for some sixty American libraries that had been unable to acquire them during the wartime period.

As a result of this cooperative effort, it was made evident that the Farmington Plan, which was then under consideration, was practicable.

Shortly thereafter the Midwest Inter-Library Center was agreed upon, and a foundation was started for the literally hundreds of consortia which have grown up throughout the country, resulting in library cooperation on a scale which many of us had looked forward to but had not succeeded in achieving. Ultimately, this will do more than anything else, except the modern methods of automation, to bring our whole research library enterprise in the country into one great unit hopefully without restricting the work of individual libraries. It should be remembered that Mr. Lydenberg had a large part in their origin and development.

Many librarians had talked of the things that HML started, but no one had been able to get them started on the path which is still being extended so rapidly in the 1970s.

CHARLES CLARENCE WILLIAMSON

Charles C. Williamson was born in January 1877, just a little over two years after Harry Lydenberg, but he did not begin library work until twenty-one years later than HML. He was a high school dropout who, after deciding not to be a farmhand, went to business school and, still unhappy, tried a year at Ohio Wesleyan University. Then, after two years of teaching in the Salem, Ohio, public schools, he entered Western Reserve University and worked his way through in the registrar's office, where he met his future wife. He graduated in 1904 at the age of twenty-seven. This was followed by two years of graduate work in economics at the University of Wisconsin and one at Columbia, where he received his Ph.D. in 1907. He was immediately snatched up by M. Carey Thomas, president of Bryn Mawr, who was remarkably successful in attracting brilliant young students to her college as associates, and for four years he taught economics and politics there. Mr. Anderson then selected him to organize and preside over the New York Public Library's newly established Division of Economics and Sociology when the library entered its new building in the spring of 1911. That autumn, as a member of the library's first library school class, I heard his lectures on the literature of his field, supplemented by a first-class bibliography of the basic books on the subject. Thereafter, I did practice work in his division, filing the
cards in the catalogs which were being started (working with William Seaver, his first assistant and later M.I.T.'s librarian) and was impressed by the preciseness with which the work was being carried on.

Three years later, when the newly established Municipal Reference Branch of the library was not going well, Williamson took it over and soon made it a success. In 1918 he shifted to the Carnegie Corporation as a statistician to carry out an Americanization study. But in the late fall of 1918 he was asked to return to the New York Public Library to take the place of Adelaide Hasse as chief of the economics and documents division, a position I had covered for six weeks until he could be freed.

Dr. Williamson was able during the next few years to reorganize the somewhat demoralized staff of his division and to start the Public Affairs Information Service, which recorded and indexed material on politics and government, particularly pamphlets and other materials that do not fit into normal library collections of books and periodicals. This has been one of the great reference sources in its field ever since. He also served as a member of a committee of which I was presiding officer and there devised the method of collections of minor uncataloged pamphlets in bound volumes and providing one subject card but no author card for each. This collection has now grown to some 500,000 items, few of which have been collected in other libraries. After Dr. Williamson left the New York Public Library for the last time, the P.A.I.S. was carried on with great success by Alice Jewitt, Rollin A. Sawyer, and in more recent years by John Fall; its usefulness has been maintained for more than fifty years.

After leaving the reference department, Dr. Williamson became the director of the Information Service for the Rockefeller Foundation, where he remained for a little over five years. One spring day in 1926 I was talking with Mr. Anderson in his office about staff problems when a telephone call came to him from Frank Tolman, the Extension Division chief of the New York State Library. I got up to leave, but EHA signaled to me to stay, and I listened in to hear arrangements made by which the New York State Library School at Albany and the New York Public Library Library School were to be combined and transferred to Columbia University under the directorship of Dr. Williamson, who would become the director of the university library and dean of the Columbia School of Library Service. Dr. Williamson began his new assignment in May, taking over much of the staff of the two older library schools and reorganizing the university library, which was not in the best of condition and needed a new library building badly. The School of Library Service made an excellent start with a first-class faculty. In the years that followed, library education throughout the
country was to benefit from the example of Columbia as well as from the recommendations made by Dr. Williamson in his Carnegie Corporation report entitled *Training for Library Service.*

With the library school going smoothly and with a top-level staff, Dr. Williamson went to work on plans for a new and much-needed main library building which would house the central library and also provide the best quarters for a library school to be found anywhere in the country at that time. By the end of the calendar year 1926 he had worn himself out. His long-time Western Reserve University registrar friend, who was now at the University of North Carolina but who had a summer home in Woodland Valley in the Catskills, suggested a quiet guest house where in the winter he would be the only guest with a very fine family.

For some six previous autumns, six librarians who had been at the New York Public Library—Paul North Rice, Carl Cannon, Charles McCombs, Charles Williamson, Frank A. Waite, and I—had spent the nearest weekend to Columbus Day in the Catskills, enjoying the autumn color and climbing mountains, stopping in various hotels in the area. As a result of Williamson’s stay at Beechknoll, the group asked if they could come there each fall for their weekend walk. This was arranged and continued with the same group for forty years; those of us who were able continued until 1972. Harry Lydenberg was added to the group in the late 1920s, and Cannon dropped out after going to Yale. We naturally became very close friends.

But to go back to 1927, Williamson returned to work after a few weeks, fully recovered. Knowing of my interest in building planning, he often asked me to go over the plans with him, a process which took several years. Just when working drawings were completed and ready for tenders, Harry Lydenberg, Frank Waite, Williamson, my son, and I went out for a spring walk up to the Farnsworth Park on the Taconic Parkway in Williamson’s car. It was evident all day that he was not well. He said little, but he drove us all home and then drove himself directly to the hospital. There he had a major operation from which he never completely recovered, largely because a severe burn had resulted in an abscess. After a long period of convalescence, he was able to resume his duties, but with a series of unfortunate results.

The new building went out for tenders while he was incapacitated, and as often happens, the architects had underestimated costs, and the bids came in too high. Williamson’s assistant was able to reduce costs by cutting down the size in unfortunate places, unduly reducing heights of mezzanines and the areas beneath them, and narrowing aisles too much in critical places.

Even so, the building became the first library building with modern fireproof construction, with a simple central bookstack, and with each floor of the stacks a separate fire unit. In most ways it was very functional and easy to use; it included the best library school quarters in the country, together with a separate undergraduate area, the forerunner of undergraduate libraries, which have since become popular. It was a great university library building; and, in spite of monumental features, it cost just about one-half as much as Yale’s Sterling Library, which was built at the same time, had the same number of square feet, and was designed by the same architect.

The library’s most unfortunate points would have been avoided if CCW could have been on the spot to decide on the ways by which costs could be reduced. One other unfortunate feature of the building was the lighting in the large reading room on the front of the second floor, designed by the dean of the
Engineering School and heralded the best-lighted large reading room ever found anywhere; this was a failure which has been avoided with improved lighting in many libraries constructed after World War II. During Williamson's illness and convalescence, his first wife became seriously ill and was hospitalized until her death in 1939, but he continued his work at Columbia until retirement age of sixty-six in 1941.

After his retirement as a librarian, Williamson served as consultant to the Connecticut State Education Television Commission until his death twenty-two years later in 1965 at the age of eighty-eight. Librarianship was not CCW's only talent; he was a skilled carpenter, mechanic, and gardener, building with his own hands a very handsome addition to his home at Hastings on Hudson, looking out over the Hudson River, and later repairing and bringing up to date at least three old Connecticut homes.

Williamson's career included a number of disappointments which would have soured many persons' attitude toward life but which did not affect him. He was in many ways a perfectionist and sometimes was unable to persuade his assistants and his colleagues to follow in his footsteps. He could make enemies by plain speaking to those with whom he came in contact, both students and faculty, and while in many ways he was a very able administrator, he was unable to carry his staff and fellow faculty members with him in some of the strict rules he promulgated.

When he ran for president of the American Library Association in 1938 against Ralph Munn of Pittsburgh, who was seventeen years his junior, his loss was a surprise to him as it was to many of his colleagues. His unpopularity at Columbia was without question a bitter blow to him, although his work there as librarian and dean resulted in a well-run library and a very successful library school, carried out in the first really modern library building.

Finally, when one assesses influence on library development, his 1923 report on Training for Library Service clearly entitled him to rank with the five other great librarians of whom I have written. In addition, he was a fine and devoted friend to those who knew him well. His influence with the Rockefeller and Carnegie Corporations was a great help to library development. His knowledge of everything related to libraries and institutions of higher learning was tremendous, and despite his relatively minor idiosyncracies he was a great man who should be remembered.

References

For over seventy years KDM has worked in and for libraries. Since he is so widely known as a consultant on academic library building design, one may forget that his most significant contributions have been in personnel development, financial planning, cooperative cataloging, applications of microfilm, education for librarianship, counsel to the national libraries, and development of cooperative programs.

As one who was privileged to serve as his personal assistant during the last five years he was Harvard’s director, I believe his greatest contributions were those in personnel development and cooperative programs. To both of these broad areas he brought special wisdom, particularly with respect to staff development and training, as suggested by his article in this issue.

It seems to me significant that he had seventeen siblings and that his father was a prominent railroad engineer. Certainly these influences led to his dedication to teamwork and to helping younger persons learn and grow professionally. Further, his engineer father certainly must have bequeathed some of the mental skills which KDM later applied to microphotography and building planning. Indeed, as the son of a railroad engineer in years when the iron horse was still carving out the West and linking all parts of the country in communication networks, it is no wonder that KDM created outstanding proposals to further regional and national cooperative programs.

He is a lifetime honorary member of the ALA, has been given many honorary doctorates, and has been called upon for advice by scores of university presidents. Yet I remember him even more as a patient, tactful, phenomenally active, exceptionally generous, sympathetic, and encouraging mentor. The organization, calmness, and hard work that must have made him an excellent football player are still in evidence today. Mr. Metcalf continues to be an especially sage voice in our profession.

David C. Weber, Director of Libraries, Stanford University.
University Library Search and Screen Committees

Current policies and practices of committees used in university libraries to search for and screen candidates for positions are described, primarily from responses to a survey conducted by the authors. The use of such committees is seen as one result of increasing staff participation in library administration; and their strengths and weaknesses are discussed.

Currently many American university libraries are turning over the responsibility of recruiting and selecting new professionals to search and screen committees, in contrast to the traditional university library personnel policies of either having supervisors recruit and select or having the staff members supervised recruit and elect their own supervisors. Such formally organized committees have been used widely for at least a generation to assist in filling university presidents' positions. Library search and screen committees are a recent phenomenon, however, perhaps one of the past five to ten years in which we have witnessed participatory library administration increasing.

Since literature on the subject is sparse, the growing popularity of search and screen committees suggests the appropriateness of a paper recommending guidelines and explaining options for use. While sparse, some search and screen committee literature does exist. An American Council on Education pamphlet provides a full description of the committee task and should be helpful to readers. A paper by Richard Sommerfeld and Donna Nagely is a useful committee operation manual, especially in explaining the reasons for this development and describing the pitfalls to avoid. The University of Louisville experience is common and can be used as a library model, but the Northwestern University experience is atypical and provides only a negative example. Paul G. Reinert stresses the slowness, expense, and complexity of these committees and the likelihood that their personnel decisions will involve campus politics. Paul Strohm believes that search and screen committees should be named in consultation with relevant constituencies and that committee recommendations should not be overturned without additional consultation.

Several universities have their own written library/faculty personnel selection policy and procedure statements which may be helpful for others to read, for example, Oakland, North Carolina, Maryland, and Minnesota. Letters received through a personal survey of current policy and practice in forty university libraries supplement the literature cited above.

In common parlance a search commit-
tee, a screening committee, and a search and screen committee are titles which suggest similar if not identical activities. Obviously, a search committee, narrowly conceived, may search and locate only, leaving candidate screening to others. A screening committee screens, rates, or evaluates the leading candidates located by the administrator, often in interview situations. In practice, however, both kinds of committees may carry out most or all of both responsibilities, as, of course, does the search and screen committee. A search and screen committee may allocate much work to its chairperson, but a screening committee can distribute work more equally among its members. The screening process may be used in simple form without a committee, also, as at Tennessee, where numerous staff members rate candidates found by the library administration. This paper will discuss both the search and screen ends of the task.

There is a body of opinion which addresses the difference between searching and screening and stresses the greater effectiveness of committee screening than of committee searching. Many large libraries fill a dozen vacancies a year and typically are conducting several searches simultaneously. A library personnel officer can handle the details of these searches and narrow the choice skillfully and efficiently. The complexities of library faculty searching in the 1970s, with federal and campus affirmative action, equal opportunity, and additional requirements and voluminous correspondence and oral contacts, on campus and off, suggest that the burden of work and understanding will be much more onerous to a one-time-only search and screen committee chairperson than to a full-time personnel officer already well acquainted with the policies and routines involved.

Screening a limited number of well-qualified candidates, on the other hand, calls for the judgments of a variety of concerned persons and can better be handled by a committee. Of course, the library without a personnel officer is left with the need to carry out both ends of the task in another way.

The search and screen committee objective is to assist the library administration in filling a specific budgeted professional position vacancy with the best candidate available at the time. Most search and screen committees are expected to complete their work by presenting the administrator to whom they report with a list in alphabetical or priority order of the best available candidates. The salary required to hire each candidate may be requested also.

POLICIES AND PRACTICES

Many varying search and screen committee policies and practices are being used in American university libraries, and this paper will summarize them. On certain campuses only library directorships are filled through search and screen committee use, while on other campuses, e.g., University of New Mexico and University of Minnesota Twin Cities, all professional library vacancies are filled in this way. Still other campuses, e.g., New Mexico State University, University of North Carolina, and Columbia University, require such committee use in filling all professional vacancies above a certain rank.

In certain universities, even high-level support-staff vacancies may be filled through search and screen committee use. In contrast, probably a few libraries have used no search and screen committees. Each campus must work out its own policy for the level and circumstances of use.

Committee Selection

Committee member selection policies vary. Normally a new committee is appointed for each vacancy. Occasionally, a search and screen committee will be formed from the university's advisory
faculty library committee with additions from the library staff. An advantage of regularly assigning search or screen responsibilities to the standing tenure and promotion committee is that this policy allows that group to carry out these chores for all vacancies and for the entire staff, thereby occupying the time of only a small group of people. Otherwise, university libraries using a separate committee for each vacancy may be quite weighed down with committee work.

In certain libraries, e.g., University of New Mexico, the library department with the vacancy insists on strong search committee representation, while in other libraries, e.g., Colorado State University, such representation is avoided. The same kind of disagreement may affect teaching faculty member use on the committee.

Who should choose search and screen committee members, and how should they be chosen? Normally, the library director will select the committee with advice from department heads and sometimes with the staff electing certain committee members. If a director is being sought, the university administrator to whom the director reports will choose the committee. Occasionally, entire search and screen committees are elected by the library or departmental staff members, as at Louisville.

Certain search and screen committees selected for specific vacancies and certain standing tenure and promotion committees are appointed through the university library's formally organized faculty assembly. This coordination provides the library faculty with a means of assisting the administration in carrying out its tasks. A few search and screen committees are large, eighteen or twenty for a major position, while others are small, perhaps only three members, as at Eastern New Mexico University. Certain administrators name the committee officers—chairperson, vice-chairperson, and secretary; but others encourage the committee to elect its own, e.g., State University of New York at Albany. In searches to fill high-level vacancies, the library director may serve as committee chairperson or secretary, though certain authorities frown on this practice since the director must then play a dual role.

The administrator appointing the search and screen committee will insure its success or failure by the wisdom of the appointments made, the choice of the chairperson being by far the most important of them. Generally, service as chairperson is considered to be an honor, sometimes even a campuswide honor when a major library position is being filled. This honor may go to a respected campus leader who is called upon to perform a public service for the university administration. The chairperson needs free time weekly for this assignment, as well as good access to secretarial help to carry out the large amount of correspondence and record-keeping involved. Even committee membership is an honor and permits individuals to leave their desks for several hours each month to sit in closed conference with certain colleagues.

Search and screen committees may include university trustees, alumni, townpeople, and relevant campus committee representatives. Certain committees are selected carefully and democratically to represent many diverse groups, while others are selected solely from a few groups. Usually both sexes and sometimes both professional and support-staff members are represented. In certain libraries, for instance, a readers service division chief search and screen committee might contain professionals and support-staff members who would work under this person; a technical services division staff member; a teaching faculty department chairperson; deans or professors whose library service this person would supervise; students; and a
dean of students office staff member interested in the caliber of library service.

Level of Responsibility

Responsibility should accompany authority in staff selection, so the person supervising the vacancy should have an important responsibility in filling it. Just how this idea is carried out is not described in many of the responses received by the authors. Sometimes this person serves on the search and screen committee, while in other cases, he or she works closely with the administrator who collects candidate data. Final candidates may be cleared with this person before an offer is made.

Certain administrators give search and screen committees wide latitude and turn over most of the recruiting and selecting responsibility to them, while others use them only to rate and advise and not even to present a slate of recommended candidates. Some administrators ask committees to search nationally and internationally for a pool of position candidates, while others limit them to local or regional searches, depending on the vacancy level and the director’s ambitions for the staff. In most cases, internal and external candidates are given equal consideration. Many administrators give committees deadlines for work completion. Most administrators appoint only from the committee’s short list, while a few may appoint unlisted persons. Still other administrators insist that a decision be obtained on each candidate before the next one is considered.

Meetings

Certain administrators attend the search and screen committee’s initial meeting in order to clarify the charge, policies, and procedures for the members. The currently appropriate and full position description, faculty rank, salary range, tenure status, affirmative action, and equal opportunity steps must be described. Deadlines and short-list presentation information must be provided. The advisory nature of the committee recommendations and the appointment routine should also be described. Early in its work, the committee must clarify its budget. Correspondence, telephone calls, meals with candidates, and possible library school visits constitute its own expenses. Candidate expenses include travel, lodging, and meals when coming for an interview. Finally, if its role is to be carried out expeditiously, the committee must adopt a timetable for the project and a meeting schedule.

The committee should meet at least monthly, sometimes weekly. All members present should vote on all important matters. Meeting minutes should be sent to the members and the director. The committee should attempt to bring to the library the best-qualified and available candidates in the country, candidates capable of making significant contributions to library staff thinking on a variety of problems.

Selecting Candidates

The position description should clarify the relevant responsibilities, to whom the staff member reports, the qualifications required, and the salary and fringe benefits available. The description should show the number and level of staff members to be supervised or the amount of money to be spent. It will assist the committee in focusing on the best-qualified candidates and is usually prepared by the library administration.

The search for candidates should be intensive and extensive. A pool of candidate names may be collected in the following manner:

a. Obtaining suggestions from the directors of twenty-five or so large university libraries.

b. Writing to twenty-five or so library schools for candidate lists.
c. Advertising in library periodicals, in scientific or other periodicals, in the *Chronicle of Higher Education*, the AAUP *Academe*, and the *New York Times*.

d. Advertising the vacancy and interviewing candidates at national conferences.

e. Notifying present library staff members who may wish to apply.

f. Notifying placement organizations established to assist minority persons and women.

g. Checking the library's file of unsolicited applications.

h. Writing to academic department chairpersons and faculty members, where appropriate.

Additional steps should include the compilation of dossiers for the best dozen or fifteen candidates. Each one should consist of a curriculum vitae, references, and other biographical material. Library school placement folders and transcribed telephone calls can be helpful. Furthermore, form letters, documentation of affirmative action, and extensive mailings will be needed. From the position description, advertisements, and announcements can be prepared.

An appropriate set of criteria should be developed against which all candidates can be rated. The most important characteristics to be sought in the person who fills the position should be stressed. Weights may be assigned to reflect the various factors’ importance. The required data should be collected, the weighted criteria applied, and, if practical, a ranking derived for each candidate. A record must be kept of each candidate's evaluation and the reasons for rejection.

**Campus Interviews**

The top two to six candidates (the short list) should be brought to the campus for twelve- to forty-eight-hour visits to allow staff members to evaluate them. The top two candidates may be selected questions. Presumably, they should be invited in their quality order. The university administration may have established budgetary and procedural regulations to guide the committee in entertaining and housing them.

Each candidate should be introduced to as large a number and as great a variety of campus persons as possible for mutually beneficial exposure. An itinerary should be given to the candidate and with a curriculum vitae supplied to all persons listed on it before his or her arrival. Library faculty and support-staff members, teaching faculty members, administrators, and students should be included. The library department heads’ council, the faculty library committee, the entire departmental staff directly involved, student body officers, faculty senate officers, and library staff association officers should be represented in candidate meetings, luncheons, and interviews. The director and assistant director should see the candidate, and, on some campuses, the academic vice-president will see the candidate as well.

Typically, an appointment is made with the tenure and promotion committee since the application of their criteria and interpretations to all candidates is appropriate and helpful. In addition, each candidate’s weaknesses may be identified and a decision made about which set of weaknesses would be least problematic. Alerting candidates to special campus pressure groups, physical plant problems, and the concerns of those to be supervised, as well as long-range library plans, will provide needed orientation information. Regrettably, the contrast between the mannered politeness of the screening routine and the blunt political reality of the position has caused many directors anguish.

Each candidate may make a public presentation to a campus group on a topic of his or her own choosing or one
related to the vacancy. This is simply another method of gauging the candidate’s effectiveness. A packet of material about the institution and the library should be given to each candidate to provide further background information. Search and screen committees should be hospitable and friendly, but at the same time they must look at each candidate very critically and ask penetrating questions to gauge thinking. The committee should take the initiative in carrying out a thorough analysis of the candidate’s personality, abilities, knowledge, and ideas while providing a full and honest picture of the local situation.

When the visit is concluded, each candidate should be evaluated in writing by each person who has met him or her. The completed evaluation forms should be collected by the committee and the degree of favorability scored. They should show the extent to which the candidate has met the position criteria.

The final list of the top three to five candidates should be sent to the administrator soon after the evaluations and committee votes are tabulated. With this step, the search and screen committee’s work is done. Normally, the administrator will carry out final contract negotiations to hire the candidate.

**STRENGTHS**

In many situations, the university library search and screen committee enjoys the following strengths:

1. In an era of participatory and consultative management, the search and screen committee provides a democratic method of recruiting and selecting new personnel. Often it reflects the relatively new faculty status of library professionals.

2. Some committees work quickly, efficiently, and intelligently and land their person in three months or less, e.g., University of New Mexico’s 1973 special collections chief search committee.

3. A search and screen committee provides well-informed and vitally involved persons to assist in recruiting and selecting new personnel.

4. Appointment of staff members to such a committee can provide useful information to the administrator concerning their skill and interest in administrative and committee work.

5. Often the search and screen committee is a useful supplement to a small and overworked library administrative staff.

6. In this way, a variety of opinions can be obtained on every position candidate, and the candidate is able to meet varied campus groups and ideas.

7. Many staff members enjoy serving on such committees, thereby escaping briefly the routine of daily work assignments.

8. “Political” recognition from staff and faculty members attracts other persons to this responsibility.

9. By using such committees for many vacancies, library administrators may reduce the upward mobility of their own staff members. Apparently, many search committees suffer from a bias against local candidates. The glamorous outsider about whom very little is known always looks better than the shopworn insider about whom too much is known. This may be an advantage or a disadvantage, depending upon local circumstances. On the other hand, in some circumstances the politically resourceful insider may turn the situation around and make the subtle pressures of staff opinion felt.

10. Library staff members participating actively in personnel selection
display a greater sensitivity than before to the problems of locating high-quality position candidates.

11. The search and screen committee enables the library to involve other parts of the university, particularly the faculty, in its activity, even in its decision making. Such involvement should lead to improved knowledge and understanding and perhaps to closer alignment with other campus units.

12. No objective evidence was located concerning the superiority of the judgments made or the candidates appointed through search and screen committee use, as contrasted with more traditional or more democratic approaches. Nevertheless, most respondents felt such committee methods to be more successful than traditional administrative methods. Representative staff judgment and participation were felt to be beneficial to staff morale and confidence and to the new appointee who arrives with widespread recognition and support.

**Weaknesses**

In many university libraries, the weaknesses of search and screen committees seem to be the following:

1. The spirit with which the committee is appointed can be decisive. If it mainly represents “window dressing,” or political expediency, then the committee is likely to fail. Bennis’ article in the *Atlantic* provides one such example, as does a situation in which a candidate is appointed because he or she has developed a vocal and persuasive committee champion.

2. While some committees are perceptive and agree quickly on what they are doing, others are not and do not. Many search and screen committees seek the ideal individual and fail to set priorities among qualifications. Failure to appraise realistically the qualifications required by the position and demonstrated by the candidates creates many problems. Considerable disagreement may exist about ranking the various candidates and even about the very nature of the position itself. Expecting a great deal of sensitivity and thoroughness from such temporary appointees, however, may be naive.

3. Certain committees lack the knowledge, administrative ability, or interest to carry out the task satisfactorily. They muddle along with more discussion than action, hold irregular and poorly attended meetings, and are overwhelmed by the paperwork required. Still other committees are fatally attracted to the freeloading interview routine and eagerly run up large liquor and food bills at the best restaurants while interviewing second-rate candidates. Such a situation might force the library to fill the vacancy with an acting person for years at a time, e.g., the 1972–74 State University of New York at Stony Brook and the Hofstra University Library directorships.

4. Strange things have happened on search and screen committees: (a) occasional sets of candidate papers have been lost, and (b) some committees have deliberately sought candidates less well qualified than the predecessor.

5. On certain campuses, committees are chosen, at least in part, and not completely without reason, from groups of people who are willing to give the extra time re-
quired or else have not served on another committee recently, rather than from groups of people who are well qualified for the particular assignment.

6. Some staff members prefer to carry out routine work at their desks than to "fool around on committee work."

7. Committee meetings occupy staff time and attention which cannot easily be spared from desk work. Further, getting committee members to avoid letting persuasive individuals dominate their thinking is sometimes difficult.

8. Due to a limited perspective, committees may screen for obvious paper qualifications rather than for potential library contributions.

9. Certain search and screen committees are said to select not the best candidate, but instead, the candidate who displeases no one.

10. Often individual committee members with vested interests view candidates primarily from the vantage point of expected personal interaction rather than from a more broadly based frame of reference. This situation leads to the charge that these committees react emotionally, not logically.

11. Many search and screen committees have the limitations of other committees in diffusing responsibility and slowing down the selection process.

12. Administrators are presumed to be free to accept or reject committee recommendations. In practice, however, they may not be as free as assumed to reject them.

13. If administrators fail to act expeditiously or wisely on committee recommendations, the result is likely to be unsuccessful.

CONCLUSION

Once started, use of search and screen committees is difficult for administrators to stop, even for a single case. Returning to traditional approaches will bring considerable staff criticism and will represent a renunciation of democratic administration. Of course, the same thing can be said for other aspects of participatory management as well.

Are university library search and screen committees generally useful? How can we assess their performance? Sufficient time has not yet elapsed for a firm evaluation of their success or failure. Surely, we shall see more of them in the future. They will be continued in order to meet the need for justifying appointments to an increasing variety of agencies, groups, and individuals. Equally important is the relationship of the committee concept to the increasingly popular concept of participatory management. As a mode of operational management, the participatory concept has gained popularity for both libraries and other university units. As long as the trend to participatory management continues, search and screen committees will flourish, even in the absence of reliable and objective determinations of their usefulness.

REFERENCES


4. E. G. Bennis, "Searching for the Perfect
University President, with Editorial Comment and Discussion," *Atlantic* 227:4, 39-44 (April 1971); 32-35 (June 1971).


8. Bennis, "Searching for the Perfect University President."
Selected Reference Books of 1975-76

This article continues the semiannual 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.¹

Since the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and general 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 DE47, 2AA82) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide to Reference Books and its supplements.²

BIBLIOGRAPHY


"This bibliography of bibliographies aims to present bibliographies in the humanities and social sciences, published in the Czarist Empire and its Soviet successor, and pertaining directly to the Iranian, Mongolian, and Turkic nationalities and the regions of Czarist Russia and the USSR associated with them" (Introduction). To accomplish his purpose, Professor Allworth has systematically gleaned sources dating from 1850 to 1970, mainly separately published lists of bibliographies and bibliographies of bibliographies appearing as serials, but including also encyclopedias, journals, and some Western-language guides. These are listed and described in the introductory essay, "Sources and Methods for the Bibliography," which also offers a concise discussion of the state of the art.

The body of the work is arranged first by the five main regions of the Czarist or Soviet East, then by five smaller territories and twenty-eight nationalities. Entries within each section are classed according to ten subject categories, and each is annotated as to languages of the entries and the text, number of entries, period covered, etc. Annotations are not evaluative, nor for those titles unverified by location in the Columbia University Libraries, necessarily complete. There is no index.

This is an exemplary work and a pioneering one which should indeed inspire "someone to prepare a list of bibliographies for the other Soviet Nationalities"—Professor Allworth's hope and, no doubt, that of many scholars and librarians.—M.A.M.

¹ Patricia Ann Clark, Diane Goon, Rita Keckleisen, Anita Lowry, Eileen McIlvaine, Doris Ann Sweet, Barbara Wendell; Lehman Library: Mary Ann Miller.
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(Suppl. 2AA82); the 1973 gap will be filled upon publication of a Filipiniana Union Catalog, 1968-73, which is in preparation. An author listing with title and subject indexes, the catalog gives complete bibliographic citations for “Filipiniana materials including books, theses, music scores, phonodiscs, tapes, microfilms, new serial titles and other materials, or reproductions of any of these forms. It also includes government documents and publications except individual acts, bills and ordinances” (Introduction). Both current materials and older works recently acquired at cooperating libraries are listed. In addition to the University of the Philippines Library and its many departments and branches, three other libraries are represented in the early issues, and the cooperation of other institutions is encouraged.—E.S.

BOOK REVIEWS


The “spin-off” has become a familiar aspect of the reference book field, and matters of price, rearrangement of subject matter, ease of use, etc., in relation to the parent work all weigh heavily in the acquisitions decision. While Current Book Review Citations may be regarded as a kind of spin-off, it is an “augmented” one: it not only brings together the book review citations from all the other Wilson indexes, but adds references to all reviews appearing in the Booklist, Choice, School Library Journal, and Library Journal. Thus, the field covered is reviews of “fiction and non-fiction, including science, law, children’s and young adult titles” appearing in more than 1,000 periodicals—“the major literary, educational, and other general and specialized publications”—Pref. Note. Quite apart from the advantage of being able to confine one’s search to a single compilation (and only the large general collections will have all of the Wilson indexes together on their shelves), problems posed by interdisciplinary topics and peripheral interests are obviated. An author (or other main entry) listing gives the full review citation, including the reviewer’s name when known; this is followed by a title index. The full list of periodicals, with addresses and subscription prices, appears in the January issue only.

With its broad coverage and frequency of publication, CBRC offers real competition to the Book Review Index (Guide AA 314a), although there are certain variations in the lists of journals covered.—E.S.

DICTIONARIES

Latham, Ronald Edward. Dictionary of Medieval Latin from British Sources. Prep. under the direction of a committee appointed by the British Academy. London, Publ. for the British Academy by Oxford Univ. Pr., 1975–. Fasc.1–. (In progress)

Contents: Fasc.1, A–B. $44.50.

Based on sources ranging from c550 to 1586, this important national dictionary “designed to present a comprehensive picture of the Latin language current in Britain from the sixth century to the sixteenth” covers: classical Latin as used by British authors; words and usages of postclassical Latin; and, with fullest treatment, words and usages distinctively British. Vernacular terms are excluded, as are personal and place-names. Layout of entries is similar to that of the Oxford Latin Dictionary (Suppl. 2AE63), but with considerably longer quotations, because medieval sources are much less accessible than classical Latin texts. Words are grouped under key word spelled according to standard classical Latin. Given for each are: English definition, indication of etymology, and a number of quotations (dated and with exact reference) selected to illustrate earliest known usage if nonclassical, and range of usage “not only in time but, where appropriate, over different districts . . . types of sources . . . forms . . . grammatical and semantic contexts” (p.xiii).

The bibliography of sources for the complete Dictionary and a list of abbreviations and signs appear in this first fascicle. The preface recounts the long history of this great scholarly undertaking, and “a note on editorial method” states with clarity the scope, principles, arrangement, etc. A three-column page with a variety of typeface makes for a pleasing, readable text.—R.K.

With the publication of this index the publisher has endeavored to reduce, if not eliminate, the frustration often experienced by librarians and library users while searching for current biographical information. Aided by computer technology, the editors have indexed over fifty biographical directories covering a wide range of professions and geographical areas, and including nine of the eleven titles indexed in the Marquis Index to All Books, 1975. The majority of directories indexed include references to living persons only.

A BDMI entry consists of the biographee’s name and birthdate plus a code for the biographical directory in which a sketch may be found. A full explanation of the codes (title and edition information) appears in the prefatory matter in v.1, and the title codes are printed on the end papers in each volume. One would prefer that full information about the codes had been printed in each volume, since coded information about editions of certain titles is not readily understandable. Because entries have been drawn from so many publications and no attempt has been made to standardize them, a biographee may be listed in a number of ways. Names with prefixes and suffixes, compound surnames, names which may be written in direct or inverted order, and names which have been transliterated into the roman alphabet may be listed under any or all of the possible variations. Multiple listings allow the most convenient source to be chosen and, when several sources are available, comparison of the sketches can be made. However, repetition of the biographee’s name for each source directory listing neither adds to the utility nor enhances the readability of BDMI.

The introduction seems to indicate that each succeeding edition of BDMI will contain an entry for every biographee in this first edition. Thus, those who do not appear in updated editions of the source directories will continue to be listed in new editions of BDMI with reference to the old edition of the source. One would assume that, at some point, paper costs and an ever-expanding list of biographees will warrant publication of retrospective editions or supplements rather than wholly new editions.—B.W.


This new biographical dictionary lists some 10,000 living black Americans selected for inclusion on the basis of “position of responsibility held” and “the level of significant achievement attained in a career of meritorious activity” (p.xv). The fields of government, business, education, religion, journalism, law, the arts, civil rights, sports, science, etc., are all represented in biographical sketches supplied chiefly by the individuals listed. The few accounts written by staff members are marked with an asterisk. Entries are of the “who’s who” type, are in alphabetic order, and include name, occupation, place and date of birth, education, marital status, names of spouse and children, past and present positions held, memberships, military service, and address. A list of abbreviations is given, and there are indexes by geographical location and by occupation. No schedule of publication is mentioned, but presumably, future editions will be issued.—R.K.

PERIODICALS


This work collates, from the magazines themselves and from standard sources like Brigham and Mott, bibliographical and historical information for more than two hundred publications issued in a period for which careful bibliographies are often lacking. The search lays a few ghosts and notes some corrections to ULS listings.

Titles are arranged alphabetically and include: all title changes, place, publisher, printer, type (i.e., interest or coverage), frequency, price, size, period of publication, availability in the “American Periodical Series” microfilm collection or in a library,
whether indexed, and (sometimes) reference to a significant book or article concerning the magazine. "Remarks" on the history and character of the journal conclude the entry. There is an appendix of titles excluded, which gives brief bibliographical information; a chronological list of the titles by beginning date; a register of printers, publishers, editors, and engravers; and an introduction on the history of the American magazine. Readers should be aware that the book was completed in 1965 although published in 1975.—R.K.

Comp. by Jean-Pierre Ponchie.
Preface and table of contents in English and French.
Although it may not be the dream-come-true that the title suggests, this new index should prove a useful complement to more comprehensive indexes such as the IBZ (Guide AF116) or a convenient alternate choice for smaller libraries with limited foreign-language periodical collections. Intended as a guide to "up-to-date information concerning contemporary France" (Pref.) and meant particularly for student use, the 1973-74 volume indexes only seven periodicals: L'Express (overseas edition), Le français dans le monde, Le nouvel observateur, Paris-match, Réalités, Sondages and Le monde hebdomadaire (1974 issues only). Maclean's, Jeune Afrique, and Le monde de l'éducation are to be added in the 1975 volume (due "late summer" 1976). Indexing is under twenty-six subject headings (arranged alphabetically according to the French form of the heading) roughly corresponding to the categories used in popular weekly news magazines (e.g., business and economy, food, art, entertainment, environment, armed forces, medicine and health, religion, sports). Within categories the listing is chronological (except that the "people" section is alphabetical by name); titles are usually as they appear in the original publication. Articles of at least a column or more are indexed.—E.S.

LITERATURE
Logan, Terence P. and Smith, Denzell S. The Popular School; a Survey and Bibliography of Recent Studies in English Renaissance Drama. Lincoln, Univ. of Nebraska Pr., [1975]. 299p. $15. 74-81364.

Similar to the various "reviews of research and criticism" published for the Modern Language Association of America (e.g., Frank Jordan's English Romantic Poets), this is the second volume in a new series "which in its entirety will provide a detailed account of both the historical development and current state of scholarship on playwrights and plays from 1580 to 1642, exclusive of Shakespeare"—Pref. (The preceding volume is Logan and Smith's The Predecessors of Shakespeare, published 1973; a third volume will consider The New Intellectuals.) The present work is devoted to "dramatists who wrote primarily for the open-air public theaters, and anonymous plays first performed in such theaters." Scholars have contributed chapters on Thomas Dekker, Thomas Middleton, John Webster, Thomas Heywood, Anthony Munday, Michael Drayton, and the anonymous plays. A final chapter takes the form of an annotated bibliography on "Other Dramatists." The general pattern of the essays is to first present biographical and general works; then a discussion of criticisms of individual plays; and finally a section on the canon, giving attention to chronology of the plays, standard editions, apocryphal and nondramatic works, and textual studies. There are separate indexes of personal names and of play titles.—E.S.

MOTION PICTURES
From approximately forty-two years of English-language writings on the film, Bowles has gleaned over 20,000 film reviews and more than 6,000 book reviews. He has attempted a fairly comprehensive rather than a selective or evaluative list of
reviews, indexing twenty-seven major film journals (both current and defunct) as well as several other important review sources such as Filmfacts and the International Film Guide. Film reviews vary considerably in quality, but remain, as Bowles points out in his introduction, a potentially useful source of information and/or analysis; and, of course, the critical work of many important film scholars and artists is represented in the reviews indexed here.

The film reviews are listed under the film title most commonly used by the reviewers, with cross-references from alternate titles; most of the review citations indicate reviewer’s name (when known), length of review, and extent of the credits provided in the review. Similar types of information—i.e., reviewer, length, amount of publication information—are given for the book review citations, which are arranged by title in a separate section. Diverse approaches to this material are made possible by the five valuable indexes to “Directors,” “Film Reviewers,” “Authors,” “Book Reviewers,” and “Subjects of Books about Film.”—A.L.


With the pompous claim that “the idea behind the book is completeness: we have tried to include all films which anyone seriously interested in the cinema would consider worth seeing” (p.xix), the authors announce the scope of this new English-language dictionary of films; later they qualify that statement by excluding most films under sixty minutes long, most documentaries, and “short experimental films”—three groups which certainly contain a number of films “which anyone seriously interested in the cinema would consider worth seeing!” Whatever one makes of such a naive claim to completeness, the facts are that this volume includes the authors’ selection of approximately 450 films (my estimate) made throughout the world between 1913 and 1949.

For each film, basic credits and technical information are followed by brief plot summary and commentary, averaging about a page in length. Some major strengths and weaknesses of each film are pointed out, and an effort is made to place it within an appropriate context of other similar films, other films by the same director, historical situation, etc. Arrangement is chronological by year of production, and within years the films are listed in order of “relative quality” (as determined by Garbicz and Klinowski; see p.xxi). Titles used are those “most commonly known in English-speaking countries”; an “Index of Films” includes these titles, cross-references from original titles, and titles mentioned in the text but not given separate entries. There is also an index of directors.

Despite considerable overlap with George Sadoul’s Dictionary of Films (tr. and updated by Peter Morris, 1972) in selection of films, each work contains a number of films from 1913 to 1949 not found in the other (presumably, future volumes of Cinema will, like Sadoul, cover post-1949 cinema). To summarize a few other differences between test dictionaries: In general, Sadoul includes more “minor” films; Sadoul’s concise analysis is often supplemented by quotations from directors and other film scholars and by information on remakes and other versions; and, since Sadoul covers more films in less space, his commentary is occasionally less extensive.

—A.L.

FINE ARTS


Begun by Dr. Tung-li Yuan and completed, after his death, by Drs. Vanderstappen and Hsio-Yen Shih, this bibliography was originally conceived as a companion volume to Yuan’s China in Western Literature (Guide DE47). The co-editors have expanded it into a comprehensive bibliography listing some 15,000 items. Included are books, exhibition catalogs, and journal articles written in English, German, Dutch, Scandinavian languages, Slavic languages,
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French, and other Romance languages published between 1920 and 1965. Major contributions published before 1920 and China-related materials from Tibet, Mongolia, Japan, and other surrounding areas are also cited.

The bibliography is in two sections. The first is a listing of books and exhibition catalogs; as an added feature, reviews of the books are noted when possible. The second part lists journal articles and special studies. Both sections are arranged by a detailed subject classification devised by Dr. Shih. There is an author index to both sections, plus lists of sources and collectors.

The work lives up to the high standards one has come to expect in Mansell publications, but one feature is lacking: an alphabetical subject index. Although one can appreciate the editors' reasons, the omission is still regrettable.—P.A.C.

Foundations


"Documentation on large grant-making foundations: entity descriptions; policies, programs, application procedures; grants."

—Title page.

Designed to relate the needs of fund seekers to the activities of foundations and to assist foundations in making their programs known to a wider public" (Intro.d.), this new publication will provide a useful complement to the Foundation Directory. It brings together essential, up-to-date information on the larger U.S. foundations operating on a regional or national basis with a view to assisting grant applicants in determining whether a specific proposal falls within the scope of a given foundation's program. Foundations are listed alphabetically, with the following information presented for each: (1) descriptive and fiscal data (based on the entry in the Foundation Directory, revised and updated as necessary); (2) statement of policy, programs, application procedures, etc.; and (3) a listing of recent grants illustrating the current program.—E.S.

Sports


Sports and games "which are the subject of national or international competition" are the primary concern of this new "Oxford companion." Board and table games, however, have been omitted, as have "blood sports" (bull-fighting is admitted because it is "a contest as distinct from a hunt" and because of the widespread interest therein). The intention of the articles is to "help the reader to understand a sport when he watches it for the first time. The descriptive section explains how it is played—as distinct from how to play it"—Pref. Detailed rules of each game are not printed, but a digest is provided, together with a diagram of the playing field, etc., as applicable. There are entries for individual sports figures and champions, and for specific sporting events and competitions. Articles are unsigned, but a list of contributors is given; there are occasional bibliographic citations. —E.S.

Ethnology


"Census statistics indicate that over the seven decades separating the first Russian census from the most recent one, the number of nationalities has tended to diminish as the smaller ethnic groups lost out to major ones closest to them culturally and territorially. . . . As a result the nationalities structure of the Soviet Union is becoming streamlined, the minor Soviet Nationalities growing leaner and the major ones fatter"—Intro.d. The intent of this book, then, is to present for each of the seventeen nationalities in the USSR data and information in three areas: (1) general: economy, history, demography, culture, etc.; (2) media: language data, local and foreign media, educational and cultural institutions; and (3) national attitudes: the factors forming them, views of scholars, and recent manifestations of nationalism. The latter section
is particularly concerned with the political relationships between the minorities and the Soviet authorities or the "Great Russian Majority."

Each chapter is by a specialist, and each is supplemented by charts and references. There is an appendix of twenty-nine comparative tables giving data on speakers of languages of major nationalities, urban-rural distribution by nationality and republic, national development, sociocultural development, etc. This is a composite reference work offering varied data and fascinating description and analysis—historical, sociological, cultural, and political.—M.A.M.


Addressed to professional anthropologists, to those who deal with Indians in an official capacity, and to the interested layperson, this classified bibliography lists almost 2,600 items included for their significant ethnographic content, for their focus on current Indian activity, for their lack of wide circulation, or for the fact of their being unpublished. Examples of this last criterion are stated to be "state and federal reports such as committee hearings, position papers, procedural guides, tribal government documents, etc."—Intro. A "study guide" summarizing the categories used precedes the main bibliography in which entries appear, alphabetic by author, under such topics as social organization, material culture, population dynamics, migration patterns, city living, economics, education, religion, etc. Full bibliographical details are given, and many items are annotated. Entries include books, articles, documents, dissertations, master’s essays, conference papers, and museum publications, chiefly from the last fifteen years. There is an index of tribes, states, areas, and regional groupings, but not one of authors. An introductory section, which incorporates recommended background reading, is devoted to Indian life prior to 1875.—R.K.

POLITICAL SCIENCE


Contents: v.1, Guide to the Archives of Selected Organisations and Societies. 330p. $15.77.

In 1970 the British Library of Political and Economic Science undertook a survey of contemporary political archives in Great Britain in order to locate, preserve, and identify them for scholarly use. The pilot project resulted in the publication of Cameron Hazlehurst and Christine Woodland’s Guide to the Papers of British Cabinet Ministers, 1900–1951 (London, Royal Historical Society, 1974). This new volume is the first of a projected three-volume guide; successive volumes will deal with the papers of selected civil servants and all members of Parliament for the period. The survey was apparently conducted principally in English archives, since three appendixes give only brief notes on relevant archives in Northern Ireland and Eire, Scotland, and Wales. Moreover, since guides to the contents of the Public Record Office exist, no survey was made of collections there. Reference to private papers was made only when no records were found in libraries and archives open to the public.

Political parties, societies, trade unions, pressure groups, and other institutions influential in contemporary British political life are entered alphabetically, with the exception of combined entries for temperance, women’s suffrage, syndicalist, and radical-right groups. A brief description of each organization’s history and purpose is followed by a survey of its papers (with some indication of printed sources) and information on their location and availability. The text concludes with a list of addresses of libraries and archives, followed by an index to the names of organizations and societies included. The utility of such a guide is obvious, and the high quality established by the Hazlehurst volume has been maintained. Subject and individual name entries in the index would have made this guide even more valuable.—D.G.

Norton, Philip. Dissention in the House of Commons; Intra-Party Dissent in the House of Commons’ Division Lobbies,

Upon occasion, Wilding's *Encyclopaedia of Parliament* notes, a vote in the House of Commons "is carried to a division, which is a physical separation into two lobbies of those members wishing to vote for and those wishing to vote against a measure. . . . The division lists record the names of the members taking part in a division and the manner of voting, and they constitute an official record which is reproduced in Hansard." Until very recently, political scientists and historians have been more interested in the dissent which takes place within a party before a vote is taken. With this compendium Norton hopes to direct interest toward the "cross-votes and other occasion of intra-party dissent which have taken place in the House of Commons' division lobbies from 1945 to 1974. . . . In each case, the names of those members who voted against the whip are listed preceded by a short *précis* of the debate upon which the vote occurred, with particular emphasis upon the views (if any) by those who subsequently cast the dissenting vote [or abstained from voting]"—Intro. The text is extremely well written, providing capsule summaries of some of the major pieces of legislation as well as some of the more frivolous bills. Of great interest is the conclusion, which points up the increase in intra-party dissent, especially from the backbenchers. There is a useful subject index and a members' index.—E.M.

**HISTORY AND AREA STUDIES**


The Institute of United States Studies was founded in 1965 to provide facilities for graduate study leading to the M.A. degree in U.S. area studies at the University of London. As part of this effort, the institute has published directories of educators in the field and lists of theses in progress, and has established a union catalog of American materials in the University of London libraries. Its newest project is an ongoing bibliography of books on American studies selected from the *British National Bibliography* and the Library of Congress MARC tapes. Published monthly (and available only in microform) with an annual cumulation, the bibliography lists materials in four sections: author, title, subject, and classified Dewey Decimal system. Complete cataloging information (including subject headings and Library of Congress and Dewey class numbers) is given for each entry. The institute advertises that "all books published anywhere in the world which are relevant to the study of the United States" are included, but an examination of a number of 1974 fiche showed no titles published outside the United States and the United Kingdom; similarly, all titles were English-language works. The 1974 annual cumulation listed 20,000 books (some published with earlier imprints) and covered a wide variety of formats (e.g., government documents and thesis reprints) and types (fiction and poetry are included, but juvenile literature and periodicals are not).

The fiche are computer-generated, negative-image, standard four by six inches, with 24× reduction ratio. Each fiche is clearly marked at the top with date, section, and contents; an index to the contents of each appears in the lower right-hand corner. Legibility is good. *American Studies Bibliography* can be ordered as monthly issues with annual cumulation, or as an annual cumulation only; individual sections may also be ordered separately. According to information from the institute, the 1975 annual should now be available; inasmuch as this review was based on the 1974 annual cumulation without access to the most recent monthly issues, the time lag for current coverage cannot be indicated.—D.G.


The basic European-language literature on the history, politics, social conditions, education, and economic conditions of the Middle East, the Maghrib (North Africa),
Turkey, and Iran is arranged by geographical area and by country in this extensive bibliography. Some Arabic, Turkish, and Persian works are included if necessary for complete coverage; works on Israel are included only as they bear on the Arab-Israeli conflict (for which there is a special section); and a section on arts and letters lists items chosen for social and political relevance rather than for "intrinsic literary or artistic value."

Monographs and journal articles of the period 1948-73 plus a small number of pamphlets are listed. The short annotations are mainly descriptive; they sometimes state the author's conclusions or term a work "scholarly," "informative," "sensitive," etc. The index is essential for its cross-references from variant spellings of names to the Library of Congress form used in the entries, and for access to entries which may seem misplaced (e.g., an item on slavery under "general works" or one on food and inflation under "history"). All told, however, this is a useful tool for students of the contemporary Middle East and for the beginning researcher.—M.A.M.


Issued under the sponsorship of the Royal Historical Society, the American Historical Association, and the Mediaeval Academy of America.

Librarians and researchers can be very pleased that Gross' Sources and Literature of British History... (2d ed., 1915; Guide DC119) has been so thoroughly revised and updated. Professor Graves and his committee of scholars have remained faithful to the purpose of Gross, emphasizing source material "and direct commentaries thereon, older standard or seminal studies in books and articles, and recent writings, especially those which set forth new or controversial interpretations or include modern specialized bibliographies, ... and auxiliaries to the study of history and the aids to historical research."—Pref.

The bibliography concentrates on English history from Roman times up to the beginning of the Tudor period when Conyers Read's Bibliography of British History, Tudor Period (2d ed., 1959; Guide DC110) commences. "Like the previous editions, it includes for the pre-Norman period some fundamental studies on Welsh and Irish history; but it comprises for the period from 1066 to 1485 only those studies about non-English areas which relate directly to England. ... No attempt has been made to include Scottish history." Format remains much the same, but the arrangement has changed from a primarily chronological presentation to a more topical one. Some of the section headings reflect the shift of interest toward economic and cultural history: e.g., urban society; intellectual interests; agrarian society; special jurisdictions (which include sections on forests, the Palatines, and the Jews); scholars, mystics, and their works. Availability of reprint or microform editions is indicated, but one wishes that the compiler had also noted the existence of pertinent microform series (e.g., the titles cited in Pollard and Redgrave's Short Title Catalogue, or the "Rolls series") or had pointed out that the Public Record Office and the Bibliothèque Nationale have issued lists of their collections which may be purchased on microfilm.

As long as one is carping, one wishes that Appendix D of Gross, "Chronological Tables of the Principal Sources," had been included and updated. Also, there are several bibliographies which could have been added to aid students working in specialized fields—e.g., the Crusades bibliographies of Atiya and Mayer, or the Bibliographie internationale de l'humanisme et de la Renaissance. But these are minor complaints, and limited space is a hard taskmaster. The scope, the headnotes, and the annotations, plus the detailed index make this bibliography a joy to use.—E.M.


Nineteen bibliographical essays on various military topics have been contributed
by noted scholars for this volume. Following the editor's general introductory essay, each successive chapter deals with a narrow field within the broader scope of the book. While the basic breakdown of topics is chronological (e.g., "The Navy in the Nineteenth Century, 1789–1889"), attention is also given to such matters as "Military and Naval Medicine." Civil War coverage was deliberately limited because of the sheer bulk of material and the existence of other guides. Urging the historian to reach beyond traditional manuscript and printed sources, the editor discusses picture sources in his introductory chapter, and P. K. Lundebek's final essay, "Museums as Historical Resources," continues the theme, surveying repositories of artifacts and other nonprint material, noting existing printed guides and catalogs as well as appropriate secondary writings.

Each essay begins with a discussion of general monographs and bibliographies, then proceeds to more discrete subtopics, citing articles and dissertations as well as books. Attention is given to archival sources and their printed guides, and suggestions are made regarding areas that need further research. At the end of each chapter is a list of all titles mentioned, with complete bibliographical information.

Although, as one might expect, there is some unevenness and overlap as a result of the composite nature of the work, these weaknesses are outweighed by the advantages of having an expert's appraisal of the field with which he is most familiar. Author, title, and subject indexes would have greatly enhanced the reference value of the work, but unhappily none is included. Nevertheless, anyone contemplating a research project in U.S. military history would be well advised to reach for this volume first.

—D.A.S.

NEW EDITIONS AND SUPPLEMENTS

The British Library's Subject Index of Modern Books Acquired 1951–1955 (London, British Museum Publs., 1974. 6v.) comprises some 175,000 entries and closes the gap between the 1946/50 and 1956/60 volumes of the British Museum's Subject Index (Guide AA68; Suppl. 1AA12). The new compilation employs the more specific forms of subject headings introduced with the 1956–60 volumes. A single index for the 1961–70 period is in preparation.

"More than 2,600 specialized and professional journals, about 500 of which appear for the first time" (Introd.) are included in the third edition (1975) of the Directory of Publishing Opportunities (Chicago, Mar­quis Academic Media, 1975. 850p. $44.50). Entries in this guide for scholars and contributors to professional journals are now arranged under sixty-nine subject fields.

Designed as an ongoing supplement to the Encyclopaedia Universalis (Suppl. 2AD7), a new yearbook entitled Universalis (Paris, Encyclopaedia Universalis, 1974. 196F) has now appeared. The 1974 volume covers "les événements, les hommes, les problèmes en 1973," offering a chronology for the year; a selection of essays on recent developments and problems; a section of alphabetically arranged articles on events, countries, personalities, and special topics; and a section of statistical data.

Fascicle 5 of the Oxford Latin Dictionary (Suppl. 2AE63) has now been published (Oxford, Clarendon Pr., 1976). It covers through the word "pactum" and keeps the work very much on the announced publication schedule of one fascicle every two years. The "second supplemented edition" of Harold Wentworth and Stuart Berg Flexner's Dictionary of American Slang (New York, Thomas Y. Crowell, 1975. 766p. $12.95) again reprints the basic volume which first appeared in 1960 (Guide AE72) and adds a revised supplement which includes all the material from the 1967 supplement (see Suppl. 2AE9), together with "about 1,500 new slang terms and definitions that have become current since then." The supplement has its own appendix of word lists and selected bibliography.

Entries for approximately 57,000 current periodicals are included in the sixteenth edition of Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory (New York, Bowker, 1975. 2,289p. $50). It updates and expands the information in the fifteenth edition and its 1974 supplement, and includes a number
of new features: e.g., information about microfilm availability; a separate “Index to Publications of International Organizations”; and an “ISSN Index.” A three-column page permits the presentation of all this additional information within the single-volume format.

Newspapers in Microform, 1973 (Washington, D.C., Library of Congress, 1975. 208p. $11.25) is the first annual supplement to Newspapers in Microform, 1948-1972. With separate geographical lists for the United States and for foreign countries (plus a combined title index), the annual series supplements both the United States and the Foreign Countries volumes of the parent work. In addition to reporting on new titles, it lists additional library locations for numerous items previously reported.

METRO (New York Metropolitan Reference and Research Library Agency) has published A Union List of Selected Microforms in Libraries in the New York Metropolitan Area as its “Miscellaneous Publication" no. 8 (New York, METRO, 1975. 322p. $22.50). The list not only provides locations for nearly 700 major microform series and unique or unusual items, but includes descriptive notes and references to finding aids or indexes for many of the series.

In the revised edition of the Lutheran Cyclopedia (St. Louis, Concordia Pub. House, 1975. 845p. $35), the number of entries has been increased, various articles have been reworked, new bibliographic references supplied, and a special effort made “to improve objectivity”—Pref. Although the previous edition (1954; Guide BB169) was prepared under the auspices of the General Literature Board of the Lutheran Church, this revision does not mention official church sponsorship; cooperation of various church affiliates is noted, however.

The second edition of Contemporary Poets of the English Language (Suppl. 3BD59) is entitled simply Contemporary Poets (London, St. James; New York, St. Martin’s, 1975. 1,849p. $35) and appears under the editorship of James Vinson. Not only have entries from the earlier edition been augmented and updated, but the work represents a somewhat different selection (i.e., some poets have been dropped, and a great many new names have been added). An appendix offers articles on nineteen poets “who have died since 1950 but whose reputations are essentially contemporary.”

Frederick Ungar and Lina Mainiero are the editors of a fourth volume of the Encyclopedia of World Literature in the 20th Century (Suppl. 2BD9). Termed “Supplement and index,” the new volume (New York, Ungar, 1975. 462p. il. $35) is made up largely of biographical/critical sketches of figures (from various decades of the twentieth century, not merely newly established writers) not appearing in v.1-3, but some new topical entries are also included. An analytical index to v.1-4 is also included (p.412-62).

Criticisms have been updated on approximately one-third of the authors included in the original three-volume set of Temple and Tucker’s Modern British Literature (Suppl. 1BD42), and forty-nine other writers who have gained critical attention since 1965 have been added in a supplementary volume (designated as v.4 of the set; New York, Ungar, 1975. 650p. $25), compiled and edited by Martin Tucker and Rita Stein. Bibliographies appearing at the end of the volume also serve to update the basic set.


Ruth W. Gregory is the editor of a third edition of Anniversaries and Holidays (Chi-
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cago, American Library Assn., 1975. 246p. $10.50), a revision of the 1944 work by Mary E. Hazeltine (Guide CF25). "The total number of entries is 2,736 as compared with 1,764 in the second edition" (Pref.), and covers holidays observed in 152 countries.

Among the changes and revisions to be noted in the "Bicentennial edition" of Richard B. Morris' Encyclopedia of American History (New York, Harper & Row, 1976. 1,245p. $25) are the additional coverage for minorities, ethnic groups, and women; the new section for mass media; new subsections for film and dance; and the expansion of the biographical section to include 500 sketches of notable Americans. Supplementary material from the previous edition (Suppl. 1DB6) has been integrated into the body of the work, and the whole is updated through 1973.

New chapters on Finland, Greece, and Luxembourg have been added in the revised and updated edition of Daniel H. Thomas and Lynn M. Case's useful directory (Guide DC3) now entitled The New Guide to the Diplomatic Archives of Western Europe (Philadelphia, Univ. of Pennsylvania Pr., 1975. 441p. $10). There are also new subsections dealing with the archives of the International Labour Organisation and the International Telecommunication Union. John Merriman Sims is the editor of the 1952-54 volume of Writings on British History (London, Univ. of London, Inst. of Historical Research, 1975. 346p. £14). It conforms to the scope and arrangement of the preceding volume of the series (1949-51, also published 1975) and, like that volume, includes a "Select list of books published . . . on British history since 1939."

What better way to celebrate the nation's Bicentennial than with a new edition of Historical Statistics of the United States? Now subtitled Colonial Times to 1970, this indispensable compilation (Washington, D.C., Govt. Print. Off., 1975. 2v. $26) has been revised and expanded to present more than 12,500 time series. It includes, with rare exceptions, all the series shown in the 1960 publication and its 1965 supplement (Suppl. 1CG6). The "Bicentennial edition" follows the general plan of the previous edition, though there has been some regrouping of material within chapters. In addition to the increased number of statistical tables presented, a few sections now include some data series below the national level.
PROGRESS IN BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION, Volume 1
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"... The need for review publications to distill the truly significant contributions from the superfluous and present the material in a way that is balanced and thought-provoking is obvious. The editors of this book have set themselves the task of not only providing a review but continuing to do so on an annual basis.

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Letters

Economic Analysis and the Book Budget: Round Four

To the Editor:

In my paper (C&RL 36:397-402) I sketched an economic approach to allocation of a library’s book budget, contrasting this approach to one offered earlier by Joseph J. Kohut (C&RL 35:192-99). My paper, in turn, brought forth a critique from Mr. Kohut and John F. Walker (C&RL 36:403-10). Let me offer, briefly, what I consider to be the most important issues involved in this exchange.

In their critique Kohut and Walker argue that costs are irrelevant in allocating resources among departments, but that there is a “strong case” for considering them for within-department allocations (p.408). The rationale for this dichotomy is that in the case of a single department, “the concern is not with collection worth, but with collection effectiveness (measured by usage) in relation to costs.” My position is that collection effectiveness (measured by usage and value judgments) is the concern within the entire library, not merely within individual departments.

When a family distributes its budget among all of the things which it would like, it considers costs. The same is true for any government or business. Why shouldn’t a library also consider costs and buy relatively less of those things which are more dear?

I regret that my original article included an assumption that “efficiency is the only goal of budgeting.” Actually, I agree with Kohut and Walker that equity is very important, but they use equity as an escape from rationality which can justify anything. Equity is a notoriously slippery concept. Sometimes it is considered synonymous with equality, but that raises a host of questions. Should all departments receive the same budget? That is unfair to large departments. Should all receive the same amount per student? That is unfair to departments whose students use the library more.

The article by Kohut and Walker is a good polemical short survey of the bad things which economists have said about benefit-cost analysis in the past twenty years. For example, they quote Weisbrod (p.406) to the effect that economists have overemphasized efficiency and ignored equity, even though his article from which they quote makes an important advance in correcting that imbalance. In fact, my article was based on a simplified version of the model Weisbrod developed in that very article.

The purpose of my article was not to provide a cookbook panacea for solving a difficult problem but to sketch a framework in which progress can be made toward a solution of it. Economists can help librarians to make better resource allocation decisions. While PPBS was unable to live up to the extravagant claims made when it was introduced in the federal government a decade ago, it did make some valuable contributions, even in such difficult fields as health and welfare. Economics can at least as well in the library field.

—Steven Gold, Economics Department, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.

The Literature of Participation

To the Editor:

Louis Kaplan’s paper in the November 1975 issue, “The Literature of Participation: From Optimism to Realism,” reflects such a misinterpretation of Rensis Likert’s theory of participative management that it should not be allowed to pass unchallenged.

Kaplan says that Likert recognizes only two styles of management, namely, “authoritative” and “participative.” Not so. Likert describes a continuum in style, one extreme being authoritative exploitive and the other participative. He divides the con-
Three timely reports on library systems from “the authority”

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Library Technology Reports (LTR) is a unique bimonthly publication of the American Library Association that provides critical evaluations of products used in libraries, media centers, schools, and other educational institutions. Its purpose is twofold: to enable librarians and educators to make economical purchase decisions and to alert manufacturers of library needs and standards of performance expected.

To order any of the above individual issues or for additional information on the complete subscription service, write to:

LIBRARY TECHNOLOGY REPORTS
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Chicago, Illinois 60611
tive management.

One of Kaplan’s justifications for his paper is the alleged unreliability of instruments used for measuring relevant variables. This complaint is invalid in Likert’s case. One of his greatest contributions is his instrument, entitled “Profile of Organizational Characteristics.” Used correctly, it is highly reliable. It has also been validated in large numbers of field tests. Likert’s 1967 book, The Human Organization, reported this instrument. Kaplan ignored this book, not recognizing the important contribution it makes.

Kaplan complained that Likert omits concern for certain variables. He claims that staff reaction to management is largely a function of individual personality regardless of management style whereas Likert claims that individual reactions can be modified by changes in organizational environment, particularly the leadership style. This is not to deny that personality plays no part. But Likert does not ignore personality. Rather, he deals with it as it cumulates to set a pattern for an organizational unit. He points out that certain conditions are necessary for a participative system to function. These include a competent staff, the potential for promotion and growth, and staff focus on high performance goals.

Successful administration of a participative system requires greater skill than an authoritarian system. Too often, a library administrator under criticism from his staff tells them to run the library themselves while he escapes to the golf course. He calls it participative management, and it fails. In essence, the failure results from the creation of a counterfeit system that is anarchic rather than participative. It takes highly competent, skilled leaders to make a participative system work. It doesn’t happen as a result of desire alone.—M. P. Marchant, Director, School of Library and Information Sciences, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah.

Response

To the Editor:

Marchant’s claims for participative management are clearly exaggerated; for example, he argues circularly that if a management style fails to evoke confidence and trust it cannot be participative. Other observers, meanwhile, are trying to discover why the participative style does not consistently yield such promised outcomes as trust and better performance. One such observer is Beverly Lynch, who in her review of Marchant’s doctoral dissertation (in C&RL 33:389) wrote: “Had Marchant presented the assumptions and limitations of Likert’s theory and offered empirical evidence that supported or limited the application of this theory... library science might have profited.”

Likert’s contributions to the study of organizational behavior are, of course, considerable, but it is a mistake to take his two books literally. Instead, these are better understood if read as an idealization of a single style of management (the continuum to which Marchant refers is a device used by Likert to distinguish between other managerial styles and the one Likert prefers). Any idealized version, as could be expected, will in time be subjected to critical analysis by authors probing for greater realism. An example is Robert Kahn, a highly respected, long-time associate of Likert, who recently admitted that he cannot explain why participative management does not consistently bring about predicted results with respect to better performance (see Organizational Dynamics 3:72). Perhaps Kahn should get in touch with Marchant. Or better still, Marchant ought to get in touch with Kahn.—Louis Kaplan, Professor, Library School, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

The Literature of Academic Librarianship

To the Editor:

Mr. Kaser’s article, “A Century of Academic Librarianship, as Reflected in Its Literature,” in the March issue, is an interesting summary of most of the principal aspects of the topic and a useful reminder of the considerable distance we have traveled during the past hundred years. For those who, like me, have witnessed the publication of the great majority of the titles he includes, reading of the paper was a journey into the known past. The categories—bibliographies, textbooks, standards, technical
processes and services, buildings, surveys—and the titles enumerated under each seem to me well chosen.

However, I sorely miss here a small but important collection of publications, omitted by Mr. Kaser perhaps precisely because they do not lend themselves to categorization. I refer to that miscellaneous group of seminal or nearly seminal monographs which, in contrast to almost all of the bibliographies, textbooks, surveys, etc., he covers, have broken new ground, brought us new ideas, or in some sense pushed back a bit the frontiers of academic librarianship. I have in mind such works as Kenneth Brough’s *Scholar’s Workshop*, Oliver Dunn’s *The Past and Likely Future of Fifty-eight Research Libraries, 1951–1980*, Herman Fussler and Julian Simon’s *Patterns in the Use of Books in Large Research Libraries*, Fremont Rider’s *The Scholar and the Future of the Research Library*, and Louis Shores’ *Origins of the American College Library 1638–1800*, the only scholarly treatment we have of any significant portion of the history of academic libraries in the United States.

I believe it does a disservice to academic librarianship and “reflects” unjustly on the total worth of its literature to ignore this handful of highly significant works.—*Periam Danton, Professor, School of Librarianship, University of California, Berkeley.*

**ON OUR COVER**

The Fifth Avenue facade of the New York Public Library, guarded by its two amiable lions, is the very image of a library in the minds of many. When occupied in 1911, the building demonstrated New York’s determination to take first place among the public libraries of the nation. As beneficiary of the Astor Library in 1848, New York had been favored by the services of the premier endowed reference library, but by the end of the century its early good fortune clearly was a factor in delaying the establishment of library services suitable to all the people of the community.

With the consolidation of the Astor, Lenox, and Tilden interests in 1895 and the inclusion of lending library functions for Manhattan, the Bronx, and Richmond in 1901, the New York Public Library was ready to move into the lead. In pursuit of the best, the trustees had early selected as their library director the distinguished and experienced John Shaw Billings, only recently retired at age fifty-seven from his position as head of the U.S. Surgeon-General’s Library.

Billings sketched out plans that, in consultation with Bernard Green, the construction engineer of the Library of Congress, and Professor William Ware of Columbia University’s School of Architecture, were developed into a statement of requirements for a competition among architects. The winning firm, Carrère and Hastings, designed a French Renaissance exterior for a building that was judged unusually well adapted to provide appropriate library services. The most controversial feature was placing the great reading room on the top floor of the three-story building, a location considered by many as inaccessible, but by most, including Billings, as desirably quiet and removed from traffic.

The great white marble structure rose in Bryant Park on the site of the old Croton Reservoir. Constructed at a cost of nine million dollars, the building easily contained the two million volumes possessed by the library in 1911, but, not surprisingly, it no longer suffices for the nine million volumes of the New York Public Library today. The handsome monument, named a National Historic Landmark in 1966, continues to serve as the home of one of the world’s great research collections and as the symbolic capstone of a system of libraries to serve the people of New York City.—*W. L. Williamson, Professor, University of Wisconsin-Madison.*

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BOOK REVIEWS


“A universe of libraries” is the apt term used by Director James W. Henderson to describe the Research Collections of the New York Public Library, which have been carefully viewed, evaluated, and presented in this new research tool. A ten-year endeavor, it will be heralded as a successful one by researchers, by cooperative library groups, by networks, and others.

Since last described in a 1941 volume compiled by Karl Brown, the Research Libraries collections have doubled in size, now comprising over four million volumes. The team of scholars chose to write a new edition of the Brown work rather than to issue a supplement to it. One does not find it necessary, therefore, to refer back to Brown’s Guide to the Reference Collections of the New York Public Library. The new Guide is formatted in the same style as the original work and, indeed, some of Brown’s phrasing is retained here and there.

Whereas the first Guide was arranged by the old Billings Classification Schedule, the new one is arranged by major disciplines and broken down under smaller subjects. There is a very good subject index as well as a relative index which leave us no cause for quarrel with the compiler insofar as access to topics is concerned.

Not every category of material owned by the library is included in the book; only the most noted and extensive collections are represented here. They are described in narrative form under the heading of the subject with which they are concerned.

“Woman,” for example, is a subheading under “Sociology, Statistics, Political Science,” which is a subheading under the larger sub-
ject "Sociology." This collection is described in a half page as a "strong subject in the Research Libraries," with a few details given about the personal papers in the collection of some outstanding women, commentary on donors to the collection, and figures given for the number of entries (12,000) in the catalog under "Woman." Reference is made to holdings in the category concerned with the feminist movement.

To inform the readers of this review what the volume is not seems also to be in order. It is not a checklist, a bibliography, a union list, a catalog. Few specific titles are mentioned except to make reference to manuscripts, outstanding works, or extremely rare items. The volume is not a history of the Research Libraries of the New York Public Library. For historical treatises on the great NYPL, please be referred to works by Harry M. Lydenberg and Phyllis Dain. It is not, as previously stated, an absolutely complete reflection of every collection held by the Research Libraries.

The guide is a needed new addition to library research tools so important today when computers, TWX lines, and other rapid communication media bind us ever closer and make an immediate response almost necessary instead of only desirable. But one wonders why ALA put such a high price tag on the volume, particularly since philanthropy played a large part in bringing it into being. Perhaps there is some reason not known to us. But, nevertheless, a vote of thanks to Williams, Jackson, Henderson, the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation, Emily E. F. Skeel, et al.-Roscoe Rouse, University Librarian, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater.


The author's purpose for this book is to present "a reasonably comprehensive discussion of library automation systems for the librarian without previous knowledge or experience in the field, and for the intelligent layman." The approach is historical; systems covered range from the pion-
raphy arranged by type of application. Citations are listed within application in reverse chronological order.

The chapter on problems is general; it is organized around the difficulties of three groups of people: computer center and systems personnel, suppliers of hardware and software, and librarians. Three other types of problems are also discussed: poor planning, poor design, and poor implementation.

The final chapter on prospects touches on networks, standards, minicomputers, commercial systems, and future developments. This chapter is short, general, and not especially insightful, but may stimulate questions from those beginning their examination of library automation systems and trends.

In summary, the book is easy and interesting reading. It contains a wealth of information presented in a free-flowing, pleasant manner and is a good starting point for those desiring an orderly review of what has gone on before. Also, the author and publisher succeeded in publishing material that was as timely as possible up to the point of publication. However, the $24.50 price tag is going to be hard to swallow.—Eleanor Montague, Project Director, Western Network Project, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education.


In the foreword to this volume, series editor Michael Harris indicates that the subject of this book is "the rise of the Library of Congress to a position of unrivaled supremacy among American libraries" (p.5). That rise was the work of Ainsworth Rand Spofford. His own writings and the introductory background describe what he did for the Library of Congress.

John Y. Cole is, perhaps, preeminently qualified to edit this volume and to discuss Spofford's career. Cole's doctoral dissertation is entitled "Ainsworth Spofford and the National Library," and he has written seven lengthy articles about the Library of Congress and Spofford. Part I of this work is a well-documented, precisely written history of Spofford's professional life. These details provide the background necessary to establish the context of the selections presented in Part II. The important features of Spofford's philosophy about the library and his profession are also highlighted in this summary. A skillful use of quotations encourages the reader to move directly and willingly into the selection of writings.

Part II is one of the most pleasant surprises this reviewer has had recently. Spofford was an opinionated, articulate person who had clearly defined goals and equally definite methods of achieving them. No librarian today would agree with all of his ideas. But any discussion about reference service or the role of the Library of Congress or book selection or the qualifications of a librarian or even classification could be vigorously stimulated by a reading of these essays. Would you characterize the Library of Congress as the "book palace of the American people" (p.43)? Spofford did, in 1899. He also saw the public library as the "people's university" (p.22). "Everyone seeking to know anything, should find the librarian a living catalogue" (p.152), he concluded.

Several of his writings may offer "new" solutions to hoary problems. His "First Annual Report" could serve as a model for a librarian describing library needs to a non-librarian supervisor. Present-day administrators might find that his arguments for more space in "A Wholly Distinct Library Building" could be used with great effectiveness. ALA's GODORT members will want to read his memo on "An Index to the Documents and Debates of Congress."

Librarians and library school students should read this book and study this man's ideas. The volume is a necessary acquisition for collections concerned with library history and library philosophy. John Y. Cole has reestablished an important figure in our professional heritage.—Judy H. Fair, Director of the Library, The Urban Institute, Washington, D.C.

Martin, Susan K., and Butler, Brett, eds. Library Automation: The State of the

These proceedings cover the state of the art in library automation as perceived by an experienced and distinguished panel of speakers in 1973. The overall aim of these papers was to identify, discuss, and evaluate trends in library automation using extant systems as illustrations. The editors have also included the dialogue which took place during discussion periods following each presentation.

The range of topics presented include a review of the previous five years, i.e., 1968-73, most ably done by Allen Veaner, who also summarizes with his own personal "shopping lists" of needs and goals for the future; and Ralph Shoffner gives a prediction of the future (four to six years from 1973).

Between those two ends of the scale are papers on the 1973 state-of-the-art by function. In her paper on technology, Diana Delanoy presents a brief but pithy summary including minicomputers and information retrieval enlivened by a couple of appropriate cartoons and tables; she even manages to fit in a useful list of guidelines for decision making. Lois Kirshner's paper on user services is a good overview especially in the area of circulation, although too brief in the on-line searching aspect. Cataloging is reviewed by Maurice Freedman thoroughly and with a refreshing, if categorical, approach. David Weisbrod on acquisitions, Pauline Atherton on the needs for systems personnel, and Walter Curley on innovative strategies complete the topics covered by this book.

It is a pity that the publication of the proceedings was so long delayed. The book now is of more interest in a retrospective sense, whereas earlier publication would have had immediate relevance for the profession. Nevertheless, the papers are still thought provoking and the discussions enlightening and interesting, especially when read in the context of developments in the field since 1973.

Although the bibliography contains a few foreign citations, the papers themselves do not mention some of the significant library automation projects under way abroad. This seems a significant omission. Another slight problem is the difficulty in following some of Shoffner's dialogue in the discussion section. One gets the impression that there are too many prepositions and not enough verbs and nouns. This reviewer was also disappointed in the paper on innovative strategies in systems and automation. While Curley's paper is interesting and informative, it addresses itself more to the possibility of eclectic choices in deciding which combination of systems and services to use rather than to the truly innovative strategies which certainly existed in 1973.

Comments throughout the book, primarily from Shoffner, Atherton, and Veaner, call attention to topics, primarily related to staffing, which should be included in future state-of-the-art reviews. Atherton's paper addressed itself primarily to systems staff needs and administrative shortcomings. But what of the other library staff and their training or retraining, or the impact of automation on patterns of library staff organization, or the manpower needs of the future? These subjects need coverage badly.

At one point Veaner posed this question to Curley: "What was the staff's reaction? What kinds of problems did you have and how were they overcome?" Curley's answer was: "Move the staff out ... and move a new staff in!" Later Shoffner expressed the view that R&D staff are the people who are responsible for the definition of a system and what it will do but are not responsible for its operating effectiveness. Such statements are dangerous and should not go unchallenged.

In conclusion, this book should be "required" reading for every librarian in 1976 for two reasons: (1) It is encouraging in these difficult times to note the progress which has been made since 1973; (2) the truths, admonitions, goals, and guidelines voiced in the papers are still very relevant; and reading the book will serve to keep goals not yet achieved in mind and in perspective.—Teresa Strozik, Associate for Li-

The entry of librarians into organized labor relations presents a largely misunderstood challenge to the ethics of librarianship, even though it is estimated that in the United States some 33 percent of school librarians, 20 percent of academic librarians, and 10 percent of public librarians already are represented by collective bargaining.

The purpose of the Allerton Park Institute held in 1974 was to examine library unionization in a dispassionate way. Thus, these ten papers review the evolution of the union movement, cover basic bargaining methods, and summarize the impact of bargaining on libraries. The first two papers conclude that librarians are on the threshold of unprecedented unionization, due to increasing financial problems and new laws allowing collective bargaining in the public sector. Five succeeding papers deal with legal considerations, bargaining agent recognition, unit establishment, topics of negotiation, and grievances. The concluding three papers assess collective bargaining as it applies specifically to libraries and include a simulated bargaining session and evaluations of public and academic library unionization. Appended are a comprehensive bibliography and a glossary of labor terms.

As a general introduction to the technical details of bargaining, this volume provides some helpful insights. It is not, however, a how-to book for librarians expecting a realistic guide to negotiations, nor is it an objective examination of what forms of participatory management have been achieved through bargaining.

It is in the final three papers, those examining bargaining as it functions in libraries, where the aim of the institute goes awry. The simulated bargaining session uses a plastics firm as its example, an unfortunate choice in that bargaining in the public sector, where most librarians are employed, is very different from the private sector where bargaining laws are less restrictive and there is little question of final authority. In addition, the evaluations of the effects of bargaining, both written by library directors, deal with library staffs in general and are apprehensive in attitude towards governance, arbitration, accountability, and other negotiable issues. Indeed, the paper on bargaining in academic libraries contains a whole section entitled "Threat to the Service Function." Further, the evaluation of academic libraries is by a Canadian who admits more familiarity with the libraries of Canada than those of the U.S., which is demonstrated by her misinterpretation of the bargaining unit model set at Wayne State University. (Contrary to her report, only supervisory librarians with final hire-fire authority, namely, the director of libraries and assistant/associate directors, are excluded from the unit.) Thus, in these assessments, collective bargaining is not objectively, nor always accurately, presented.

It is worth noting that, of all the contributors, only one represents a union; five are lawyers, agency representatives, or professors outside the field of librarianship; and only four are librarians, including two directors of libraries and two professors of library science. Only one contributor appears to have had actual experience as a negotiator representing library employees. Significantly, no rank-and-file librarians are included. Thus, this volume has a disturbing lack of balance between viewpoints. Clearly, library management and those not directly involved with some of the basic issues of collective bargaining in libraries are curious choices for presenting a fair and complete picture of library unionization.

A definitive analysis of collective bargaining in libraries is yet to be written.—Lothar Spang, Assistant to the Director, Wayne State University Libraries, Detroit, Michigan.

This volume provides an excellent reference bibliography and research tool on the history and organization of historic preservation and preservation experiences from buildings to archaeological sites. Supported by the National Museum Act of 1971, this publication was to serve as a third edition of an earlier reference guide to the subject. However, the proliferation of materials in the field has made this the first of a series with other aspects to be covered in future volumes. The editors have done a thorough job and produced an extremely useful handbook. They attempted to include "all the most significant references" rather than produce a definitive listing, though over 1,250 references and 90 periodicals are cited.

The organization of the work directs the reader through the many aspects of historic preservation, and the many short descriptive annotations are helpful within the larger categories to define the exact focus. Chapters cover Historical Preservation in Perspective; Preservation Law; Urban Development and Redevelopment; Preservation Research and Planning; and Preservation Action. Monographic titles and articles cover 1945 through 1973, with references to major titles planned for 1974. The many addresses for subscriptions and noncommercial publications are a boon, and there is a comprehensive index to assist in easy identification of all sources. Library of Congress entries are used.

The informational notes in each section are particularly helpful in gathering information on training programs, national and foreign organizations, surveys, and related sources. The Basic Reference Shelf list would form a good working core library for any interested organization. Especially good for local and state historical societies or any other group involved in attempts to save our historical heritage, this bibliography will also give invaluable direction to the student planning to enter this field. Concise orientation statements are included for each chapter heading which leads the reader through preservation research, surveys, planning, legalities, funding, actual restoration techniques, and state-by-state experiences. Overall, this is an excellent guide to the field.—Gay Walker, Head, Preservation Office, Yale University Library, New Haven, Connecticut.


The newly published *Guide to Polish Libraries and Archives*, compiled by Richard C. Lewanski, may be regarded as a necessity to those who are or will be engaged in research on Poland or, for that matter, eastern Europe. It gives, among other things, first-hand information about major Polish libraries, their location and resources. In the "scope and profile" notes, one may find information on a library's strength in particular subjects, helpful to the foreign reader. The easy alphabetical arrangement of place names, together with the index of specific subjects (which supplements the table of contents) is indispensable. Inclusion of the names of related institutions and their collections broadens the range of available research locations. Bibliographies for each individual library in the text supplement the information given in concise form. An additional listing of "Archives and Libraries in Museums" not included in the main work, and a "General Bibliography" (although incomplete) conclude this concise volume.

Unfortunately, there are many lacunae which should be mentioned to English readers in order to prevent them from concluding that this is all that one may find in Poland. In a country where every war changed political maps and which played a role as binding agent between Russia, Germany, and Austria, all archival Polish libraries should be carefully considered. It
is not clear what criteria guided the author to include such unimportant places as Plock, with its historical society, and omit other more important places like Oswiecim, where archives pertaining to the concentration camps during the German occupation are preserved.

Omitted, too, are libraries in Bytom, Drohyczyn, Miedzyrzec, Racibor, Oswiecim, Tarnow, Zamosc, and some other cities where one may find archives on subjects related to the countries bordering Poland. Since churches and monasteries in Poland played a great political and cultural role and collected and preserved much archival material, it is also hard to explain why the compiler chose the Academy of Physical Education Library in Warsaw but failed to mention Chrzaszczanska Akademia Teologiczna (Christian Theological Academy), also in Warsaw and which preserves the archives on all other religious denominations besides Catholicism. The library in Czestochowa is also less important than the library in Jasna Gora which is not mentioned at all.

In spite of such failures and omissions, this is the only tool available to foreign scholars and may serve its purpose well. One should not be distracted by the title but should consult this directory for information on bordering countries as well.—Peter Kudrik, Slavic Bibliographer, University of Michigan Library, Ann Arbor.


“What appears to be the first English rendering of a modern Italian writing on librarianship” (Marco’s foreword) is a translation of chapters II, III, and IV of the author’s longer work published in Florence, 1972. The book in hand is concerned with libraries in general, giving some attention to particular types, such as academic. In the main, it is a review of the literature on book selection published in Western Europe and the United States, with the addition of Ranganathan.

The author here and there adds his own evaluations, together with his constructive judgments and theory. There is difficulty in knowing exactly where Lunati is summarizing a work and where he begins to insert his own ideas. Furthermore, since he has cast the thought of writers of English and other languages into Italian, then had the material translated (back) into English, the final results are not always accurate. For instance, he apparently has Danton saying in his *Book Selection and Collections*: “The fact is that professors are of all persons the least qualified to take part in the process of selection” (p.85). I wonder whether the translator has not missed some of the fine distinctions which may have been in the original.

Lunati’s overall view is that most treatises on book selection require far too much knowledge and concentration on the part of the selector, while his own theory, “cultural selection,” is not only superior but within the capabilities of human librarians. This “cultural selection”—hinted at over and over, never made clear, but arousing great interest—is dealt with in the untranslated part of the original. However, Marco, reviewing the full Italian text (Library Quarterly 43:267-68 [July 1973]), was not satisfied with the development of the theory. Apparently it assumes a society less pluralistic than ours, and perhaps one changing at a slower rate.

The book is worthwhile, though; there is no question of that. Its main value is for widening horizons, historically and geographically. To know that for more than three centuries librarians have wrestled with the problems of selection is consoling. It is humbling to hear some of our widely accepted views, e.g., on the value of lists of “best books,” dismissed as Anglo-American peculiarities. We may well ask whether he is wiser than we in asserting that we have emphasized demand too much at the expense of value.

In the part which applies more specifically to academic libraries, the author deals at some length with Danton, usually agreeing with his conclusions. For some odd reasons, though, Danton’s tame and sensible remarks on building collections for the future as well as the present are called “ex-
Incessive and irrelevant” (p.94).

Anglo-American librarianship needs more ideas brought in from the outside, and in spite of the problems connected with this work, it is a worthy attempt—the kind of publication which ought to be encouraged.

—Robert Broadus, Department of Library Science, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb.


This volume is composed of seventy-six fictionalized problem cases exemplifying various aspects of library management. It is uncertain, however, whether this book is to be considered a revised edition of the author’s Management of Libraries and Information Centers (4 vols., 1968–71) or only as a revised edition of one of the four volumes. The author died while the volume was in preparation, and this point remains unclear.

Some of the cases are new. Most, however, are revisions in one form or another of cases which appeared earlier in one of the volumes of Management of Libraries and Information Centers. Each case is an episode in the life of a librarian. The cases cover all types of libraries. There are cases to be role-played. There are my favorites, the in-basket cases.

The general structure follows the author’s conception of the first three phases of management: organizing, planning, and controlling. The fourth phase, leading and motivating, was to have been a part of a projected volume, Library Personnel Cases.

Slight introductory material, of a few paragraphs, precede the cases in each chapter. These introductions summarize the managerial precepts that the cases in the chapters exemplify. Following each case, except for those of role playing, one or more questions or suggestions are appended. The questions occasionally do not refer to the more important points of the cases; and readers may have a tendency to focus on answers to the appended matter rather than on what they perceive to be the ramifications of the cases themselves. Since the book is to be used in management courses in library schools or in seminars, workshops, institutes, and continuing education programs, these suggestions or questions may inhibit the imagination of the reader as well as inhibit the initiative of the instructor or program leader.

There are indexes by title and by subject, but each entry refers to a case number instead of a page number. The time required to locate a reference is thus needlessly lengthened.

This edition is certainly better than the author’s Management of Libraries and Information Centers, because the author has eliminated some of the objectionable aspects of those four volumes, for example, the lecture outlines, suggested readings, or bibliographies in volume 2. Yet this is a volume which I judge should never have been published, because there are potentially few persons who should, or would care to, read it. Its sole justification might be in its becoming a library school textbook. Even that possibility is diminished greatly because management courses in library schools have changed so dramatically in the past few years.—G. A. Rudolph, Dean of Libraries, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS


Association of College and Research Libraries. Community and Junior College Libraries Section. Bibliography Commi-
Recent Publications / 381


NLA Newsletter: The National Librarian. Vol. 1-. 1976-. $10.00 per year. (Order from: National Librarians Association, 1705 Glenoaks Dr., Greensboro, NC 27407.)


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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.

Documents with an ED number here may be ordered in either microfiche (MF) or paper copy (HC) from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210. Orders should include ED number, specify format desired, and include payment for document and postage. Postage charges are $.18 for up to 60 microfiche or for the first 60 pages of paper copy; $.08 for each additional 60 microfiche or each additional 60 pages of paper copy.

Further information on ordering documents may be obtained from a recent issue of Resources in Education (formerly Research in Education).


Some university academic departments contend that they do not receive a fair share of approval-plan books. The study attempts to measure the proportion of books for each departmental subject in general publishing and to compare those ratios to their proportion in approval plan receipts. It also sought to determine whether and to what extent, book receipts that are low in some areas are also proportionately higher in cost. Results indicate that approval-plan selection closely follows proportions in general publishing and that some departments with small shares of books may require disproportionately larger shares of the book budget.


A guide to educational research and reference materials is presented for use at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, library. The materials covered include guides, overviews, dictionaries and encyclopedias, bibliographies, periodical indexes and abstracts, book reviews, unpublished research, tests and measurement tools, research reviews, dissertations and theses, statistics, directories, government publications, and biographical works.


In order to optimize the use of available bibliographic data in machine-readable form by Canadian libraries, the National Library of Canada is developing new automated systems. Implementation priorities are related to the development of national and international standards, systems, and networks. One major project is the design of a system, using MARC formats, for cataloging and compiling Canadiana, the national bibliography. Development of Canadian MARC tapes is another major project. A third project will be the establishment and coordination of an automated Canadian union catalog system.


Proposed guidelines for the selection and utilization of nonprint material to support the curriculum of the California State University System are outlined. These guidelines are organized into major functions and components of library organization and services. Six standards outlined are: functions, collections, staff, facilities, cooperative activities, and operations.

In order to investigate current campus utilization of media, a learning resources survey questionnaire was sent to all California State University and Colleges (CSUC) library directors. Results indicated that nonprint holdings in the CSUC libraries are marginal and mostly uncataloged, that equipment was meager, and that there are stronger ties between the audiovisual department and the library than between the audiovisual department and instructional television or computer centers.


A study was made to determine the present state of book storage in large North American academic libraries. A letter was sent to every academic library in the Association of Research Libraries to inquire if it engages in book storage. From the thirty-five which answered affirmatively, fifteen were selected for visitation. Results indicated that book storage is viewed with distaste because it inhibits free access to materials and because the costs of weeding, changing library records, and maintaining a storage facility mask its economic advantages. Two alternatives may be available: the conversion of library materials to a less bulky form or the reduction of individual collections through increased interlibrary cooperation. Although review of the policies and practices of the libraries revealed no firm guidelines for book storage, general suggestions were made for the size, location, and design of a storage facility; record keeping; weeding policies; and retrieval for patrons.


A discussion of alternatives and costs for building monographic bibliographic files for an on-line management system using minicomputers at the University of Minnesota Libraries considers secondary and primary sources of MARC II records, including Blackwell North America, Information Dynamics Corporation BIBNET, and Ohio College Library Center as potential sources of both retrospective and current MARC II records. Methods of partial retrospective conversion and the costs of using other bibliographic files in machine-readable form are also examined. In-house conversion costs for an on-line minicomputer system are presented as derived from the system installed in the University's Bio-Medical Library. The findings presented indicate that (1) building and storing at least a partial MARC II file on-line, with the remainder on removable disc packs, would cost less than telecommunication from other sources and (2) in-house retrospective conversion directly from catalog cards using the on-line minicomputer system would be less costly than using outside sources.


A guide which any library may use to achieve its own statement of personnel policy presents policy models which suggest rules and regulations to supervise the staffs of public and academic libraries. These policies cover: (1) appointments; (2) classification of positions; (3) faculty and staff development; (4) performance evaluations; (5) promotions, transfer, demotion, tenure; (6) separation from service; (7) employee relations; (8) working conditions; and (9) welfare and economic conditions.

An Evaluation of Computer Assisted Instruction in the Merrill Library at Utah State University. By J. Nicholls Eastmond, Jr., Merrill Library and Learning
A study was conducted for the purpose of clarifying decision alternatives concerning computer-assisted instruction (CAI) in the Merrill Library at Utah State University. A series of four questionnaires was used to poll students, library staff, faculty users, and prospective users. With the exception of a portion of the library staff, feelings expressed about the CAI system were generally positive. Negative feelings encountered were due to mechanical difficulties. It is concluded that the CAI system appears to have considerable support from users and is in a position—through anticipated expansion of terminal usage—to demonstrate a level of operation that is more cost-effective than has previously been the case.

Audio-Visual Space Reorganization Study.
By Martha Baker. Univ. Libraries, Purdue Univ., Lafayette, Ind. 1975. 63p. (ED 112 927, MF—$0.76, HC—$3.32)

Space layout and work-flow patterns in the Audiovisual Center at Purdue University were studied with respect to effective space utilization and the need for planning space requirements in relationship to the activities being performed. Space and work areas were reorganized to facilitate the flow of work and materials between areas, and equipment and material storage was reorganized to expedite retrieval and restocking.

Circulation of Materials for Purdue University Libraries. By Miriam A. Drake. Univ. Libraries, Purdue Univ., Lafayette, Ind. 1975. 31p. (ED 112 929, MF—$0.76, HC—$1.95)

A study of the Purdue University Libraries was conducted to help allocate costs by user group and academic department. A circulation survey was taken to determine user identification. The sampling included reserve material used in the library, materials borrowed overnight or longer, and use of photocopy service. Results of the study were compiled in six statistical tables which indicate the number of loans by location, level of user, and school and department.

Document Availability and Use Patterns at the University of California, Berkeley, Library: A Comparison with California State University, Sacramento. By Charles Martell. Inst. of Library Research, Univ. of California, Berkeley. 1975. 43p. (ED 112 931, MF—$0.76, HC—$1.95)

A study was conducted of three key availability characteristics of material at the University of California (UC), Berkeley, library system: (1) status of materials, (2) time required to obtain them, and (3) their location. These characteristics were examined in light of interlibrary loan criteria set forth in a major report on library cooperation by the Audits Division of the California Department of Finance. Circulation data gathered from the libraries of UC, Berkeley, and California State University, Sacramento, formed the basis for the examination. Using a classification algorithm developed by the Audits Division, it was ascertained that 82 percent of the books in the sample were high-use, while only 13 percent of the sampled books would have been available or eligible for interlibrary loan. It was determined that the highly dedicated delivery system recommended in the auditor’s report could not be justified without a substantial revision of the resource sharing criteria.


A selective dissemination service (SRIM) of the National Technical Information Service (NTIS) features semi-monthly dissemination of microfiche copies of documents newly added to the NTIS collection, on the basis of interest profiles. The service was used to test a university subsystem wherein a number of individual profiles were combined and submitted to NTIS as a composite. Microfiche documents received were duplicated in sufficient copies to meet local distribution requirements, including one copy for library purposes. The study indicates the effect of local agency in stimulating and mediating the use of an SDI
system, and the relative economy of local copying and redistribution of microfiche over direct ordering at current NTIS prices. SRIM is evaluated from the viewpoint of middleman and of users engaged in science, technology, and higher education.


A proposed reorganization plan for the J. Murrey Atkins Library of the University of North Carolina at Charlotte would organize the library in the collegial mold with two departments, Public Services and Technical Services. Within each department, librarians would form a faculty with emphasis on participatory management. Decisions involving the activities of particular library units would be made with the participation of the support staff working in that area. To implement this scheme, a three- to twelve-month period of analysis and implementation would be conducted with staff members other than department heads acting as coordinators for reorganization. Through training sessions, staff members would develop needed skills in management techniques, communication, and decision making. Detailed recommendations for implementing the scheme are included.


This second compilation of library network acronyms and initialisms cites sixty-one networks throughout the United States. Each annotated entry includes the network's acronym or initials, name, and address. A source of further information is cited in many entries, and an ED number is given for references available through the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC).
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