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Women Who "Spoke for Themselves"

The role and special contributions of women in the development of academic and research librarianship in the United States are shown through the careers of six major librarians: Katharine Sharp, Isadore Gilbert Mudge, Margaret Mann, Adelaide Hasse, Flora Belle Ludington, and Genevieve Walton.

The role of women in librarianship, and especially in academic and research libraries, has been characterized as one that dominated in physical numbers but did little to provide the leadership essential to a profession struggling to define and justify its own existence. Unfortunately, such a quick assessment does not point out the special significance of those unique women who did provide that leadership while overcoming long-standing and oppressive social traditions, which not only circumscribed their opportunities but also buried their contributions.

Even in 1976, analyses of those who rose to "prominent posts" note a Windsor, but not a Katharine Sharp, a Williamson, but not an Isadore Mudge; cite as notable contributors to the library literature a Billings, but not an Adelaide Hasse, a Bishop but not a Margaret Mann; or find reason to mention a Charles Smith, but not a Flora Belle Ludington or a Genevieve Walton. 

Yet the women were there and, as Holley notes, while there were "stories of women having asked 'Papa' Poole, Lloyd Smith or some other male librarian to speak for them in the deliberations at early conferences, they quickly learned to speak for themselves." In that speaking and in their doing lie many biographical studies; the following paragraphs address only six of those "library ladies" and their impact on the academic and research libraries of the twentieth century.

The major period of expansion of academic and research libraries in the United States dates from the 1870s and 1880s. By that time, the foundations of the system of postsecondary education were well established, and the basic variations—the colonial college, technical institutes, coeducational institutions, land-grant and other state universities—were easily distinguished. Not so clear, however, was the office of the librarian and the responsibilities of that office in terms of building an educational resource. As McElderry succinctly states, academic libraries, regardless of institutional "type," were often "a miscellaneous assortment of books, primarily gifts, few in number, poorly housed, and scarcely used."

At the same time, major public research collections, such as the ones in Los Angeles, Pittsburgh, and New York, were growing rapidly but had yet to be adequately housed, organized, and opened to the public with the full range of services that are commonplace to today's user. Although a number of women were involved in or closely identified with the development of academic and research libraries and/or the provision of special services, one of the first was Katharine Lucinda Sharp.

Katharine Sharp (1865–1914)

Katharine Sharp was associated with two key aspects of library history in the U.S.: education for librarianship and the promotion of a strong, accessible collection. Her direction of the first library school in the Midwest, at the Armour Institute of Technology in Chicago, from 1893 to 1897, and the continuation of that program at the
University of Illinois, from 1897 to 1907, gave impetus to the acceptance of formal library education as a basic component of preparation for professional work. Graduates of the Illinois program found positions in libraries and library schools throughout the country. As Dewey did before her, Sharp and her faculty colleagues imbued the majority of their students with a sense of the dramatic future of librarianship; those graduates, in turn, became influential advocates of the role of libraries and library service, which Sharp, herself, exemplified.

Katharine Sharp probably would be notable if she had done nothing but build a strong library school, but, in addition, she was instrumental in collecting and organizing the nucleus of the vast research library that currently exists at the University of Illinois. Illinois, one of the first of the land-grant universities, had a library when Sharp arrived in 1897. However, no previous librarian had the foresight or knowledge to take the odds and ends of materials that had been acquired until that time and make them accessible while encouraging the expansion of the collection. Yenawine, in his study on "The Influence of Scholars on Research Library Development at the University of Illinois," documents her ambitious undertaking.

Guided by library statutes and assisted by a Faculty Library Committee, Miss Sharp [by 1900] had consolidated the Library's resources in the Library Building, had departmentalized the work and trained a staff, had systematized procedures for book selection and acquisition, organized reference services, and had recataloged a large part of the collection.4

Such an accomplishment was not due to chance. All of her preparation had emphasized principles of "library economy" and a logical approach to collection development. In fact, that preparation and her own unique personality made her one of the widely recognized leaders of that period.

Sharp, in contrast to a number of other pioneers of that age, was a completely mid-western product. Born, on May 21, 1865, in Elgin, Illinois, she was fortunate in her attendance at the Elgin Academy, a progressively liberal school. She completed her studies at the age of fifteen and a year later was enrolled in Northwestern University. In 1885 she received the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy with Honors in General, Latin, and Special Scholarship. Ultimately she also earned a B.L.S. in the New York State Library School, a master's degree from both Northwestern and the New York State Library School, and, after her retirement, was given an honorary degree by the University of Illinois. There was little doubt that she was a brilliant student and, more important, was able to apply what she learned in a variety of situations.

Her first position involved teaching at the Elgin Academy, but this proved unsatisfactory, and she became an assistant librarian in the public library of Oak Park, Illinois, in 1888. Shortly after she began her second year of library work, she applied for admission to the infant library school that had just been transferred to Albany, New York, after Dewey's lost battle with the trustees of Columbia. Sharp's decision to apply to that school was a gamble, since she had to resign her position, move to the east, and study for two years under a man who was an extraordinary leader but also one of the most
controversial individuals in the country. It was, at least with respect to her future, a fortuitous choice, since Dewey was the professional contact who provided access to the "old boy network" of that period. During her years of study at Albany, Sharp gained further experience cataloging and organizing small collections in Illinois and Ohio. Her record at the library school was excellent, and she was, as Dewey noted, "easily first" in a class that also included Edwin Hatfield Anderson, Mary Esther Robbins, and William Reed Eastman. Dewey's identification of her as "the best man in America" to direct the library and library school at the new vocational institute in Chicago was the only recommendation necessary to place her in a position from which she could build a reputable educational program and, four years later, begin her consolidation and creation of the foundations of the research library at the University of Illinois.

The years of Katharine Sharp's career were relatively brief in number. She opened the Armour school in the fall of 1893 and some fourteen years later, in 1907, resigned from her position as head librarian, director of the library school, and professor of library economy at the University of Illinois. Although it was anticipated that she would eventually return to her library career, her delight in her position as vice-president of the Lake Placid Club and her tragically early death in 1914 at the age of forty-nine left no opportunity for that future involvement. Regardless, less than two decades of service to the profession produced accomplishments that are neither insignificant nor transitory. Her outstanding work in establishing the Illinois library school and formalizing the curriculum leading to a degree in library science was probably the factor most important in assuring the continuation of university-associated education for librarianship in the Midwest.

Her lifelong dedication to the future of library services in the state of Illinois led to the formation of the state library association and brought an extension of library service into many communities—through her founding and direction of a bureau of information and through the library courses she and her staff taught outside the Chicago and Champaign/Urbana communities. Although Sharp was unable to bring about the creation of a state library commission, she left a strong association, interested citizens, and numerous well-prepared librarians who were dedicated to the same ideals of service and library expansion to which she had devoted her professional life. She was an active and contributing member of other professional associations including ALA, where she served ten years on the council and two terms as vice-president.

Katharine Sharp's life, however, may not be best assessed in terms of the events just chronicled. In many respects, her most significant role came in the influence she had on others of that period—especially on the young women with whom she came in contact in those formative years of library work, who, in turn, brought their forces to bear on the library community. One such individual, a member of Sharp's staff at the University of Illinois, was Isadore Gilbert Mudge.

**ISADORE GILBERT MUDGE (1875–1957)**

In McElderry's analysis of the evolution of the academic library, five categories are identified, which, he suggests, represent chronological trends in service to readers. His first and second periods are described as ones concerned, as was Katharine Sharp at the University of Illinois, with the "accumulation of materials" and the "organization of resources." The third facet of library growth, the "personal assistance to readers," was also of singular interest to Sharp, who brought to Illinois, in 1900, a woman who was to earn a special place in the history of library reference services.

Isadore Gilbert Mudge, as her biographer, John Waddell, notes, was born March 14, 1875, the oldest child of Alfred and Mary Ten Brook Mudge. Both her parents had been raised to respect the importance of higher education and to appreciate the satisfactions of professional achievement. Her maternal grandfather, Andrew Ten Brook, was a minister, a professor, and for many years the librarian of the University of Michigan; her paternal step-grandfather, Charles K. Adams, was the president of Cornell and later of the University of Wisconsin and was instrumental in the building of fine new libraries at both places. . . . It was a family of achievers.
Mudge, just ten years younger than Katharine Sharp, also reached college age at a time when she was able to attend an institution of higher education other than those that catered solely to females; she could think seriously about a career other than marriage. Given her background and fine educational preparation at the Adelphi Academy in Brooklyn, she found little difficulty in matriculating at Cornell University in 1893.

She was an excellent student who was one of three elected to Phi Beta Kappa in the junior year but, more important, was given the opportunity to study under a number of superlative professors and to make use of an excellent library: "Probably nowhere else in the world could a young woman of her age have had access to such a strong collection, and it is obvious from the nature of the courses she took and the high grades she made that she must have spent countless hours using its resources." 9

Mudge enrolled in the New York State Library School in 1898 and graduated in 1900 having earned the B.L.S. degree—again with an outstanding record including a "100" in reference. Not surprisingly, she was recommended to the "demanding" Miss Sharp of Illinois, who wanted only the best for her library staff and her school.

Katharine Sharp had recognized the need for specialized reference personnel early in her career. When the library school was transferred to the university, Sharp fought to employ highly qualified individuals to carry the responsibility of both giving and teaching reference service. As she wrote in 1901, "without a reference librarian to devote her entire time to the work, a university library must be restricted in one of the most important phases of its work." 10

When Mudge arrived in the summer of 1900, she had a tremendous task to handle, with what was then a paltry collection compared to those resources available at Cornell or some of the other universities of the East. However, even in these early years, she had a certain sense of the role of an effective reference librarian. Her statement of the function of the reference department, in 1902, noted that "an all-round, well-balanced collection of the best reference books in English" should be built; that it should be located "where it can be most easily and conveniently consulted"; and that the librarian should "give personal help in the use of the library whenever possible and in giving such help to endeavor always to help the student to independent and intelligent use of the library resource." 11

During the same years that Mudge gained valuable first experiences at the reference desk, she also taught in the library school. Although her teaching methods were not comparable to those of later years, given the nature of the Illinois collection and the relatively elementary nature of its curriculum, the involvement and her contact with Sharp, Margaret Mann, Minnie Sears, and others provided the basis for future friendships as well as for professional development. Sears became a special friend and collaborated closely with Mudge in both her library and literary work of the next several decades.

By 1903 Mudge was ready to return to her beloved east coast. An opportunity for advancement came in the acceptance of the position of head librarian at Bryn Mawr. It
is likely that Dewey was again involved, since graduates of the Albany school had been earlier librarians at that college; Sharp also recommended her and wished her success.

Sears went with Mudge to Bryn Mawr as her cataloger, and both left the college in 1907 to spend a year traveling in Europe. After the year there, during which she and Sears compiled A Thackeray Dictionary, she spent the next three years in a variety of activities. From 1909 to 1911 she worked with William Dawson Johnston, librarian at Columbia, in compiling a directory of special collections in American libraries. In 1910 she was employed at Simmons College library school where she was recognized for her teaching ability. In the same period she contributed the first of numerous reviews to Library Journal, and, possibly most important, Mudge took over Alice Bertha Kroeger's Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books and published supplements in the Library Journal. In 1917 Mudge edited her own first full edition, the third of the Guide; it became the undisputed leader among reference tools of that type. Mudge eventually edited four editions—1917, 1923, 1929, and 1936—before her successor, Constance Winchell, took on the job. As Winchell later wrote

Miss Mudge became the outstanding authority on reference books, and her Guide has been known and consulted in libraries throughout the world. Her thorough familiarity with reference books and reference techniques, her clear thinking, her wide knowledge and remarkable memory, and her deep interest in the subject and in the student or research worker, all combined to impress her influence on succeeding generations of students, colleagues—all who used her book.

Closely tied to her ability to earn this reputation and produce the Guide was Mudge's career at Columbia University. Although Simmons College desired to keep her as an instructor, Mudge claimed that she had "for some reason set my mind on wanting Columbia from the days that I was at Cornell." Her interest in the institution eventually led her to accept a position in gifts and exchanges, which began February 6, 1911. A few months later, on June 15, she was appointed reference librarian, a position she held until her retirement thirty years later, in 1941.

In 1927 she added the second element to her distinguished career when she was made an associate professor of bibliography of the recently opened School of Library Service, which had grown out of a merger of the New York State Library School at Albany and the library school that operated within the structure of the New York Public Library. The combination of Mudge's dual role as reference librarian and instructor plus the superb facilities of the university library provided the environment that shaped the future of much of reference work in America. During the years of her tenure she focused on the centralization and expansion of the collection, the selection and education of staff, and, key to it all, the definition of professional service to the scholar.

Word of mouth reputation of Mudge's services spread, so that in a relatively short time she was able to demonstrate factually to the library administration something of the achievements and the growth of her department. Staff and collection were important in furthering the development of the reference department, but the real key to success was, of course, Mudge's almost superhuman skill in answering questions of great variety in subject and in level, and in training her carefully chosen assistants to learn to do almost as well. In later years she phrased a glib prescription for success in reference work, which she called the three M's—material, mind, and method.

A glib prescription or not, Mudge's three "M's" became the basis for her resourceful and influential classes in the library school—classes that in turn produced future instructors who based their methods on her work. As Winchell later wrote, "probably no other one person has contributed so much to raising the standards of reference collections and reference service in the libraries of this and other countries."

That rare spirit was eventually recognized by the American Library Association, which established in 1958 the Isadore Gilbert Mudge Citation to be given to others who had, in the image of Mudge, made a "distinguished contribution to reference librarianship."
MARGARET MANN (1873–1960)

"Her chief service to librarianship," wrote Bishop in 1938 when Margaret Mann was preparing for retirement after a career that had spanned four decades, "... is the training she has given her students in earlier and later years. She has shown them that cataloging is work of absorbing interest and never-ending variety; that classification of books calls for a happy combination of scholarship and practical sense; that both are fundamental processes in the conduct of any library." William Warner Bishop, perhaps, overemphasized the final years of Mann's professional life, when she was the best known instructor in cataloging and classification in America.

Mann had spent at least as many years in cataloging materials as she spent in teaching, and her contributions in this area, if not unmatched in her time, surely identified her as an expert in the field. At the same time, her climactic years in the library school at the University of Michigan did focus her ideas about the organization of resources in such a way as to produce her classic text, Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books, a work described by Lehnus, in his analysis of "milestones in cataloging" as "not only the most cited manual, but also one cited as much as others which have had more recent revised editions... Even though there are more recent texts than that of Mann, hers has proven its superiority through its quality."

Margaret Mann's entrance to librarianship did not build on the educational and cultural strengths seen in the background of both Sharp and Mudge. She was born on April 9, 1873, in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, and her early years were circumscribed by the rural community in which she was raised and in which her father worked as a dry goods merchant. After Amasa Mann moved his family to a suburb of Chicago in 1890, Margaret was able in 1893 to obtain her secondary diploma from Englewood High School. She was then twenty years old.

As with many young women of that period, her options for employment were limited, but she was able to benefit from the circumstances that brought, in the year of her graduation, the opening of the Armour Institute library school. She passed the application test for the Armour Institute library course with ease and was one of twelve young women who began study on September 14, 1893, in the first class of the Department of Library Science. From that day on, Margaret Mann's future in the profession was assured—both by her own abilities and her contacts with Katharine Sharp and, through her, Dewey.

Records indicate that she was an all "A" student who was so expert that Katharine Sharp hired her, in 1894, after only a year of study under limited conditions, to catalog in the Armour library and, also, while taking a second year of work, in 1895–96, to serve as an instructor in the beginning classes.

Mann was especially attracted to the area of cataloging and classification; it not only appealed to her own well-organized habits and intellectual interests, but it was, at the time, the only area of librarianship that was codified in any systematic way—there was something upon which to base decisions. Moreover, she was an advocate of the basic
assumption that the catalog was the key to effective library use and that its value was based on the skill of the cataloger. She not only practiced this belief, as is evident in her innovative and user-oriented catalog modifications found at the Carnegie Library in Pittsburgh and the Engineering Societies Library in New York, but she made it the emphasis of her courses in which she stressed the discipline of the subject.

[The study of cataloging] develops an exact way of thinking and doing, and the student comes to realize through such a course the importance of system, accuracy and order. He comes to accept the fact that, no matter how much knowledge one acquires in handling books, unless this knowledge can be satisfactorily passed on to others, the library is not fulfilling its purpose.22

When the Armour Institute library school was transferred to the University of Illinois in 1897, there was never any doubt that Mann would make the move with Sharp. A close and special friendship had developed between the instructor and student. During the period at Illinois, Mann did much to support the massive changes that Sharp had to bring about in order to get the library and library school operating in an efficient manner.

Prior to Sharp’s arrival, there had never been a consistent policy of cataloging and classification so that many of the resources needed, at the very least, to be accessioned, shelflisted, and prepared for the shelf; other material needed major reorganization. The only help came from the library school students who had to be closely supervised, but, by the end of the first year, the annual report could state that the library had its material “arranged for easy reference, with its records all systematized.”23

By 1899 Mann was serving both as assistant librarian and senior instructor as well as personally handling all government documents, college catalogs, and other miscellaneous resources. When Edwin H. Anderson, then librarian of the Carnegie Library at Pittsburgh, offered her the position as head of the Cataloging Department in 1902, she could not refuse and, from 1903 to 1919, was instrumental in directing the development of the catalog at that institution.

The Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh enjoys a peculiar distinction among American libraries—a distinction which it owes directly to Margaret Mann. It is the sole American library of size and importance which has published a classified and annotated catalog on a large scale . . . . The execution of this huge and formidable task was carried out under Miss Mann’s close and continuous supervision.24

Although her long years of work at Pittsburgh began to suggest that she might eventually retire in that community, Mann readily accepted a totally new challenge in 1919 when Harrison Craver asked her to bring order to the assorted libraries of the United Engineering Societies in New York City. This work in a special library not only added to her cataloging experience but brought to a forefront her ideas about adapting a collection to the needs of the user and producing a usable catalog. As she wrote several years later,

... libraries are formidable places at best . . . . People who use the library are immediately aware of their shortcomings and very few like to expose the fact that they do not know the answer to the question they want to look up . . . . With this situation it is much better for the shy reader (and there are many of them) to be able to go to the catalog and look up his own information. He will be more likely to come again if he can help himself.25

In addition, she was quick to utilize the idea that a classified catalog worked more effectively than a dictionary catalog when used with certain subjects—so the Societies’ library had a special classified catalog that gave, she noted, “a logical arrangement of titles to supplement the illogical dictionary arrangement.”26

After five years, the collection of the Engineering Societies was largely recataloged and well-organized. It was then that Mann turned her attention to a different and even greater challenge—teaching cataloging and classification in Paris at the Ecole des Bibliothécaires. She taught there for only two years, 1924–26, and although she might have stayed longer, family concerns, several teaching offers, and an agreement to write the ALA textbook on cataloging enticed her to return.

Bishop persuaded her to come to his newly formed library school at the University of Michigan; it was Margaret Mann’s last professional home. The final twelve
years of her active career, 1926–38, were a fitting capstone as she was internationally recognized as an exceptional, talented teacher whose textbook became a classic almost as soon as it was published.

ADELAIDE R. HASSE (1868–1953)

In 1897, an issue of the San Francisco Call ran a two-column illustration of Adelaide R. Hasse and headed it with the phrase, “Famed for her Library Knowledge.” As the information under the picture noted, Hasse had formerly been employed by the Los Angeles Public Library and had later “distinguished herself” in the Bureau of Public Documents in Washington. Furthermore, the notice went on, “no woman in the country has a more thorough knowledge of the public documents of the United States than has Miss Hasse. So complete is her information in that line that the head of the bureau has often referred to her as the ‘living index.’”

The occasion that had caused this glowing commentary to be published was Hasse’s appointment as head of the documents department in the Astor Library, which had just been consolidated with the Lenox Library and the Tilden trust to form the New York Public Library. Within a few years, the documents collection “became, the Library Journal observed, ‘so completely equipped and so well organized as to form a model of its kind. ...’ Miss Hasse and her staff produced valuable bibliographies and checklists [and] in 1911 ... they provided[d] service directly to the public.”

Adelaide Hasse, as was true of Sharp, Mudge, and Mann, brought her own unique personality and background into focus when she became a librarian. Born September 13, 1868, in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, Hasse grew up in a family in which her father, a successful surgeon and renowned botanical researcher, gave his children many opportunities to study with private tutors and to share in his own literary interests. Dr. Hasse moved his practice on several occasions, and Adelaide also came to enjoy different environments and to delight in travel.

Adelaide’s penchant for what she called “collecting,” which originally referred to her enthusiasm for reading and discovering information of all kinds, quite logically brought her to a place where collecting was keen—the Los Angeles Public Library. There, in 1889, Hasse became the library assistant to Tessa L. Kelso and took the first steps on her remarkable career path. Years later Hasse noted:

... collecting is great fun. Every employer I have had has been a collector. My first employer was a woman, and it was she who gave point and direction to my natural bent towards collecting. She herself was a remarkable collector of experience. Having had but little library experience herself, she was able, by her ability as a collector of the experience of others, to avail herself thereof and, on the strength of it, to build up one of the livest, most progressive libraries I have known ... [She] aroused my interest in the possibilities of specializing in government documents. She was so sympathetic in her efforts that, almost without being aware of having done so, somehow I had organized the collection of documents, not inconsiderable, in the Los Angeles Public Library, devised a classification for them, and had begun a checklist of them.

From that checklist came the first of nearly two dozen bibliographies that were
published during the sixty years of Hasse's career—publications that were instrumental in identifying and organizing state, federal, and foreign documents on a variety of topics including, among others, public archives of the thirteen original states, demolition-blighted areas, the trade paper press, finance, Department of Agriculture publications, foreign affairs, and her invaluable Index of Economic Material in Documents of the States of the United States, a monumental reference resource, which was "in itself a life work for any less industrious and persistent person." Moreover, from 1894 to 1939, there are more than fifty articles by Hasse, published in a variety of library and nonlibrary sources, that perceptively define an active and competent library institution as well as chastise an often inactive and incompetent library staff.

Hasse's work in the Los Angeles library was singular enough to bring her to the attention of individuals who had major difficulties in document organization—the U.S. government. The first section of her checklist of public documents, which dealt with agriculture, brought a request from that department for its publication. Shortly thereafter, knowledge of Hasse's skill in this area was such that, in 1895, she was offered the position of librarian of the office of the Superintendent of Documents. This position and the office were created by the passing of the Printing Act of 1895, which centralized the distribution and sale of government publications as well as the preparation of bibliographies that would index them. Her duties in Washington were to care for the current documents after they had been recorded by the cataloguers and to collect all other documents. The Richardson Bill gave to the Superintendent of Documents the authority to remove to his custody from all the departments all the accumulations of documents not in use for the business of the departments. The removal of these accumulations fell to me.

Two years after she arrived in Washington, John Shaw Billings, then director of the New York Public Library, visited the documents office, observed her efforts, and offered her a position in the Astor Library. She accepted the position and, in 1897, moved to New York. Hasse had tremendous respect for Billings, who had, in her estimation, an international perspective on the functions of a research library and the scope of its resources. She was given the opportunity to travel and acquire materials and was responsible, in 1902, for locating a copy of the supposedly lost 1695 Bradford Journal, which she later edited. After Billings' death in 1913, Hasse lost much of the momentum that had, with his support and interest, helped her to build an excellent documents collection and develop user-oriented services for businessmen. He had supported her in the compilation and publication of several significant bibliographies; her work in ALA also led to her preparation of a catalog handbook for documents.

The new administrator of the library, E. H. Anderson, was not judged by Hasse to be a worthy successor to Billings. A disruptive and destructive personality conflict between Anderson and Hasse developed. She was not one to bear her troubles silently, and Anderson would not, could not allow her criticism to go unanswered. With the outbreak of World War I, matters grew even worse and rumors circulated throughout the staff about Hasse's pro-German sympathies. She perceived what she considered to be inferior work all around her; a catalog she had spent years developing was given to another department to manage; and, ultimately, she believed that she was purposely "ostracised from any activities of the library" including, in 1917, omission in the annual report of the librarian of reference to the work of her Economics Division, whose effective and resourceful services had become famous in the New York business community. By 1918, the entire matter had gone beyond reasonable reconciliation, and Hasse's resignation was requested. Never one to retreat, Hasse refused to leave quietly and requested a hearing before the executive committee. Her request was refused, and in October her employment was "terminated."

For anyone other than a personality of the strength and determination of Adelaide Hasse, the affair would have ended a professional life. Hasse, however, in addition to her own drive, had many colleagues who supported her regardless of their interpreter-
tion of the incident. She returned to Washington, by request, and during the years from 1919 through the early 1940s continued to organize records, prepare bibliographies, serve as a research consultant, and teach in the local universities. She officially stopped working in 1952 at the age of 83, with her last major effort directed to the editing of state records for microfilm publication.

FLORA BELLE LUDINGTON (1898–1967)

Although all the women profiled to this point had active careers in regional, state, and national associations, only Flora Ludington was able to scale the political ramparts that produce American Library Association presidencies. She was still a novice librarian when Sharp was dead, Mann an internationally known cataloger, Mudge an increasingly recognized authority on reference works, and Hasse a thirty-year veteran of special library services for the economics and business world.

Ludington came to the profession of librarianship when it was in the throes of serious criticism about its educational system, had yet to establish and clarify many of its standards, and had far more unanswered questions about users than it had answers or even the right questions. During her distinguished career, which was involved with two colleges—Mills and Mount Holyoke—and international library development, Ludington never lost sight of the first responsibility of the librarian—to bring together books and people, and she would add, “books that will inspire the mind, that will throw fresh lights on current problems... books on a variety of subjects, not necessarily new books... good books.” Her reading as well as her writings encompassed many diverse fields, and are worldwide in their extent. She was librarian, bookman, collector, and, perhaps, of greater importance, an informed and active citizen of the world.

Flora Belle Ludington was born November 12, 1898, in Harbor Beach, Michigan, but while still a child, she moved with her family first to Idaho and later to Wenatchee, Washington. Her earliest association with library work came at the age of fourteen when she served as a volunteer in the local Carnegie public library. That experience and her lifelong enchantment with the delights of reading and the joy of learning also involved her in work in the library of the University of Washington, Seattle, where she took her B.A. degree in librarianship, in 1920.

In her work in the library classes at Washington, she came under the strong guidance of William E. Henry. He was extremely supportive of the educational precept that “no one can teach efficiently who lacks enthusiasm for the subject taught, or who is deficient in human interests as distinguished from mere subject interest.”

The instructors at the library school were selected because Henry believed that their interest was the “welfare of the student.” In addition, he espoused the then basic philosophy that the instructors should be practicing librarians. When this emphasis on the personal touch was combined with small classes and field work in the library, the stage for the Ludington career was well established. As one graduate and later professor of the school wrote,
... every student went out with a call to service.
... As future librarians we became aware that we would have in our charge the recorded history of mankind. ... we were responsible to see that books and information were diffused as widely as possible. There was nothing passive about librarianship and if we were to measure up to the demands of the profession, we must be up and doing.40

“Up and doing” was soon to be a life-style for Flora Ludington. Upon completion of her bachelor’s degree, she was employed to work as an assistant in the circulation department of the university but left to gain additional knowledge by studying for a year at the New York State Library School. That year, 1922, ended with her first significant work as an assistant librarian, then added the role of assistant professor of bibliography, and, from 1935 to 1936, was associate librarian. (In addition, she took the opportunity to earn a M.A. in history from the college; it was awarded in 1925, and, in that same year, she was granted the B.L.S. from the New York State Library School.)

The institutional memory at Mills College of her devotion, as well as her competence, was keen enough to bring the award of an honorary Doctor of Laws degree in 1953. The citation read: “Alumna of this college, and held in its affections; librarian who is a lover of learning as well as a custodian of books; leader in her profession at home and its honored representative abroad.”41

In 1936 Ludington was appointed librarian at Mount Holyoke, and she held this position until she retired in 1964. Although her primary responsibility remained in her work at Holyoke, she also carried on three other professional involvements: teaching, international library work, and association activities. From 1930 to 1943 she taught in the library schools, on one occasion or another, at the University of Texas, San Jose State, and Columbia University. Ludington’s international library concerns were linked with her ALA work on the International Relations Board. During World War II, she was chairman of the Special Committee on International Cultural Relations and took a war leave from Mount Holyoke so that she could direct the U.S. information library in Bombay, India, from 1944 to 1946.

Miss Ludington served for several months in 1948 as visiting expert on information libraries in Japan for the Supreme Command for Allied Powers and was awarded the Certificate of Achievement of the Civil Information and Education Section. She was a member of the USIA’s Advisory Committee on International Cultural Relations [from 1957 to 1964.] As chairman of a committee working with the ALA and the Ford Foundation to establish a library school at the University of Ankara in Turkey, she visited libraries there and in Lebanon in 1957. In 1959 she studied library development in Africa under a Rockefeller Foundation grant.42

Ludington was chosen as vice-president and president-elect of the American Library Association in 1952; she was president in 1953–54. Her election to that post came after years of service to a number of committees and boards. In her inaugural address she noted that with the growth of libraries and consequent civilization, the bond which has kept the profession together is a firm conviction that books and the reading of them are important in a free society. ... In an age of mass communication by means of the motion picture, radio and television the book may well offer a unique opportunity for one mind to meet another mind. ... The freer the society, the greater is the responsibility of the individual to be informed on the issues of the day.43

Her words were lucid reflections on a contemporary issue of monumental concern: it was the era of McCarthyism and intellectual freedom was under concerted attack. The Los Angeles conference during which she spoke endorsed the declaration “On Freedom to Read,” which then and now enunciates the principle that the library “offers the opportunity to gain the information needed to understand diverging points of view on local, national and international affairs. ... It imposes no thought control.”44

Not separate, but certainly distinctive in its own significance, is the administrative role Ludington played at Mount Holyoke. In the 1930s Mount Holyoke was in the midst of a major educational revision; it was apparent that the collection needed to be evaluated, and Ludington was quick to rec-
ognize that a small college needed to cooperate with other institutions. Her emphasis on library cooperation was a major thrust of her life, and, when the Hampshire Inter-Library Center, Inc., was formalized in 1951, she would declare

no institution is an island sufficient unto itself, especially a library. It is rather a reservoir, continuously fed from many streams, but differing from other reservoirs in that the substance of which it is composed is not expended.45

Ludington's life, as well, was a "reservoir, continuously fed from many streams." She constantly sought to fill that reservoir for herself and for others through the libraries she fought to build and to save. At the height of the 1950s controversy, she wrote

... if libraries indoctrinate for anything it is for civilization, for liberty, for free press, for free religion, for free schools, for self government and democracy. Help the users of your libraries to preserve the inquiring mind whether it be how to make a better slip cover for a chair, or to overcome the sense of futility or belief that just one vote doesn't count, or to help those who are frightened or resistant to new ideas. Knowledge can be our greatest resource.46

Flora Belle Ludington retired as librarian of Mount Holyoke in 1964 after more than forty professional years of expert and influential contributions to twentieth-century libraries and librarianship.

GENEVIEVE WALTON (1857-1932)

In 1976 Cynthia Cummings, at the University of Wisconsin Library School, compiled and published "A Biographical-Bibliographical Directory of Women Librarians." Five lines constitute the paragraph on Genevieve Walton; it is the briefest entry of the eighty-one women who are included. Very little information could be found on Genevieve Walton. She appeared to be the librarian of Michigan State Normal College Library from 1892, and until at least 1930. She also helped found the Michigan Library Association, and served as its first woman president.47

In concluding a biographical series on six women who "spoke for themselves" with a sketch of Genevieve Walton, the beginning as well as the end of an unusual period of library development is reflected. Unique women, as stated in the introductory paragraphs, have often been misplaced in the history of academic and research libraries. Despite their speaking and their doing, the result has been reduced to a minimum of record and a lost recognition. So it was with Genevieve Walton, who spent forty years as "a distinguished librarian and book lover"48 in a single position, librarian of Michigan's first "normal" school, now Eastern Michigan University, in Ypsilanti. Appointed as librarian in 1891, she continued to work in the library until a few months before her death in April 1932. The culmination of her dedication to that institution occurred in January 1930 when she was able to attend the formal opening of the new library building. Charles McKenny, president of the institution, wrote of her contribution, both to the institution and the library:

It has been the good fortune of the Michigan State Normal College to have as chief of staff in the library department a woman of unusual gifts
as librarian. With personality, technical training, a grasp of the far reaches of her office and at the same time a gift for detail, Miss Genevieve M. Walton...has been the directing spirit of the College library, has made a notable contribution to the life of the campus...Miss Walton’s hundreds of friends, on the faculty, among the citizens of Ypsilanti and among the alumni of the college, congratulate her on her years of unusual successful administration.40

It seems difficult to perceive that an individual, who was as knowledgeable and who had as much influence on library development in the state of Michigan as did Genevieve Walton, should have so little record outside of that state. As William Warner Bishop commented, “Her work, year after year, for the Michigan Library Association in planning and carrying through library institutes, has had results far beyond those which lie on the surface.”50

Since Michigan was noted early for its emphasis on libraries and often pioneered in areas of library innovation that have become standards for other states, Walton’s commanding role at a turning point in its library history should not be overlooked.

Genevieve Walton was born June 25, 1857, in the city, Ypsilanti, in which she lived her entire life and died; her family is recognized as “one of the pioneer families of that city.”51 She attended St. Mary’s Academy in South Bend, Indiana. Her major interest during those years was in the study of art, especially painting.

Walton’s transition from a young girl interested in painting and the world of art to that of a dedicated “career” librarian is not recorded in great detail. As did Hasse, Mudge, and Sharp, she rejected the teaching profession per se and became involved in the emerging field of library work. Prior to Walton’s appointment to the position of librarian at the normal school, there is no indication that she attended any special courses or worked in a library, although the role of “bookman” was clearly hers before the 1890s. However, in April 1891 William I. Fletcher, then librarian at Amherst College, offered

a brief course calculated to give beginners in library work or the librarians of small libraries who have not been brought in contact with modern improved methods, enough instruction in such methods to answer their immediate demands.52

This “brief course” became a five weeks’ program taught by Fletcher himself; Genevieve Walton attended the Fletcher program and supplemented that background “through the meetings and journals of library associations and personal contacts with other librarians. Problems of book selection, classification and cataloging she met with what limited tools were available, adapting them to her own special situation.”53

This constituted her preparation; the dramatic results obviously built heavily on personal ability. Walton was thirty-four years old at the time of her appointment as librarian; she is judged to have initiated the “modern era” of the Michigan State Normal College library. Michigan State Normal College, founded in 1852, had grown considerably in the intervening years between its establishment and the Walton appointment. However, in 1892; the faculty still numbered only 31, with a student enrollment of 1,002; there were 11,000 volumes in the library and Walton had one assistant who worked three hours a day. When the “new” library building was opened in 1930, it was a model facility, largely designed or influenced in its design by Walton.

The college had, in the thirty-eight years of Walton’s tenure, expanded in many ways. By 1930, the enrollment had gone above 2,100, the faculty numbered 200, and there were 70,000 volumes in the library. Walton’s staff had enlarged from one part-time helper to eleven staff members and fifty-eight student assistants. The library plan reflected that growth and Genevieve Walton’s personal involvement.

As efficient as Walton was in the basic administration and development of the collection and the facilities, it is even more important to note her leadership in selecting a staff that would reflect her own ideas of service. President McKenny noted that skill when he commented that “it would be difficult to suggest in which way the staff could be improved. Alert, courteous and devoted are terms which could properly be applied to this group of workers which Miss Walton has brought together and inspired by her own sense of obligation.”54 That “obligation” was, in the final assessment, the
truly outstanding factor that capsulizes her impact on the normal library and state library concerns.

Although Walton was not the prolific contributor to the library literature that can be seen in the writings of Hasse and Mudge, she did present a number of papers at both state and national conferences on topics related to the joy of reading and the “friendly book.” She was invariably described, one colleague noted, as “a woman who can discuss books so that you can hardly wait to read the ones she talks about.” Her many friends claimed, as did Anne Carroll Moore, that their friendship was “rooted in love and admiration of good comradeship in books and good fellowship in human relations.”

In the end, it is difficult to conclude. Prophetically, in 1925, Genevieve Walton gave a commencement address at the Pratt Library School; it was entitled “The Lost Librarian.” Although the speech dealt with book lovers and book loves, its title has a special knell when associated with an individual of whom it was said, “no one who has met Miss Walton ever forgot her.”

The richness of her contributions to the library world once resounded in the phrases of those who knew of her work and those who knew her. “Her professional zeal, breadth of interest, concern for the training of teachers, positive character and personal charm” were common knowledge. Her “fidelity to high ideals, amid discouragements and delays,” the “intellect [that] demanded and deserved attention,” made her the woman who stood “head and shoulders above us.” That Genevieve Walton should become the “lost librarian” of the 1970s reflects, once again, how little the profession knows and values its heritage.

**CONCLUSION**

There is no real conclusion to a series of biographical profiles of influential women librarians. Each one, in her own individuality, made special contributions to the field while all, together, represent only a small sample of those who might as logically have been included. Yet, Sharp’s contribution to education for librarianship in the Midwest and her concern with collection, organization, and development at the University of Illinois can only be regarded as significant library factors at the turn of the century. In the case of Isadore Mudge, there are few who would challenge her place in the history of reference work, which suggests that what she did became a model for academic and research libraries and library schools. Margaret Mann justifiably emerges as one of the first practitioners of classification and cataloging, who made the teaching of that difficult field a matter of logic and method while preserving the creatively challenging role of the cataloger.

Controversial, dynamic, and innovative, Adelaide Hasse explored resources and advocated services that went beyond most contemporary perceptions, while Flora Ludington defended with magnificent strength and clarity the most valued ideal of the library world, the freedom to read.

Finally, a librarian who has been forgotten or never known, Genevieve Walton, could reach what the entire profession ultimately strives to achieve: “few that ever had any contact with her failed to benefit in some way by it.” These were six who “spoke for themselves.”

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ABOUT COLLEGE & RESEARCH LIBRARIES

College & Research Libraries (C&RL) is the official publication of the Association of College and Research Libraries, a division of the American Library Association. It is published seventeen times a year—six bimonthly journal issues and eleven monthly (combining July-August) news issues.

As the official publication of ACRL, College & Research Libraries maintains a record of policy statements and actions taken by the association. In reporting activities of ACRL and its sections, it thus serves as the principal medium of communication among ACRL membership.

The publication is also a medium for professional communication among academic and research librarians. The journal issues contain reports of research and thoughtful articles on matters of current and continuing concern, communications from readers related to those articles, and reviews and announcements of important and relevant publications.

The news issues report activities and programs of the association, information and news related to academic and research libraries and their personnel, and brief notices of relevant publications.

General information on submission of manuscripts may be found on the masthead page in each issue. More detailed information on the journal and news issues is included in a statement in the April 1978 issue of College & Research Libraries News, pages 86 and 87.
The Visually Impaired Reader in the Academic Library

Visually impaired students at the Ohio State University were queried by telephone interview regarding their need for specialized library services and for optical or reading aids. Notable interest in special services was indicated, but the students did not express substantial need for or interest in a large and varied collection of specialized reading aids in the university library.

A VISUALLY IMPAIRED READER is one who cannot use conventional print material without adaptation. Within the population of visually impaired readers, there are two groups—those who are totally blind and those who are partially sighted. Blind readers must use media involving audio or tactile perceptions for reading. Examples of these media are tape recordings or braille literature. Partially sighted readers frequently can use printed reading material with the help of optical aids, such as magnifiers.

Although the size of the visually impaired population in the United States is not known, the Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped at the Library of Congress estimates that there are two blind persons and three partially sighted per thousand total population. A disproportionate number of the partially sighted are elderly and, thus, outside the college age population. However, in view of the ratios stated by the Library of Congress, there must be a substantial number of college students in the United States who are visually impaired.

Despite the apparent large numbers of visually impaired college students, the literature of academic librarianship contains little previous research on the topic of service to those patrons. The academic librarian who wishes to initiate such a program must rely on the somewhat larger body of literature from public librarianship for information on possible programs. The present study analyzes the components of one program—that of the Ohio State University Libraries—in order to reach conclusions concerning the types of services that are most effective in serving the visually impaired student at an academic library.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

The official position of the American Library Association has been stated in Standards for Library Service for the Blind and Visually Handicapped. In this document, the local unit of service was defined as the "community library" and included "academic libraries which receive subsidy for provision of community library service." The emphasis was on public, rather than academic, libraries. Nonetheless, the Standards do provide some guides to academic library service.

Basic services include: files of information concerning library services that are available to visually impaired readers from state and federal agencies; catalogs of books in alternative media available from the Library of Congress; and register of local persons available for reading and transcribing. It was also suggested that larger libraries offer the following additional services: reference materials in braille or other media that can be used by the visually impaired; a browsing collection; a study area to use with a reader; optical aids; and equipment for tape recording.

Jean A. Major is a doctoral student in the Graduate Library School, Indiana University, Bloomington. The study reported here was conducted while the author was head of undergraduate libraries at the Ohio State University Libraries, Columbus.
Prentiss, in his 1973 report to the New York State Education Department, discussed the local library's role in providing service to the visually impaired. Again, the academic library was considered only incidentally. Activities or services prescribed by Prentiss include: acquainting visually impaired readers with the services available to them; maintaining a rotating collection of materials and equipment borrowed from state or regional agencies; acquiring minimal collections of reference materials; keeping extensive collections of bibliographic tools to be used to locate materials that are already available in selective media format; and arranging for access to transcribing services for materials not already available. In addition, listening rooms and special reading aids should be "given consideration." Parkin, in his 1974 study, alluded to the "scarcity of published material specifically discussing the academic library serving the blind." In an attempt to alleviate this situation, Parkin polled academic libraries in the seven-state intermountain West to learn what types of programs these libraries had instituted. He also surveyed the visually impaired students at Brigham Young University to determine their personal assessments of the adequacy of the BYU program as it was then constituted.

Parkin based his survey of academic libraries on the recommended services and equipment that are outlined in the ALA Standards. In reference to the Standards, the most commonly offered services and equipment and the percent of libraries offering them were as follows:

- Listening rooms: 66%
- Tape recorders: 50%
- Private study areas: 47%

The second phase of the Parkin study dealt with a survey of the attitudes and assessments of the visually impaired students at Brigham Young University regarding the quality and usefulness of the program offered by their library. The visually impaired student population at BYU at the time of the study numbered thirty, but only eleven of the students could be reached. Although the response rate (37 percent) was low and students at only one school were polled, the study deserves notice because it represents an attempt to get "feedback" from the actual user population.

The Parkin poll of BYU students yielded quite scattered results. However, Parkin gleaned several recommendations from the students:

1. Develop a catalog file of services and books available.
2. Offer orientation sessions to new blind students.
3. Provide more listening rooms.
4. Furnish a braille map of the library.

SERVICES AND EQUIPMENT

Vision impairment among college students precludes their use of the conventional reading materials found in most academic libraries. Specialized services and adaptive equipment have been developed to aid impaired students in making use of written material. The most common services and equipment will be described below.

1. Catalogs of material available in braille, recorded, or large-print form. Visually impaired students rely heavily on several national agencies for copies of required reading, particularly textbooks. This category includes catalogs listing materials available from the Library of Congress Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped. Catalogs are produced in print and in nonprint formats that are suitable for use by visually impaired patrons.

2. Information concerning services made available to the visually impaired by local and state agencies.

3. Reading and listening rooms. Students need areas where they can meet readers or listen to materials previously recorded for their use.

4. Recreational reading. Popular books and magazines are available in braille, recorded, or large-print form, often as a rotating collection on loan from a state agency or a regional center of the Library of Congress Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped.

5. Reference materials. Minimums usually stated are a braille encyclopedia, a dictionary, and an atlas. Occasionally, a large-print dictionary is also mentioned. Note: the most recent braille encyclopedia is a 1959 edition of World Book.

6. Register of local readers and transcribers. The visually impaired make extensive use of volunteer readers and braille transcribers.
7. Optical or reading aids. The category refers to any adaptive devices used by either the blind or partially sighted to aid in reading and studying. The following reading aids are of potential use in libraries.

a) **Braille Writer.** A portable keyboard instrument that people use to produce braille copy. Students use braillers for taking notes while studying.

b) **Magnifiers.** Several forms are available, including hand-held, illuminated, and a magnifier that uses a television screen and offers variable size and contrast. Used by partially sighted patrons.

c) **Optacon.** Device that converts print into tactile impressions. Used by blind readers.

d) **Talking book machine.** Machine on which to play books and magazines recorded on unbreakable long-playing records. The program that supplies talking book machines is administered by the Library of Congress in cooperation with regional libraries. Machines and recordings customarily are lent to visually impaired persons by the regional centers of the Library of Congress Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped.

e) **Tape recorders.** Cassette and open-reel players are used by students for note-taking, preserving lectures, and in using readers. Also, much reading material is available in taped form. A variable speed player is an adapted tape recorder, which allows readers to listen to material
read faster than normal speed without distortion (compressed speech).

f) Typewriters. Braille and large-type machines are available, as well as standard type.

**STUDY OF THE OSU LIBRARY FOR THE BLIND**

**Background**

In July 1975, the Ohio State University Libraries opened a library for the blind located within an undergraduate library. The establishment of this reading room was promoted by the university's Office of Disability Services. Funding for the library was supplied by a gift from the senior class of 1973 at OSU and from a grant from the Ohio Rehabilitation Commission.

At the time of the present study (spring quarter 1976), the library for the blind had been staffed and was in operation. The staffing consisted of one full-time clerical employee and two student assistants who worked a total of thirty-four hours per week. The hours of operation for the library were as follows:

- Monday–Thursday: 8 a.m.–11 p.m.
- Friday: 8 a.m.–5 p.m.
- Saturday: 10 a.m.–4 p.m.
- Sunday: 2 p.m.–10 p.m.

The library for the blind housed a large collection of reading aids and some reference materials, which had been funded by the above-mentioned grant. The following list represents the equipment that was available for public service:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>EQUIPMENT</th>
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<td>Braille writers</td>
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<td>Magnifiers</td>
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<td>television-type</td>
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<td>Optacon</td>
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<td>Reference materials</td>
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<td>braille dictionary</td>
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<td>braille encyclopedia</td>
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<td>cassette</td>
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<td>standard type</td>
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There were thirty-eight students to be served by this library during the spring of 1976.

**Purposes of Study**

The author was head of undergraduate libraries at OSU at the time of the study and was responsible for the operation of the library for the blind. Therefore, she was interested in learning how well the library was meeting the needs of the students it had been established to serve. With that in mind, she undertook to interview as many of the visually impaired students enrolled at OSU as possible to learn their opinions of the usefulness of the services offered and to determine which types of equipment were being used and how often. It was also hoped that useful information would be obtained that would assist other academic librarians.

**Methodology**

Information was gathered by administering a ten-item questionnaire to each student in a telephone interview. Often the questions merely acted as an initial point of inquiry, and students freely digressed to amplify their responses. Although there were thirty-eight visually impaired students on campus during spring quarter 1976, it was possible to reach only twenty-six of them, but all who were contacted cooperated with the study.

The twenty-six students included six totally blind and twenty partially sighted individuals. There were five freshmen, four sophomores, seven juniors, eight seniors, and two graduate students. They were enrolled in fourteen major areas of study in nine colleges of the university, with fourteen in social and behavioral science.

**Interview Results**

Since the degree of need for library services is a function of type of class assignment, students were asked about their reading requirements. Twenty-five answered that they had assignments in textbooks, and fourteen also stated they had reserve reading assignments, optional readings, and reading related to research papers.

Asked about their interest in various services and equipment available to them, described above in the section on services and
equipment, at least half the students, both blind and partially sighted, stated they were interested in each of the items.

Responses did vary between the blind and partially sighted students. Blind students were more receptive to such services as catalogs of available material, recreational reading material, reference material, and register of local readers and transcribers. Partially sighted students were more responsive to optical aids designed to assist them in reading. Both blind and partially sighted students were interested in information on local and state services and in special reading and listening rooms in the library.

Next the students were asked what kinds of equipment would be useful to them and to which they would need access. Four of the six blind students stated their need for a braille writer. One blind student expressed a need for the Optacon. (During the year of the study, 1975–76, one student only had been trained in the use of this specialized piece of equipment. Subsequently, a training program was instituted to introduce other blind students to the Optacon.)

Four of the partially sighted students stated their need for the television type magnifier, and three expressed a need for hand magnifiers. The piece of equipment most heavily requested both by blind and partially sighted students was the tape recorder—by four of the blind students and twelve of the partially sighted. Seven of the partially sighted students stated they needed none of the equipment.

Finally, the students were requested to list the equipment in the library for the blind they had actually used. Nine of the partially sighted students and one of the blind students reported having used none of the equipment, and no piece of equipment was used by a majority of either group. Again the pieces of equipment receiving the most use were tape recorders, braille writers, and television type magnifiers.

The preceding summary suggests a certain indifference on the part of the visually impaired students toward the optical aids available. This apparent lack of interest was further borne out in the use statistics kept in the library for the blind for nine months at the time of the study.

**Implications for the Library for the Blind at the Ohio State University**

Shortly after the opening of the library for the blind at Ohio State, an advisory committee was formed. Membership included visually impaired students, faculty, and staff, as well as persons involved professionally in work with the visually impaired. The OSU libraries staff responsible for the library for the blind and the advisory committee for the library for the blind together evaluated the results of the study and the use pattern of the library's first year of existence. In view of the strong potential support that specialized library services elicited, the advisory committee stated the service policy for the library for the blind as follows:

The library for the blind assembles and maintains files of catalogs to be used by students to obtain reading materials in braille, taped, or large print form.

The library for the blind actively collects, assembles, and updates information concerning the services which are available to visually impaired citizens from local, state, and federal agencies.

The library for the blind maintains a collection of recreational reading material, both books and recently published popular magazines, on loan from the regional center of the Library of Congress Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped.

The library for the blind maintains a current file of names of people available locally as readers or braille transcribers.

At the outset of each quarter, the library for the blind will send every new visually impaired student a copy of "Introduction to OSU Libraries for Visually Impaired Students" and "Library for the Blind." At that time, also, a session for students will be offered for the purpose of explaining individual pieces of equipment and their uses.

Of the services described above, the first and second services receive the first priority attention. A collection of braille and large-print reference materials will not be considered at this time. However, the braille reference tools already owned will be kept. Because support for an extensive collection of equipment was not demonstrated in the study nor by use statistics, the advisory committee stated:

No additional optical or reading aids will be acquired in the near future. Purchases may be considered at some future time if patrons express
considerable need and if existing equipment enjoys substantial use.12

Several items of equipment had duplicates in the library for the blind, and usage did not warrant duplicates in a single location. Thus, the advisory committee recommended that

Consideration should be given, either immediately or in the future, to dispersing throughout OSU Libraries some of the equipment owned. Space should be found in the Main Library and in the West Campus Learning Resources Center for:

- a braille writer
- a compressed speech tape player
- a reel-to-reel tape recorder and earphones
- a television type magnifier13

As of February 1978 the recommendation to disperse the equipment throughout the libraries was being implemented.

Although evaluation of the physical facilities was not an objective of the study, two needs became known through the interviews. Soundproof booths are needed for recording and for students to meet readers. The room occupied by the library for the blind has windows on two sides and, thus, has too much glare for some patrons to use it comfortably. The recommendation of the advisory committee follows:

Funding is needed immediately to install blinds for the windows of the Library for the Blind. This is a critical need and should receive high priority attention. Also, funding should be sought to acquire soundproof booths for recording and for patrons to meet readers.14

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are intended to guide academic libraries in establishing specialized library service to visually impaired students. They reflect initial steps only and are offered on the basis of the survey reported above, guidance from an advisory committee, and one and one-half years' experience with an established facility.

1. Blind readers and partially sighted readers as groups have different needs for both services and equipment. Composition of the visually impaired patron group must be known and understood at the outset.

2. Basic or most useful equipment may be a braille writer, a tape recorder, and a television type magnifier. However, knowledge of the patron group to be served may suggest alternatives to this basic list. A large collection of reading aids with duplicates of many pieces is questionable without demonstrated need.

3. Primary services are: (a) Assembling and maintaining files of catalogs to be used by students to obtain reading materials in braille, taped, or large-print form. (b) Actively collecting, assembling, and updating information concerning the services available to visually impaired citizens from local, state, and federal agencies. Other previously mentioned services may be established in time.

4. Allocated space should include reading rooms for patrons and their readers.

5. A program of service to visually impaired students requires a work assignment to a full-time staff member. However, the program outlined above does not constitute a full-time job in itself.

REFERENCES


2. Ibid., p.2.


4. Ibid., p.13.

5. Ibid., p.36-39.

6. Prentiss, Improving Library Services to the Blind, p.31-33.

7. Ibid., p.32-33.

8. Derral Parkin, "The University Library: A Study of Services Offered the Blind" (ERIC document ED 102 972), p.3.


10. Ibid., p.54.


12. Ibid.

13. Ibid.

14. Ibid.
This article discusses various patterns for organization of rare and old Japanese books in U.S. academic and research libraries. Criteria for collections of rare and specialized materials, storage and access, and bibliographic control were investigated in major university and research libraries and art museums. Because each institution has established its own patterns of organization and criteria for rarity and special status, it is impossible, and probably unnecessary, to obtain agreement on universal and standard criteria for Japanese rare books. However, the lack of adequate bibliographic control for a large portion of this material is a matter of serious concern.

The integration of East Asian language materials into Western libraries presents a variety of problems: Should the books be shelved with Western language materials or located in a separate facility? Should catalog cards for East Asian materials be filed in a general library card catalog, in a separate card catalog, or both? These are basic questions that libraries with East Asian holdings must decide. The situation becomes more complex when dealing with rare and old books and manuscripts, which are frequently given further specialized treatment because of their unusual characteristics.

This article will analyze how U.S. libraries and museums have defined, organized, permitted access to, and established bibliographic control over collections of rare and pre-modern Japanese books and manuscripts. It is based on a study of collections at several major university libraries—California (Berkeley), Chicago, Illinois, Indiana, Harvard (Harvard-Yenching, Fogg Art Museum), Yale, Columbia, and Michigan—and the New York Public Library, Library of Congress, Art Institute and Field Museum in Chicago, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Criteria for Rare and Specialized Collections

The first areas of concern are the criteria for establishing rare and specialized collections of older Japanese materials. The surveys of East Asian collections in American libraries, which Tsuen-hsuin Tsien has undertaken for the Association for Asian Studies' Committee on East Asian Libraries, periodically have included information on rare materials and have provided an important starting point for the present study. Tsien has established three standards of rarity: pre-1600 imprints, manuscripts, and fine printing. The present study works within a broader framework, which encompasses Japanese materials specifically designated as "rare" as well as other concentrations of Japanese materials that have not been so defined but have unusual and noteworthy characteristics. These charac-
teristics include format, early publication dates, and special subject concentrations. Besides being located in East Asian libraries, Japanese materials are found in special international collections and in art museums.

**Date of Publication**

For libraries, date of publication is the simplest means of determining what is "rare." Difficulties in precisely identifying the publication date in Japanese books and manuscripts are numerous. Frequently dates do not appear in publications earlier than the mid-seventeenth century. When dates are provided, later copies of manuscripts, and later impressions and newly carved blocks for wood block printed books, may retain the original date of publication. Whatever the technical problems involved in date identification, libraries generally establish a cutoff date for rarity. Among U.S. libraries that have such dates, there is little agreement. The East Asiatic Library at the University of California, Berkeley, has the earliest cut-off date for rarity among U.S. collections: 1660. The Far Eastern Library of the University of Washington describes works antedating 1700 as rare and the University of Illinois Rare Book Room designates pre-1701 Japanese imprints rare, whereas Harvard-Yenching Library places Japanese books published before 1799 as rare and books in traditional Japanese binding (double leaves stitched together with thread on the right-hand side), in a locked cage within its stacks. This segregation of wahan is unusual among U.S. collections.

The East Asiatic Library at Berkeley maintains two collections of maps and manuscripts that combine both rare and nonrare materials in order to keep works of similar format together. These collections are distinct from their rare book room collection, which is made up chiefly of printed works with imprint dates before 1660. The map collection consists of some 2,000 Japanese maps from the seventeenth to nineteenth centuries and printed primarily from woodblocks or engraved copper plates. There are few collections of Japanese maps, even in Japan, which can rival the extent and quality of the one at Berkeley. The East Asiatic Library's manuscript collection comprises approximately 7,000 volumes, the majority of which are pre-twentieth century covering a wide range of subjects, including literature and governmental ordinances. There are as well important literary manuscripts of modern Japanese authors, such as Akutagawa Ryunosuke, Koda Rohan, and Tsubouchi Shoyo.

Another collection that is defined by format but not restricted by national origin is the Spencer Collection of the New York Public Library. This collection began with

**Scarcity**

Scarcity of a particular edition is a widely recognized criterion for rarity. But there appears to be no consistent standard enumerating how many (or few) copies of a work make it rare. The criterion of "fine printing" is also vague and is usually related to other considerations such as date, historical significance of the work or printing technique, and price.

**Format**

Format often establishes rarity or special status. Manuscripts or works in hand-script and scrolls are almost always placed in special custody in the library world. The reasons such items find their way into the rare book category or special custody are because of their uniqueness (manuscripts are, after all, one of a kind) and the difficulty of shelving their irregular formats. Columbia University's East Asian Library and the Orientalia Division of the Library of Congress keep their copies of nara-ehon, or Nara Picture Books (a kind of illustrated manuscript), in locked file cabinets. Columbia University has also utilized format considerations for defining another special collection of Japanese books. Having no rare book category per se, Columbia's East Asian Library places all of its wahan, or books in traditional Japanese binding (double leaves stitched together with thread on the right-hand side), in a locked cage within its stacks. This segregation of wahan is unusual among U.S. collections.

The East Asiatic Library at Berkeley
Nara-chon, or "Nara-picture book," a type of bound, illustrated manuscript that flourished from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century. This seventeenth-century work relates the tale of Kumano no honji.

Wahon, or Japanese-style book utilizing colorful covers and double leaves stitched together with thread and title label pasted on upper left-hand side of cover. This work is an illustrated novel, Temari uta sanmin (1860s), in fifteen volumes by Shōtei Kinsui.
an endowment and collection of French illustrated books from William Augustus Spencer in 1912. The income from the endowment was "to be spent for the purchase of the finest illustrated books and manuscripts that can be procured of any country and in any language and of any period." The Spencer Collection is now one of the greatest collections of works in pictorial formats in the world. A significant part of the collection is Japanese. It consists of 300 illustrated manuscripts (chiefly emakimono, or picture scrolls) and 1,200 illustrated books from the eighth to the twentieth century, the majority of which are pre-Meiji. The bookish orientation of the collection (by which is meant works with significant text as well as bound works) is confirmed by the fact that loose-leaf Japanese prints in the New York Public Library are held in the Print Division.

Format can also be an important distinction made in the arrangement of materials in art museums. Art museums do not collect rare books, or for that matter, books as such. They are acquired for their artistic value. But one way of locating books in art collections is by their format, since bound works must be shelved as books.

The Asiatic Department of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts has a collection of approximately 500 illustrated books related to the development of ukiyoe, the woodblock prints of the "Floating World" or contemporary scene of the Tokugawa period (1600–1867). While these books are kept with the Japanese print collection, they are all shelved together in cabinets and are arranged alphabetically by "designer," usually a prominent illustrator. Since these books are not cataloged or under any sort of bibliographic control, their bound format is what distinguishes them from other print material.

Subject

While some special collections are designed around format, others are delineated by subject matter. One of the clearest examples of this type of collection is the Japanese materials in the library of the Institute for Sexual Research at Indiana University. These works were collected because of their sexual content, but the Japanese items at the institute have other special and rare qualities. Most of the works are from the Tokugawa period (1600–1867), and the modern works are manuscripts with hand-painted illustrations. The approximately forty Japanese works at the Institute for

Emakimono, or picture scroll. Hōrai monogatari (17th cent.?)
Sexual Research are pillow books, brides manuals, and erotic novels.

Origins of Collections

Another quality by which special collections assume their character is origin. Some libraries keep collections received from a single source intact, particularly if they form a harmonious unit. One such collection is the Laufer Collection located in the Far Eastern Department's reading room of the Field Museum in Chicago. This collection was acquired in 1907 in Japan by Berthold Laufer, the noted East Asian anthropologist connected with the Field Museum. These 100 works were selected because of their usefulness to Japanese anthropological research. They cover the fields of archaeology, arts and crafts, geography, Buddhist historical sights, traditional Japanese dictionaries and encyclopedias, as well as studies of Chinese and Japanese languages. The collection is a conglomerate of rare and less unusual works with some imprints from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, most from the nineteenth century. The Laufer Collection has not only remained intact—some of it retains its original wrapping.

The Charles R. Boxer Collection at the Lilly Library of Indiana University is another collection that has retained its original identity, though not by being shelved as a unit. There is a separate shelf list for the Boxer collection, which, while consisting of works in many languages related to the expansion of Europe, includes some sixty Japanese items connected with Rangaku, or "Dutch Studies" in Japan. Rangaku flourished during the Tokugawa period, since the Dutch were the only westerners allowed in Japan from the seventeenth to the mid-nineteenth century. Maps and travel guides of Tokugawa period Nagasaki and Edo, studies on medicine, science, and the Dutch language, these works provided original source material and illustrations for Boxer's seminal work on the Dutch influence in Japan, entitled Jan Compagnie in Japan, 1600-1850 (The Hague: Nijhoff, 1950).

The Orientalia Division of the Library of Congress has several collections identified by the original collector. These include the Noyes Collection, the Asakawa Collection, and the Sakanishi Collection. The Noyes Collection was originally a gift of the Washington journalist, Crosby Stuart Noyes, to the Library of Congress in 1906. It contained a large assortment of works of Japanese art including watercolors, original drawings and sketchbooks, wood engravings, lithographs, and 658 illustrated books, mainly gafu, or picture albums classified by type of subject matter, and gacho, unbound, folding picture albums. Single sheet prints from the original Noyes' gift were transferred to the Print Division, but all books are now kept in the Orientalia Division and are known officially as the Noyes Collection. The names of the two other collections are informal designations utilized to define groups of books that were purchased for the Library of Congress and remain largely as separate units.

The Asakawa Collection is the fruit of an acquisition trip of the historian, Kanichi Asakawa, commissioned by the Librarian of Congress in 1907. While many subject areas are covered, the great strength of this collection is Japanese Buddhism, in which field it may be the best outside Japan. One unfortunate lapse in judgment by Asakawa was to destroy the original Japanese bindings and to rebind the books in cloth or leather in the European fashion. The western-style bound Asakawa Collection, which is uncataloged, is located in a distinct area within the stacks of the Orientalia Division.

During the tenure of Shio Sakanishi as head of the Japanese Section of Orientalia from 1930 to 1942, many outstanding pre-Meiji works were purchased including 300 kibyōshi, or popular illustrated books of the late Tokugawa period, several early editions and studies of Genji monogatari and Manyōshū, and a number of literary works from the famed Tokugawa publishing house, Hachimonjiya. A small number of these works acquired by Sakanishi were cataloged for the Nippon Decimal Collection in Orientalia, but the majority of them remain uncataloged and shelved together in a separate location in the Orientalia stacks.

Two outstanding collections of Japanese rare materials were gifts of Japanese alumni to their American alma maters. One of these donations was from the former Japanese students of the Harvard Law School. In 1936 on the occasion of the 300th
anniversary of the founding of Harvard, Tokyo University was commissioned by these Harvard alumni to acquire a collection of books dealing with Japanese legal history. This collection, which is the most extensive in its field outside of Japan, was only recently rediscovered in storage by an enterprising law graduate student, James Kanda. Kanda took it upon himself to catalog this unusual collection comprising legal codes and personal diaries of judges and legal scholars. Of the works, 60 percent are manuscripts, and 90 percent are pre-Meiji materials, the earliest from the twelfth century. There are also early editions and drafts of Meiji codes and the constitution.

The other alumni collection is the Yale Association of Japan Collection, one of the most impressive groupings of Japanese rare material in the United States. This donation of books was received by Yale University in 1935. Professor Katsumi Kuroita of Tokyo University was commissioned by the Yale Association of Japan to collect works to illustrate the evolution of Japanese culture as reflected in its manuscripts and printed books.

The Yale Association of Japan Collection contains some 350 items covering a wide variety of subjects including geography, art, literature, religion, education, customs and manners, popular culture, useful art, and printing. Some of the works are reproductions, but most are originals, including historical documents from the eleventh to the eighteenth century and an especially fine representation of Buddhist manuscripts dating as far back as the eighth century. In addition, there are many examples of printed works such as three original Hyakumantō darani, an eighth-century printed paper charm housed in a miniature pagoda; kokatsujihon, or old works in movable type by imperial, monastery, and private presses; and a collection of 1932–34 facsimiles of rare Chinese, Korean, and especially Japanese manuscripts and printed books.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC CONTROL

Bibliographic control is fundamental to the full utilization of a collection. The means of keeping records of materials held in rare and special collections vary considerably. Full library cataloging is perhaps the ideal method of bibliographic control.

The Bartlett Collection at Michigan is cataloged with cards in the public catalog. Works of "rare" imprints, that is pre-1660, in the East Asiatic Library's Rare Book Room at Berkeley are fully cataloged. Library cards for them are marked "Rare Book Room" and are to be found in their author-title catalog. Neither their map nor manuscript collections are represented in the card catalog. In addition to being fully cataloged, rare book collections at Illinois,
Kibyōshi, or "yellow cover books," a genre popular in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. This work is Sattō Kyōden's Happyakumanryō kogane no no kamihan (1791).

Hyakumantō darani, or "One Million Pagodas and Dharani," manufactured and printed in 770 by order of Empress Shotoku. The printed prayer or dharani is the oldest authenticated printed text in the world.
Chicago, and Harvard-Yenching have separate shelflists as well.

**Book Catalogs**

Another means of bibliographic access to a collection is the printed catalog in book form, which has the additional possibility of wide distribution. The Spencer Collection does not have a public catalog for its Japanese holdings, but these works are listed chronologically, with descriptions by the dealer or collectors from whom the work was acquired in the second appendix to *The New York Public Library's Dictionary Catalog and Shelf List of the Spencer Collection of Illustrated Books and Manuscripts*, published in 1971.†

Probably the most famous printed catalog of a U.S. collection of Japanese materials is Kenji Toda's *Descriptive Catalogue of Japanese and Chinese Illustrated Books in the Ryerson Library* published in 1931. This work is a catalog of the Japanese illustrated books held by the Art Institute of Chicago. These books were acquired almost entirely from the collections of two early western pioneers in the study of Japanese illustrated books—Ernest Fenollosa and Mrs. Louise Norton Brown. Besides listing the more than 1,000 works chronologically and fully indexing them, Toda annotated each work and described its historical setting. Toda's work is more than a catalog. It is a scholarly study of the history of printing and illustration from 1600 to 1865 and a general cultural history of the Tokugawa period. Toda's *Descriptive Catalogue* is now, regrettably, out of print.

A similar catalog, conceived on the same broad scale but focusing on an earlier period of Japanese history, is Kanichi Asakawa's *Gifts of the Yale Association of Japan*. Prepared in 1945, Asakawa's work includes full annotations for individual items and informative essays on the cultural context of the collection. Asakawa's catalog is the only bibliographic record of the Yale Association of Japanese Collection and is available in a few typewritten copies at Yale in the East Asian Collection and in the Beinecke Library.

**Special Card Files**

Materials in rare and special collections may also be recorded in card files, which in library practice usually are utilized as makeshift catalogs until items can be fully cataloged. A primitive card file with basic bibliographic information exists for the Laufer Collection held in the Far Eastern Department of the Field Museum. Only a typescript shelflist is available in Berkeley's East Asiatic Library for its old map collection, and its manuscript collection is represented in brief cataloging form in a card file arranged by title under the radical-stroke system.

Very few of the works in the *wahon* collection at Columbia's East Asian Library are represented in the public catalog. Most are listed in a card file, which one must request from the librarian. The *wahon* card file is arranged alphabetically by title and has no added entries or cross-references. The inadequacy of this means of bibliographical control is compounded by the fact that patrons are not allowed to enter and browse in the closed stacks where the *wahon* collection is located.

**Practices in Art Museums**

Art museums have similar kinds of card files recording each museum piece. Museum cataloging and arrangement of files are, of course, designed for the use of the art historian, not the bibliographic scholar. Therefore, it may be difficult to locate textual material. However, it is worth the researcher's time to learn some of the principles of museum card files, since art collections are often repositories of written Japanese culture with Japanese books and manuscripts frequently purchased as art objects.

Art museum card files are usually arranged by periods and subdivided by genre. One might find a medieval illustrated manuscript under the heading "Muromachi-Painting." Books are somewhat easier to find since "Illustrated Books" is a common genre heading. Under this heading, for example, one finds in the card file of the Far Eastern Art Division of the Metropolitan Museum of Art a sizable selection of illustrated poetry anthologies from the Tokugawa period. In the Fogg Art Museum at Harvard the files for the regular or permanent collection, the Hofer Collection of the Printed and Graphic Arts of Asia, and selec-
tions from the Hyde Collection of Japanese Books and Manuscripts are all located in the Rubel Library. The Hofer and Hyde Collections, in particular, contain many lush examples of Buddhist and literary works from the pre-Tokugawa period.

Bibliographies

Bibliographies of holdings of a particular collection are another form of bibliographic control. Like the printed catalog, such lists have the advantage of free circulation and distribution to interested people. In addition to being fully cataloged, the Japanese alumni collection in the Harvard Law School is represented in a complete list prepared by James Kanda.

Perhaps the most important bibliography of Japanese rare books in the United States is now being compiled by Andrew Kuroda of the Orientalia Division of the Library of Congress. All pre-Meiji imprints held in the Orientalia Division are being recorded in a comprehensive list. This undertaking is monumental since there are more than 4,000 books in this category, most of which have never been and never will be cataloged. Thus works in the Sakanishi and Asakawa collections as well as many others will be systematically recorded and made known to interested scholars for the first time.

Exhibition Catalogs

There are other forms of guides to collections that are not comprehensive listings but should not be overlooked. One kind of selective guide is the exhibition catalog that highlights the contents of a collection. Some of these have been expanded into substantial monographs, which may be used as general reference works and scholarly treatises.

Two outstanding examples are *Japanese Botany During the Period of Wood-Block Printing*, concerning the Bartlett Collection at Michigan, and *The Courtly Tradition in Japanese Art and Literature* (Cambridge: Fogg Art Museum, Harvard University, 1973) originally prepared by members of the Fogg Museum staff for a traveling exhibition of the Hofer and Hyde Collections.

Besides giving full annotations for and illustrations of works in the Bartlett Collection on exhibit in 1954 at the Clements Library of the University of Michigan, the work *Japanese Botany During the Period of Wood-Block Printing* contains essays on the history of science, and especially botany in Japan, and on the interrelated development of book publication and illustration during the Tokugawa period.

The *Courtly Tradition in Japanese Art and Literature* is a masterpiece of scholarship and taste, very much in tune with the theme of the exhibit on *Nihon koten bungai*, or the refined, aristocratic tradition of arts in Japan. Consisting primarily of Buddhist and literary manuscripts and books of the pre-Tokugawa period, this exhibition catalog is a basic reference tool for literature, Buddhism, and book and art production related to the courtly tradition of Japan.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, some recommendations based on the findings of this study will be offered. While scholarly discussion on what constitutes rarity in Japanese publications would be helpful, I do not believe that universal and standard criteria of rarity should be established. Each library should decide for itself what materials ought to be singled out for “rare” or special status. Since location or pattern of storage of this material is closely related to questions of criteria, this matter should also be left to individual libraries.

Although each library has unique problems of security, the rules of access should be liberalized. Direct access to closed stacks for researchers should be allowed wherever possible, especially when a collection is not under adequate bibliographic control.

Effective bibliographic control for Japanese rare and special collections should be a high priority. Without it, these collections are virtually useless. If libraries do not have the time or lack expertise in this area, it would be desirable for the Committee on East Asian Libraries to establish a pool of consultants who could undertake such projects.

The publication of printed catalogs, exhibition catalogs, and bibliographies should be encouraged so they may be made available to interested scholars and librarians. In this regard, I strongly recommend that
Kenji Toda's descriptive catalog of the Ryerson collection be brought back into print and that Kanichi Asakawa's Gifts of the Yale Association of Japan be revised and published for the first time.

There are rare and pre-modern Japanese books and manuscripts throughout the United States in East Asian libraries and in art museums. By raising the level of awareness of this material by the means that have been suggested herein, stimulating scholarly projects can be accomplished and a fundamental service to East Asian librarianship and Japanese studies can be rendered.

REFERENCES


2. Some of the cutoff dates for rarity in Japanese libraries are: in Kyoto University Library, Japanese printed works before the beginning of the Genwa period, or 1615, and manuscripts before the Keicho period, or 1596; in the National Diet Library both printed Japanese works and manuscripts antedating the beginning of the Keicho period, or 1596. See Chozaburo Uemura, Toshokangaku shoshigaku jiten (Tokyo: Yurindo, 1967), p.112–13.

3. Information concerning the East Asiatic Library was obtained for this article primarily from an unpublished paper given at the Twenty-eighth Annual Meeting of the Association for Asian Studies, Toronto, Canada, March 19–21, 1976: Eiji Yutani, "Japanese Rare Books and Special Collections in the East Asiatic Library, University of California, Berkeley: A Preliminary Survey."


HERBERT S. WHITE and KAREN MOMENE

Impact of the Increase in Library Doctorates

A questionnaire was mailed to recipients of library doctoral degrees between 1930 and 1975 to determine the present and preferred areas of activity, evaluations of the doctoral degree as a factor in obtaining and performing present duties, and self-assessments of involvement in library research. Further, through an examination of position advertisements over a six-month period, the relative importance of a doctorate and other factors such as experience and special skills were weighed for positions in library education and academic library administration, and the dangers of potential fragmentation and compartmentalization based on these requirements are evaluated.

In 1970 Ray and Patricia Carpenter postulated an insufficient number of doctorates for the needs of librarianship. They based this conclusion primarily on the number of faculty positions in existence (or about to come into existence) and assumed that such posts should be filled to a far greater extent by doctoral graduates.

The research reported in the present paper consists of two studies. The first is a survey of employment listings in library administration and education to test the Carpenter hypothesis and to determine how necessary the degree is as a credential for employment. The second is a survey of present holders of library doctorate degrees to determine how they perceive the importance of the degree to the performance of their tasks and to attempt a relationship between their academic credentials and their research scholarship.

Since the Carpenter study, which identified 249 earned doctorates through 1968, there has been a substantial acceleration in the production of terminal degrees in librarianship. While the availability of federal support funds in the late 1960s and early 1970s served to provide considerable impetus for this program, the acceleration can now be expected to continue almost on its own momentum, if for no other reason than the fact that a large and growing number of accredited library schools are now involved in or committed to the establishment of library doctorate programs. They can be expected to recruit vigorously for students to keep their programs alive.

Although specific statistics vary, through the examination of the Eyman list of doctoral dissertations through 1972 and a specific screening of Dissertation Abstracts, we identified 280 such doctorates during the period in which the Carpenters reported 249. Similarly, Nancy Lane, in her 1975 doctoral dissertation, located 289 library doctorates through 1969, while we were able to identify 308 during this same period. Since degrees granted in one year are sometimes not reported in Dissertation Abstracts until several years later, the discrepancy can be accounted for in this manner.

The growth of library doctoral degrees has been startling. We were able to identify 662 library doctorates granted by graduate library school programs at accredited library schools through 1975. (Since only those
1975 dissertations reported through August 1976 in *Dissertation Abstracts* are included, there may in fact be a few more.) Of these degrees, better than half have been granted since 1969 and better than one-quarter since 1972. There was a slight drop in 1974 but a resurgence in 1975. Even at present levels, which can be expected to increase as neophyte programs get into full swing, we will cross the 1,000 threshold by 1980. The 1930-50 cumulative total, which doubled in 1959, doubled again in 1967 and again in 1973. It will once again have doubled in 1980 or 1981.

**ADVERTISEMENTS FOR POSITIONS**


Two kinds of positions were screened, those that requested candidates for library school teaching posts and those that offered head administrative posts in academic libraries. It was felt that these were the two kinds of positions for which the doctorate in librarianship would be most appealing, and spot checks of other kinds of positions bear out this assumption. The requirement of a doctorate, or its desirability, was not mentioned to any significant extent for any library post other than the two types mentioned above. During the period studied, forty-six library school faculty positions were advertised. Of these, ten were in schools whose programs are not accredited by the American Library Association, thirty-six in programs that are accredited by ALA. Of these thirty-six, there were seventeen in schools with active doctoral programs. Thirty-nine of the forty-six advertisements categorically stated the requirement of a doctorate of some kind as a qualification for the position. Twenty-three specified a library doctorate, and sixteen indicated that a subject doctorate would be an acceptable alternative. There was little difference in the kind of school and the kind of program, although it might be expected that a school with an active Ph.D. training program might have a greater demonstrated need for this qualification than one that, for example, prepared largely school librarians in an unaccredited setting. Fifteen of the seventeen positions at doctorate-granting schools required a doctorate, although four were willing to accept subject degrees in lieu of library degrees. The other two advertisements indicated a strong preference for the library doctorate but did not absolutely demand it.

Of the nineteen positions at accredited library schools without doctoral programs, eighteen absolutely required the doctorate, although a surprisingly high number of twelve found a nonlibrary doctorate an acceptable alternative. The remaining school indicated its preference though not requirement for a subject rather than library doctorate. Of ten positions in unaccredited schools, six absolutely required the library doctorate, the other four preferred but did not insist on a doctorate and were equally divided in preference between library and subject specializations. Other skills, such as teaching ability and professional experience, were also required for twenty-two of these twenty-six positions, but in no case were these spelled out with any specificity.

For the twenty-five university and twenty-eight college head administrative positions advertised during this same period, the reverse tendency applied. Twenty-three of the university and twenty-seven of the college head administrative posts specified exact requirements of administrative experience (in years), specific skills in management, budgeting, automation, public relations, etc. Only five of the fifty-three absolutely required a doctorate, and for four of them it was a subject and not a library doctorate. Another twenty-one expressed the preference for a doctorate, with five preferring the library field, six a subject field, and eleven accepting either. The remaining twenty-seven job postings mentioned no doctorate at all.

The pattern appears to be clear. While the trend for library education posts has been toward the doctorate, the trend in administrative posts has been away from the doctorate and toward a demonstrated ability to manage. The most dramatic evidence for
this comes in a study by Kaser, which reports that in 1960 90 percent of ARL (Association of Research Libraries) head librarians had achieved doctorates. In 1976 this had dropped to 15 percent of ARL library administrators. 4

SURVEY OF DOCTORATES

We attempted to relate these findings to the self-perceptions of library degree holders. As stated, we identified 662 doctorates granted by library schools accredited by the American Library Association between the years 1930 and 1975. Of these, twenty-seven recipients were deceased. Another thirty-seven were foreign students who had returned to their native countries after receipt of their doctorates and were excluded because they represented special cases of no direct bearing to American librarianship. Finally, twenty-eight recipients could not be located, despite the excellent cooperation of alumni offices. Questionnaires were mailed to the remaining 570. Two of these individuals responded but disqualified themselves because they had been retired for some time, and they were dropped from the sample. Of the remaining 568 subjects, responses were received from 403. The response rate of 71 percent matches exactly the level of response achieved by the Carpenter study and provides ample evidence of the high degree of interest in and concern about this topic.

Further evidence of interest can be inferred from the fact that 31 percent of all respondents took the trouble to append specific comments to their questionnaires, some considerably elaborated. These comments ranged from cautions about overinterpretation of self-evaluative data to expressions of high interest in learning the results of the survey. Perhaps of greatest interest were lengthy explanations for self-perceived paucity of research, despite the fact that, in a totally anonymous survey such as this one, no conclusions about individuals could be drawn. A large number of respondents felt obliged to explain what to them was obviously an unsatisfactory record.

Areas of Specialization

Of 396 individuals responding to the question about area of specialization, 33.8 percent categorized themselves as being in the field of library administration, 3.8 percent in library operations, 51.3 percent in library education, and 11.1 percent in library research, as distinct from any of the above. It is assumed that this last grouping includes individuals in government posts, in commercial firms having research contracts, and in academic institutions but without teaching responsibilities.

Respondents indicated a remarkably high degree of contentment with their present areas of activity, although, as pointed out above, the subjectivity of self-perception must be taken into account. Of doctorate library administrators, 76.1 percent in fact stated that they preferred administration to other areas, with education running a distant second at 10.9 percent. Of individuals in library operations, 53.3 percent preferred this activity, while 26.7 percent indicated that they would prefer administration, an assignment they probably view as a promotional opportunity.

Of the library educators who make up more than half the survey, a remarkably high 86.7 percent express a preference for their present area of activity, with only 7.1 percent indicating a preference for administrative posts. Along the same lines, 67.6 percent of the individuals calling themselves researchers expressed a preference for their present line of work.

While such statements indicate a high degree of job satisfaction or at least adjustment, they also suggest a high degree of compartmentalization and specialization. Individuals who choose to teach without prior operational or administrative experience are unlikely to acquire it at a later date. Even doctoral graduates who chose not to teach initially seem unlikely to do so in the future. As a result, insofar as it is considered desirable that library school faculty have operational experience in the areas in which they teach, it can be postulated that they must achieve it before they become doctoral candidates. If they enter faculty ranks upon receipt of their doctorates without prior operational or administrative experience, it does not appear from the survey data that they will be likely to acquire it later.

Evaluation of the Doctorate

Respondents were asked to evaluate the
doctorate in obtaining and in performing their present duties by indicating whether they considered the degree essential, important, useful, or unimportant. With a weight factor of three for essential, two for important, one for useful, and zero for unimportant, respondents as a whole gave an average weight of 2.40 to the doctorate in obtaining their present posts and 1.99 in performing them. As might be expected, library educators gave the doctorate the highest rating, with 2.81 for obtaining their posts and 2.33 for performing them. Nevertheless, an average difference in rating of almost half a point from 196 library educators who responded to this question is not insignificant. Administrators ranked second, with a 2.06 rating for obtaining the position, 1.73 for performing it. As expected, personnel in library operations ranked the degree lowest, with a 1.20 rating for obtaining the position and a 1.07 rating for performing it.

Perhaps most surprising is the fact that self-professed researchers ranked the doctorate at an average of 1.86 in obtaining their posts and at 1.51 in performing them. (See Table 1 for a summary of all responses.) Since this evaluation of what is fundamentally a research degree for the purpose of doing research ranks below that of administrators, as well as educators, it may be (although the survey did not seek to determine this) that a greater proportion of these researchers work in nonacademic settings where the value placed on the doctoral degree is not as automatic.

Survey respondents were asked whether they had taught and, if so, whether they had supervised the research of doctoral students. Of the respondents who answered this question, 136 had supervised doctoral students, 160 had not. The responses of this subgroup of individuals to the question that elicited their views concerning the importance of the doctorate in obtaining and in performing their tasks were then evaluated. Their responses differed somewhat from those of library educators as a whole, since some of the individuals who classified themselves as teachers were only teaching on a part-time basis and preferred to categorize themselves primarily as administrators or as researchers. Others had taught but were no longer doing so. Nevertheless, while the specific numerical values differ from those reported in table 1, the relationships remain closely consistent.

Table 1: Importance of Doctorate for Obtaining and Performing Present Post

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Activity</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Obtaining Post</th>
<th>Performing Duties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All Respondents</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operations</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have Taught and Supervised Doctoral Research</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have Taught but Not Supervised Doctoral Research</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pre- and Postdoctoral Experience and Publications

The Lane study mentioned earlier indicated a correlation between predoctoral experience and postdoctoral publication and between predoctoral publication and post-
doctoral publication. Individuals who had more experience before receiving their doctorates, according to Lane, published more after receiving it than those who had had less experience. Similarly, individuals with a record of publication prior to the receipt of their doctorate were more apt to publish afterwards than those who had none. As Lane points out, her statistics were drawn simply from author listings in *Library Literature* and made no attempt at evaluating the kind of literature being reported.

In our survey, correlations were drawn between predoctoral professional experience (both in and out of the library field) and published research prior to and after receipt of the doctorate. Even though the responses to these questions carry a bias in that the evaluation of what constitutes research is left to the authors (who are likely to be more charitable in evaluating their work as research than an outsider would be), both prior experience and prior research publication appear to bear no positive relation to postdoctoral research. In fact, there is even a slight negative correlation. (See table 2.)

Since almost all respondents answered this series of questions, it can be seen not only that the sheer quantity of professional experience brought to the doctorate has little impact on later research activity (as measured by a self-evaluated record of publication) but also that there is an average of less than one research publication per postdoctoral year. No attempt was made in this survey to determine the kind of professional experience prior to the doctorate. If any correlations or prediction models are to be drawn, such an investigation would appear highly desirable.

The correlation of predegree research publication with postdegree research also seems to be insignificant (see table 3), although the number of annual publications since receipt of the degree for this group of respondents is consistently higher than that for the predoctoral reporting group. There was a difficulty in obtaining useful data for this group in that about half of the survey respondents, while often willing to discuss predoctoral experience, were not willing or able to furnish data concerning their predegree research publications. No correlation with postdegree publication could be attempted.

The hypothesis can be advanced that individuals unable or unwilling to report predoctoral publications had little or nothing to

---

**TABLE 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predoctoral Professional Experience (N = 235)</th>
<th>Research Publications/Year Since Doctorate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 years</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 years</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-10 years</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 15 years</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Predoctoral Research Publications (N = 184)</th>
<th>Postdoctoral Research Publications/Year Since Doctorate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 or more</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Failure to Conduct Research

Individuals who, by their own assessment, had not performed or at least not published the results of postdoctoral research, were asked to explain why. Their reasons are summarized in table 4. The explanation by 61.7 percent that failure to do more research was due to their being too busy matches the conclusions of Pauline Wilson in a recent article. In it the author points out that there is increasing pressure on library school faculty for research and publication and suggests that, as a result of shifting priorities, teaching may have to be done less well and participation in professional activities may have to be curtailed. Wilson may be correct, but these authors view her conclusions with at least some skepticism.

Wilson does point out that some faculty do no research simply because they are not interested, and we would suggest that to the 6 percent in our survey who indicated no interest and the 18.7 percent who did no research because it was not required could be added a considerable portion of the 68.9 percent who blame somebody else (too heavy a teaching load, no support, etc.). This last argument can neither be attacked nor defended, because it is not possible to determine whether faculty producing no research are already working as hard as they could be or as hard as they ought to be. As Wilson points out, much of the test will come with increased requirements of library faculty research for promotion and tenure, but only if at the same time safeguards against the dilution of teaching quality are imposed.

The almost 25 percent who have no interest in doing research unless required are of particular interest. One wonders for what reason these individuals sought a research terminal degree.

Cynics might respond that the degree is merely required to obtain the "union card" to admit the successful candidate to a more desirable kind or level of employment and is unrelated to research. A number of respondents made this and similar points in their unsolicited comments. If this attitude does indeed exist to any appreciable degree, it would point to a regrettable laxness on the part of library school administrations in the acceptance criteria employed for candidates, in the values that are stressed and implanted, and in the requirements that are met.

Importance of the Doctorate

The importance of the earned doctorate for faculty in library schools in establishing and retaining status for the school within its own academic setting is recognized, cannot be ignored, and is probably behind much of the recent upgrading in educational requirements for faculty in library schools. In fact, schools that have recently undergone ALA accreditation visits recognize the stress placed by the accreditation teams on both the number and diversity of earned doctorates as an indication of faculty competence.

Nevertheless, it would appear that a bal-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Too busy</td>
<td>61.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research not required</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities lacking</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too recent</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not interested</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ance must be struck between the emphasis on the terminal degree and the emphasis on other qualifications, where all are not equally available. To require, for example, as one school has done, a doctorate to teach courses in special librarianship automatically eliminates by fiat almost all of the people qualified to deal with special librarianship from experience. Perhaps it is necessary for library schools to insist, as other professional schools have done, on different kinds of faculties for different courses. In schools of music, for example, there are differences in the background and requirements for teaching a course in music history and theory and for teaching performance classes.

To some extent library schools have attempted to offset these limitations by using adjunct and visiting faculty who do not possess other absolute requirements. However, such opportunities are usually limited to schools in or near large metropolitan centers and in any case tend to fail to provide continuity and stability of employment, participation of the individual in the governance decisions of the school, and a sequence of priorities in which course teaching becomes something more than a spare time avocation.

THE DOCTORATE AND RESEARCH

The substantial increase in library doctorates should reasonably be expected to cause a sharp upsurge in both the amount and quality of library research. To the extent to which this has not occurred, it may be because so many of the doctoral graduates are new (more than half, as indicated at the beginning of this article, have had their degrees less than five years); it may be because, as Wilson points out, opportunities for research are lacking; or it may be, as we suspect, that many library doctoral graduates (not unlike the doctoral graduates in other fields) are not particularly interested in research and publication, at least not at the expense of other professional and personal activities.

The existence of doctoral graduates (in the library field as in others) who admit to having no interest in research—and it can be assumed that the real number is larger than the 24.7 percent in this survey who admit doing no research unless forced to—would appear to be a sharp indictment of the quality of present doctoral programs: in their selection criteria, in communicating to students the conditions and responsibilities of what the terminal degree means and requires, in the school's treatment of research, and in the acceptance of lesser standards in the undertaking of research leading to the dissertation.

The fact that only 22.6 percent of the survey respondents claimed any sort of even partially experimental approach in their dissertations, even in conjunction with other techniques, while more than 32 percent chose historical topics (see Table 5) may suggest a paucity of innovation and initiative. Opportunities for Ph.D. students in other disciplines to learn research techniques are provided at two levels, explicitly within the curriculum as a course and implicitly through actual work as an apprentice on a professor's research project. The lack of enthusiasm for and commitment to research by many respondents to this survey may well curtail the amount of "laboratory" experience possible in a library school setting.

### TABLE 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characterization of Dissertation Topic</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historical</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical-Survey</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical-Experimental</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical-Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey-Experimental</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey-Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental-Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Answer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The most frequent justification stated in the survey responses for lack of research is that there is not sufficient time. If adequate instruction and learning experience in research techniques are not provided by the library schools themselves, then not only Ph.D. students but also postdoctoral faculty members now pressured to produce research will be forced to find the time to develop these skills in addition to and before fulfilling the research requirements now increasingly imposed for promotion and tenure.

Other questions, which this investigation into the characteristics of our rapidly growing body of doctoral graduates suggests but must leave to later investigations to answer, concern the changes in the perceptions of these graduates that the pursuit and attainment of the degree may or may not bring about. Does it, in any measurable way, change or sharpen their attitudes toward the profession, toward the role of the librarian, their own responsibilities, and the place, importance, or direction of research? Aside from the fact that it may enhance the status of librarianship in the academic setting, what difference will there be for the profession in 1980, when we have 1,000 doctoral graduates, as compared to 1972, when we had half as many, or 1966, when we had less than 250?

We assume that the identifying, undertaking, completing, and reporting of research needed by the profession (and certainly probably unlike trades, have such needs), coupled with the training of still more future researchers, are the roles that our present and future library Ph.D.s are best and uniquely qualified to fill. Their acceptance of a research doctorate appears to embrace such a commitment. If it actually does, they can strengthen a bridge between library and information research and library and information operations, which is either in a serious state of disrepair or which has never even been completed. Evidence for assuming this bridging problem is the disdain practitioners express for the significance of the results of completed research, research they (rightly or wrongly) consider largely irrelevant.

If library doctoral graduates do not accept a continuing commitment to research, and if they simply use the degree as a passport into the perceived safety and security of the library teaching profession (whether or not that safety and security are real), then an implication of this study is that the growth of doctoral programs could have the serious effect of widening the gap between those who teach and those who do not. This will almost certainly occur if perceptions of what makes an acceptable library teacher and an acceptable library administrator continue to move in opposite directions and if future doctoral graduates show the same tendencies to remain in their professional niches as the respondents to this survey have reported.

REFERENCES

In his famous work *Documentation*, S. C. Bradford expressed an idea that has come to be called "Bradford's Law of Scattering" or simply "Bradford's Law." Bradford discovered a mathematical expression for the distribution of articles on a given subject in the scientific literature.\(^1\)

If scientific journals are arranged in order of decreasing productivity of articles on a given subject, they may be divided into a nucleus of periodicals more particularly devoted to the subject and several groups or zones containing the same number of articles as the nucleus, when the numbers of periodicals in the nucleus and succeeding zones will be as \(1:n:n^2\).

In this statement \(n\) is a constant particular to the subject involved.

He also developed a graphic formulation of the law.\(^2\) Unfortunately, as Vickery and later Wilkinson noticed, the two formulations are different.\(^3,4\) Because some researchers have used one formulation and some have used the other, confusion has developed. Whichever formulation is chosen, the idea to be preserved is that, given some coherent population of items, a small number will be very productive (in terms of selection, citation, or whatever), a greater number will be less productive, still a greater number will be even less productive, and so on until the population of items has been exhausted.

There are, thus, "zones" of fairly constant total productivity but containing greater and greater numbers of individual items in each zone, i.e., the average productivity per item decreases in each succeeding zone. Furthermore, there is a direct relation between the cumulative productivity and the cumulative total of items. Though Bradford apparently felt that the zones were based on a theoretically derived nucleus, Vickery shows that Bradford's law holds for any number of zones of equal productivity.\(^5\)

**Relation of Bradford and Zipf Laws**

While originally proposed to describe the distribution of journal articles in the scientific literature and frequently used by librarians as an aid in preparing bibliographies and in maintaining journal coverage of various subject areas, Bradford's law seems applicable to other situations as well. Brookes points out that the Bradford distribution
closely resembles a Zipf distribution with certain restrictions. A strictly linear Zipf distribution arises from a situation in which items are chosen from a restricted population of possible items. Gradually some items emerge, on a "success breeds success" basis, as most popular and continue to be chosen at a greater rate. The total population of "used" items increases as well, since some items continue to be chosen for the first time. With no restrictions as to the availability of the popular items, the distribution of "uses" vs. "items used" becomes linear on a semi-log scale. With such restrictions the graph curves at the bottom but rises to linearity. The Bradford distribution can thus be superimposed on the Zipf distribution and, in fact, becomes a special case of the Zipf distribution.

Leimkuhler has also noticed the close relationship between the Bradford and Zipf distributions. Since the "success breeds success" mechanism and the restriction on most popular items are common to many situations, one would expect the Bradford-Zipf distribution to apply in other areas.

Brookes describes the general situation in which one might expect to encounter such a distribution:

The Bradford-Zipf distribution can be expected to arise when selection is made of items, characterized by some common element, which are all equally open to selection for an equal period and subject to the "success-breeds-success" mechanism, but when the selection of a most popular group is also, but to a weaker extent, subject to restriction. It is thus a general law of concentration over an unrestricted range of items on which is superimposed a weaker law of dispersion over a restricted range of the most frequently selected items.

Our notion is that this description fits the pattern of book use by library patrons and that Bradford's law should, therefore, describe that situation as well.

TWO FORMULATIONS OF BRADFORD-ZIPF

Wilkinson performs a valuable service in working out both forms of Bradford's law and then applying each to the same set of data. Her conclusion is that the graphical formulation yields better results. We shall borrow her expressions to show that the verbal formulation better describes library circulation data.

The underlying assumption of both forms of Bradford is the same: If items are ranked by productivity from high to low, there is a relationship between cumulative (and therefore relative) productivity and the logarithm of cumulative items and thus the rank. The verbal formulation, used by Vickery and Leimkuhler, is expressed as:

\[ R(n) = j \log(n/t + 1) \]

where: \( R(n) = \) cumulative productivity of the first \( n \) items

and \( j \) and \( t \) are constants.

The graphical formulation, used by Brookes, is expressed as:

\[ R(n) = k \log n/s \]

where: \( R(n) = \) cumulative productivity of first \( n \) items

and \( k \) and \( s \) are constants.

Furthermore, \( j = k \) and \( t \neq s \).

APPLICATION TO LIBRARY CIRCULATION DATA

We now develop each of these expressions for library circulation data. Our items are books and monographs; our productivity is measured in "uses" or "transactions" of those items. All logarithms are to base \( e \). Table 1 shows virtually complete external circulation data for calendar year 1972 from the Hillman Library at the University of Pittsburgh, a major research library and Association of Research Libraries member. (It should be noted that the circulation data exclude nonpatron transactions for binding, storage, mending, etc.) Items have been ranked according to frequency of use; columns are as follows:

- A represents the number of times circulated.
- B represents the number of individual items having the frequency in column A, e.g., seven items circulated fifteen or more times.
- C cumulates column B, e.g., forty-six items circulated thirteen times or more.
- D is column A times column B, i.e., the number of transactions (or circulations) accounted for by the items in column B, except for row 1, of course.
- E cumulates column D, e.g., items that circulated 13 times or more accounted for 629 total transactions.

To ease the computational burden (and drop out a constant) we recast each of the
two expressions to get $F(x)$, the proportion of total productivity contained in the most productive fraction, $x$, of items.

Verbal:

$$F(n/N) = R(n)/R(N), \text{ where } N = \text{total items count}$$

$$F(n/N) = \frac{j \log (n/t + 1)}{j \log (N/t + 1)}$$

Let $V = N/t$, then

$$F(x) = \log (Vx + 1) / \log (V + 1)$$

Graphical:

$$F(n/N) = \frac{(k \log n/s)}{(k \log N/s)}$$

Let $G = N/s$, then

$$F(x) = \log Gx / \log G$$

Constants for distributions of this type (gamma related) present a problem, since there is no strictly scientific way of determining what they should be. Both Wilkinson and Leimkuhler offer explanations.\textsuperscript{13,14} Wilkinson's method is used here although Leimkuhler's is similar. To derive the constants $t$ and $s$, using data in table 1:

Let $p$ items contribute cumulative $S$ transactions

$q$ items contribute cumulative $2S$ transactions

From table 1:

$p = 25,525 \quad S = 105,359$

$q = 107,152 \quad 2S = 210,717$

$t = p^2 / (q - 2p)$

$t = 651,525,625 / (107,152 - 51,550)$

$= 11,613$

V = N/t

$= 9.227$

$s = p^2 / q$

$= 651,525,625 / 107,152$

$= 6,080$

$G = N/s$

$= 17.624$

To obtain the actual productivity, in transactions, for any most productive fraction $x$ of items, it is necessary to multiply 107,152, the total items population count, by the fraction, then look at table 1, interpolating as necessary, for the actual number of transactions produced by $xN$ items, e.g.:

Let $x = 0.10$, then $xN = 10,715$.

From column C of table 1 we find that 10,715 lies between 7,294 and 13,603.

7,294 items produce cumulative 44,522 transactions.

We must account for the next 3,421 items (10,715—7,294), which will be drawn from the group used 4 times each, that is, the next 3,421 items yield $4 \times 3,421 = 13,684$ transactions.

44,522 + 13,684 = 58,206 transactions produced by 10,715 items.

Interpolation is necessary because each rank contains many ties.

Applying each version of Bradford to the data in table 1 and interpolating as necessary to get the actual transaction counts yields the results shown in table 2.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CIRCULATION DATA, 1972, HILLMAN LIBRARY, UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of times circulated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 2
VALUES PREDICTED BY BRADFORD-ZIPF COMPARED WITH ACTUAL VALUES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most productive fraction (x)</th>
<th>Items in that fraction (xN)</th>
<th>Predicted transactions</th>
<th>Actual transactions</th>
<th>Percent of error*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>verbal</td>
<td>graphical</td>
<td>verbal</td>
<td>graphical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>1,072</td>
<td>7,999</td>
<td>9,669</td>
<td>17.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>2,143</td>
<td>15,349</td>
<td>17,037</td>
<td>9.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3,215</td>
<td>22,147</td>
<td>23,469</td>
<td>5.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4,286</td>
<td>25,229</td>
<td>29,482</td>
<td>3.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>5,358</td>
<td>25,722</td>
<td>34,842</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>6,429</td>
<td>38,931</td>
<td>40,197</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>7,501</td>
<td>45,160</td>
<td>45,350</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>8,572</td>
<td>50,103</td>
<td>53,922</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>9,644</td>
<td>54,791</td>
<td>58,276</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>10,715</td>
<td>59,233</td>
<td>63,239</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>21,430</td>
<td>94,773</td>
<td>118,600</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>32,146</td>
<td>120,228</td>
<td>140,080</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>42,861</td>
<td>140,080</td>
<td>157,141</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>53,576</td>
<td>156,354</td>
<td>167,825</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>64,291</td>
<td>170,147</td>
<td>178,571</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>75,006</td>
<td>182,115</td>
<td>189,287</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>85,722</td>
<td>192,685</td>
<td>200,002</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>96,437</td>
<td>202,150</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Predicted values for verbal and graphical may contain .00.1% error due to rounding of logs. Values for xN and F(x) are rounded to nearest whole item or transaction.

**Conclusions**

As the data in table 2 show, the verbal formulation consistently produces a lower error percentage than the graphical and is, in fact, a good overall predictor. Book use, then, is a Bradford-Zipf phenomenon.

Figure 1 shows a graph of cumulative transactions against cumulative items on a semi-log scale for the real data shown in table 1. This is a standard Bradford-Zipf graph of the type used by Brookes and Wilkinson. It clearly shows the curvilinearity described by Brookes. If we accept Brookes' explanation (though not his formulation) of the Bradford-Zipf phenomenon, then the curving part of the line represents demand interference, i.e., items represented on this part of the line would have been used even more if they had somehow been more available. The ideal would be a straight line meaning that every item had lived up to its use potential.

This offers support for the strategy of shortening loan periods for frequently circulated items. Other potential uses for a function that describes the distribution of book use over a collection might include core collection determination or the derivation of a marginal utility function describing the effect on total use of adding to a collection.

**References**

2. Ibid., p.153.
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Letters

Quasi-Departmental Libraries

To the Editor:

Experience from the Royal University Library, Oslo, Faculty of the Social Sciences Division confirms Elrod's observations (letter regarding quasi-departmental library, C&RL, September 1977) on the article by Genaway and Stanford (C&RL, May 1977).

Before 1968, teaching institutes in the social sciences were scattered throughout Oslo and located many blocks from the university library. As a matter of necessity, the institutes built their own collections through purchases using institute funds and through gifts, and in time these collections contained most of the current social science literature in Norway. As a means of gaining access to these "private" collections, the university library first offered professional help and later other services to aid in purchasing, registering, and caring for these collections. The university library gradually assumed most of the expenses for these services, and now the use of institute funds is mainly restricted to purchase and binding costs.

Since 1968 when buildings were completed for the Faculty of Social Sciences on the University of Oslo campus, the scattered collections have been gathered in one library, administered by the university library, located on the fourth floor of a twelve-story building. The teaching institutes have offices and seminar rooms on other floors of this building and connecting buildings, and stairs and elevators provide rapid access to the library. This facility is open from 9:30 a.m. until 6:00 p.m. and provides all library services from acquisition through circulation and interlibrary loan.

The arrangement might now seem ideal, but to many the library collections no longer seem comfortably close, and during the past ten years the library administration has waged a constant, and partially losing, battle to prevent the growth of new departmental libraries. Fairly good control has been maintained by offering rapid purchasing and cataloging services for all collections, both the "official" ones in the library and the "unofficial" ones in the departments. Also there has been insistence that these QD libraries should be limited to duplicate and reference works. Still, these collections, which are inaccessible to others than members of the individual institutes, have continued to exist and grow, albeit very slowly.

It seems clear that proximity of a familiar core of books and the ability to restrict use of a collection to known persons are powerful attractions for the busy faculty member. In Oslo the attractions have been great enough that institutes are willing to pay for two library collections.—Nancy E. Frank, Leader, Cataloging Section, Faculty of the Social Sciences Division, Royal University Library, Oslo.
It goes on in all libraries. The over-zealous students, as well as those out to do malicious damage, decide to take a few pages out of your bound magazines. Your binding investment is depreciated. The vital research content is lessened and the volumes look a mess. Because you are cost conscious, you know that time is money, space is money, and that binding is a losing proposition. That's why University Microfilms International advocates putting your 1977 magazines on microform. Microform is so very, very efficient, and leaves little chance for a ripoff. In fact, the only thing you lose when you convert to microfilm are those rows and rows of bound periodicals. Now, if we could only think of something to do with all that freed space.

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BOOK REVIEWS


The Handbook of Black Librarianship is a unique single-volume compilation of the library world as it relates to blacks. Offering a variety of information on the relationship of Afro-Americans to various aspects of librarianship and libraries, the Handbook thoroughly defines Afro-American contributions to libraries and library education both past and present. It is an excellent beginning for documentation of Afro-American contributions in librarianship.

The book represents the work of twenty-four contributors and the two distinguished librarians, E. J. Josey, chief of the Bureau of Specialist Library Services, New York State Education Department, and Ann Allen Shockley, associate librarian for public services and associate professor of library science at Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee, who compiled and edited the volume.

The seven major sections of the book contain thirty-seven topical essays arranged under selected headings, which embrace an enormous range of clear and concise topics.

Section 1, "Pioneers and Landmark Episodes," presents a chronology of achievements, biographical sketches of Afro-American forerunners in librarianship, and a brief history of the Hampton Institute Library School, the pioneer school of librarianship for blacks.

Section 2, "Early Library Organizations," describes in detail the origin and proceedings of early organizations in five states
where Afro-Americans were denied membership in white organizations. A chronology of events in black librarianship, 1808-1977, is thoroughly presented.

Section 3, "Contemporary Black Librarianship," traces the involvement of black librarians in library organizations, including the ALA Black Caucus and its impact on the American Library Association, as well as its role in motivating other caucus groups. Statistics on black libraries and librarians may be limited due to scope of and response from various surveys.

Section 4, "Vital Issues in Black Librarianship," does not attempt to deal with the total picture of librarianship in the Afro-American community but does discuss several serious issues the reviewer sees as being of prime concern to librarians in all types of libraries serving the black population. The contributors for this section appear to be more concerned with the patterns and importance of library services to children as cultural identity is developed and maintained. The academic librarian will be especially interested in the essay, "The Future of the Black College Library," and the emphasis placed on excellence of library services as vital to survival of the black college.

Section 5, "Significant Books and Periodicals For Black Collections," is a convenient, well-organized section that is in no way comprehensive; however, it can be of inestimable value for librarians attempting to build a core collection and to those interested in brief biographical sketches of black librarians as creative writers. For the most part, annotations for the reference books are brief but thorough.

Academic librarians will find the descriptive bibliography of selected African and Afro-American periodicals extremely useful based upon the four-point criteria by which selections were made to emphasize contents, worth, and usefulness of the titles. Other significant features of this section are brief essays dealing with black authors who have written best-sellers, black librarians who do creative writing, and black authors who have made significant contributions to knowledge and have been recognized through the ALA Notable Books list.

Sections 6 and 7, "African Resources" and "Afro-American Resources," are outstanding features of the Handbook, which identify and describe resources for building African and Afro-American collections with emphasis on procurement and preservation. The essay entitled "Procurement of Materials from Africa" may well be a first attempt to describe the variety of programs and procedures involved in the selection and acquisition of African library materials. This is an invaluable resource for academic acquisitions librarians. The lists of reference books and periodicals, articles dealing with black authors, and listings of best-sellers all reflect the black experience in a unique manner. This reviewer believes this style of documentation to be a first. The black oral history programs, museums, and black historical societies are thoroughly researched and described.

Researchers will find the brief descriptions of four major African collections in the United States invaluable for locating source material. "Afro-American Resources" provides a mixture of ideas that academic librarians will find especially useful, ranging from the essentials for beginning collectors, pointers for archivists, and private collecting.

The bonus section of the Handbook adds value to the book as a general reference. There is much solid information, however fragmentally arranged. In order to retain its usefulness, updating will be necessary, especially where staff, budget, and acquisitions statistics are quoted.

The text is presented in clear, readable style, logically arranged. The Handbook is a must for all academic libraries and specifically for those serving predominantly blacks. It will be useful in homes and all other types of libraries as a basic reference. The binding looks good but unfortunately perhaps not as strong as needed.

The contributors, compilers, and editors are congratulated for their devoted labors, and perhaps noticeable gaps in coverage may be partially filled in a revised edition.—Jessie Cottman Smith, University of Maryland, Eastern Shore, Princess Anne.

National Conference on New Directions in Law Libraries, Denver, 1977. National Conference on New Directions in Law Li-

This work, the proceedings of a special law library conference, is itself in a multimedia format, part print and part audio. The principal papers are here to be heard, while the post-talk questions and the programmed discussions are reproduced in print. Although one could read the papers in a shorter time than it takes to listen to the cassettes, in this form you get a better "feel" of the presentations.

There are nine papers. Allen Veaner's "Foundations of Library Micrographics" was read by Professor Roy M. Mersky, a conference cochairperson, since the speaker was unable to be in Denver; but the paper is only available in the print media. Arthur Tannenbaum described the "Media User Environment," and Carl Spalding characterized "Micrographic Equipment." Robert Sullivan assisted with the "Acquisition of Microforms for Law Libraries," and Arthur Levine followed up with "The New Copyright Law and its Meaning for New Technology." The remaining four papers were: "C-O-M" by Don Bosseau, "Audio-Visual Materials" by Howard Hitchins, "Use of Video in Information Retrieval" by Jerry Bradshaw, and "Multi-Media, 2000 A.D." by F. William Torrington.

In his part of the theme setting, Professor Mersky acknowledged that all too often and for too long law librarians have lagged behind others in adapting to newer approaches and newer techniques. His call was for catching up and moving ahead. If he is correct in his assessment, then one could find little fault in offering the law librarians present a considerable dose of information that is already well known and widely available in library literature, to say nothing about other general and special conference proceedings. The talks on foundations, environment, equipment, and acquisitions of microforms offered, to a large degree, "the same old truths," while the paper on copyright spent far too much time rehashing the several sections of the new law and too little time on how it applies specifically to micromedia and especially to educational television and instructional television.

On the contrary, the next three were most helpful. Don Bosseau (whose name was misspelled and mispronounced throughout) offered a detailed and encouraging experience of a catalog in microfiche format (COM). Howard Hitchins, an expert in instructional development, stressed most effectively that the newer formats are not ends in themselves but serve as means of improving the educational process. I was particularly pleased to be able to hear his throwing down the gauntlet for the community of legal educators. Jerry Bradshaw gave a demonstration of the usage of videodiscs, but there was obviously no way for me to appreciate what the participants saw on a screen.

The final talk was, to be as kind as possible, unfortunate. Torrington, coming from a different and possibly limited experience in England, foretold and warned about the future. The printed discussion shows clearly that those present were in open disagreement with his prognostications.

The audio reproductions are excellent; I don't believe I missed more than a word or two. The printed discussions and questions seem somehow abbreviated through editing, although there was no suggestion anywhere that this was done. I know for a fact that most often the law librarians use legal stenotypists to record their proceedings, and the total feedback from the participants should have been made available.

The price is not unreasonable. I recommend the work to law libraries, library school libraries, and especially to those programs training law librarians.—Leslie W. Sheridan, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio.


Breivik has reported on an instance in which an academic librarian actively and creatively responded to a changing environment (open admissions at the City University of New York) instead of passively...
and traditionally reacting. We can learn much from this volume based on her dissertation at the Columbia University School of Library Service.

In a brief first chapter on the failure of the American educational system, she espouses Toffler's belief expressed in *Future Shock* that the only viable objective for schools in a time of ever more rapidly expanding and self-outdating information is to teach students how to learn on their own. She also laments how little "educated persons" know about libraries and bibliographical matters.

Although California has guaranteed access to higher education for its high school graduates since 1960, Breivik pinpoints the City University of New York's switch from "elitism to egalitarianism in 1970" (p.6) as the most radical movement to a policy of open admissions. "Whatever the reasons—noble or expedient—open admissions had begun" (p.7). She then summarizes six years of open admissions at CUNY, admitting that although she mentions the major criticisms, her description is positive because it reflects the hopes and determination of many students and educators, including herself.

There follows her description of a controlled experiment at Brooklyn College of CUNY in 1972, which was structured to measure the value of the library-based instruction in the learning experiences of educationally disadvantaged students. Because of space limitations here, details will not be given: suffice it to say that similar groups of educationally disadvantaged students, as part of their remedial writing course, received either: (1) an extra one-hour-per-week session of library and information retrieval assistance emphasizing information collection skills; (2) a tour of the library, plus two sessions on how to locate books and evaluate their usefulness and how to locate and evaluate nonbook information, with emphasis on the *Readers' Guide*; or (3) no tour and no bibliographical information for the control groups.

Chapter 8 contains the "statistical" and the "people-related" results. They will not be repeated here, except to say that Breivik points out the very negative results of the traditional library approach (tour and two lectures) and warns that we can no longer ignore the fact that this may be turning students "off" the library.

The findings of one experiment are not what is important; rather the significance is her pointing of the way to a new world for library activists. Breivik brilliantly analyzes the library-college movement (developed from the top by a "name" with a theory) and the more recent library instruction trend (operating from the bottom with on-the-job application, lacking one "name," and having no theoretical base nor any movement-wide goals).

She challenges academic librarians to bring these movements together, since both are concerned with aligning library services and the educational goals of their institutions. She offers a third model, built on the strengths of both and using new terminology that will not alienate students, faculty, administrators, and other librarians. She perceptively traces library instruction programs from Patricia Knapp's Monteith project at Wayne State to Swarthmore's "teaching library" and Sangamon State's staff of instructional services librarians (where Breivik heads the library program).

The last chapter is an exhortation for academic librarians to accept open admissions as an impetus for reassessing goals, priorities, and policies. She calls for much greater flexibility coupled with experimentation. A hearty second! Breivik is to be commended for planning carefully and executing well her experiment to measure library instruction. But she has only taken a small step in comparison to what must be done. Her study needs immediate and multiple replication, and other experiments should also be designed.

After reading this small, well-written, and jargon-free volume (ten chapters, appendices with questionnaire sent to CUNY chief librarians in 1970 and sample instructional materials, and notes), there is only one recommendation: In 1978, the required reading for all academic librarians is to reread Patricia Knapp, read Patricia Breivik, and then let's have hundreds of Monteith projects and Brooklyn experiments. They have shown the way with their strong dedication to provide excellent library service for all in the academic community. They have shaped the academic environment in-
stead of merely reacting to it. Who is next?—*Billy R. Wilkinson, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle.*


This collection of symposium papers is a prompt publication, valuable for librarians, paper conservators, and paper scientists. Most of the information presented is the result of recent research and is not printed elsewhere. In fact, many of the chapters in this volume contain footnotes citing one another. This interdependence of articles is not a weakness; it indicates the sudden surge of researcher interest in the conservation of cellulosic materials. The section on textile preservation occupies less than one-third of the book and gives evidence that textiles are both more complicated and less completely studied than paper.

Librarians and archivists should be interested in, and informed by, this collection of studies, even though much of the experimentation and data is couched in paper scientists’ jargon. The first three articles include short histories of paper manufacturing and permanent paper and a synopsis by Bernard Middleton on “Book Preservation for the Librarian.” Beyond this introduction, the librarian can make use of detailed reports dealing with five basic topics: the deacidification of paper, the salvage of water-damaged library materials, the manufacturing of permanent paper, the causes of paper deterioration, and the establishing of paper testing methods.

Three new deacidification processes are presented—all nonaqueous and all being tested for practicality and economy. The most promising method is detailed by Bernard F. Walker of the W. J. Barrow Research Laboratory. During a six-month pilot project, the Virginia State Library was deacidifying 250 books a day at an approximate cost of 52 cents per volume, using morpholine vapor in an automated system. The Library of Congress has developed the use of methylmagnesium carbonate, a manual method for use on fragile paper. The compound is carried in a liquid solvent and brushed or sprayed on single documents.

Thorough studies on the salvage of water-damaged books were carried out after the Corning Museum of Glass library was flooded by tropical storm Agnes in 1972. The museum staff froze the soaked library books, as well as their card catalog and files. Since mold and other damage were retarded, there was time to research methods for thawing, drying, and sterilizing the collection. Types of drying procedures investigated were: interleave/air drying, dielectric drying, microwave drying, vacuum drying, freeze/thaw vacuum drying, and solvent extraction. In a series of three articles, David J. Fischer gives enough data for librarians to choose the best drying method in an emergency situation, based on extent of water damage, value of the collection, and type of paper in the text.

More than a third of this volume is concerned with establishing criteria for permanent paper. Unfortunately, the scientists’ work to improve the quality of book stock can be undermined by manufacturers. Richard A. Stuhrke, speaking to paper producers, states: “The higher strength of an alkaline sheet has allowed direct substitution of weaker, lower cost fibers . . .” (p.29). Stuhrke tries to persuade paper companies to convert to alkaline paper products as a means of saving money; the stock he advocates would be more permanent than current papers but would not gain in durability.

A number of the chapters in this volume should provide librarians an incentive for conservation. In the study of the causes of paper deterioration and the means to predict paper stability, one conclusion is outstanding—the paper in books must be preserved rather than rescued. If library materials are not manufactured with permanent/durable characteristics, it is most important to prevent deterioration with deacidification and correct handling and environment. Once paper degradation has begun, the best efforts of library administrators cannot restore a book to useful
The twelve papers that comprise this compilation deal with several aspects of library automation and networking in Germany and the United States. According to Eckhard Edelhoff’s introduction, the symposium was intended to provide information—a kind of state-of-the-art report—to computing center and library personnel in the German Federal Republic.

Demonstrations of systems included OCLC, BALLOTS, University of Bielefeld (IBIS), and University of Dortmund (DOBIS), and a description of the on-line catalog access and circulation control system at Ohio State University was also presented. Representatives from Australia, Belgium, Canada, France, Holland, Austria, and South Africa also attended, but no information about automation activities in these countries is reported.

Generally, two types of presentations were made: First, those that tried to deal with network and file design, bibliographic control standardization, and comparative analyses of certain system characteristics. Second, descriptions of systems, either in operation or planned.

Of the former, G. Pflug’s overview of library automation painted the broadest canvas; R. H. Klar dealt with the basic components of library systems analysis, emphasizing the relationships among library services and housekeeping functions; C. Bossmeyer discussed the problems and complexities of communications format design in Germany and file maintenance problems and then described an off-line network facility developed by the Hochschulbibliothekszentrum des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen (HBZ); K. Sailer and P. Gruber discussed the interaction among three files in an off-line serials control system operating at the Arbeitsstelle für Bibliothekstechnik; J. Griese presented an overview of file organization schemes used in the OSU, OCLC, BALLOTS, DOBIS, and IBIS systems, which he derived from oldish printed sources; E. Kohl made a strong case for cost savings, based upon use of bibliographic records from other sources—if cataloging and subject control standards are adhered to (he also makes a plea to those responsible for standards decisions in the U.S. and elsewhere to consider the international implications of those decisions); F. Kilgour asserted that the growth of OCLC is not limited by technology but by the number of titles printed since Gutenberg and that OCLC is also attempting to develop and interface with CATV for direct user access to library holdings information; H. Atkinson pointed out that OSU costs per item circulated were reduced from forty-six cents (1970) to forty-three cents after the introduction of the patron access and circulation system; M. Behnke described the IBIS (Integrated Library System), which supports cataloging and indexing for the HBZ; A. Veaner described the development and impact of BALLOTS upon technical processing activities at Stanford, including a staff reduction from eighty-five (1972) to seventy-three FTE; B. Jedwabski illustrated the implementation of DOBIS at Dortmund University; V. Wehefritz dealt with work-flow analysis, particularly in acquisitions processing, as it related to use of DOBIS.

There are a number of problems with language in this publication. For instance, the foreword is printed in both English and German, but within each paper the leading abstract appears only in German, and the text is in English. In many cases the translations are not well done, and the usual acronym problem is compounded for American readers because they represent German entities, e.g., GZS, GDZS, GAZS, etc. Some are explained, and others are not. On the other side of the coin, Atkinson’s use of the word “nincompoop” must have caused a humorous delay in the simultaneous translation. Typos and misplaced or unexplained illustrations abound. An annoyance is the lack of institutional identification and job titles of the authors.

Edelhoff concludes that “what had been
aimed at was fully achieved," namely, the briefing of the attendees about the status and problems being faced by particular system designers and managers.

The American contingent appeared to be advisory, while the other speakers raised many questions that the republic's library community should address. In this connection, it is instructive for American readers to get some sense of the impact North American library systems and automation decisions may have on librarians and library service in other countries. The global bibliographic village is being built, and we can no longer ignore the effects that multinational standards and decisions will have on local library service.—Ron Miller, California Library Authority for Systems and Services (CLASS), San Jose.


Maryalls Strom, in her Library Services to the Blind and Physically Handicapped, has brought together some twenty-eight articles covering the time span from 1963 to 1976 on the subject of library service to the handicapped—a topic that has become increasingly popular since the signing of the regulations for the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 last year. The fact that the provisions of the act are no longer voluntary but mandatory has increased considerably the interest in such works.

The book is divided into four sections: special libraries, special people, special considerations, and special services. The first section on special libraries is devoted mainly to descriptions of the Library of Congress and its programs for the blind and others with handicapping conditions that affect a person's ability to read. For those unfamiliar with the LC program, particularly the more recent development of its network system, the articles present a good, overall description.

One, "The World Will Never Be Small Again" by Robert Russell, is written from the user's viewpoint and is probably the most inspirational account of the value of the talking books program to be found anywhere. Though written twenty years ago, this account of a blind English professor's struggles in the academic world bears reading not only by librarians who may be working with the handicapped but all librarians.

Of the nine articles in the second section on special people, six are on problems of children with various handicaps; one is on the retarded; one on problems a parent faces with a handicapped child; and one on the development of nonprint services at Gallaudet College, the only liberal arts college in the U.S. for the deaf and hard-of-hearing. This last article, by Fern Edwards, acting librarian at Gallaudet, would be helpful for librarians in institutions where there are deaf students.

The two problem areas covered in the third section, entitled "Special Considerations," are selection of materials and barriers to access. The articles on selection, although valuable for school and public librarians, have little relevance for academic librarians.

Of the three articles on barriers to access, one describes a 1970 survey of how libraries were attempting to cope with the problem (which would most likely show different results today); another, by Ruth Velleman, describes architectural adaptations in the library of the Human Resources School in Albertson, New York, and the third discusses the problems, particularly with regard to volume capacity of academic libraries, posed by various building standards recommended for serving the handicapped. The Velleman article particularly, even though it is on a school library, includes much information that would be valuable to academic librarians, especially for those serving students confined to wheelchairs.

The final section of the book, on special services, brings together some of the literature on service to the homebound, the institutionalized, and the aging. The appendix contains a source of reading materials for the handicapped, a list of DBPH regional and subregional libraries, and a rather limited bibliography of further reading on library service to the handicapped.

For the growing number of academic librarians designated to work specifically with the disabled students in their institutions, many of the articles in this book would be
helpful as an introduction to the field. Even those dealing mainly with children and adolescents who have such disabilities as hemophilia, muscular dystrophy, and spina bifida would be valuable in understanding the background of the handicapped college student. For others, however, the book is one to be skimmed, since only a few articles are relevant to academic libraries.—Lucille Whalen, State University of New York at Albany.


Many librarians and administrators have considered resource sharing a partial answer to the escalating cost of library staff and materials. Encouraged by government and private foundation support, library consortia have multiplied to the point where the library without a consortial affiliation is the exception. With so much interest and involvement in cooperative library arrangements, it was to be expected that the Pittsburgh Conference on Library Resource Sharing held from September 29 to October 1, 1976, would attract outstanding contributors and participants, and that the papers presented would provide, not only a better understanding of the state of library cooperation, but also a look into its future.

Through prior distribution of position papers contributed primarily by members of the University of Pittsburgh faculty, conference participants were encouraged to focus on the goals of resource sharing, progress towards goals, problems needing attention, the economies of libraries, telecommunications, and the future. The varying quality of these key papers is reflected in the responses of the principal speakers or reactors. Some papers, such as Allen Kent’s discussion of “The Goals of Resource Sharing in Libraries,” stimulate thoughtful and opposite responses, while others appear to be politely disregarded by the respondents. Transcripts of discussions following the presentation of each major topic provide useful additional information.

The strength of this collection of papers is in the contributions of some of the outside principal speakers. Connie Dunlap’s consideration of the cost of cooperation and our tendency to see it as the solution to all our problems; Allen Veaner’s well-developed statement on progress and growth in resource sharing; William Axford’s examination of obstacles to resource sharing; James Rush’s contention that “pride in collection has got to be supplanted by pride in patronage (users);” and John McDonald’s plea for the establishment of a national periodical library are among the most thought-provoking essays. One could only wish that Allen Kent had expanded his limited comments on “Directions for the Future” at the conclusion of the conference.

Unfortunately, the quality of the editing leaves much to be desired. In view of the price of this volume, one would have hoped for more care in its preparation for publication.

Despite its shortcomings, Library Resource Sharing is a valuable book that should be read by librarians, most of whom find themselves involved in cooperative library programs.—Willis Bridegam, Amherst College, Amherst, Massachusetts.


The Responsibility of the University Library Collection in Meeting the Needs of its Campus and Local Community. A symposium in Honor of Melvin J. Voigt upon His Retirement as University Librarian of the University of California, San Diego, Friday, September 17, 1976. La Jolla, Calif.: Friends of the UCSD Library, 1977. 52p. $3 if check accompanies order. (Order from Friends of the UCSD Li-
Two small publications recently issued honor two outstanding librarians, Louis Round Wilson and Melvin Voigt. Their contents parallel the lives of the two men in dealing with library education and university library management.

The pamphlet honoring Wilson is indeed a worthy tribute to the centenarian. In its two parts we have a creditable job of portraying the evolution of library education in the Southeast by Ed Holley, Jack Dalton, Virginia Lacy Jones, and Mary Edna Anders and a thought-provoking paper on research libraries by Herman Fussier. Some of the history and thoughts expressed have been stated before in other publications, but there are "proposals" and "prospects" that give them meaning for today.

A proposal, made near the end of Dalton's paper, is worthy of our close attention, particularly in view of the demise of the ALA Library Education Division. It is his suggestion that library educators in the Southeast call another invitational working conference to consider the complexities and problems of the changing library profession that today attempts to serve the nation's populace.

If the reviewer may be so presumptuous, he would broaden Dalton's proposal and suggest a nationwide conference or several regional conferences. It just may be that we as librarians, collectively, are outmoded, but the technology that can be applied to our profession is not, and we should make an effort to rectify the situation.

Fussier leaves history out, picks up the university library where it is today with its multitudinous problems, and proffers some possible solutions. His paper is a minicourse in research library problems for advanced practitioners. The terminology will be difficult for uninitiated library science students, but even so the work should be required reading for prospective academic librarians.

This is a profound paper of thoughtful content. It is unfortunate that its editing was obviously hurried and that the evidence of proofreading seems totally lacking.

The California symposium brought together some outstanding librarians and scholars. Professor Andrew Wright and Basil Stuart-Stubbbs dealt with a definition of the parameters for a university library collection. Here a "working scholar" and a university librarian have at it, the scholar asking for his "bread and butter" collection close at hand and the librarian predicting a day of reckoning with the absolute saturation of all available library space.

The matter of research library cooperation was treated in another session of the symposium. In his paper, Russell Shank spoke of cooperative collection development as often being less than satisfactory: "We do not always get the anticipated payoff from cooperative collection development schemes."

Robert M. Hayes, in his description of library networks, said we do not have to wait any longer on the technology for resource sharing, only the funding. For a successful sharing endeavor, he would favor endowing the large libraries to become larger.

Clara Jones described the new information and referral service now in use in many large public library systems, delineating in particular the program now operational at the Detroit Public Library, a system that incorporates information from beyond the walls of the library and the backs of books.

Handsomey produced by the Friends of the UCSD Library, the small paperback is as attractive as it is thought-provoking—Roscoe Rouse, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater.


The first edition of Planning and Design of Library Buildings appeared in 1973. It was indeed a wonderful addition to the literature, for it gave a complete overview of then current construction practices, standards, and descriptions of library buildings in Britain. But, one must question, as this writer indeed does, "Why a repeat edition in just four years?" And at $25 per copy, too. One praised the comprehensiveness and organization of the first edition and appreciated its illustrations and photo-
graphs. It was for us on our side of the Atlantic a great companion volume to Metcalf's Planning Academic and Research Library Buildings—and still is.

This second edition states in its preface that "the great change which has taken place in the last few years in the financial environment in which library buildings are conceived has inevitably had an influence on their planning." Such a statement in a preface ought to imply "great changes" in the second edition of the book in hand. But not the case: fully 98 percent of the illustrations and photographs are repeats—except, of course, the publishers use one of the very few new photographs greatly enlarged on the dust jacket under the words, "Second edition." Page after page has not one word of new text. Where is the "influence" of "the great change"?

Thompson has revised his "set of all-purpose formulae for initial, and very general, assessment of areas needed for the storage of different classes of library materials" because these figures in the first edition "were too vague, and, in part, inaccurate" (his words). Still, at the end of his revised figures, he writes, "For a more detailed set of formulae, see Metcalf."

The second edition carries an expanded essay on "Conversions" by which term the author refers to the alteration or conservation of existing buildings. This final chapter of the book does indeed bring new material to the literature of library buildings. The chapter is well conceived, written, and illustrated. Finally, Thompson has updated and enlarged the "Bibliography."

Still, the second edition is better left alone if you have the first edition. Remembering that these are British buildings, the essay on conversions and the bibliography are hardly worth $25—better put that $25 to another acquisition.—Hal B. Schell, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.


This volume is divided into three parts with two essays on the general subject of staffing, three on people in work situations, and three on theoretical approaches to library management. Volume four conforms more or less to the pattern set by previous volumes in the series: little continuity with some overlap in topics. With the exception of one essay contributed by a Brazilian library educator and one by an American management professor, the papers are British authored; of these, three are by library faculty, two by public library administrators, and one by a county personnel officer.

"Educational Needs for Library Management in a Developing Country" by Antonio A. Briquet de Lemos appraises education for librarianship in Brazil. He includes an analysis of data collected from ex-library school students asked to evaluate the quality of their educational experience.

"Manpower Requirements of Public Libraries" by Kevin Graves concentrates on the use of staffing studies for both internal library use and broader forecasting with illustrations drawn from the study he recently conducted on the staffing of public libraries in Great Britain. Numerous suggestions are offered for conducting staffing studies and determining manpower requirements that should be capable of being applied in other types of library settings.

"Organisation Development in Library Management" by T. D. Wilson defines organization development, describes how it works, reviews its limited usage to date in libraries, and contemplates its scope and future potential.

"Leicestershire Libraries: a Team Based Organisation Structure" by John Hinks provides a detailed discussion of the structure of the Leicestershire Libraries and Information Service, a county public library system that incorporates a team-based organizational system for the professional librarians in its field areas. Interestingly, professionals doing nonprofessional work, and vice versa, are effectively eliminated through this type of organization, an approach that conceivably could also be adapted to academic and special library environments.

"Trade Unions and Librarianship" by R. D. Taylor is a loosely written analysis of trade union developments in Great Britain affecting British public and academic librar-
ians with some attention given to the relationship between professionalism and unionism.

"Strategy, Structure, Style and Appraisal Applied to Libraries" by Paul J. Gordon is a critical examination of traditional assumptions and current thinking on organizational questions relating to behavior, design, and structure. He stresses there are no universal but only partial and conditional theories of management and also the need to consider varieties of organizations.

"Economics in Library Management" by Nick Moore discusses the development of economics, applications to management, and contributions to the development of library management theories. Recent research studies on book selection, collection size, and collection effectiveness are used to illustrate the relevance of economics theory to practical library decision making.

"Librarianship: Practice, Research and Theory" by Stephen A. Roberts, after discussing the concepts of science, research, theory, and practice, reviews several contemporary issues confronting research in librarianship. His paper concludes with a discussion of criteria for the advancement of library research in Great Britain.

The papers are not easy reading and require knowledge of the state of the library management art—in all its practical and theoretical aspects—for adequate comprehension of the topics discussed. However, those library managers and advanced students of library management who take the time to prod through this volume carefully will find food for thought and reflective action. The volume is not for those looking for quick answers to practical problems; rather, it raises numerous questions with possibilities of alternative strategies, techniques, and structures grounded in present, future, or conjectured theories.—Michael B. Binder, Clinch Valley College of the University of Virginia, Wise.


This list, produced under the aegis of the Committee on Sexism in Subject Headings organized under the sponsorship of the American Library Association’s SRRT (Social Responsibilities Round Table) Task Force on Women, contains descriptors/subject headings for topics relating to people and peoples, particularly women.

The intent of this thesaurus, as stated in the introduction, is "to provide both a list of descriptors suitable for indexing materials of concern to women and other classes of people who have not been well served by the LCSH and a critique of the LCSH and LC’s subject heading assignment policies."

Three categories of terms are included: (1) additions to Library of Congress Subject Headings (LCSH) to cover areas of women’s concerns that are not presently covered; (2) revisions of biased LCSH terms; and (3) LCSH headings that have been included merely to expand the reference structure or to add subdivisions (p.12). In terms of scope, the list is not comprehensive or exhaustive, even for headings relating to women. LC headings that are considered adequate are generally not included in this list but are intended to be used along with those listed. In some areas, only a number of model headings are listed, according to which additional headings on similar subjects may be developed. As a result, this thesaurus seems to have been designed to be used as a supplementary list to LCSH and cannot be used independently without further development and expansion.

This list seeks mainly to improve on the terminology used in LCSH by using more current terms and by providing terms not yet present in LCSH (including new headings and narrower headings than those in LCSH) and additional cross-references. Existing LC headings that are considered to be biased or offensive are replaced by neutral or "nonbiased" terms.

Offensive or controversial terms, such as "Infanticide" and "Female offenders," are not only replaced by other terms but also dropped as referred-from references. It may be questioned whether eliminating these terms as referred-from references is desirable in terms of retrieval effectiveness. It is...
possible that some users might seek material on certain subjects under the "offensive" terms because these are often terms with which these users have become familiar either through their previous experience with the catalog or through literature. The reason for not using these terms as headings is obvious, but dropping them as references is limiting access points to desired information or material.

Including a biased term, particularly as a referred-from reference, in a thesaurus does not necessarily constitute an endorsement of a particular viewpoint. This also brings to mind a question that has been raised many times in literature but lacks an answer based on consensus: Should descriptors or subject headings represent the objective facts only? Or should they not reflect the way these facts have been and are recorded as well?

The list includes many terms narrower than those in LCSH, but whether these are necessarily "specific" terms must be viewed in the context of application. A broad term may be a specific term, when applied to a work on a broad topic; and a narrow term is not necessarily specific, if the topic of the work being analyzed is even narrower than the term.

In a few exceptional cases, broader terms are used to replace existing LC headings, e.g., Nuns—Employment in public schools replacing the LC heading Nuns as public school teachers.

Regarding form of headings, this thesaurus conforms largely to LCSH, with perhaps a stronger tendency towards class-entry forms (i.e., headings that contain hierarchically related terms and are not characteristic of entries in a dictionary catalog based on the principle of specific entry) even more so than LCSH. For example, headings subdivided indirectly sometimes contain three geographic subdivisions, e.g., Women—Employment—Canada—Manitoba—Winnipeg, as opposed to LC practice, which allows no more than two geographic subdivisions in a heading.

In spite of a stated preference for the inverted form of headings because of its "consciousness-raising value" (p.11), some direct headings are included, resulting in inconsistent forms for headings of a similar type, e.g., Woman's films but Mass media, Women's; Prisons for women but Women's health centers and clinics. Furthermore, the distinction between the phrase form and the subdivided form is not always clear, e.g., Women—Prayer books and devotions but Comic books, strips, etc., Women's. Although most of these problems regarding form of headings are inherited from LCSH, this thesaurus fails to address them satisfactorily.

LCSH has often been criticized for containing obsolete and biased terms. Many of them reflect the biases of the literature or of society, and some of them are the result of changing usage. Out of practical consideration, particularly the cost of change, the Library of Congress admittedly has not kept up with the changes. This thesaurus aims at this particular problem by providing a list of terms relating to women and, to a limited extent, other minority groups that are in current use and are acceptable to the groups concerned. In addition, a set of "principles for establishing subject headings relating to people and peoples" was developed to ensure nonbiased and unprejudiced terminology.

In recent years, the women's movement has generated tremendous interest in women's studies, and there is an enormous proliferation of literature in this area. LCSH, based primarily on literary warrant, is only slowly catching up in providing adequate headings for new topics related to women. This thesaurus fills this gap and will no doubt prove to be useful in analyzing book and periodical collections, particularly in indexing the contents of books and periodicals.—Lois M. Chan, University of Kentucky, Lexington.


This slim paperback volume is a collection of papers given at a University of Evansville seminar in November 1976. The seminar topic was "Critical Issues in Higher Education: Library and Media."

There are seven papers in the collection, and their authors include some big names in
the field. W. C. Meierhenry opens the series with a look at the future of media in American higher education. His paper is followed by three that address the concept of unified library/media programs: Series editor Burlingame summarizes current trends in the organization of learning resource centers in higher education; David M. Crossman analyzes the reasons why a unified approach failed to work at the University of Pittsburgh; and Leland Park describes how a nonunified arrangement functions at Davidson College. Next comes a paper on the applications of competency based education to personnel administration by Donald Ely. The remaining two papers are a survey of organizations involved in the bibliographic control of media by Pearce Grove and a description of some practical aspects of budgeting for media services by Gerald Brong.

Three of the seven papers (those by Meierhenry, Crossman, and Brong) were previously issued in *Media in Higher Education: Critical Issues* (Pullman, Wash.: Information Futures, 1976.) The Information Futures volume contains the proceedings of a Critical Issues Conference on Media in Higher Education held at Pullman in February 1976. A large portion of the material contained in the new collection is thus already available in some other format.

Of the papers first published here, editor Burlingame's summary of organizational patterns in learning resource centers is concise and to the point. Ely's theories of competency based education for media personnel, though cogently presented, have received wide dissemination elsewhere. Grove's survey of the sources of bibliographic control of nonprint media is breathless and occasionally incoherent. Park's report on the organization of print and nonprint services at Davidson College is well-organized but smacks of the "how I run my shop good" variety of library/media literature.

*Library and Media: Marriage or Divorce* does not seem to be a significant contribution to the advancement of knowledge. In fact, it would seem to be a case where birth control in the publishing world could have been profitably practiced. Acquisitions librarians with $4.95 to spend could spend it on acquiring any of the seven papers that are available in another format.
more profitably on something else.—Cathleen Flanagan, University of Utah, Salt Lake City.


Following the destruction and dislocation of libraries during World War II, the need for a catalog to the special collections in East and West Germany has become imperative. Hans Praseint's Die Bibliotheken (Deutsches Reich) published in the Minerva Handbucher series in 1929 is, of course, out of date. Richard C. Lewanski's Subject Collections in European Libraries (1965) covers 6,000 libraries and does not adequately describe any one collection. Walther Gebhardt's work now fills the gap for the Federal Republic.

The 877 collections are arranged alphabetically by city. In addition to informing the reader about loan privileges and copying facilities, the compiler usually lists the approximate size of the collections and their significant features. Gebhardt cites articles and bibliographies when they are available. More than 200 pages are devoted to a concordance and an index. The concordance enables the researcher to scan subject headings, names, and concepts and thus easily find a particular field. For example, ninety subject headings and names appear under "military science." Generous listings are available in other subject areas.

In spite of the losses resulting from the war, German libraries still contain vast resources. To cite only a sampling: The municipal library of Baden-Baden has 400 volumes on hot springs and baths. In Berlin the researcher may consult more than 5,000 concert programs from the Gewandhaus in Leipzig. One library lists an uncataloged collection dealing with the poet Wieland as weighing "3 Zentner" (i.e., 330.75 pounds). In Munich, a former Gestapo library contains 10,000 volumes on Judaism, and an archive in Koblenz has 2,000 tape recordings from the Nazi period. There are still a dozen Judaica collections in West Germany. Several libraries have more than 10,000 funeral sermons each. One museum has 4,000 volumes devoted to the history of bread; another specializes in Till Eulenspiegel books and memorabilia. And even German libraries are now beginning to collect comic books.

One need hardly detail the superb collections in philology, philosophy, and the natural sciences, which made Germany the leader in Wissenschaft until 1933. Seminary and cloister libraries still contain numerous manuscripts and incunabula.

Gebhardt has not slighted the German researcher looking for foreign collections. Listed are depository collections of the RAND Corporation, U.S. government publications, and UN reports. Similarly, the compiler identifies libraries having microfilms of early American imprints and those listed in the catalogs of Pollard and Redgrave and Wing.

A few minor criticisms: the list of abbreviations is inadequate. The price of the volume puts it beyond the reach of researchers on a grant. One wonders about the publisher's motive in issuing the volume with a German and an English title, when only the introduction is in English. Nevertheless, this volume is vital in any reference collection.—Kurt S. Maier, Leo Baeck Institute, New York.


Two recent additions to the literature of manuals on how to do oral history are testimonials to the growing professionalism of this relatively new technique, which preserves for the future the memories of
participant/observers of events of historical import.

Oral History from Tape to Type is the more inclusive of the two books. It is designed to be three things: (1) a textbook on oral history, (2) an operating manual, and (3) a workbook. As a textbook on oral history, it may be a bit thin. For instance, the disadvantages of doing a subject oriented rather than a biographical oral history are made clear, but advantages are left to the reader’s imagination. Moreover, a textbook should have some discussion of what, in fact, has been contributed by oral history to historiography. But it is an excellent manual, and it could be recommended without any serious qualifications to anyone wishing to begin or to improve an already established oral history program.

The discussion on interview technique is especially wise and perceptive as well as full of practical hints. This book will be particularly useful to those teaching a course on oral history. The exercises are designed to give the prospective oral historian realistic practice. This work is different from previous manuals in that it concentrates on retrieving, publishing, and publicizing oral history. For this reason, I think it will be particularly valued by librarians and those who are involved in the maintenance and preservation of oral history tapes and transcripts.

Transcribing and Editing is not intended as a complete manual. Rather it is a companion volume to the author’s first work Oral History for the Local Historical Society, an effort that has become recognized as the most valuable, if not essential, aid to the small oral history project. Transcribing and Editing begins at the moment the tape recorder has been turned off at the conclusion of a successful interview and covers every step from the form in which notes taken during the interview can be most useful to the transcriber to the ceremonial presentation of the finished product to the narrator.

Willa Baum has not chosen, however, to present a rigid explication of the one right way to process oral history tapes. Instead, she has set out various alternatives and rationales for deciding among these alternatives. Who would imagine that instructions to a transcriber could be a warm, sensitive human document, which evidences great respect for the interviewer, the interviewee, and indeed for the integrity of the project itself? But Willa Baum’s directions are, in fact, exactly that.

Perhaps the major weakness of this manual is that it suggests far more editing than would appear to be wise, either in terms of an accurate rendition of the interview or in terms of making funds stretch as far as possible. A great deal of editing is costly and time consuming and, finally and most importantly, presents the researcher with a document that is a far cry from the original. Before deciding on a program of editing, one could profitably consult the discussion by Davis, Back, and MacLean, which provides the rationale for editing merely in the interests of intelligibility and argues against massive rearrangements and structural changes.

Both of these books provide an excellent guide to any oral history project large or small and will make instructive reading for

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all who either contemplate or are already heavily engaged in the stimulating but sometimes frustrating venture of attempting to preserve "history warm."—Alice M. Hoffman, Pennsylvania State University, King of Prussia Graduate Center.


As usual, the annual conference of the University of Chicago Graduate Library School results in a high-powered overview of the chosen topic. The title of the thirty-eighth conference should serve as a cautionary note: these proceedings should be read without delay, since the pace of change threatens to make much of the content passé in short order.

Three of the seven papers are largely factual, informative, and nonprovocative state-of-the-art presentations. "Technological Foundations for Bibliographic Control Systems," by Ronald L. Wigington and Charles N. Costakos, serves an important function for planners of bibliographic systems generally. The paper's scope—computer technology, communications technology, reprography, and software—along with its lucid exposition and predictions of future trends makes it one of the most relevant and valuable pieces this reviewer has read for some time. (Another reason to read it: most of the news is good!)

Elaine Svenonius and Helen F. Schmierer write perceptively on recent work in the area of subject control within a neatly organized framework encompassing universal schemes (LC and Dewey classification and LC subject headings), natural language indexing, indexing vocabulary convertibility,
and string indexing languages. Regrettably, they chose not to use this forum for the expression of judgmental viewpoints that might help direct the information community's allocation of resources for subject analysis.

Henriette Avram, before finishing with a remarkably pithy summary of the conference, reviews developments (mostly post-1960) in production and dissemination of bibliographic data, with a view toward a multifaceted bibliographic network. In four paragraphs at the conclusion of the review (p.127-28) she poses some of the most difficult and important problems now facing network planners. (In the seventeen pages of her contribution, Avram introduces thirty-five different initialisms and acronyms, using them a total of 281 times, thus qualifying her as a finalist in the World Acronymic Competitive Knockout Year [WACKY].)

Herman H. Fussier and Karl Kocher's introductory outline of "contemporary issues" provides a convenient framework for the papers that follow but can be skipped by anyone reasonably au courant with the bibliographic scene.

In a lengthy presentation entitled "Theory of Bibliographic Control in Libraries," Doralyn J. Hickey deals in a confusing and (to this reviewer) sterile manner with a hodgepodge analysis of historic American practice in bibliography and the development of library catalogs. A series of questions that leads to a "Prolegomena to a Theory of Bibliographic Control," although couched in high-sounding terminology, constitutes further ammunition for the unproductive and seemingly endless haggling in some circles about how many bibliographic angels can or should dance on the head of a single pin. Hickey's paper is a superb illustration of the difficulty encountered in developing a theoretical structure applicable to an essentially pragmatic situation, one that can be better analyzed as a set of public policy problems in the allocation of resources rather than treated as an area for philosophical speculation.

In contrast to Hickey, Warren J. Haas' discourse on "Organization Structures to Meet Future Bibliographic Requirements" is precisely on target in its delineation of bibliographic ends and means, taking off from the judgment that one of our major handicaps is "the lack of an effective . . . capacity to develop a national strategy for bibliographic control." His concluding proposal for a cooperative project on the part of the Library of Congress and the Association of Research Libraries to formulate and test "methods for planning and assessing the performance of our bibliographic mechanisms" deserves attention in spite of its aura of creaky machinery and elitist control.

In what is certainly the most elegant and most pleasurable to read of the conference papers, S. Michael Malinconico steps through some highlights of cultural and bibliographic history as a prelude to, and as a basis for, an examination of the relationship between computer-based technology, the purposes of bibliothecal activity, and the standards under which it is (or is not) performed. Malinconico finishes with an eloquent—although debatable—plea for adherence to the concept of main entry. The paper unfortunately stops short of addressing the topic that lies for this reviewer (and, one would expect, for Malinconico) at the heart of the matter: authority control of access points in bibliographic files.—Joseph A. Rosenthal, University of California, Berkeley.

CORRECTION

The Institute for Scientific Information has called our attention to errors in the review of Eugene Garfield's Essays of an Information Scientist, which appeared in the March 1978 issue, pages 148 and 150.

ISI points out that Eugene Garfield is more than "currently active in ISI," he is the founder, president, and its board chairman. Further, Dr. Garfield is not president of Information International, Inc. (III), and has never been associated in any capacity with any firm with this or a similar name. Dr. Garfield was never president of ASIS or ADI. He served on the Council of that organization and was president of the Information Industry Association (IIA).

Current Contents has never been produced by any other firm than the Institute for Scientific Information.

The author of the review and the editor regret these errors and offer their apologies to Dr. Garfield and ISI.
ABSTRACTS

The following abstracts are based on those prepared by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources, School of Education, Syracuse 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.

Further information on ordering documents and on current postage charges may be obtained from a recent issue of Resources in Education.


This study was directed toward station occupancy, station use, and hours and days of use in learning resource centers (LRC) in California community colleges. Other factors measured were day-graded students, number of faculty, off-shelf use of materials, and student attendance at print, nonprint, and related instructional service areas. The study covered one full week in the spring semester. Conclusions indicate that: (1) occupancy was lower than anticipated; (2) occupancy is highest when classroom use is highest; (3) LRC facilities built for day-graded students are adequate to support evening patrons; (4) except at peak loads, student stations could be used for other LRC activities; (5) station use could be increased without adding more space and seating capacity; and (6) occupancy percentages vary between new colleges, which are expanding, and established colleges with developed collections. Data are summarized in charts and recommendations are presented.


This policy manual explains computer search services at the University of Massachusetts/Amherst, University Library. The service is available to anyone willing to assume the cost of the
services and able to schedule time for both the search strategy interview and the search itself. Requests for computer services are not accepted over the phone or by mail, and the actual search is rarely conducted without the requestor present. The policy manual describes the following: (1) responsibilities of the computer searcher, including scheduling appointments and interviewing, charging services to university accounts, conducting the search, attending workshops, and maintaining search aids; (2) responsibilities of the coordinator, who compiles statistics, reports to the head of reference, coordinates publicity, allocates funds, and updates data base information; and (3) responsibilities of the public services office, which include computing the cost of the searches, ordering supplies, approving publicity, and formulating new policies.


In 1976 Lawrence University of Wisconsin was a recipient of a Library Service Enhancement Program grant from the Council on Library Resources. This report describes the project librarian's activities during the planning year and also provides an outline of the program of bibliographic instruction to be implemented at Lawrence. Included are descriptions of interviews with faculty, a questionnaire survey of the student body, work with a long-range planning committee, and student and faculty evaluation of bibliographic presentations to classes. Also included are a model library research guide and a copy of the project librarian's final report to the faculty and administration.

Guidelines for the Acquisition, Control, and Handling of Microform and Other Nonprint Materials in the University of Oklahoma Libraries. By Marvin C. Guilloyle and others. 1977. 12p. ED 144 578. MF—$0.83; HC—$1.67.

Guidelines developed for the University of Oklahoma libraries with emphasis on the effective use and management of microform materials as well as the status of nonprint materials are presented. Following a statement of position regarding nonprint materials, guidelines cover: (1) acquisition—microforms and nonprint materials; (2) bibilographic control of nonprint materials—cataloging and classification and serials control; (3) physical control of nonprint materials and equipment—policy for collections, costs to patron for loss or damage of materials or equipment, and purchase of equipment.

Bibliographic Instruction. Comp. by Barbara Mertins. West Virginia Library Association. 1977. 52p. ED 144 582. MF—$0.83; HC—$3.50.

Current methods for library instruction in academic libraries include audiovisual materials, programmed learning, self-paced workbooks, and course-related instruction. This document consists of reports on instructional programs involving these methods at five college and university libraries. The Concord College library's program, "A Librarian in the Classroom," develops the curriculum of a course through cooperation between a librarian and the instructor with input by the students as the course progresses. An audiovisual orientation program at West Liberty State College (designed for students in freshman English) is a 35mm color slide presentation with live narration for large groups or a cassette tape for individual viewing. Bibliographic instruction at Glenville College is handled through the user services department. West Virginia University has developed a workbook for teaching library skills that provides students with hands-on library experience and is used as the basis for a one-credit-hour course, "Bibliographic Citation for Non-print Materials." It was prepared by Fairmont State College to assist the researcher because current manuals neglect instructions for citing nonprint materials in research papers.


This paper discusses the rationale for faculty rank, status, and tenure for librarians at the College of Charleston. A brief historical overview of the profession of librarianship traces the evolution of the function of today's librarian as a participant in the processes of teaching and research. Standards for academic status are given, as well as criteria for evaluation. Suggested criteria include: (1) professional competence and activity, (2) activities related to inquiry and research, (3) teaching or instructional effectiveness, (4) service to the institution, and (5) public service. It is suggested that only by acceptance of the standards presented can librarians be evaluated by their peers.

Survey of Users at the University of Oregon Map Library. By Carol Abbott and

The purpose of the directory is to publicize innovative library activities in postsecondary educational institutions. To compile the directory, a report form and cover letter were sent to 119 college libraries and 12 library schools. A total of 101 reports of individual programs was received with 75 libraries and 5 library schools responding to the letter. Programs are listed in alphabetical order by name of library; each entry gives the name of the institution, the name of the person or department responsible, the source of funding, the name of the innovative activity, its objectives, and a brief description. Subjects represented by seven or more program reports include: bibliographic instruction, library cooperation, library orientation, computers, and OCLC. The survey letter and a sample report form are included, and an index provides subject access.


In March 1975, the University of Michigan regents and the Graduate Employees Organization signed a contract that included coverage for graduate student staff assistants employed by the library system there. This document relates the development of major issues that have surfaced in the debate regarding collective bargaining in the academic library world. Included are descriptions of compensation received, job security involved, the participation of the graduate assistants in decision making, and the possibility of faculty status for graduate assistants.


The purpose of this grant, funded by the Council on Library Resources, was to allow a librarian to put aside normal duties for an academic year to explore with faculty, students, and administrators ways of improving library services and to design methods of increasing library use by college students. A program was developed for orienting and instructing freshmen and upper level students in the use of the academic library. For instructional purposes, two forty-five-minute slide presentations, accompanied by instructional booklets and worksheets, were given to freshmen students. They are also expected to learn a basic search strategy to aid in completing course assignments. Upper level students received discipline-related library instruction; a number of bibliographic guides were developed to support this instruction. Appendices include: (1) results of student evaluation of the library orientation/instruction program; (2) student comments on the program; (3) results of the pre/post test questionnaire designed to measure freshmen students' attitudes and skills in regard to the library; (4) faculty questionnaire designed to measure the attitudes and expectations of classroom instruction in regard to the academic library; (5) selected bibliographic guides; and (6) final reports made by the project librarian, director of libraries, and vice-president of the institution.

Cooperative Activities of the University of California Libraries. By Linda Beaupre. Univ. of California, Berkeley. 1976. ED 145 851. MF—$0.83; HC—$3.50.

The report documents current cooperation activities between University of California (UC) libraries and others. Information about programs, procedures, and agreements was gathered in the fall of 1976 from staff members at the nine UC campuses and from librarians at other California institutions. Information sharing between on-campus and off-campus users is accomplished through systemwide lists of library holdings, machine-readable data bases (currently being built), and availability of materials through direct borrowing or interlibrary loan. An intercampus bus system transports both students and materials between the many libraries daily. The library collection building program is a cooperative effort to
avoid duplication of costly and/or seldom used items. Automation projects and programs are coordinated through Universitywide Library Automation Program (ULAP). Several projects developed by UC campuses have been shared by non-UC campuses and medical center libraries in the state. Library planning and coordination are under the direction of the Library Council and its nine task forces with support by regional, interinstitutional, and professional groups such as the American Library Association, Medical Library Association, and Special Libraries Association.


The OCLC Interlibrary Loan (ILL) subsystem was designed to facilitate resource sharing among OCLC participating libraries, thereby enabling libraries to expand the range of library resources available to patrons. The final report describes design and functional uses of the ILL subsystem. A functional overview explains the file, searching, record creation, and ILL response. Descriptions of design and methodology in developing the subsystem, results of testing the subsystem, and prospective field testing are presented. A bibliography, list of system error messages, and reprint of an article on the subsystem are appended. (See also ERIC document ED 145 859 for a users manual and ED 145 860 for functional specifications for the system.)


Eighteen two-year junior and technical colleges, thirty-five four-year institutions, and twenty-seven undergraduate/graduate institutions in Ohio were surveyed on the extent of bibliographic instruction in their libraries. Libraries are listed in this directory alphabetically by name of institution. Entries include address and information on enrollment, type of institution, and person to contact. Responses to each survey question for each library are indicated through the use of a number code assigned to each library. It is hoped that the directory will facilitate communication among libraries with instructional programs, assist other libraries in developing such programs, and aid librarians in their research for such projects.

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Number twelve in Beta Phi Mu's series of chapbooks. Describes the personal library collected by George Washington. Also includes a discussion of the content and ownership of colonial libraries in general and the place of books in the culture of the time.


Comtois, M. E., and Miller, Lynn F., comps.


Hughes, Marija Matich. The Sexual Barrier: Le-

Revised and enlarged edition of a bibliography originally published in 1970 with two supplements in 1971 and 1972. Includes more than 8,000 entries.


Revision of a work first published in 1943. Includes fifty-one new maps.


Provides a comprehensive bibliography on the history of handmade paper, from its earliest appearance to the manufacture of paper by machine.


Mistichelli, Judith, and Roysdon, Christine. Beyond Technics: Humanistic Interactions with Technology; A Basic Collection Guide.

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**COMPUTER-BASED CIRCULATION SYSTEMS**

Library Technology Reports has published an update of its July/September, 1975 report on automated circulation control systems. The new report by William Scholz describes and evaluates the following systems:

**LIBS 100 (CL Systems Inc.) / SCION (Systems Control, Inc.)**

(ULISYS Universal Library Systems, Ltd.)

Gaylord’s Circulation Control System

3M’s Inventory Control System

The 92 page report is contained in the May, 1977 issue of LTR now available to non-subscribers as a single issue for $40.

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Library Technology Reports
American Library Association
50 East Huron Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611
Humanities Perspectives on Technology Program. Bethlehem, Pa.: Lehigh Univ., 1978. 58p. $2. (Available from Humanities Perspectives on Technology, Maginnes Hall no.9, Lehigh Univ., Bethlehem, PA 18015.)


Originally appeared as documents in the Public Papers of the President. Three indexes—subject, issue, and public figure—have been added.


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THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY: ENVIRONMENTAL CONTROL AND ENERGY CONSERVATION by S.G. Cooper: The emphasis in this book is on environmental control and energy conservation in the processing of polyester, nylon, acrylic, olefin and cotton fibers as well as in the finishing of fabrics. ISBN 0-8155-0702-X; $42

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Subscriptions will be sold on the service basis. For a quotation of your service basis rate, please write for the General Science Index list of periodicals to be indexed. Check the periodicals your library now receives or expects to receive during the coming year. Your service basis rate will be sent to you by return mail. Requesting your service basis rate does not, of course, obligate you to subscribe.