In This Issue—


RICHARD M. DOUGHERTY, Research Libraries and a National Information Policy

IRMA Y. JOHNSON, Dissemination of Research Results and a National Information Policy

JOHN P. MCGOWAN, Private University Libraries and a National Information Policy

WILLIAM A. MOFFETT, College Libraries and a National Information Policy: Whistling in the Graveyard

JAMES E. O'NEILL, Replevin: A Public Archivist's Perspective

JULIA F. BALDWIN and ROBERT S. RUDOLPH, The Comparative Effectiveness of a Slide/Tape Show and a Library Tour

MELISSA D. TREVETT, Characteristics of Interlibrary Loan Requests at the Library of Congress

KEITH GREEN, An Evaluation of Citation-Return on Reprints

EUGENE P. SHEEHY, Selected Reference Books of 1977–78
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CONTENTS

Eldred R. Smith 7 The Academic Library within a National Information Policy: Introduction
Richard M. Dougherty 8 Research Libraries and a National Information Policy
Irma Y. Johnson 11 Dissemination of Research Results and a National Information Policy
John P. McGowan 17 Private University Libraries and a National Information Policy
William A. Moffett 22 College Libraries and a National Information Policy: Whistling in the Graveyard
James E. O'Neill 26 Replevin: A Public Archivist's Perspective
Julia F. Baldwin and Robert S. Rudolph 31 The Comparative Effectiveness of a Slide/Tape Show and a Library Tour
Melissa D. Trevvett 36 Characteristics of Interlibrary Loan Requests at the Library of Congress
Keith Green 44 An Evaluation of Citation-Return on Reprints
Eugene P. Sheehy 47 Selected Reference Books of 1977–78
59 Letters
64 Recent Publications
65 Book Reviews
90 Abstracts
93 Other Publications of Interest to Academic Libraries
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The Academic Library within a National Information Policy: Introduction

The following papers were presented during the 1978 Annual Conference of the American Library Association in Chicago at a program of the Association of College and Research Libraries. The theme of the program was: The Academic Library within a National Information Policy—Toward the White House Conference and Beyond. Each speaker was urged to approach the topic from his or her individual professional perspective, focusing on issues that seemed particularly critical or meaningful on the basis of that perspective.

The papers clearly express a wide range of views on this very complex topic. They also raise, I believe, some critical and incisive issues with regard to academic libraries and a national information policy.

Richard M. Dougherty views the prospect of a national information policy from the perspective of the major research library. After identifying a number of difficulties and hazards, he suggests that a national information policy should be explored, but with extreme caution.

Irma Y. Johnson brings a “science and technology” focus to bear on the issue. Persuasively arguing that academic libraries are presently subsidizing the exchange of scientific information, particularly the results of research supported by government contracts, she asserts that the national interest would be much better served if this process were federally funded also. She sees such a development as an essential and fundamental cornerstone of a national information policy.

John P. McGowan reviews several issues related to a national information policy from the perspective of the private university library. He identifies a number of critical problems—the difficulties that private institutions encounter in coping with governmental requirements, the year-to-year uncertainty of state and federal funding, the enormous overhead costs of such support—and makes some provocative suggestions for programs that should be supported.

William A. Moffett reviews the attitudes of college librarians on this topic. He finds that they run the gamut, from indifference through distrust and concern to enthusiasm. Moffett also raises an intriguing related issue, having to do with the names and contributions of academic librarians.

I found this group of papers to be stimulating and enlightening on a variety of facets of a very complex issue that is of considerable concern to academic librarians. I am very much pleased that College & Research Libraries is publishing them.

Eldred R. Smith is director of libraries, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. He was president of the Association of College and Research Libraries in 1977-78.
Research Libraries and a National Information Policy

Although the idea of a "national information policy" appeals to many, there are many obstacles to overcome and special interest groups to satisfy before consensus can be achieved on such a policy. In the meantime research libraries struggle with immense problems, and one must question how a national policy will aid them. The time may be propitious now to begin a dialogue on the requirements for a national policy and then to establish one that will link government agencies and the research library community and preserve the rights of individuals.

My charge was to address the topic of a national information policy from the viewpoint of publicly supported academic research libraries. I feel inadequate to talk about the subject, since no such information policy actually exists. One can only speculate about how such a policy might impact research libraries.

We do know that the nation's economy is rapidly becoming dependent on access to information. In the future an organization's profitability may be closely correlated with its ability to access and manage information. It is this growing economic dependency that eventually will force legislators to consider a national policy.

The idea of a national policy has an almost seductive appeal to many individuals. There is a faith that the existence of a unifying policy would create a sense of order where now none exists, and it would serve to clarify issues that are now shrouded in ambiguity. To me, however, the thought of a national policy has almost no appeal. Maybe we are too close to 1984 and not far enough removed from Watergate for me to feel comfortable with the idea. The recent post-Watergate revelations of government abuse of its authority have only served to intensify my distrust. It will be imperative that the framers of an information policy promote the national good, but it is equally important that safeguards are incorporated to insure that the rights of individuals are preserved.

This program was organized to provide academic librarians an opportunity to respond to the committee report commissioned by Eric Moon. The goals of the document presented at the ALA Midwinter Meeting were laudable, but they did not appear to be very practical. Who can argue against the idea of "All information must be available to all people in all formats conveyed through all communication channels and delivered at all levels of comprehension." But how many believe that these "information imperatives" can be translated into actions? We need a framework that is more rooted in reality.

The term "national information policy" itself suggests an oversimplified perception of what exists. Today there is no overarching policy statement that serves to relate different professions and disciplines, but there are many specialized disciplines that have created de facto policy frameworks within...
which specialists produce, evaluate, organize, and disseminate scientific data. Would it be possible to integrate these specialized systems into an overall framework? It's possible but highly improbable. Even if achieved, a unifying policy covering scientific disciplines would represent only a modest first step. The challenge will be to create public policy on issues that affect the daily lives of individual citizens, e.g., consumer affairs, newspapers, television, radio, etc.

Policymakers underestimate the obstacles that would have to be overcome before a consensus on an information policy can be achieved. The information community is composed of many special interest groups, often holding conflicting objectives, and these interest groups must first be satisfied that their roles will be preserved before they are likely to agree to any policy. The realization of a national consensus within the information community would be a monumental achievement.

In the meantime, research libraries are struggling to cope with the problems of declining budgets, increased user demands, and deteriorating collections. Will a national policy aid these libraries in the struggle to maintain and share their vast store of information resources? This, it seems to me, is one important consideration of a national policy.

Large research libraries remain major sources of informational documents. It is these libraries that collectively comprise one of the country's great repositories of our intellectual heritage. Although it is not always clear who has the right to access resources and under what conditions, presumably a national policy would help resolve some of the ambiguities and disagreements that now exist.

One key question that remains unanswered is whether libraries can provide expanded access to additional constituencies without additional funds. It is doubtful, unless libraries are prepared to reduce the quality of services to their own faculty and students in favor of serving greater numbers of users. Research libraries are confronted by enormously complex problems and must cope with these pressures at a time when budgets are in a general state of decline, while the use of collections mounts and their physical condition deteriorates. The technological revolution has added new dimensions to library operations, but library operations remain labor-intensive, and these costs push ever upward. The recent announcement by the Library of Congress of its plans to close its catalog and to adopt AACR 2 highlights a specific problem that research libraries must soon confront. It is obvious that the Library of Congress' decision will have an economic impact on all research libraries. Sooner or later large libraries must close their card catalogs and adopt the new code. This will be a costly and complicated process.

One general concern that permeates most of the issues I have touched upon is the question of how research libraries can provide better bibliographic control of their massive collections. We sometimes forget that performance to date has not always been exemplary. Catalogs already frequently exclude sizable segments of collections, e.g., government documents, maps, pamphlets, technical reports, microforms, etc. Moreover, we seem to be losing the battle as catalogs gradually become less and less inclusive. The library community has long been dependent on the Library of Congress for bibliographic data, in fact, it may have become overly dependent.

The Library of Congress in several public statements has cautioned that it cannot be expected to alone shoulder the burden of building a national data base. The Library will need the cooperation and active participation of research libraries. The profession must find a way to facilitate a less centralized approach to input and verify quality bibliographic records into a national data base. The growing recognition of this need has prompted organizations such as the Council on Library Resources, Association of American Universities, Association of Research Libraries, and individual libraries to place such a high priority on projects designed to create a national system.

The problems confronting the contemporary research library have never been more complex and the need for solutions greater. Consequently, the time may be propitious to initiate a dialogue addressing the requirements of a national information policy.
Let us hope this policy will serve as a link between government agencies and the research library community—the government can provide the resources so that libraries can improve access of materials to all who need them.

Let me conclude by reiterating my initial concerns. What governmental agency should be given the responsibility of deciding who should or would be granted access to information? If one were to centralize the power to control information, one must also construct an absolute fail-safe system to prevent abuse. Since we cannot even guarantee the security of personal information stored in computer data banks, would it be prudent to grant any agency anything approaching absolute power?

I view information as power, so vast I believe it would be premature to permit any one group the opportunity to control or even to be in a position to manipulate citizen access to information. In the meantime, the library profession should continue talking about a national information policy. But let us proceed cautiously and with our eyes open.

Reference

Dissemination of Research Results and a National Information Policy

Significant portions of the major primary and secondary publications in science and technology carry information resulting from government research and development. Sufficient allocation from federal research budgets is urged to cover costs of disseminating this new information in accordance with the long-standing thesis among scientists that transfer of information is an inseparable part of the research process. Relief would result to libraries whose subscriptions, in effect, now subsidize part of the information dissemination of government-supported research activity. Application of this principle would also assure a strengthened national bibliographic structure and broader user access.

The perspective of this paper was originally proposed to be that of a "specialized private university, which also places great emphasis on quality research and graduate education." These are not particularly unique characteristics among university libraries, so attention will be focused on concerns as they relate particularly to science and technology. Any contribution I may make will be due to the fact that these disciplines are probably among those accounting for the greatest drain on materials budgets, not only at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, but in most academic libraries.

An adequate information policy will, of course, have more than one general objective. Needs for knowledge and information have different origins and may serve quite different values. If we are to have support on anything like an adequate scale, funding, both direct and indirect, will be justified by, and derived from, several kinds of sources. I should note at the outset that, far from there having been significant support for libraries in institutions of higher learning, it appears from my perspective that our colleges and universities have been subsidizing the government in the information dissemination segment of its own research and development (R & D) programs.

We do not have a constituency sufficiently powerful to bring about the level of global support for libraries and information services proposed by the ALA president's special committee at the 1978 Midwinter Meeting. So as one element in evolution toward a realizable national information design, we should ask our government to recognize a responsibility with respect to the costs of transfer of the enormous body of new knowledge it is causing to be generated at public expense. If this were done, a long step will have been taken toward the ultimate overall design goal.

Dissemination of Federally Funded Research Information

I would like to focus on this single aspect of national policy, which increasingly affects adversely the ability of the academic library to provide balanced collections and services to its users. I suggest that the absence of a
responsible information policy, combined with enormous government investment in the creation of new knowledge and information, is straining professional society publication programs and distorting, even contorting, academic library acquisitions budgets.

Serials and journals commonly absorb an increasingly large portion of our materials budgets; the bulk of these expenditures for serials and periodicals lies in the areas of science and technology, to the detriment of other collections. My thesis rests on the observation that a large number of the articles in these expensive journals and report series carry acknowledgment of federal support. Academic libraries constitute the backbone of these journals' subscription lists; to me, it therefore follows that the millions of dollars we pay for these journals, in spite of page charges, substantially support and provide for the dissemination of government-generated information, including related secondary services.

Some might say, it is the library's reason for being to disseminate whatever information is required and from whatever source. Others might argue that overhead paid on grants and contracts is the funding mechanism the government uses to take care of this obligation. The fallacy in the latter theory is that it not only neglects to provide for non-research-based institutions, which should also acquire some of this material, but it really neglects the root problem of need for a system of support driven by the new publicly generated knowledge itself.

It might be well at this point to recall the premises of the 1963 report of the President's Science Advisory Committee on "Science, Government and Information." That report made the following statements:

1. "Transfer of information is an inseparable part of research and development."
2. "Insofar as the Federal Government is the main sponsor of both basic and applied research, it has the responsibility for the financial viability of the communication network whether it is within or without Government."
3. "Publication even in non-government media will eventually be largely paid by Government."
4. "... we see no other alternative to direct Government subsidy of secondary media."

It is now fifteen years later; we have drifted even further into a marketplace philosophy of information as commodity rather than process; and the problem has grown worse. Between 1970 and 1977, while our academic library materials budgets have become more and more skewed, it has been reported that federal funding for scientific and technical information actually decreased as a fraction of the total R & D budget.

As you know, the research cycle begins with investigation, followed by reporting and publication, abstracting and indexing, and on to readers where the whole process starts over again. Through their subscriptions to primary and secondary publications covering this federally supported research, it would seem that academic institutions have essentially been subsidizing to a significant degree that segment of the information cycle in which the new research results are made publicly known and available.

It is not only unfair and increasingly impossible for academic libraries to carry this load, it is also poor stewardship of public funds to make our institutional financial vicissitudes a decisive factor in determining whether the new knowledge, bought at such cost, reaches those who might use it.

The federal R & D budget was estimated at $27 billion this year. As I have stated elsewhere, "A proper return on the public's investment in research and development is almost certainly a function of a systematic (though it would be fractionally small) allocation of a portion of that investment in the successive stages of dissemination and access; that is, publication (through increased page and other charges), intellectual access through secondary services, including their electronic format, and physical access through the knowledge store in libraries and other information facilities."

Because of the sheer volume of knowledge being generated, reference librarians and their users would also benefit from greater allocation of support for evaluation, synthesis, and generally packing down the literature. When the National Bureau of Standards published the International Critical Tables in the 1920s and '30s, their con-
tent included a far larger proportion of the data that had originally appeared in the primary literature than obtains in reference compilations today. It is true that federally supported "information analysis centers," the Bureau of Standards, and various mission-oriented groups produce, analyze, compile, and store prodigious quantities of data. But this information is not as physically and economically accessible as it should be to potential users, and so the basic investment is again dissipated.

Just as a supermarket does not have to deal every morning with the bulk delivery of hundreds of pounds of flour and sugar and crackers and pickles and breakfast food, so too bulk information must have adequate sorting and weighing and packaging and labeling and generally packing down. I don't want to imply that this kind of activity is not taking place. It is just that the magnitude does not appear to be on the same scale as the volume of funded research.

As I noted before, our government is currently spending $27 billion in the creation of new knowledge (paying for salaries, laboratory equipment, computer time, etc.). And just when the process reaches the pay-off stage, when the research product should be read by someone, thus possibly justifying the taxpayer's investment, the government appears to lose interest and decides to leave it to the marketplace.

And so, we do have an information policy, and it says that anyone who has the money and/or the time to dig may have access to all the information created by public funds, which, theoretically at least, was justified only if someone ultimately reads it and makes use of it.

**Costs of Research and Information Dissemination**

To illustrate the grossness of this policy and the scale of costs of the research relative to the cost of dissemination, one might cite further data on research funded by the federal government. We have been suggesting only that the latter bear its responsibility for the dissemination costs related to the information it causes to be created. But let us say it were to pay all the costs of publication of science and technology journals and secondary services, whether carrying government-generated information or not. It is estimated that even that amount would come to only 8 percent of the R & D budget for 1977.\(^5\) (Most industries would think they were getting off easy to be able to distribute their products for 8 percent of the manufacturing cost.)

To focus on a small portion of the federal sector, one may look at research funded by the Department of Energy. Its R & D budget for fiscal 1978 was approximately $4 billion.\(^6\) The results appear in journals and report series.

The subtlety with which university libraries are pressed into the role of disseminator of government research is reflected in the notice in every issue of *Energy Research Abstracts*: "The libraries listed below purchase and maintain microfiche collections of DOE and foreign reports that are abstracted in ERA. Most of these libraries have microfiche reader-printers or other photocopy facilities with which to reproduce enlarged copies from microfiche. Charges for reproduction services vary."

A subscription to these DOE research reports on microfiche costs those of us who subscribe approximately $3,000 a year, a not inconsiderable sum to any academic library today. To provide a file of these reports to 1,000 libraries would require the allocation of only three-fourths of 1 percent of the annual DOE research budget. Were the DOE to accept full responsibility for this final results-dissemination segment of its R & D process, each subscribing library could devote $3,000 to humanistic and other hard-pressed disciplines. And for a little more, a responsible policy would facilitate cheap distribution of individual reports to anyone who will read them. It follows, too, that this principle might well apply also to that portion of the full subscription cost of the journals we all subscribe to which carry research results from Department of Energy R & D.

Academic libraries have not only been subsidizing the distribution of research results in primary publications by their subscriptions to journals and research report series for which government page charges have been insufficient. An even greater impact on libraries can be seen in the costs of the secondary services covering the fields in
which government R & D is focused; and it is by no means limited to science and engineering.

Some government agencies, such as the Department of Energy and the National Institutes of Health, have responsibly supported the indexing services needed for research areas with which they are concerned; the costs of Energy Research Abstracts ($281) and Index Medicus ($170) are modest in comparison to the prices of Chemical Abstracts ($3,700), Biological Abstracts ($2,800), Engineering Index ($900), and many other services. Here again, the subscription prices to such privately supported services could be lowered if the costs of including the literature that has originated from federal research were covered by allocations to the secondary services based on the respective original research project budgets.

There may have been a time long ago when the volume of scientific literature was substantially less and subsidy for the input alone would have been small but appreciated. Today, given the capital investment required for secondary services in their electronic mode, Weinberg's statement is even more imperative: "We see no alternative to direct government subsidy of secondary media."7

This principle was reconfirmed by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science in its 1972-73 annual report, when it stated that bibliographic services serving a wide segment of knowledge and a wide group of users should be designated and subsidized as national information utilities.8

In the absence of such support, bibliographical services have only two alternatives: (1) raise subscription rates to levels resulting increasingly in cancellations or (2) reduce quality or volume of coverage.

The technology is such that if the government would responsibly support the organizational and technological infrastructure needed for optimum dissemination of its own research results, we should be on our way toward a national system that could and would carry much else as well. This is, of course, not an invitation for the government to take over the preparation and publication of secondary services, only a suggestion that it should pay its proportionate share by appropriate allocation of costs from research budgets.

A STRONGER NATIONAL INFORMATION SYSTEM

Without a national system incorporating this principle, because of the power of information technology, we shall shortly see an escalation of the situation in which the information-rich get richer and the information-poor get poorer. In the academic context, this means that faculty and students with government contracts have an advantage over those who don't, even if they have the same intellectual capacity for contribution and even if they are working in the same research area in which there is social need.

For those who can afford it, the electronic format of secondary services is speeding the research process and, as academic reference librarians can attest, computer searching is pointing to heretofore underutilized material in the knowledge store.

Our history is not without precedents on what to do when you have a large, underutilized, relatively unknown resource that takes too long to get to and to make use of. You find a way to subsidize a carrier system to speed up the process, not just for an elite or for the most enterprising, but for all. The building of the railroads in the last century contributed enormously to the rapid development and use of an underutilized and relatively unknown area. We should ask for no less vision today to help forge the infrastructure for information carriers to open up the increasingly large knowledge store, our twentieth-century underutilized "West.”

A more recent example of the same phenomenon has further implications as an analogy to the national information problem. Several years ago at a radius some distance from Boston and Cambridge, a circumferential highway was proposed and started. When building began, all that country space was little used; but as construction proceeded and the access became visible, the space began to be gobbled up by industrial parks, light factories, research firms, etc. Before construction was even completed, the widening process had to be started; Route 128 was lined with these industries,
and the automobiles from their employee parking lots numbered many thousands every day.

I think the way that space was gobbled up and the way the use of a new academic library building almost immediately leapfrogged the newly enhanced space is suggestive. So too, if access to the knowledge being created by our public investment is efficiently assured, it will be used; and the effort and money invested in its creation will be justified.

There is almost an unlimited capacity for individuals and organizations and societies to absorb and make use of new information. But access is critical if new knowledge is to be translated into economic growth, which, for the decision makers, is a prime justification for much R & D effort. This objective of economic growth may be one coattail on which our proposals for support of a national information system might ride.

CONCLUSION

To sum up:

1. Under the present social system, new knowledge is the driving force for the innovation that spurs economic growth. For this reason, the federal investment in research will probably continue to be high.

2. A national information policy must recognize the functions of different kinds of libraries (public, school, academic, etc.) and ensure their support in a more direct way than has heretofore obtained (e.g., for preservation and conservation, now mistakenly assumed to be provided adequately by academic/research libraries).

3. A national information policy must also support academic and research libraries indirectly through allocation of increased support for primary and secondary carriers and processors of publicly generated research information. Such support will achieve benefits for libraries through reduction of outlays for materials and electronic secondary services. Indirect support of this sort would be, not only just as real an aid as direct grants; but for some parts of the collections, it would be a more feasible, pragmatic, and cost-effective approach than putting all hope on direct grants to libraries (or, as some government decision makers and information spokespeople keep proposing, by direct grants to users). Enhanced support at stages in the information cycle earlier than the library or the user may well prove directly supportive at later stages and, for some purposes, more cost-effective for the taxpayer.

4. Technology increasingly will be the principal determining factor in information transfer of all kinds. This technology already affects bibliographic services that libraries can offer their users. In the future it will affect access to text as well.

5. Our vast publicly supported research and development program calls for knowledge-driven information systems that will seek out and inform potential users. The latter must be accurately profiled, but the economic status of the recipient or that of his or her institution must not determine eligibility for access. A national information policy should build on a recognition that we live in an information environment suffused with "answers looking for questions," and that the technical means for their finding each other is not the present principal barrier.

6. In an age of high technology, the absence of a national information policy committed to reducing the barriers to the effective flow of information (economic, "need-to-know" regulations, etc.) should be seen as just as great a threat to the institutions of our civilization as censorship. As academics, we may draw some encouragement from the formation of committees on research libraries by the Association of American Universities and by the Association of Graduate Schools. However, it is incumbent on librarians themselves as knowledge professionals to bring our point of view to bear on policies being formed, and we shall have to do it with some acumen if we are not to have Proposition 13 quoted at us or to be advised that we represent no constituency. I am not an economist, but it seems to me that these lines of thought beg for serious discussion and inquiry. If much more time elapses, the marketplace-based decisions now being made will have solidified, to the long-lasting detriment of full-information access.

The real crux of these matters has been beautifully stated by a special librarian, Janice Ladendorf, and it applies equally
whether we are speaking of individuals, or of an academic institution, or of an industry, or of whole societies: "In today's information-rich environment, those who exploit these information resources most effectively are the ones who will succeed."10

REFERENCES

Private University Libraries and a National Information Policy

The private university library's role in a proposed national library program is described. The contributions and resources that the library can bring to the program, the financial problems associated with participation, and the various sources of support are reviewed. Several options are identified as means to fund the program and the difficulties with each are described. Foundations, federal funding, and the private sector are identified as possible sources. The role of the Midwestern libraries through the consortium MIDLNET is also discussed.

The original purpose of a White House conference was to gather together those people who are best qualified to advise the president on a complex issue; the original purpose of a commission was to bring disciplined and superior intelligences together to study and agonize over a complex problem. In both cases, serious, objective, dispassionate investigation was thought to provide the guidelines needed for the making of sensible national policy. . . . No one who has ever participated in one of these foolish tent shows thinks there is the slightest chance of any intelligent contribution to national policy emerging from it. 1

If this statement, which recently appeared in the Chicago Tribune by syndicated columnist Andrew Greeley under the title, "Commissions of Absurdities," is correct in any sense, it would be best if the reader stopped here to embark on more important matters. As one reads the report of the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science and the documents on a variety of issues prepared for the commission, the evidence is clear that disciplined and intelligent individuals were brought together to study and agonize over the complex problem of designing a national library program, which, when fully implemented, will serve all the citizens of this country.

The commission's goals and objectives are ambitious, almost global in concept, with broad appeal to almost every possible audience, yet enunciated with a view that programs must be affordable, although requiring some governmental support; evolutionary and realistic, while striving for the ideal; and that those projects yielding the greatest return over the short run will be supported.

Conditions of Participation

For the many communities that have reacted to the commission's reports and those others who will participate in the statewide conferences, it is understood that, while the goal of creating a national library program is central to all communities, there is a wide and diverse set of characteristics for each participating community, with its specialized and unique information requirements that must be incorporated into the final design and the operation of the national library program.

One community, the private university library, which views itself as a contributor

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and participant, will need to define with some degree of precision exactly what it will contribute and how it will participate, such that there will be mutual gains for its users and those others noted in the commission’s programs. For many private universities, straining to keep a balanced budget, dedicated to providing quality education, and supporting research, such definitions of roles are clearly difficult to make at this time.

Many of these institutions must support themselves through tuition, the yield from shrinking endowments, gifts, and aid from foundations and federal agencies. To attract the most gifted students they make available a host of scholarships and aid programs. Although there has been no real or substantial growth in their library budgets, there has been a general unwillingness on the part of many faculty to reduce the library budget, since they regard the library as absolutely central to their scholarship and research.

Extending the capability of the library through cooperative programs will be received with enthusiasm by faculty and university administrators if it can be demonstrated that services and collections will not be impaired. This is very unlikely, since many university libraries located in urban settings have always rendered a very high level of reference services to residents of the community and neighboring colleges.

Some form of assistance or incentives on a recurring basis will be needed if there is to be any expansion of these services. There is some reservation on the part of university administrators that state funding for this type of effort and others proposed by the commission may not be always available or even the most reliable source. Private universities find it difficult to develop long-standing and mutually advantageous relationships with state agencies.

STATE VS. FEDERAL FUNDING

In a recent study conducted by Northwestern University under a grant from the National Science Foundation on this topic of state funding, it was reported:

Increased state sponsorship is a mixed blessing for higher education. While allowing the education institution an opportunity to participate in the identification and solution of problems of local concern, there are increased administrative difficulties. Not the least of these is the recovery of indirect costs. . . . the state legislature re-appropriates most funds coming to it from federal sources. The result of this re-appropriation process is that funds from DHHEW (and presumably other federal sources) lose their “federal” character. Following re-appropriation by the legislature, these funds are regarded as belonging to the state and its various agencies. While this view may or may not be correct in itself, it has the effect of obscuring such federal regulations as those just cited regarding the recovery of indirect costs at federally negotiated level. In addition, the re-appropriation process makes it practically impossible to identify, after the fact, which state agency expenditures are ultimately of federal origin and which are not.

The current situation regarding the recovery of indirect costs from state agencies is clearly not favorable to higher education institutions. Because indirect costs are not recovered, the institution is forced to subsidize a project, a subsidy which is ultimately met through higher tuitions, decreased faculty compensation, delayed maintenance, or some combination of other strategies.

If federal funds are to be channeled through state agencies as proposed by the commission, it is likely that private universities may not be the recipients of this aid in any measurable amount and may be restricted in what they can do for their local communities.

This support, which in the past has come primarily from federal agencies and foundations, has been an important factor in keeping many of these universities vital and innovative. In recent years this support has been substantially diminished. Graduate education and research have been severely affected by these changes in the funding patterns.

In a recent report, Research Universities and the National Interest: A Report from Fifteen University Presidents, there appears a series of recommendations calling for increased support to education, research, and the research library community. The private universities, as much as they would like to maintain a high degree of independence, need the support and assistance of the federal government to carry out their programs. The government is equally in need of the expertise that research universities can offer. However, as stated in the report, “it is desirable to maintain a degree of de-
centralization in the authority to make decisions about basic research. 3

A SPECIAL RESOURCE

It is clear that the libraries of these institutions need support at various levels and, like their parent institution, have an unusual array of resources to contribute to the national program—unique collections, expert staff, and a thorough understanding of the scholarly and research process and the machinery and the resources necessary to maintain it. Many of these private university libraries have also pioneered in the application of computer technology to library operations, developed sophisticated and efficient techniques for servicing their students and faculty, and, because of their relative freedom from regulation, have been able to try various innovative approaches to their operations.

At some point in the future, when the history of this period is recorded, many of the accomplishments will be credited to the universities in the private sector. The commission affords these universities the opportunity to continue with these contributions and recommends that means be found to sustain the most promising ventures that will optimize accessibility to the nation’s collections.

One means to achieve this objective is to identify new ways to deploy and use the special talent that resides in each library, the experts in collection development, bibliographers, and those individuals with advanced training who have recently entered the library profession. Some formal way to share the special knowledge that these individuals have of their collections with their colleagues and faculty in other institutions needs to be explored, perhaps some type of “knowledge resource” network. The programs of many libraries can be enriched, collections more fully exploited, and service enhanced if ways are found to properly use this talent.

IMPEDIMENTS AND BURDENS

In any enterprise as ambitious as the one the commission is advocating, the possibility for identifying the incorrect solution or the least workable model is very high. Some years ago a Nobel laureat, in an address to an audience of librarians and information scientists, stated that once the right problem has been identified the solution will readily be found.

The commission has identified the right problem. It sees the problem for university and research libraries as one of sharing imbalances, the inability to maintain and preserve and develop collections, various impediments to innovative and experimental collective activities, and insufficient funds to provide services to a wider clientele and sustenance to a number of select collections. These maladies are endemic to all university libraries. The disease will not kill the patient but, unchecked, will weaken and sap its vitality and ultimately leave it crippled. The private university is very susceptible.

The cure the commission prescribes is more federal and state assistance. In some cases the cure may be worse than the disease. Federal and state funding needs to be accepted with the full understanding that it will not encumber or change the character or primary mission of the university, service to its own student body and faculty.

If one is to carry this awkward analogy one step further, there is the matter of the administration and the level of the dosage that the patient can take without becoming addicted. It must be administered in such a way that it does not place an undue burden on the recipient of the aid.

A recent example: Under Title II-C of the Higher Education Act, Strengthening Research Library Resources, some 100 applications were received for which twenty grants were made. Each of the participating libraries and institutions diverted sizable resources to review guidelines and prepare and write proposals, and a host of reviewers were assembled to critique the proposals under a peer review process. Out of the twenty grants that were to be made, there was at the outset a general awareness that certain institutions would very likely receive funding. Under this assumption there were perhaps no more than fifteen grants available to the 100 or so libraries that submitted proposals. Although there is no evidence to support this statement, it is likely that upwards of a half-million to a million dollars in man and woman hours may have been spent on this effort.
NEW APPROACHES

A more efficient process must be found. For the small to moderate size university library with limited staff and expertise in proposal preparation the process is inequitable. In the recommendations appearing in the Research Universities and the National Interest it is stated:

We recommend that the Library of Congress explore with the country’s leading learned societies and research-library organizations the possibility of establishing a permanent body to assess the quality of national resources, to promote action by responsible agencies, and to help shape national policies.4

Such a functioning, nonpartisan body with the commission’s support might appoint boards of inquiry who could, as one of their duties, assess need, define optimum yield against support levels, and make recommendations as to how and where to allocate governmental funding. If the process were open and visible, the national library program would be better served.

Given the present mood of the country, recipients of grants, particularly the private university library sector, should not rely on any sustaining support for their operations or add on activities to carry out the commission’s goals. They may need to break the habit very quickly.

As unattractive as it is to many libraries, users’ fees and more reliance on the private sector may be needed. At those universities where there is a sizable amount of contract work, researchers should be encouraged to include in their applications support for special services supplied by their libraries. Many applications contain support for computer services, few for library services.

The network statements in the commission’s report are in general accord with the views held by many individuals knowledgeable in the field. If the network system architecture can accommodate the bibliographic apparatus to identify and access collections, it will bring the resources of more libraries to a larger population and may ultimately lead to a more rational means of developing collections on a national level.

Until such time as this is accomplished, which at the present rate of progress may be several decades, means should be found to support scholarly travel to use specific library collections that have been identified as national resources.

MIDLNET

The network objectives advocated in the commission report stress the need for standards, cohesiveness, experiments with different modes of technology, and a support for statewide networks. In the Midwest, where there are many strong statewide networks, a high level of expertise in computer technology, and rich multistate resources, there is some sentiment on the part of many libraries that a single state may be too small a building block for a network structure.

The creation of MIDLNET under the auspices of the Committee on Institutional Cooperation was formulated with a view that a multistate network could complement and enhance state networks and provide the basis for building a regional data base. The Midwest institutions, with their strong tendencies for independence and self-sufficiency, were also concerned that this important region of the United States needed stronger representation in the inner councils where national library policy was being discussed and also an opportunity to have an equitable share of the funding for its cooperative activities. To date some of these goals have been realized.

The regional data base is a longer range goal. However, MIDLNET, with the assistance of members of the University of Chicago library and eight other libraries in the region, is prepared, if sufficient support can be found, to take the first step toward that objective. After the completion of a systems and specifications study of the eight participating institutions, some operational activities employing the library data management system of the University of Chicago through MIDLNET could start in a year. The objective is to provide a next generation prototype operation that will serve the region, access other regional networks, and look toward the Library of Congress as the library of last resort.

If one looks at network development in the United States, it appears as a large unfinished mosaic, with many of the pieces still to be discovered for placement in the
array. The development of yet another network may appear to add to the disarray and complicate the orderly process of creating the national library network. Perhaps any undertaking as ambitious as this can never be orderly or operate under a systematic plan. The best that may be hoped for is that out of the disarray will come order, and out of diversity of approach to the network problem will come progress.

REFERENCES

4. Ibid., p.100.
College Libraries and a National Information Policy: Whistling in the Graveyard

An informal survey of college librarians on a national information policy indicated a variety of responses, ranging from lack of knowledge, indifference, and confusion to enthusiasm. Among concerns and fears expressed were the belief that national programs would be dominated by other parts of the information community, that larger bureaucracies would be developed, that regional and local cooperative plans might be subverted, that college librarians would be asked to play roles incompatible with their campus missions, and that they would be closed out from the benefits of national networking.

I am pleased to offer some brief comments about the college librarian’s perspective on the developing national information policy. In doing so, I feel obliged to let you in on a practical joke that was played on me here last night. The joke was not in very good taste—few practical jokes are—and I speak of it now, not only because someone obviously went to such great effort to perpetrate it, but because it expresses, albeit in a crude way, a concern that nagged me as I first began to consider my assignment.

I had been asked by the chairperson to determine, first of all, whether there was a college perspective—a set of attitudes among librarians serving mainly undergraduate institutions—that was distinct from that of the research libraries; and, secondly, if there were a college perspective, what bearing it might have on the academic librarian’s role in shaping a national information policy. Thus charged, I set out to discover what expectations and anxieties were being aroused by the emergence of a national network.

I decided at the outset to go to as many practicing librarians as I could and invite them to share their concerns with me. And rather than speak mainly from our experiences in the Northeast, I determined to extend my inquiry into all fifty states if I could and direct it to both large and small colleges, both private and public institutions, and of the latter, both state and community-supported.

As it happened, I fell in about that time with a fellow up my way who fancies himself a futurist and who has found it amusing, when we meet, to ply me with his apocalyptic vision of the librarian’s future—or rather the lack of it. You’ve been treated to it too, I know: how the book is becoming obsolete and how the academic library is about to go the way of the dodo and the passenger pigeon.

He dismissed my plan to poll other librarians on grounds of its sheer futility. College
librarians are a doomed species, he contended, doubly dead because they are unwilling to grasp the reality of changes already underway and, for all their talk, incapable of genuinely intelligent efforts to anticipate the consequences.

Some weeks later, by which time I had pursued my inquiry with scores of colleagues in New York and had written nearly 300 college librarians across the country, my futurist acquaintance encountered me again and asked what I was learning. I told him that responses were only beginning to come in and, as much to put him off as anything, said that the only new information I had discovered so far had come from preparing a mailing list of head librarians, and that was that a disproportionately large number of college library directors were named James! (Incidentally, I must leave it to someone else to speculate why that should be true, indeed it seems to be.)

My reference to directors only set him off again, for if he had a poor opinion of the librarian's capacity to prepare for the future, he professed to have even less regard for library directors as a class.

"Don't you know," he argued, "they are too preoccupied with things like leaky roofs and churlish professors and staffing cuts to think about national issues? And as for their expectations of the future," he went on, "they are too wrapped up in day-to-day problems of survival to be of any help to you: half of them don't expect to be around in 1990, much less 2001. You're writing to people who have one foot in the ground."

I did assure him that the academic librarians I knew were not nearly so dead as all that. I did in fact make some effort to describe the ambitious efforts the profession is making to anticipate a full-scale "post-industrial, information society" and to convince him that we, too, had a futurist vision and were doing something about it.

But it was not a serious discussion anyway, just lighthearted banter over morning coffee. There would be no reason for recalling any of his remarks at all except that when I checked into my hotel last night, I found waiting for me a package containing what was obviously meant to be his last word on the subject. It was in fact written on a stone—a tombstone, no less. I brought it over with me. On one side of this venerable slab you will find that it simply says "JAMES." On the other is penciled a familiar expression posed as a grudging question: "Not dead, but sleeping?"

As an epitaph for this generation of academic library leadership, or even as an appropriate question to raise with regard to the emerging network and the necessity of developing a national information policy, my acquaintance's joke surely misses the mark. And yet, there were times this spring when, I confess, a similar question had occurred to me. Let me characterize some of the responses to my inquiries in order to establish, if there is one, the college perspective.

**INDIFFERENCE AND IGNORANCE**

At the outset, I must say that a number of college librarians whom one might have expected to be concerned about the national network and national policy questions seem, for whatever reasons, to be to all appearances quite contentedly asleep—and maybe even dead. There were many who were obviously not familiar with the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science report or even with the much publicized six-point program drafted by the Kaser committee last year.  

There was evidence of indifference, as well as of the predictable preoccupation with local issues that clearly makes a discussion of national policies a luxury for many hard-pressed college librarians. And there were those colleagues who replied, in words something like this:

Sir: I have delayed responding to your questions in order to give our library faculty an opportunity to include their ideas. Unfortunately they have none. Yours truly, James Such & Such.

I even uncovered one or two correspondents capable of denouncing the very idea of a national network as "a wild dream" and a "new toy," and one who grumbled that it was too soon to talk of such things. But these, I must stress, represented only a tiny fraction of my sample.

**CONFUSION**

More importantly, there was considerable confusion. Partly, I think, this resulted from the ambiguity in the literature itself, and
the way in which discussion of the national information program of services and of the national network (whose task will be to deliver and coordinate that program) and of the national information policy (that will guide and inform the program) get all mixed together.

Some of my correspondents, no doubt because of the very way in which I posed my questions, were much readier to discuss the practical implications of networking and to speculate on the likely effects of the White House Conference than to get into the more theoretical and elusive issues of public policy. A great number of these writers were quite forceful, even eloquent, in articulating their expectations of the network—and their fears. Indeed, if the great majority of college librarians are not sleeping, it may be because they are too worried to sleep.

CONCERNS

First of all, they’re worried about the White House Conference. They see it dominated by other parts of the information community, especially advocates for public and school library interests. They find their own priorities are often not reflected in the preliminary recommendations of the various governors' conferences—indeed, are being drowned in the clamor for funds raised by some of the more vocal participants. On balance, they foresee little good coming out of the same kind of conference held at the national level and possibly some harm.

Second, they're deeply mistrustful that we may wind up with yet greater bureaucracies to contend with, either in the centralized coordination of the network or in the proposed federal office of information policy. The specter of more red tape frankly horrifies them.

Moreover, many are apprehensive that the planners of the national network, especially as they address the need for a better document delivery system, may take steps that will subvert the successful operation of local and regional systems of cooperation long in the making. They argue that the application of the same emphasis on centralization and standardization that is admittedly vital to data base access, especially in the generation and retrieval of reliable bibliographic data, could be the ruination of existing cooperative loan programs. They want reassurance that the design of the national network will reflect the fundamental premise that its usefulness as a network must be measured by its usefulness to the individual library.

Not unlike their counterparts in the research and special libraries, the college librarians see themselves being asked to play roles basically incompatible with their campus missions. They foresee genuine and perhaps irreconcilable conflicts in attempting to serve both their own users and a wider community of information seekers. Many of them cannot quite see an equalizer in the increased access that may be made available to their own patrons.

Then, too, they’re apprehensive about that catch phrase, “freedom of information.” They do not take seriously the notion that access can be literally free—that is, without cost; and virtually none of them seems to have bought the idea, implicit in the ALA president’s program, that the federal government could, should, or would pick up the tab for such costs.

The concern for cost, moreover, seems to manifest itself rather differently for the colleges than it does for larger academic libraries. There’s a very widespread assumption, especially in the medium and small college libraries, that they will simply be closed out of the benefits of national networking. Although this is somewhat less true in the case of those who have had good experiences in regional networks or local consortia, there is the general impression, even in the case of units of state-supported college systems and inescapably in the case of community colleges and small, private colleges, that the smaller institutions are destined to remain have-nots; that they will have less, rather than greater, access to information as it becomes increasingly borne by electronic devices.

One community college librarian wrote, in a memorable literary non sequitur: “My feeling is that a national network is a Utopia reserved for the giants in the library world, and one to which the Lilliputians may never be admitted.” This pessimism may not be well-founded, but it is real, and it is widespread.
Even in the larger undergraduate colleges, both public and private, there is a sense of this same foreboding. It most frequently expresses itself as a kind of alienation, a sense of isolation. I detected a readiness to be involved but a recognition that the college librarian somehow stands beyond the circle of key decision makers and does not know quite how to step inside.

ENTHUSIASM AND IMPATIENCE

I have been deliberately stressing some of the anxieties I encountered in the course of my project, including some anxieties that I myself do not share. I have done so because some of you seem not to be aware of them and because others of you will be encouraged to hear your worries voiced.

But I should go on to say that there was much in my study that was positive and encouraging. There was not only enthusiasm for the emergence of a national system of regional networks but an impatience to get on with the business of solving the problem of linkage and of seeing the overall architecture in place. Indeed I found in college librarians across the country a great reservoir of energy, good sense, and practical experience. I was gratified to see an eagerness to employ that experience for the benefit of the coming generation of librarians and "information scientists," as well as for patrons in the national community.

No, they are not dead—not even sleeping. But a disturbing number of college librarians apparently have reason to feel they are being treated as if they were, not only by uninformed laypersons, but by their colleagues in the research library, in the state library, in the governor's conference, and on national commissions.

How to respond to their anxieties, how to take advantage of their vitality, how to promote genuine involvement by college librarians in grappling with national policy issues—these should be leading concerns of ACRL in the coming year, before the White House Conference, as well as beyond.

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Replevin: A Public Archivist’s Perspective

This article suggests that the times are not propitious for measures that would sanction the removal of public documents from public control, that the integrity—or completeness—of a body of records is a fundamental principle of the archival profession, that nothing should be done that would even seem to condone or encourage the theft of records, and that the National Archives, at least, would be disinclined to seek the return of alienated records that are publicly accessible and professionally preserved.

Replevin was one of those remarkable contrivances of England’s medieval court system, a writ that enabled subjects to gain access to the king’s court in their search for justice. Armed with a writ of replevin, the subjects could, in effect, ask the court to return to them personal property that had been wrongfully taken and detained, or wrongfully held in custody by another person, and could obtain damages for their temporary loss of the property.

In our own day the term has taken on a more general meaning—the recovery of alienated personal property through a legal proceeding, usually modern rules of civil procedure rather than a writ. It is still primarily used by private parties. However, when the property involved consists of manuscripts with significant historical or monetary value, and certainly when such an action is brought by a government, replevin can become a matter of concern for librarians and archivists.

Twenty-odd years ago the discovery of field notes of the Lewis and Clark expedition and the subsequent litigation over their ownership disturbed the otherwise calm relations among those who work with rare or unique documents. In that instance the court ultimately decided against the government’s claim, and the notes came to rest in the Yale University library.

Recently another case—North Carolina versus B. C. West, Jr., an autograph dealer—has troubled the waters once again. Perhaps before the ripples it has occasioned become waves, the perspectives of the different specialists involved in the field could be more thoroughly aired. The present paper is a brief attempt by a public archivist to present his point of view (and that of his institution) on the replevin issue.

Recent Developments

The last few years have witnessed a remarkable change both in the public awareness of the importance of archives and in the questions of the ownership of, and access to, the records and papers created by public officials. In 1977 three events took place that reflected the new public awareness and the growing belief that the public interest in records created by government officials is paramount to private interests.

The B. C. West case is, of course, the most noted of those events. Its details, involving the ownership of several pre-Revolutionary court documents, need not be narrated here. What is important is that the North Carolina Supreme Court concluded that the public sovereignty over the records in question had not lapsed since the
eighteenth century. No disposal authority had been given by the legislature, and thus the records rightfully belonged to the state.

The second event revolves around the telephone transcripts Henry Kissinger created while he was secretary of state. Early in 1977, after Kissinger donated his papers to the Library of Congress, a group of scholars, journalists, and others sued in the federal district court to have the telephone transcripts returned to the custody of the federal government. They argued that the transcripts were records produced by government officials and that most of the transcripts involved the public business being done by Kissinger.

In his decision of December 8, 1977, Judge John Lewis Smith, Jr., agreed with the plaintiffs: "The records in dispute here," he wrote, "were produced not only in accordance with department regulations, but also on Government time and with the aid of department employees, equipment, materials and other public resources. Having been prepared and transcribed in the discharge of his official duties, the notes are the property of the United States." That decision has been appealed to the U.S. Court of Appeals. For the present, however, it represents a judicial view that is very decidedly on the side of the public's interest.

The report of the "Public Documents Commission," completed in March 1977, also directed its study and recommendations to the public's right to know as a primary consideration for new legislation to control the disposition of the papers of members of Congress, the president, and the federal judiciary. Although the members of the commission did not agree in all matters, there was basic agreement that (as the majority report put it) "all documentary materials made or received by Federal officials in connection with their constitutional and statutory duties should be the property of the United States." Since Watergate and the Nixon papers cases, most of the publicity and interest has been directed to presidential papers, but the trend toward the public ownership of papers created by all public officials in carrying out their official duties is widely accepted as improving the operation of the government and assuring the fullest possible reconstruction of our national history.

In short, the last several years have witnessed a significant thrust in the direction of enlarging the area of public records and public control over the documentary evidence of doing the public's business.

**THE NATURE OF ARCHIVES**

This was not always the case. The nineteenth century did not have the same concern for the preservation of public records, and the private collectors and publishers of federal and state government records were, in many cases, vital to the ultimate preservation of many public documents. That role was the consequence of a number of factors. Some people in the nineteenth century, including Thomas Jefferson, thought all important records, those that were historically valuable, could be printed in multiple sets of volumes.

Moreover, the United States was very slow in establishing archival repositories to preserve government records. Not until the twentieth century did states and the federal government pass adequate laws for archival authorities and provide sufficient funds for the safe retention of permanently valuable records in public archives.

The disregard for necessary archival agencies in the nineteenth century has now been reversed. State archival authorities were begun in the first decade of this century, the National Archives was established in 1934, and now all fifty states have a state archives, even if a few are still less than completely effective.

The expansion in numbers and services of archival institutions in recent years includes many municipalities, businesses, and university archives, as well as manuscript collections located in university and college libraries or in historical societies. These institutions are now responsible for preserving the public records and making those records available for public use, and availability includes not only scholars but the many people now seeking evidence of their own families' and their own localities' histories.

The archives and institutional collections that are now established have taken the place of the private collector as the major agent for the preservation of our documentary heritage. Operating with adequate se-
security measures, these institutions collect, describe, and make available the documentation of our past.

As public awareness of and insistence on the preservation and access to all types of records has grown, the role of the private collector has diminished, and the role of what we might term the institutional collector has greatly increased. In this process public archivists, librarians, and manuscript curators have joined forces to preserve the heritage of the past. But it would be dangerous to ignore differences between professional perspectives of public archivists on the one hand and those of manuscript curators and perhaps librarians on the other.

The public archives movement was the child of what the historian Robert Palmer has aptly called the "age of democratic revolution." The pioneer in America was Charles Thomson, secretary of the Continental Congress and careful preserver of its records (which are now in the National Archives). But it was, in fact, the French Revolution that created the pioneer of modern public archival institutions.

The Archives Nationales was established in 1790 as the first national archival institution and was given broad authority to preserve the records of the Old Regime and the new society being built in France. From the experience of the French archivists in the next decades came the principle of respect des fonds, or (as it is usually put in English) the principle of provenance. This is the guiding principle for the organization and handling of archives, be they public archives or the formal archives of a business, a church, or a university.

Put quite simply, the principle of provenance means that the original order and integrity of records should be retained, since that order provides information about the men and women who created the records and their activities that goes well beyond the informational content of the individual documents. The relationships between the records can, thus, tell us something that the individual records cannot. They can, for example, reflect the decision-making process and not just the decisions themselves. Archives, then, have an organic character, and like anything organic they suffer when their integrity is disturbed.

The map carefully preserved in the records of an exploring expedition has greater meaning than the same map separated from those records and made part of a collection of maps, and the records of the expedition would be the poorer for its loss. The lawyer's letter seeking more time to develop a brief might have some autograph value to a collector. In its proper place among the official records of Muller v. Oregon, it is part of the fascinating story of Louis Brandeis' famous and influential sociological brief of 1908. The story is incomplete without it. If that letter became an archival estray, separated from the Supreme Court file, a small but important part of Supreme Court history would be lost.

Researchers look to the archival bodies they know should have materials for their research. The organic nature of the file is destroyed, and the historical record is in fact smaller, if the researcher does not know or cannot find the entire documentation.

ARCHIVAL SECURITY

The organic character of archival materials and the loss to our national heritage are also concerns of archivists when they encounter thefts from manuscript collections and archives. Greater security measures and the increasing public awareness of the importance of historical materials has not yet lessened the number of thefts in recent years. The Society of American Archivists began a security program to document thefts and publicize means of preventing them through a newsletter and handbook.

But the thefts are continuing. The most recent cases in California, Texas, and Virginia do not give reason to believe that collections are yet safe. And the overwhelming number of thieves who are caught acknowledge that their actions were taken simply to make money—not to preserve documents or to personally own historic manuscripts. Such thefts cannot be condoned, even by the passage of time or the fact that documents known or strongly believed to have been purloined have come to rest in a reputable repository.

Replevin provides us with one small, but necessary, tool to discourage such archival thefts. It allows those who have been wrongfully deprived of their property to
seek its return. In our profession that property is archival materials and manuscripts, and all of us retain the simple right to replevin alienated property in the courts. Replevin actions have been used since the earliest English courts and are today part of the common law.

Statutory laws in many states and in the federal government on the alienation of government property are more important in the prosecution and recovery of thefts, whether they are manuscripts or jeeps. However, private citizens as well as governments retain the common law right to replevin property. The public interest would not be served by the elimination of that right.

Replevin actions for public archival estrays sustain a historical view and belief that official records belong to the people as represented by their governments. Archives are universally recognized as an essential part of the heritage of every community. They are indispensable in the development of national and local awareness and identity, and they constitute a basic part of the cultural property of governments and peoples throughout the world. At the same time it must be recognized that archives have an official and legal status different from that of most cultural properties.

Archives that were originally created to accomplish administrative transactions also serve as evidence of those transactions. Both as evidence and because of the information they contain, they are indispensable for the continuing administration within governments. They not only document the experience of the people, but they also record and safeguard the rights and interests of governments and individual citizens.

Archives thus constitute evidence that is essential to the continuing functions incumbent on public authorities, and they should, consequently, be in the public domain. As public property they should not be a part of private commerce and enrichment. The concern voiced by some Americans over the profits made by former government officials in writing and publishing their experiences strongly suggests the belief that public activities, and the documents that record them, belong to the public and should not be used indiscriminately for private gain.

THE PUBLIC ARCHIVIST AND REPLEVIN

With these many considerations in mind, perhaps a public archivist's observations on the current replevin debate are in order.

Replevin has rarely been used in the past to recover records, and there is no evidence that replevin actions are going to flood the courts in the wake of the B. C. West case. Litigation is expensive and terribly time-consuming, and the National Archives, at least, does not eagerly seek actions in the courts. In recent years the cases surrounding the Nixon papers, the Warren Commission records, and other matters have kept federal archivists busy enough with the law and the courts. The National Archives would attempt recovery actions in court only under the most critical circumstances.

But the National Archives and other public archives should not be asked to surrender the basic right to have public government records returned to the rightful repository. If they are in fact public records, they belong to the public, and public archivists have a responsibility to ensure the preservation and availability of those public records. Nor should public archivists and archival institutions be asked to proclaim they will not exercise the right of replevin. They may promise restraint and use replevin only in the most important cases, but the statutory missions of most public archives require them to preserve the public record; and if public archives were to renounce all discretion in the use of replevin, they would be negligent in their responsibilities.

In practice, what would the National Archives position be when faced with the decision on recovery of federal records?

First, it would approach recovery actions on a case-by-case basis. There is no blanket policy that affects all replevin actions. The archives of the United States is a vast and varied body of records, and to attempt to establish a single policy for replevin of federal records would be impracticable.

In addition, decisions on a replevin action would include a number of considerations about the state of the records at that time. If the material is in a good location and likely to stay there, under professional archival control and adequately protected
from the hazards of time, disaster, and theft, the National Archives would be inclined to leave the records in place.

The consideration for professional archival control would necessarily have to include the description and availability of the records. The materials should be available to the public and to scholarly researchers on approximately the same basis as they would be if they were in the National Archives. The National Archives is adamantly opposed to privileged access, and a decision to allow records to remain in their present status would surely include consideration of that issue. Public records must be available on an equal basis.

Two other aspects of the access question that are important to the National Archives are the description and publication of the fact that the records do exist. The materials are unknown to the public and the scholarly community, they are in fact lost, or unavailable for use. Institutional guides and finding aids are essential to all repositories and their users. The National Archives expects public records outside its custody to be described and made known. Access should include making a reasonable number of copies at reasonable costs for researchers, as is done at the National Archives.

A final circumstance in a decision to begin recovery actions would be the importance of the document or documents as evidence of the activities, decisions, and policies in the federal government. The National Archives is not likely to replevin routine documentation whose only value is an autograph. The informational content must be of consequence and value to the historical record of our past. The copy of the Declaration of Independence used by the printer Dunlap on the night of July 4, 1776, would be in that category, and the National Archives would probably try to obtain it. A bill of lading signed by General Grant will not engender the same interest.

The importance of the material, its availability, and its security—these are the three basic criteria that the National Archives would use in making a decision on whether or not to seek legal action to recover estrays from the corpus of federal archives. They are to some degree subjective criteria, of course, but they are also the criteria set forth by the National Archives at the time of the Lewis and Clark case. Nothing that has happened in recent years suggests that there is any need for change.

**References**

5. Final Report of the National Study Commission on Records and Documents of Federal Officials, March 31, 1977, p.1. The "alternate" (or minority) report concluded that "it is time to end the fiction that the public's records belong to presidents or other federal officials and therefore recognize and declare the fact that governmental records and documents belong to the people of the United States." (Ibid., p.65)
The Comparative Effectiveness of a Slide/Tape Show and a Library Tour

This study shows that a slide-tape program does not necessarily produce better immediate recall of bibliographic instruction than the traditional library tour. These findings contradict Frank F. Kuo’s conclusion that a slide-tape program is superior to the lecture tour. The disparity between the two studies indicates the need for further research into the effectiveness of this and the other kinds of media presentations now used by academic libraries.

Videotapes, slide/tape presentations, tape recordings for individual use—increasingly these are the means by which students are taught how to use academic libraries. Their popularity is due largely to the practical advantages they offer. They are convenient. They help avoid disruption in the library, eliminate scheduling problems for the library staff responsible for bibliographic instruction, and reduce the amount of staff time involved in preparing and giving lecture tours.

But do patrons learn from these media presentations as well as they do from the traditional lecture tour? Or do they learn better? These questions need to be answered if academic libraries are to be confident about the effectiveness of their bibliographic instruction programs.

This article takes a step toward meeting this need, at least in reference to slide/tape programs. It offers findings and conclusions based on testing done on 151 students in a freshman-level business report-writing course. The specific hypothesis tested is whether a slide/tape presentation produces better immediate recall of basic library information than a conventional library lecture tour.

Test Procedure

The student sample was randomly divided by having those in sections #2, 4, 6, and 8 (tour group) take walking tours and those in sections #1, 3, 5, and 7 (slide/tape group) see the slide/tape show. This division gave us two almost perfectly even groupings (seventy-five in the tour group and seventy-six in the slide/tape).

Since it was important that the sections in both groups receive the same information, the lecture tours were conducted from an outline of the slide/tape script. The tours were led by the authors of the script, who also prepared the test used in the study. The information presented concerned those bibliographical guides and library resources useful to students doing research in the areas of business and public affairs.

The tours and slide/tape presentations were given as part of normally scheduled class activities. Since students in the course write reports based on library research, library orientation is a regular part of the curriculum and had previously been handled by having them take conventional lecture tours. The fact that they were par-
The slide/tape show (involving seventy slides and twenty minutes of tape-recorded text) was viewed by each class of the slide/tape group without interruption from start to finish. Neither the teacher of the section nor the authors reinforced any of the points made in the presentation.

When the tours and slide presentations were over, the students were immediately given a twenty-item test. (See the appendix for the actual test questions and frequencies of correct and incorrect answers for each group.) In all but the two sections of the slide/tape group that were not monitored by the authors of this article, students were told just before taking the test that it was part of an experiment to determine the relative effectiveness of tours as compared to slide/tape presentations. In the unmonitored sections, they were told that the test score would count as part of their final grade.

FINDINGS

The main question we wanted to answer was whether a slide/tape presentation conveys information for immediate recall better than a tour. It apparently does not. The tour group scored a bit higher overall than the slide/tape group with respective mean scores of 15.35 and 13.75 (a 1.60 difference in favor of the tour group). With a t-value of -2.96, we could not at the .01 level of significance reject the possibility that a slide presentation is only as effective as or even less effective in conveying information than a lecture tour.

In addition, there was no type of question on which the slide/tape group had a superior mean score. The tour group scored higher on the average on questions about locations of guides and library facilities as well as on questions that did not concern locations (such as questions about the content and organization of various guides and library resources like the card catalogs).

For the location questions, the difference in mean scores is .82 in favor of the tour group (a mean score of 7.33 as compared to 6.51 for the slide/tape group). For the other questions, the difference is .77 in favor of the tour group (a mean score of 8.01 as compared to 7.24 for the slide/tape group).

DISCUSSION

It is not surprising to us that the tour group did well on questions about locations, for we had anticipated that walking to various parts of the library would make a stronger impression about their location than seeing slides. However, that this advantage can be eliminated or diminished by proper reinforcement is perhaps indicated by the superiority of the slide/tape group’s score on question 7 about the location of the government documents collection. Sixty-five slide/tape students answered that question correctly as compared to fifty-six in the tour group.

This is the largest difference in scores favoring the slide/tape people for any question in the test. The superiority of their recall may be due to the fact that the location of government documents is mentioned five times in the script and presented on two slides. On the other hand, the location was only mentioned once to the tour group sections, and they did not actually visit it since doing so would have entailed an awkward move from one floor of the library to another.

We are surprised that the tour group’s mean score was higher than the slide/tape group’s on questions not involving locations. We had supposed that close-ups of materials would contribute to greater understanding and recall than the tour method of holding up reference tools, where the details of the page layout are visible only to a few “front-row” people. But with a t-value of -2.70, we could not at the .01 level of significance reject the possibility that a slide presentation is only as effective as, or even less effective than, a tour in conveying this kind of information.

CONCLUSIONS

Our testing of 151 students in a freshman-level business report-writing course gives us no basis for rejecting the possibility that a lecture tour is just as good a means of conveying information about library resources and facilities as a slide/tape show, or even better. This conclusion indicates the need for further research into the effectiveness of media presentations.
On the basis of his research, Kuo reached the opposite conclusion. He found that the slide/tape method was more effective than the lecture tour at the .01 level of significance. Is this difference in results due to the relatively small sample size used in his research (approximately thirty in each group) compared to our somewhat larger sample of seventy-five and seventy-six in the control and experimental groups? Were our tours better prepared or conducted, or was his slide/tape program more effectively done than ours?

Pending further research, these questions—like so many others relating to the effectiveness of media presentations—must remain unanswered. Commenting on the scarcity of research into specific problems relating to the effectiveness of integrated library instruction, Henning wrote, "Continuing research is absolutely necessary."

The References


4. Ibid., p. 287.


Appendix

The following are the questions that were asked of students in the slide/tape (ST; N = 76) and the tour (T; N = 75) groups, and the number of responses to each answer choice. (Discrepancies in the totals under various questions indicate that some students did not answer those questions.) The correct answer choice is indicated by an asterisk in the right margin. All questions are multiple-choice except for #20, which is true/false.

1. Into what sections is the Author/Title catalog of The University of Toledo library divided?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Fiction and non-fiction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Different subjects</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Reference and circulating books</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Dewey and Library of Congress classifications</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>75*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Books and periodicals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. What reference guide should you use to locate material in the Government Documents collection?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Central Serials Record</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Monthly Catalog</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>52*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Business Periodicals Index</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Author/Title Catalog</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Readers' Guide</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. What kind of information would you NOT be able to find in the Central Serials Record [the library's list of periodicals received]?
   a. A particular issue is being used by someone.  
   b. A periodical is on microfilm.  
   c. A periodical has been bound.  
   d. A particular issue has been received.  
   e. The library subscribes to a particular periodical.
   
4. What reference guide will help you use the Subject Card Catalog most efficiently?
   a. Author/Title Card Catalog  
   b. Public Affairs Information Service  
   c. Library of Congress Subject Headings  
   d. A newspaper index  
   e. A magazine index
   
5. Which reference guide would NOT be a likely source for a letter of transmittal audience [the simulated audience for the student's business report]?
   a. Dun and Bradstreet Middle Market Directory  
   c. Encyclopedia of Associations  
   d. Standard and Poor's Stock Reports  
   e. Readers' Guide
   
6. Where is the Microfilm Room located?
   a. Basement  
   b. First Floor  
   c. Second Floor  
   d. Third Floor  
   e. Fourth Floor
   
7. Where is the Government Documents collection located?
   a. Basement  
   b. First Floor  
   c. Second Floor  
   d. Third Floor  
   e. Fourth Floor
   
8. Where are the unbound periodicals kept?
   a. Basement  
   b. First Floor  
   c. Second Floor  
   d. Third Floor  
   e. Fourth Floor
   
9. Where are the bound periodicals kept?
   a. Basement  
   b. First Floor  
   c. Second Floor  
   d. Third Floor  
   e. Fourth Floor
   
10. Where are the Library of Congress circulating books shelved?
    a. Basement  
    b. First Floor  
    c. Second Floor  
    d. Third Floor  
    e. Fourth Floor
    
11. Which index would you use to find articles published in Personnel, Journal of Accountancy, and Journal of Finance?
    a. The Wall Street Journal Index  
    b. Business Periodicals Index  
    c. Readers' Guide  
    d. The New York Times Index  
    e. The Christian Science Monitor Index
12. Which index is divided into corporate and general news sections?
   a. The Christian Science Monitor Index  
   b. The Wall Street Journal Index  
   c. Public Affairs Information Service  
   d. The New York Times Index  
   e. None of the above

13. Which index gives a running synopsis of articles published throughout the year on a given topic?
   a. The Christian Science Monitor Index  
   b. The Wall Street Journal Index  
   c. Public Affairs Information Service  
   d. The New York Times Index  
   e. None of the above

14. In which index would articles from the Toledo Blade be listed?
   a. The Christian Science Monitor Index  
   b. The Wall Street Journal Index  
   c. Public Affairs Information Service  
   d. The New York Times Index  
   e. None of the above

15. Where in The University of Toledo library can Business Periodicals Index be found?
   a. Recent Periodicals Room  
   b. Information/Reference Desk  
   c. Government Documents Collection  
   d. Business Services Area  
   e. None of the above

16. Where in The University of Toledo library can the Encyclopedia of Associations be found?
   a. Recent Periodicals Room  
   b. Information/Reference Desk  
   c. Government Documents Collection  
   d. Business Services Area  
   e. None of the above

17. Where in The University of Toledo library can the Congressional Directory be found?
   a. Recent Periodicals Room  
   b. Information/Reference Desk  
   c. Government Documents Collection  
   d. Business Services Area  
   e. None of the above

18. Where in The University of Toledo library can the Bulletin of the U.S. Bureau of Mines be found?
   a. Recent Periodicals Room  
   b. Information/Reference Desk  
   c. Government Documents Collection  
   d. Business Services Area  
   e. None of the above

19. Where in The University of Toledo library can the Wall Street Journal Index be found?
   a. Recent Periodicals Room  
   b. Information/Reference Desk  
   c. Government Documents Collection  
   d. Business Services Area  
   e. None of the above

20. This is a Library of Congress call number: HV 6653 .C3
    a. True  
    b. False
Characteristics of Interlibrary Loan Requests at the Library of Congress

A study of interlibrary loan at the Library of Congress in 1976 showed that academic libraries were the most frequent borrowers, and requests were most often for materials in the humanities. The Library of Congress received proportionally more requests for old items than academic libraries did, and it filled 54 percent of all requests it received. Distributions of language and place of publication of requested items, as well as the time required for handling requests, were also investigated.

At the beginning of 1976 the new Librarian of Congress, Daniel Boorstin, initiated a full-scale review of the library's policies, organization, and goals. As part of this effort, the task force carrying out the review commissioned several user studies. Two focused on interlibrary loan: one a sample survey of interlibrary loan borrowers conducted by mail; the other a study of the characteristics of interlibrary loan requests received by the Library of Congress.

This paper presents the results of the second study, which had two primary goals: first, to provide a factual context for the more subjective information being solicited by means of the survey questionnaire; and, second, to furnish data about the needs of a specific user group in order to assist the task force in dealing with problems of collection development.

The source of data for the study was the library's file of interlibrary loan requests for 1975, the most recent complete calendar year at the time of the study and, therefore, the most recent "dead" file. These requests were stored in folders within file cabinets; the folders were ordered alphabetically by the geographic origin of the request—either state or foreign country—then loosely alphabetically by city.

Since time and manpower were unavailable to perform a random selection from the individual documents in the file, groups of documents were first selected; then the final sample of documents was chosen from these groups. Specifically, the file was considered to be a collection of ¼-inch segments; a number was assigned to each segment, and 225 of these were selected by means of a random number table. These chosen segments were removed from the files, and five requests from each packet (sufficient to give about a 3 percent sample) were selected by means of a random number table.

The final sample consisted of 1,114 requests. From each request the following data were keypunched: type of library submitting request, subject area, date of publication, language of the item requested, number of days taken by the request to
reach LC, whether or not the request was filled, the number of days taken by LC to fill the request, and, for cases in which the request was not filled, the reason for failure. Frequency distributions and cross-tabulations were produced using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The results of the study are discussed below, item by item.

RESULTS

Borrowers.

Requests came from every type of eligible library. Academic and research libraries accounted for 63 percent of the sample; federal libraries, 10 percent; other government libraries, 1 percent; special libraries, 5 percent; public libraries, 4 percent; and foreign libraries, 18 percent.

Since any library other than a secondary or elementary school library is eligible to borrow from the Library of Congress, one might expect that the above breakdown of borrowers by type of library would closely reflect the national borrowing population. There are, however, several factors, related to the library’s special position and regulations, which probably make this distribution specific to LC. First, at the time of the survey, the Library of Congress severely restricted borrowing by public libraries; thus, the proportion of public libraries is probably smaller than it would be without this restriction. Second, because the library once had a statutory obligation to lend to federal libraries, it continues to be the recipient of a large number of requests from them. Finally, many foreign libraries view the Library of Congress, the “national” library, as the logical place to send all requests, particularly since LC provides requesters with alternative locations when it cannot lend. Therefore, the proportion of foreign libraries may also be unusually high.

Subject of Requests.

Humanities materials were the most frequently requested, accounting for 44 percent of the requests. Science materials were second (24 percent) and social sciences, third (19 percent).

The remaining 13 percent consisted of LC classes A—General Works (1 percent); G—Geography, Folklore, Sports, etc. (2 percent); M—Music (3 percent); K—Law (2 percent); newspapers (4 percent); and manuscripts (2 percent). The difference in the sum of the percents listed here and the total given is due to rounding.

A cross-tabulation of the subject field of request by the type of library (table 1) showed a significant correlation. In particular, federal libraries requested far fewer humanities materials than one would expect on the basis of the marginal distributions alone, while academic libraries borrowed correspondingly more in this area. Federal and special libraries were higher than average in science requests, while academic libraries were lower.

Language and Place of Publication.

The distribution of requests by language was essentially the same as that for the sample of academic libraries that Thomson examined in her study.1 Only the fraction of requests for Russian materials differed noticeably: 8 percent of the Library of Congress’ requests were in this language as opposed to 3 percent for Thomson’s academic libraries (table 2).

As would be expected, the distribution of places of publication was similar to the language distribution (table 3). Again, requests received by the Library of Congress closely resembled those received by academic libraries except in the case of Russian materials.

Date of Publication.

Table 4 shows the distribution of requests by date of publication. This distribution is distinctly different from the pattern that emerged from the studies compared by Stevens.2 Table 5 was adapted from Stevens’ article with the addition of figures from this study. Although the time divisions are not identical, it is still obvious that the Library of Congress request pattern is decidedly different. As one would expect, it receives more requests for old materials than the other libraries compared and fewer requests for very recent materials.

Outcome of Requests.

The analysis showed that the Library of Congress filled 54 percent of its requests.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Type of Library</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<td>Academic</td>
<td>Federal</td>
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<td>Public</td>
<td>Foreign</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>90</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.2</td>
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<td>3.8</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>1.8</td>
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<td>16.7</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>46.6</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>41</td>
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<tr>
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<td>100.0</td>
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<td>24.1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>260</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>149</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>693</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>1101</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square = 270.4 with 15 degrees of freedom  Significance = 0.0
Number of missing observations = 13
Totals may not equal 100 percent because of rounding.
### TABLE 2
**Language of Publication of Requests**
*(IN RANK ORDER)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Thomson's Sample of Academic Libraries*</th>
<th>Library of Congress</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>67.1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>Czechoslovakian</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>Bulgarian</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungarian</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakian</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others less than .2%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Others less than .4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Abridged version of Appendix XI, p.119, in *Interlibrary Loan Involving Academic Libraries*.

### TABLE 3
**Place of Publication of Requested Material**
*(IN RANK ORDER)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Thomson's Sample of Academic Libraries*</th>
<th>Library of Congress</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gt. Britain</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>Gt. Britain</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>Rumania &amp; Bulgaria</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others less than .7%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Others less than .7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Abridged version of Appendix XII, p.120, in *Interlibrary Loan Involving Academic Libraries*.

### TABLE 4
**Publication Date of Requested Material**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date Range</th>
<th>Absolute Freq.</th>
<th>Relative Freq. (Pet.)</th>
<th>Adjusted Freq. (Pet.)</th>
<th>Cumulative Freq. (Pet.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-1700</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1700-1799</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800-1899</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900-1949</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950-59</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>63.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-69</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>78.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-72</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>89.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973-74</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>98.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date Unknown</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Valid Cases 1,104
Missing Cases 10
This rate can be compared to success rates ranging from 64 percent to 83 percent found for libraries compared in Stevens' article.3

A cross-tabulation of the number of requests successfully filled by type of library showed that all types of libraries were about equally successful in obtaining loans (table 6), with special libraries somewhat less successful than the others. As shown in table 7, requests for humanities materials were filled slightly more often than requests in the other subject areas.

In the case of the unfilled requests, three reasons accounted for almost all the failures:

1. Material was noncirculating (35 percent). Noncirculating categories at the Library of Congress include rare materials, materials in poor condition, local history and genealogy, periodicals, unusually large size materials, and "in print" items.

2. Material was "not on shelf" or charged to a user (32 percent). "Not on shelf" is the library's designation for items in short-term inside use, and no charges are maintained on these items. Only 2 percent of the figure consists of items with known charges. Part of the other 30 percent may also be items with charges, but what proportion is unknown, because in most cases only the location is checked for the item; and no check of the charges is made.

3. Material was not owned (24 percent).

The second category—"not-on-shelf" materials—has been discussed by Goodrum, who analyzed the "not-on-shelf" problem at the Library of Congress as a whole.4 Among the factors Goodrum cited as generally affecting the "not-on-shelf" rate, three in particular seem likely to have a disproportionately high impact on this rate for books requested on interlibrary loan.

First, the high volume of circulation results in interlibrary loan requests being more difficult to fill than requests from other users. Congressional requests are placed on a waiting list if the book is unavailable, and requests from readers using the reading rooms can be resubmitted frequently. It is more difficult, however, for interlibrary loan requests to be repeated easily and often.

Second, the fact that a larger number of older books are requested through interlibrary loan causes retrieval problems. Whereas only 17 percent of the books requested by the Congressional Research Service and from the general reading rooms were published prior to 1950, more than 55 percent of the books requested on interlibrary loan fell into this category. Thus a greater proportion of the materials desired for interlibrary loan may have been adversely affected by heavy use and are thereby more difficult to retrieve.

Third, as determined by a Loan Division study, a percentage of books requested for loan were in place on the shelves but were not pulled in response to requests for them. At the beginning of the study (August 1975) 33 percent of the books reported "not on

---

TABLE 5
CUMULATED PERCENT BY RECENCY OF MATERIAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Last 3 Years (Percent)</th>
<th>Last 10 Years (Percent)</th>
<th>Last 15 Years (Percent)</th>
<th>Last 70 Years (Percent)</th>
<th>Last 75 Years (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stevens' Article*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palmour</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taylor</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reynolds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. of Washington</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington State Library</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This Study</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Stevens, "A Study of Interlibrary Loan," p.339. Citations from Stevens to studies compared in the table are:
### Table 6
CROSS-TABULATION OF SUCCESS IN FILLING REQUEST BY TYPE OF LIBRARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Type of Library</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Federal</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Special</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not Filled</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filled</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>1106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square = 6.2 with 5 degrees of freedom  Significance = 0.2849
Number of missing observations = 8

### Table 7
CROSS-TABULATION OF SUCCESS IN FILLING REQUEST BY SUBJECT OF REQUEST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Humanities</th>
<th>Social Sciences</th>
<th>Science</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not Filled</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filled</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Row Pet.</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pet.</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square = 18.6 with 3 degrees of freedom  Significance = 0.0036
Number of missing observations = 5
shelf' were actually found in place when rechecked by Loan Division staff; by the end of the study (April 1976) this had declined to 18 percent. The difference between actual "not on shelf" and reported "not on shelf" could have been caused by incorrect call numbers on the initial requests or by the time lapse between initial requests and the rechecking, as well as by the simple failure to respond to the initial requests.

Although the three factors cited in Goodrum’s report explain to some extent the "not-on-shelf" problem as it affects interlibrary loan, additional studies focusing on this area and on the other areas of unfilled requests could prove very useful to the library. If, for example, an analysis of materials requested but not owned showed any distinct patterns, then acquisition policies could be revised to encompass these areas.

**Time Involved.**

Two dates are recorded on practically every request slip: the date on which the borrowing library completed the request and the date on which the request was received by the Loan Division of the Library of Congress. If the request was filled, the request slip also contains the date on which it was completed.

The analysis of the amount of time between the completing of the request form and its receipt by the Loan Division showed that, for a library within the continental U.S., this time averaged five days. Requests from elsewhere in North America and from Hawaii took an average of six and one-half days, those from Europe an average of eleven days, and those from Africa and Asia an average of nine and one-half days. There were no requests from South America in the sample.

(Although some European libraries sent all of their requests via air mail, others used surface mail. Because of this, the average for Europe was higher than that for Africa and Asia, where all libraries used air mail.)

These averages are broadly indicative of the transit time between the borrowing libraries and the Library of Congress. It should, however, be noted that these times may include additional non-mail time, for example, the time between the date written on the interlibrary loan form by the requesting library and the date on which the request was actually mailed.

The data permitted only one other analysis of time required in the process: the time required by the library to fill a request. The results (table 8) show great variations in the amount of time various units needed to fill requests—from almost six days to over twenty-seven.

The Loan Division reports that since this study was performed the time required to fill requests for material from the special collections has decreased substantially. The addition of staff designated to handle interlibrary loans to several of the special collection divisions has reduced the processing time to three to five days. Retrieval time for items in remote storage had also decreased by 1977—but only slightly—to about two weeks.

**TABLE 8**

**PROCESSING TIME AT THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS**

| Request filled from general collections (i.e., by the Loan Division) | 5.9 |
| Request filled from special collections |  |
| Music |  |
| Manuscripts |  |
| Orientalia |  |
| Serials |  |
| Law |  |
| Microforms |  |
| Request filled from remote storage locations | 17.0 |

*Two points about this average should be noted. First, it does not include the time required for the item to be charged out, wrapped, and mailed; all of this is done after the searcher has completed the request. Second, the average includes December cases, which are special. In December every request filled after the eleventh is held until the twenty-eighth for mailing, and only the latter date appears on the interlibrary loan form.
The study reported here has provided a basic description of the characteristics, outcome, and processing time of loan requests received by the Library of Congress. As interlibrary loan service continues to evolve under the influence of task force and planning office recommendations, this study can serve as a base for measuring the direction and magnitude of changes that occur.

REFERENCES


3. Ibid., p.340. The single pass success rates that were compared were:

KEITH GREEN

An Evaluation of Citation-Return on Reprints

A ten-year retrospective study of reprint distribution and their subsequent citation was undertaken, which indicated that the citation-return on reprints is low, although distribution of reprints may have aided in increasing the citation rate. There is an indication that many authors use journals in libraries as sources for citation articles either by reading or photocopying rather than requesting reprints. Reprint utilization by recipients, however, goes beyond use solely as citation sources.

CITATION ANALYSIS has resulted in the indication of significant trends regarding the impact of publications as measured by their citation rate. Another area of citation study, which is amenable to objective analysis, relates more specifically to the area of reprint citation by authors, namely the frequency of utilization of requested reprints and their subsequent citation.

Reprints are purchased for distribution often at high cost to either the author institutions or federal and state agencies; in addition, the cost of mailing reprint request cards and reprints increases as postal costs rise. A recent cost estimate placed the cost of the multiple facets of reprint requests and distribution at about half a billion dollars annually. In face of these rising costs there is a natural concern over the utilization of reprints.

Since the various aspects of reprint distribution are increasing in many countries, the value of the reprint as a means of communication comes under question. The objective of the current study was to attempt to determine the impact of reprint distribution on the subsequent citation of that reference and the degree of citation as a function of receipt of those reprints by authors.

Since 1965 records have been maintained on the requestors' names and the reprints of papers distributed from my office. The Science Citation Index (Institute for Scientific Information) was used in a ten-year retrospective study of the subsequent citation of twenty-eight papers, which represent all journal publications during the ten-year reporting period for which I was the senior author and/or those for which reprint distribution was entirely my responsibility. All citations of these twenty-eight papers, except self-citations (any publication citing these papers in which I was an author), were counted over a ten-year (1965-75) period and cross-checked against the reprint distribution file.

The publication years selected were 1965 to 1974. Analysis of citations was made from the Science Citation Index dating from 1965 until 1976, providing a twelve-year reporting period. The two-year excess of reporting period over publication period was made since analysis indicated that the seventeen papers published in 1970-74 (which fulfilled the criteria of senior authorship and/or reprint distribution responsibility) were cited thirty-seven times; but when the years 1970-76 were examined, the citations increased to sixty-six, nineteen of these due to citation of 1973 and 1974 papers.

The analysis of citation-return revealed that over the ten-year publication period, twenty-five of the twenty-eight total papers were cited (eleven of eleven published be-
tween 1965 and 1969; fourteen of seventeen published from 1970 to 1974). The twenty-five papers were cited a total of 193 times, with reprints distributed to thirty-nine of the authors citing them (thirty-one reprints compared to 127 citations, or 24 percent, in 1965–69; eight reprints compared to sixty-six citations, or 12 percent, in 1970–74).

This means that 80 percent (154/193) of the citations of these twenty-five papers were made by authors who neither requested nor received reprints. There is an apparent lack of relationship of citation occurrence to citation-return, since the percentage of citations by authors receiving reprints appears low. It is obvious, therefore, that many reprints are distributed without subsequent citation.

The number of citations can be related to the total number of reprints distributed, since the latter has been recorded in this office. The thirty-one citations from those sent reprints in 1965–69 resulted from the distribution of 1,233 reprints, giving a citation-return of 2.5 percent; while for 1970–74, the eight citations by authors receiving reprints resulted from the distribution of 1,167 reprints (.7 percent).

For all the years, therefore, the citation-return on all distributed reprints from this office is 1.6 percent; that is, only 1.6 percent of all reprints distributed resulted in their citation. If one assumes, however, that the thirty-one citations for 1965–69 and eight citations for 1970–74 would not have been forthcoming if reprints were not sent, then reprints increased the citation-return rate by 25 percent for 1965–69 and by 12 percent for 1970–74.

Two major conclusions can be drawn from this study. First, only 18 percent of the citing authors received reprints directly from this author and, second, the thirty-nine citations by authors who did receive reprints represent only a small fraction (1.6 percent) of all distributed reprints.

It is apparent, therefore, that many authors who cited these papers did so without access to reprints, which indicates a wide use of library facilities for reading and/or photocopying of journals as a means of access to publications. It is important to realize, however, that not all distributed reprints will be cited nor be directly relevant to any specific research endeavors that result in a subsequent citation. Rather, the reprint allows individuals to maintain a “sublibrary” of information relevant to many aspects of their activities.

Thus, although the citation-return may be low, other facets of reprint utilization have to be taken into account, such as their use in teaching, as well as a means of keeping up with current research activities in areas of peripheral interest.

The data suggest that there is a need for further study in this area of citation-return on a larger scale than the experience of one individual. From the input of several authors, it would be possible to draw more definitive conclusions regarding the usefulness of continuing the practice of reprint distribution. Such a study could be effectively coordinated through a university or college library.

REFERENCES


Up-to-the-minute research grant publications save you time and money. ORYX PRESS Publications are the most comprehensive—most economical—source of current information on research grants sponsored by government and private funding organizations in all subject areas:

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EUGENE P. SHEEHY

Selected Reference Books of 1977–78

THIS ARTICLE continues the semiannual series originally edited by Constance M. Winchell. Although it appears under a byline, the list is a project of the Reference Department of the Columbia University Libraries, and notes are signed with the initials of the individual staff members.

Since the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and general works of interest to reference workers in university libraries, it does not pretend to be either well balanced or comprehensive. A brief roundup of new editions of standard works, continuations, and supplements is presented at the end of the article. Code numbers (such as AE213, DB231) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide to Reference Books.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


Nearly 2,500 items—references to books, parts of books, and periodical articles—are included in this bibliography of bibliographies relating to Brazil. It is a main entry listing with an author/subject index and covers all subject fields. Both Brazilian publications and bibliographies published abroad are included. In view of the range of materials treated, a topical or classified arrangement of the entries would have made for greater ease of use, but the work is welcome in an area where bibliographic coverage is so limited.—E.S.


Volume 1 of this set is a photographic reproduction of the Research Libraries' catalog cards listing, by main entry, the Festschriften collected over the fifty-year period ending 1971. Entry, of course, can be editor, title, or the person honored, so that, while it is convenient for the reference worker to have such a long list of Festschriften—more than 6,000 entries—with full bibliographical details (and often with tables of contents), the usual difficulty of establishing the catalog entry in order to find a particular volume remains. Such an arrangement requires an index to improve the work's reference value.

Volume 2, on the other hand, which lists NYPL's acquisitions of 1972–76 as well as all Festschriften in the MARC tapes data base, 1968–76, conforms to the Research Libraries' current Dictionary Catalog (Guide AA112) in format, offering multiple access points. Therein, Festschriften can be found by editor, by person or institution honored, by title, and by subject. Main entries give full bibliographical information and often include complete contents notes.—R.K.

PERIODICAL INDEXES

Hispanic American Periodicals Index, 1975– . Los Angeles, UCLA Latin American Center Publs., Univ. of Calif.,

1. Paul Cohen, Rita Keckeissen, Anita Lowry, Eileen McIlvaine, Mary Ann Miller; Lehman Library: Laura Binkowski, Diane Goon.

Since the demise of the Index to Latin American Periodicals (Guide AE213) in 1971, there has been no ongoing up-to-date index of serial publications from that area. The appearance of HAPI, therefore, is welcome, not only because it is a useful and well-constructed reference tool, but because it fills a gap. It is a subject-and-author index to articles of interest to Latin Americanists appearing in some 200 journals published in South and Central America, the United States, Europe, and the Caribbean. "The journals were selected with the assistance of the SALALM Committee on Bibliography and an international panel of indexers for their scholarly value and representative coverage of editorial viewpoint, subject matter, and geographical area. Included are leading journals in all major disciplines of the social sciences and the humanities: archaeology and anthropology; art; economics, development, and finance; folklore; geography; history; language and linguistics; literature; music; philosophy; political science; sociology; and others."—Intro. Journals published in Latin America are indexed in full; those published elsewhere are selectively indexed for items relevant to Latin America. Author and subject listings are in separate sections, with full bibliographic citations furnished in both sections. Book reviews are listed in the subject section under the author of the book.—E.S.

Government Publications


At last a group of librarians has tried to bring some order to the problems of identifying and locating city documents, and they have succeeded admirably, providing this guide to publications and collections relating to municipal government. Indicative of the lack of bibliographic control was the difficulty the editors had in finding knowledgeable librarians to contact in some cities; yet some 167 cities are represented in this initial effort.

Arrangement is alphabetical by state, then by city. Each state section begins with a short list of "compilations published at the state level which cover several cities."—Intro. At the beginning of each city section is a brief survey of the bibliographic control of that city's documents through indexes, collections, and data bases; a general statement about local newspaper indexing; any provisions for interlibrary loan; and indication of the degree of participation in the Index to Current Urban Documents (Guide CJ113). Then follows a listing of useful reference sources, with carefully written annotations. "Reference sources" has been broadly defined to include any type of material that reference librarians will need: "checklists and bibliographies listing city publications, manuals and handbooks, directories (business, public school, specialized governmental telephone books, etc.) . . . , the municipal code . . . , all reference publication activities . . . at any level of government . . . , nongovernmental or commercial sources."—Intro. Each city section ends with an annotated list of libraries and organizations that hold major collections of the materials of local government. There is a subject index.

There is much information here, and it is very well presented. A quick check of collections does indicate the omission of the North Carolina State Library, the Institute of Government at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, the Avery and Health Sciences Libraries at Columbia University, and the Local History Collection at the New York Public Library (with its name indexes for local newspapers and vital records). Mention of these omissions is not meant to detract from the wonders of this guide but to encourage an even wider coverage in future editions.—E.M.

Biography

Third in the Gale Biographical Index Series, which indexes biographical dictionaries and other sources of biographical information, this guide has more than 413,000 references to biographies of some 238,000 different authors found in nearly 150 English-language biographical works. Like other compilations of this kind, this one can save a researcher much time and effort by quickly directing one to specific sources of biographical information. And having such an index makes a whole library of biographical reference books more valuable by providing a comprehensive index to them all.

Many of the works indexed relate to authors of children’s literature, and the coverage therefore seems to duplicate many of the titles already indexed in another Gale publication, Children’s Authors and Illustrators, also in the Biographical Index Series. But there are certainly enough additional titles indexed here to make this new volume a useful addition to the reference collection.—P.C.


An introduction to the general nature and importance of the governorship written by United States historian James P. Shenton begins this four-volume set. Arrangement of the entries that follow is alphabetical by state, and within each state the biographies appear chronologically. Each entry was written by a researcher in a state or local historical society, a librarian, or a professor of history. Although the entries are unsigned, a list of contributors is given. A typical biography includes birth and death dates, ancestry, family, religion, political affiliations, electoral results, and highlights of the gubernatorial term. There is also a brief bibliographic guide, and in some cases the location of the governor’s papers is given. The work includes governors who have taken the oath of office from 1789 onwards, and there are plans for a single volume on the governors of the colonial period, 1607–1789.

A brief check against other biographical sources indicates some discrepancies in factual information, e.g., dates and electoral results. Glassman’s American Governors and Gubernatorial Elections, 1775–1975 is cited so repetitiously in the bibliographies that it might well have received special mention one time only to allow for more specific variety in the reading guides. To facilitate quick reference, each volume contains a complete name index to the full set. It would also have been helpful to include the state breakdown on the spine of each volume as an efficient way of indicating arrangement of entries.—L.B.


The major portion of this work is an alphabetical listing of entries on 1,033 persons, living and dead, American and foreign born, who have contributed significantly to the military history of the United States. “Military” is interpreted very broadly, and one will find not only information on great commanders and heroes of the battlefield but also biographies of frontier scouts, Indian leaders, nurses, spies, historians, ship builders, and astronauts, to name a few. The average length of a biography is 450 words; birth date and place, education, and early experience are followed by a concise summary of an individual’s entire career. In some cases this can be a drawback, especially for persons who led multifaceted lives: often as much coverage is devoted to the civilian career as to the military exploits, which tends to detract from the major point of the dictionary. Published works, particularly autobiographies, as well as honors or awards are noted. Death date or mention of current activities conclude each entry. Unfortunately, there are no lists of sources consulted nor a general bibliography.

Useful information is included in the lists and tables of the addenda: secretaries of war, navy, and defense; joint chiefs of staff; NATO commanders; chief officers of the army, navy, and marine corps, followed by a chronology of wars, battles, and expeditions and the commanders associated with them (although coverage of the Korean and Vietnam wars is insignificant); chief officers of the air force; and finally, a listing of
names in the main section grouped by “career category.”—L.B.

PHILOSOPHY


Two new philosophy reference works have recently been added to the shelf. The Bechtle/Riley volume is an alphabetical author list of 7,503 dissertations from the universities of the United States and Canada covering the long period indicated in the title. There is a good subject index. The compilation will be useful chiefly in libraries that do not own the more expensive Comprehensive Dissertation Index (Guide AH10), which, with its keyword index in individual subject fields, has greatly simplified the search for dissertation information.

The ambitious Guerry work aims to list “philosophical bibliographies published in all countries [from] about 1450 . . . through 1974” in order to “make the vast literature of philosophy more open to philosophers and students of philosophy.”—Intro. Included are bibliographies published separately, those prepared as journal articles, and a small number that are parts of books; some entries are annotated. The work is in two sections, part 1 listing the works of or about an individual philosopher. Since philosophy is interpreted in a wide sense, some surprising names from history, politics, and literature are included here. Part 2 is arranged alphabetically by subject. There is an index of personal and corporate names, but no list of the subject headings used. While most of the more than 2,000 entries deal with Western philosophy and philosophers, other parts of the world are also included in this bibliography.—R.K.

LITERATURE


It is perhaps unfair to suggest that these two volumes promise rather more than is delivered, for each is seemingly very much what the compiler intended: the Reilly work is a bibliography only, without any attempt at a classified or subject approach beyond the war theme; the Marcan volume is a classified bibliography of subject anthologies and related criticism, not an index to spe-
specific poems in the manner of Granger's.

The Reilly compilation lists "poetry and verse on the theme of the First World War, written by English poets (i.e., poets of England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales), servicemen and civilians, who experienced the war. It is restricted to printed material in the form of book, pamphlet, card or broadside."—Abstract. Anthologies are listed separately from works of individual authors, and there is a title index. That more than 2,200 writers have been identified is a tribute to the compiler's industry.

The classified arrangement of the Marcan volume employs topical headings such as religion, myths and legends, the family and home, the emotional world, the arts, history, science and the natural world, with more specific categories thereunder. The classification scheme is set forth on pages x-xvi, but there is no alphabetical index to the topical headings. Anthologies including both poetry and prose have been included, but subject collections by a single author have not. Full bibliographic citations are given, and brief annotations or lists of section headings indicate the nature and range of many of the collections. Critical studies (a particularly welcome feature of the bibliography) are usually listed separately from the anthologies. A preponderance of British imprints may limit the volume's usefulness in all but the very large libraries.—E.S.

**CINEMA STUDIES**


"Sponsored by The Film and Television Study Center, Inc."—t.p.

This catalog is a testament to the efforts of archivists, librarians, and all others who have worked to preserve the primary materials so essential for the study of film, television, and radio history. It is also a testament to the efforts of those who have attempted to organize these sources, to make them accessible, and to inform students and scholars of their existence and their importance. The work provides invaluable aid to the scholar looking for collections of such resources as scripts, stills, oral histories, personal papers, production records, and advertising materials—many of which are omitted or incompletely covered in other union catalogs.

For purposes of this list, eleven western states were surveyed for relevant collections; those collections devoted exclusively to nonprint materials (i.e., films, television tapes, or radio transmissions) were excluded. Then, seventy-two institutions in eight states were carefully examined for archival holdings relating to motion pictures, television, or radio. For each institution—ranging from the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences to the Utah Historical Society—the catalog provides a short general description, and a listing of each individual collection, described as to size, dates of coverage, and type of material. The entries are well indexed in a "General Index" (names and subjects) and an "Index by Occupation."

One hopes that the Film and Television Study Center will be able to sponsor further volumes covering similar collections in other parts of the United States.—A.L.

**SOCIOLOGY**


Hughes, chief librarian at the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, is author of *The Sexual Barrier: Legal and Economic Aspects of Employment* (San Francisco, 1970; Suppl. 1-2, 1971-72), a bibliography that focused on employment and the Equal Rights Amendment. The emergence of new material in these areas and of new legal issues of special interest to women led to her compilation of this enlarged and revised edition.

More than 8,000 English-language books, articles, pamphlets, and documents published between 1960 and 1975 are grouped into 17 alphabetically arranged subject chapters covering: aging, bibliographies, child care, condition of women, economic status, education, employment, family relations, fertility, health, international, legal status,
lesbianism/homosexuality, minority women, occupations, religion, and sex role. Most chapters are further subdivided by specific topic and/or geographic area; many entries are briefly annotated. Users will find that the principal strength of the work is its comprehensive treatment of legal issues affecting women: child care tax deductions, credit, social security, admission to professional schools, affirmative action, family law, abortion, rape, the Equal Rights Amendment, etc. The detailed listing of materials on women in specific occupations is another distinctive and useful feature. Overall, this is a worthwhile addition to a reference collection.—D.G.

POLITICAL SCIENCE


Title also in German; prefatory matter and section headings in English and German.

A publication of the Research Unit of the German United Nations Association, Bonn/Berlin.


This is a bibliography of secondary literature published in English, German, and French on the United Nations and its specialized agencies. Volume 1 is a reprint of the authors' Zwanzig Jahre Vereinte Nationen (Guide CK235). Volume 2 covers articles published between 1965 and 1975 in about 360 scholarly journals (only 60 of which were considered for the entire time period). Parts A and B of volume 2 follow identical formats: therein citations to some 8,342 articles are organized according to a classified scheme in four main sections (with subdivisions); (1) the United Nations as part of the empirical solutions for the four main problems of world society (polity, adaptation, normative integration, cultural problems); (2) the United Nations system and its internal structures and processes; (3) the United Nations system—institutional and organizational arrangements; (4) the United Nations system—actual and potential areas of activity. There is a detailed contents table and an author index for each part. Volume 3 is to list books and collected works published between 1965 and 1975.

There is a great deal of valuable material here (including a succinct guide to the bibliographies and catalogs of primary United Nations material). However, the user must devote a good deal of study to the "Explanation and rationale for the classification scheme" (which is based on Talcott Parsons' theories of sociological systems) in order to derive much from the first section on the U.N. in world society; the other sections can be adequately investigated by careful perusal of the table of contents. For those of us who would rather not study Talcott Parsons before using a bibliography, a subject index would have been most helpful.—D.G.


Title also in French and English (Bibliography on European Integration, with Annotations).

Kujath, former head of the central library at the Commission of European Communities, has here made a major contribution to the organization of primary and secondary materials on all aspects of European integration. The amount of literature on the topic is immense, so the material listed has been limited mainly to monographs, periodical titles that focus on European affairs, and published bibliographies and catalogs of international European organizations; there are references to important essays, Festschriften and annuals, and to periodical articles "whenever a subject is poorly covered by books."—Intro. Cutoff date for publications is the end of 1976.

As befits the international approach, introduction, explanatory notes, and detailed classification table for the bibliography are
given in German, French, and English. The classification scheme works "downward" from generalities to specific groups and subgroups, with cross-references to related groups; within each subdivision (bibliographies, reference books and handbooks, collections of documents, general surveys, etc.) the items are listed chronologically, with the most recent appearing last. Annotations are usually in the language of the work. There is an index of personal names. This is a fine bibliography for the study of the progress and activities of the many organizations dedicated to European unity and cooperation.—D.G.

ANTHROPOLOGY


This is the first installment of a set on the Indians north of Mesoamerica; when completed, the set will number twenty volumes and cover Indian tribes from northern Mexico to Greenlandic Eskimos. The work is intended to supersede Frederick Hodge's standard, but now dated, Handbook of American Indians (1907-10; Guide CD63), and the project is being carried out by a team of experts under the direction of the Center for the Study of Man, a division of the Smithsonian Institution.

In this first published volume of the series, the various tribes of California have been identified, and the researchers have gathered ethnographic, linguistic, historical, and archaeological information on every conceivable topic relevant to Californian Indians. An expert has contributed a detailed essay on each tribe, describing its environment, culture, language, and history; the essays are supplemented by numerous maps, drawings, and photographs. The Handbook is really an encyclopedia of information, designed and organized for the specialist and amateur alike. It contains the latest scientific findings, an extensive bibliography, and a detailed index. The essays themselves are well written, thoroughly documented, and abundantly illustrated, making the work useful to the casual reader but indispensable for the serious researcher.—P.C.


Two reasons are stated for compiling this encyclopedic survey: first is the Westerner's general ignorance of who the Muslims are and what they are like; second is the lack of bibliography for all but a few frequently studied groups—Arabs, Persians, Turks, Kurds, and Hausa—when in fact there are more than 720 million Muslims in the world and at least 300 identified ethnic groups that are wholly or partly Muslim. The editor's introduction is a fascinating account of the unity and diversity of these numerous, poor, mostly rural, far-flung peoples: Muslims speak dozens of languages, live in nine "culture areas" of the world, and practice the religion largest after Christianity and Buddhism in numbers of adherents, Islam.

The body of the work consists of signed descriptions of each ethnic group contributed by seventy-five scholars. Each entry includes information on dietary practices, economy, family life, heritage, life-cycle observances, geographic location, language, population, and religious affiliations, and each has a bibliography that concentrates on current patterns of living. For some little-studied groups there are only two or three bibliographic citations; all cited items are in English, most were published since 1945, and they include books, articles, and unpublished manuscripts. Tables are appended showing the synthesized statistical results of diverse population studies. In all, this volume does a service for the specialist and nonspecialist, the anthropologist and journalist. It should help to inspire field research in Muslim ethnology and a general determination in any reader to learn more of fellow humans.—M.A.M.

MONEY

McCusker, John J. Money and Exchange in Europe and America, 1600-1775; a

Librarians might well be added to McCusker's list of people who cannot "muster much enthusiasm" for money and exchange rates, but he has tried to make it much easier for us. He has collected exchange rate quotations for the territory of the "Atlantic world" during the colonial period (thus, most of the colonies of the European powers are represented) and presented the information in tables arranged by area, then chronologically, and with references to sources. He has also given us an extensive introduction to the subject in general, as well as to the currencies of each colony. There is an index of subjects, places, and sources, and a list of manuscript materials consulted concludes this attractive volume.—E.M.

HISTORY & AREA STUDIES


Updated to 1975, this is an English-language version of the same author's earlier guides in Dutch (1962) and German (1964) covering five important areas in medieval studies: (1) types of surviving medieval texts available to the historian; (2) the location of medieval manuscripts in libraries and archives; (3) the great published collections of critically edited sources; (4) important reference works for the study of medieval texts (e.g., in linguistic studies, chronology, historical geography); and (5) the auxiliary sciences, ranging from paleography to computer technology. Each of these sections is divided by form, chronology, or country, as appropriate, and a detailed table of contents facilitates finding one's way to a particular subject. Some chapters take the form of explanatory essays, varying in length as the material demands, and are bibliographical in character with full citations provided in footnotes. Others, in which bibliographies are the principal content, carry short introductions followed by lists of citations. An index of names, anonymous works, editors, and authors adds reference value.

The wealth of information—the critical descriptions of individual titles, of series of medieval texts, of archives and libraries—and the completeness of the bibliographical citations contribute greatly to the book's usefulness for librarians and students.—R.K.


Prepared under the auspices of the Research Institute for the Study of Man.

Contents: v.1, People; v.2, Institutions; v.3, Resources; v.4, Indexes.

Based on the same author's single-volume Caribbeana 1900-1965 (Guide DB231), this new edition represents a thorough revision and expansion of the 1968 work: Bermuda and the Bahamas have been added to the geographical coverage (although Puerto Rico, Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic are still excluded as adequately covered elsewhere), and the closing date has been extended through 1975. The bibliography now lists "over seventeen thousand complete references to authored publications such as monographs, readers, conference proceedings, doctoral dissertations, master's theses, journal articles, reports, pamphlets, and other miscellaneous works."—Pref. Volumes 1–3 are each divided into three main sections (with numerous subdivisions) as follows: volume 1, "Introduction to the Caribbean; the Past; the People"; volume 2, "Elements of Culture; Health, Education and Welfare; Political Issues"; volume 3, "Socio-economic Activities and Institutions; The Environment and Human Geography; Soils, Crops and Livestock." There are separate author and geographical indexes in volume 4. Indication of a library location for most items adds to the usefulness of this important compilation.—E.S.

Harrison, John Fletcher Crews, and Thompson, Dorothy. Bibliography of the Chartist Movement, 1837-1976. [Hassocks, Sussex, Eng.], Harvester Pr.; [At-

The compilers, authors of works on nineteenth-century England and its political movements, have provided a bibliography of the Chartist Movement in England (1837-54), listing major manuscript collections; pamphlets, serials, and other printed materials by Chartists and their contemporaries; relevant parliamentary papers; and secondary books and articles on the movement. The aim has been to "include all known Chartist items in local and national libraries and archives, and the holdings of libraries abroad have also been checked."—Intro.

The compilers have ranged far afield, and manuscripts in the International Institute of Social History in Amsterdam and in the Fondazione Giangiacomo Feltrinelli in Milan, to mention just two examples, are cited. Locations are given, of course, for all manuscript materials listed, and in some cases an English library location is indicated for a printed item. The index is principally of names and titles, but some topical entries are included. This is an important bibliography for social and historical research in the period.—E.M.

ENVIRONMENT


At head of title: The New York Times Cumulative Subject & Personal Name Index.

This is the first in a new series of subject and personal name indexes ("Women" and "Energy" volumes are announced as forthcoming), which cumulate the citations and abstracts from the annual indexes to the New York Times, thus providing a comprehensive overview of developments by bringing together the entries scattered throughout the eleven annual index volumes. Instead of the A-Z dictionary arrangement familiar to users of the Index, the Environment cumulation groups articles chronologically within a topical subject arrangement. A general section on "The Condition of the Environment" is followed by sections (each appropriately subdivided) for "Renewable Resources" (nature, wildlife, plants, etc.), "Natural Forces" (e.g., wetlands, oceans, rivers and dams, climate, specific weather conditions), "The Price of Industrialization" (air pollution, biological and chemical contamination, noise, radioactivity, water pollution, recycling, etc.), "Economic and Human Problems" (e.g., energy crisis, utilities, land use, urban problems), and "Organized Environmental Efforts." The topical arrangement is complemented by a detailed subject index, a geographic index, an organization index, and a names index. The three latter indexes would be much more effective if reference were to column (or, better, to quarter of the page designated) as well as to page.—E.S.

NEW EDITIONS, SUPPLEMENTS, ETC.

Books in Series Supplement (New York, Bowker, 1978. 1,000p. $34.50) adds some 10,700 titles of books published in series to the initial listing in the 1976 volume Books in Series in the United States 1966-1975. In addition to 1976-77 imprints, it lists numerous pre-1976 publications not included in the main volume, together with updated information on about 23,700 titles that have changed price or publisher since the basic work was compiled.

A. J. Walford and J. E. O. Screen’s A Guide to Foreign Language Courses and Dictionaries (London, Library Assn., 1977. 343p. £10) represents a third, revised and enlarged edition of Walford’s Guide to Foreign Language Grammars and Dictionaries (2d ed. 1967; Guide AD135). The number of languages covered has been increased, and the work now "provides a running commentary on selected courses, audio-visual aids and dictionaries in most of the main European languages, plus Arabic, Chinese and Japanese."—Intro.

One of the most welcome developments in a very long time is the decision by publishers of the New York Times Index to issue quarterly cumulations beginning with January/March 1978. These new cumulations will be issued for the first three quarters of the year, with the annual volume "serving, in effect, as the fourth quarterly cumulation covering the entire year." With a view to getting the quarterlies into the
users' hands as quickly as possible, "certain editorial infelicities, which are regularly edited out of the annual cumulation, have been left as is." Best of all, the quarterly cumulations are being furnished to Index subscribers without additional charge.

**Obituaries from the Times 1971-1975** (Reading, Eng., Newspaper Archives Development; Westport, Conn., Meckler Books, 1978. 647p. $60) is the first of the promised five-year supplements for the series established with publication of the 1961-70 volume of obituaries in 1975. Like the earlier volume, it reprints a selection of obituaries published in the Times of London during the period of coverage, plus an "Index to all obituaries and tributes appearing in The Times" during those same years. Although British entries account for just under 60 percent of the approximately one thousand entries in this volume, obituaries of "almost all the major international figures who died in the first half of the 1970's." (Pref.) are included.

The "Social and Behavioral Sciences" section of the thirteenth edition of *American Men and Women of Science* (New York, Bowker, 1978. 1,545p. $69.95) "covers the twelve areas of the social and behavioral sciences not included in the major compendium [i.e., the 7v. set published 1976]; namely administration and management, area studies, business, communications and information science, community and urban studies, economics, environmental studies, futuristics, international studies, political science, psychology and sociology." -Pref. About 24,000 biographical sketches are included, and there are discipline and geographic indexes.

Approximately 13,500 biographical sketches are included in the second edition of *Who's Who among Black Americans* (Northbrook, Ill., Who's Who among Black Americans, Inc., 1978. 1,096p. $49.95), an increase of about 3,500 over the first edition. Geographic and occupational indexes are again included.

**Religion Index One: Periodicals (July/Dec. 1977-)**. Chicago, American Theological Library Assn., 1978-. Semiannual. $72) represents a change of title for the Index to Religious Periodical Literature (Guide BB15). It follows the policies of the earlier title and employs the three-part arrangement introduced with the 1975 index: (1) subject index; (2) author index with abstracts; and (3) book review index. The final issue published under the old title (January/June 1977) will be cumulated along with the July/December 1977 and January/June 1978 semiannuals, plus new materials for July/December 1978, to form volume 13 (1977-78) and bearing the new title. A companion publication, *Religion Index Two: Multi-Author Works*, 1976- (Chicago, American Theological Library Assn., 1978-). Annual. $60), is issued as a hardbound volume and indexes collective works of more than one author (including numerous Festschriften). It offers a subject approach, plus an author and editor index to the volumes indexed. The 1976 volume includes 3,065 separate author entries in 241 books.

**The Philosopher's Index; a Retrospective Index to U.S. Publications from 1940** (BOWLING GREEN, OHIO, PHILOSOPHY DOCUMENTATION CENTER, BOWLING GREEN STATE UNIV., 1978. 3v. $195) is an index to "approximately 15,000 articles from U.S. journals published during the 27 year period, 1940-1966, and approximately 6,000 books published during the 37 year period 1940-1976." -p. viii. It thus offers retrospective indexing for journal articles published prior to the beginning of the quarterly *Philosopher's Index* (Guide BA24), and complementary coverage for book publications from the longer period.


Guide BD227). It indexes about 25,000 poems in 120 anthologies and, as a new feature, indicates those collections recommended for priority acquisition.

Southern Literature, 1968–1975, compiled by the Committee on Bibliography of the Society for the Study of Southern Literature under the editorship of Jerry T. Williams (Boston, G. K. Hall, 1978. 271p. $40), serves as a continuation of A Bibliographical Guide to the Study of Southern Literature by Louis D. Rubin, Jr. (Guide BD277). The supplementary bibliography cumulates the annotated entries from the annual checklists published in the spring issues of the Mississippi Quarterly and adds new citations, cross-references, and a name index.

Metropolitan Opera Annals, 3d Supplement, 1966–1976, compiled by Mary Ellis Peltz and Gerald Fitzgerald (Clifton, N.J., publ. for the Metropolitan Opera Guild by J. T. White Co., 1978. 208p. $17.50), is a continuation of the basic work by William H. Seltsam (Guide BH129) and its two supplements. It carries forward the record of performances (with excerpts from critical reviews) as found in the earlier volumes.

Six additional years of public opinion poll findings are summarized in The Gallup Poll; Public Opinion 1972–1977 (Wilmington, Del., Scholarly Resources, Inc., 1978. 2v. $95), extending coverage of the original three-volume set published 1972 (Guide CJ119). Reports are again arranged chronologically, and there is a subject index in volume 2.

Doctoral Dissertations on China, 1972–1975; a Bibliography of Studies in Western Languages, compiled and edited by Frank Joseph Shulman (Seattle, Univ. of Wash. Pr., 1978. 329p. $17.50; $6.95 pa.), forms a supplement to L. H. D. Gordon and F. J. Shulman’s 1972 bibliography of similar title covering the years 1945–70 (Guide DE99). It follows the plan of the preceding volume, listing 1,573 items in a classed arrangement. An appendix lists an additional 228 dissertations from the 1945–70 period that were not included in the earlier publication.—E.S.

Editor’s Note: Gaylord Bros., Inc., Syracuse, New York, has brought to our attention that it is the distributor for the Dictionnaire de littérature française contemporaine, described on page 303 of our July 1978 issue. Price: $22.50 plus postage.

Statement of Ownership and Management

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Queues and Reference Service

To the Editor:
Regazzi and Hersberger's study of four models for delivering reference service at peak periods (C&RL, July 1978) is a welcome addition to analyses of public services effectiveness. However, the student/professional model that received the highest "effectiveness" rating—and, indeed, all models—assumes that the quality of service remains constant regardless of who interviews patrons and delivers the service.

Using students to "screen and refer" can be justified only if students can (a) accurately diagnose when a reference/research question is hidden beneath a directional inquiry (no mean task!) and (b) are willing to admit the limits of their own knowledge and know that others may be able to go farther. Halldorsson and Murfin (C&RL, September 1977) studied precisely these questions; their findings should be weighed by any library planning to use nonprofessionals on the "front line" at reference.

If staff costs/idle time and patron waiting time are paramount, the student/professional model surely bears investigation, but the risk of decreased quality of reference service must also be considered. Careful orientation and supervision of students may somewhat alleviate the problem, but they have implications for the total cost of the model—Julie Blume, Coordinator of User Education, Health Sciences Library, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

On-Line Search Services

To the Editor:
Charging fees for on-line services is declared to be a necessity by James Cogswell in the July 1978 issue of C&RL. His first attempt to justify charging them is based on a questionnaire that was limited to those who have already used his service, that is, those who have already demonstrated their ability and willingness to pay the fees. Apparently he is not concerned about those who cannot afford to pay.

Then he argues that the only alternatives to charging fees are to cut back existing services or to discontinue on-line services. That is, of course, the dilemma of all library decisions, whether it is to buy a book, a new abstracting service, or an OCLC terminal. The choices, however, are not as limited as the ones he offers. It is possible to recover some of the costs from the time saved by reference librarians because automatic searching is so much faster than manual searching. Some money can be saved by eliminating indexing and abstracting services that are duplicated on-line. And a library can be selective in the use of the on-line terminal to keep the costs within reasonable limits. If the terminal is used as just another reference tool, the reference librarians can determine whether an on-line search would be more cost-effective than a manual search.

Finally, Cogswell chose the worst possible solution to the problem: partial library subsidy. In fairness to the users who cannot afford to pay, the library should recover the total cost of on-line services if it is going to charge fees at all. To the extent that staff time, equipment costs, and general overhead costs are diverted to on-line services, Cogswell's solution penalizes the user who cannot afford to pay. Rather than cut any portion of the existing free services, the library should charge the full cost to the few users who can afford it. But a limited program of on-line service without fees can be made available to as many as possible on the basis of need as determined by the reference librarians. Those users who cannot be served by such a limited program may always turn to commercial information brokers. As I see it, this is the only way to protect the rights of poor students and faculty.—R. Dean Galloway, Library Director, California State College, Stanislaus.

/ 59
Response

To the Editor:

My purpose in discussing the questionnaire concerning on-line search services at Penn was not to "justify" fees for service but rather to demonstrate a perceived change in user attitude toward those fees. Since results of the questionnaire closely paralleled those of a similar MIT survey, I felt the questionnaire significant. The only "justification" I offer for charging fees is the lack of an alternative source for necessary funds.

Mr. Galloway offers no evidence that his cost-saving measures would constitute such a source. His first suggestion is to recover costs through savings in staff time. Such savings could be realized only in libraries where staff members have previously performed personalized, on-demand, manual literature searches. As my article points out, this has simply not been a traditional service in noncommercial libraries. His second alternative is to eliminate subscriptions to hardcopy sources. Apparently my point that this would further increase costs for the online product was lost on Mr. Galloway. Furthermore, the elimination of manual indexes would make impossible Mr. Galloway's third suggestion—using on-line searches "selectively"—because users would then have no option but to request an on-line search. What is more important, I know of no academic library that is not already "selective" in using the computer as merely one of many potential reference tools.

Even considering such selectivity on the part of libraries, there has been a steady and dramatic increase in the number of users who can demonstrate a legitimate "need" for on-line services. Mr. Galloway proposes to meet this need through existing library funds, but this ensures that progressively more money will be diverted toward on-line searching to serve an ever-growing user population. My proposal provides a means for each library to determine what proportion of the costs it is best able to bear while avoiding the requirement of patron financial statements to determine ability or inability to pay.—James A. Cogswell.

Participative Management

To the Editor:

Dennis Dickinson's thoughtful article on participative management (C&RL, July 1978) does not address a number of significant trends in academic library administration. We are, whether we like it or not, being moved closer and closer to the faculty. Computerization has taken hold in technical services. Bibliographic instruction has come of age, and the debates on faculty status continue. Academic libraries already exist in which a minimal number of professionals (if any) serve in nonpublic service areas.

Mr. Dickinson indicates that the crux of a library operation is the movement of materials "through a coordinated and integrated system from publisher to patron." Academic librarians today are not so much concerned with the movement as with use of the product. More and more time is devoted to teaching, curriculum planning, faculty liaison, course development, and the preparation of bibliographic guides. Collegiality often develops on its own as the most efficient means of meeting these concerns.

Having worked in one of Mr. Dickinson's "pernicious models" as well as several traditional ones, I feel that his criticisms of the committee system and absolute democracy are well taken. His insistence on a strict hierarchical approach, however, could have serious implications for both library instruction and faculty status. I would suggest instead an investigation of the relationship between participatory management, library instruction, and faculty status.—Thomas H. Patterson, Head, Reference Department, University of Maine at Orono.

Response

To the Editor:

As Mr. Petterson indicates, I do indeed believe that "the crux of a library operation is the movement of materials" from publisher to patron. The crux of our disagreement is not, however, that "academic librarians today are not so much concerned with the movement as with the use of the product"—for I grant that—but rather which of these should be the focus of con-
cern given the need for strategic allocation of increasingly scarce resources.

As "more and more time is devoted to teaching . . ." less and less will be given to the traditional and necessary logistic functions in libraries, given finite and stable resources. Inasmuch as the latter are available in only the most fortunate academic libraries today, the imbalance is further aggravated with the result that libraries will eventually find themselves expending all of their resources trying to sell products and services they then cannot provide—a practice that, in the private sector, is known as false advertising, is illegal, and is usually self-corrective. In public service institutions, on the other hand, such a fraud may, unfortunately, be tolerated for some time.

Mr. Patterson and I also seem to be in essential disagreement with regard to faculty status for librarians. As I indicated in the article, I believe it to be an inappropriate model for a number of reasons, some of which I mentioned, and I consider pro-faculty-status arguments based on the need for and existence of library instruction programs to be, at best, weak—as are most of the programs and the reasons for their existence.

Thus, if Mr. Patterson's objections rest entirely on the possible "serious implications" that a hierarchical administrative structure may have for library instruction and faculty status, and if the implications are understood as moving in the direction of rethinking and radically redesigning these, then I can only say that such a structure may offer even more benefits for libraries than I thought.—Dennis W. Dickinson.

To the Editor:

In "Some Reflections on Participative Management in Libraries" (C&RL, July 1978, p.253-62), Dennis W. Dickinson uses badly reasoned, illogically presented arguments to attack what he calls the increasing "hodgepodge of disparate proposals generally glossed under the rubric of 'participative management.'"

Given the numerous pro-administration and anti-staff arguments he marshals, his conclusion is actually surprisingly moderate. While finally advocating "extensive and intensive consultation between administration and staff, but with the ultimate decision-making authority and attendant accountability unequivocally lodged with the library administration," the total burden of his remarks would support a position he claims he is not taking: "for a dictatorial, autocratic, or oligarchic management style in libraries."

Dickinson characterizes library staff members as primarily motivated by a desire to "secure the status quo" and library administrators as "informed," having "the vision, leadership ability, and practical good sense to direct the library properly." Administrators are also said to be the only librarians to whom a "decision-making context" is available. Yet, if staff are so interested in maintaining the status quo, why the clamor for change in library administration to which the article is addressed? In fact, history and experience teach us that it is those with the greatest power who fear change the most.

And if those traditionally in charge (administrators) are doing such a good job, why does Dickinson assert that individuals in libraries are being promoted on "seniority and performance which is not satisfactory"; why have libraries (i.e., administrators) been notably "unsuccessful in developing effective programs for recruiting, assessing, and developing a competent staff"; and why are so many librarians being allowed by their administrators to continue to perform "low-level, routine functions"?

There are real problems with the traditional hierarchical model. They include uninformed decision making based on remoteness from the operational level, misguided decision making based on the narrow perspective of a single individual, and autocratic decision making that neglects to consider the concrete effects of implementation on people and the jobs they are trying to do. These problems are minimized in proportion to the amount of sharing allowed in the policy discussion, decision, and implementation processes.

The assumption that only certain elite have the ability to set intelligent policy is not only arrogant, but false. Given access to the necessary information and the opportunity to discuss ideas and proposals with colleagues, intelligent and dedicated librarians are capable of assuming authority and taking
responsibility for the making and implementation of effective policy. The more intelligent minds are brought to bear on a situation in which the participants are informed and involved, the more intelligent a decision is likely to result.

The fear of diffusion of responsibility in groups, which Dickinson raises, is greatly exaggerated. A group of people directly concerned with and affected by a problem will assume collective responsibility for the results of their actions. They are the ones who must live most intimately with those results.

While library administrators often discuss the extent to which the organization is meeting the needs of those it serves, they rarely consider the extent to which it meets the equally important needs of those who serve. Those to be affected most directly by a proposed decision should be most directly involved in its formulation. This is not only the most humane approach but also the most salutary in terms of effective implementation at the operational level.—Wes Daniels, Senior Acquisitions Librarian, Harvard Law School Library.

Response

To the Editor:

Most of Daniels’ remarks seem to stem from his failure to read carefully and/or to follow out the logical implications of statements made in the article.

To begin with, the assertion that my remarks may support an argument “for a dictatorial, autocratic, or oligarchic management style . . .” even if true, would say nothing about what I, in fact, advocate. That Daniels implies they do clearly, simply, and graphically demonstrates that Dan Gore is correct in his contention that some librarians cannot make the important logical distinction between the necessary and the possible. Moreover, when taken in aggregate, as Daniels claims to be doing, the remarks clearly do not extend such support.

In the same vein, Daniels alleges that I “characterize” library administrators as informed, etc. In fact, what I said was that administrators are paid to have certain qualities—quite a different statement. One has only to look around to find numerous intramural examples of persons who are being paid to do things they will not or cannot do—and by no means are they all administrators. But paying anyone to do something and then setting up a structure that ensures they cannot do it is the height of folly. I am thus not arguing that all library administrators are doing a “good job,” as Daniels mistakenly believes, but rather that it is, logically, only they who can do the job of running a library well for structural, not personal, reasons.

As to why so many librarians are allowed to continue performing low-level, routine functions, the answer is, as the article points out, that that is simply the nature of much of library work.

I addressed specifically the problems with hierarchical models that concern Daniels—although perhaps in parts of the article he skipped in his haste to erect men of straw to pummel. I will not, therefore, bore your more attentive readers with a rehash.

I could not agree more with Daniel’s opinion that “given access to the necessary information . . . , etc.” The point, which I thought I had stated clearly in the article, is just exactly that granting such access to large numbers of people is not practicable—if, indeed, it is possible at all.

Daniels’ “more is better” philosophy of problem solving, while it has a kind of superficial, populist plausibility, is simply not borne out by any research in group dynamics of which I am aware. A careful reading of my article will, however, disclose that I have no argument with his ideas on staff involvement in deliberations preceding policy decisions—nor he with mine. Such notions fit quite comfortably into the consultative management style I espouse.

In short, Daniels’ objections seem to be principally the result of a highly imaginative interpretation of the article, which is based on a less-than-thorough reading.—Dennis W. Dickinson.
A nation’s statistical compendium or yearbook is an excellent source of information on its economic, political, social, and cultural conditions. Prepared by national experts and agencies, and generally published in English or another Western European language, these detailed compilations and analyses are indispensable reference and research sources. They are available in a micropublishing program that is updated annually, and at present offers more than 400 editions from over 100 nations principally from 1970 through 1977.

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Recent Publications

Thomison, Dennis. A History of the American Library Association, 1876–1972, reviewed by Arthur P. Young .................................................. 65
Use of Medical Literature, reviewed by Estelle Brodman .................................. 66
Inter-Library Lending—The Challenge of Cooperation, reviewed by Alice Weaver ... 67
Perrault, Jean M. The Idea of Order in Bibliography, reviewed by Jessica L. Harris .. 69
How to Start an Audiovisual Collection, reviewed by Cathleen C. Flanagan ......... 69
Cabeceiras, James. The Multimedia Library: Materials Selection and Use, reviewed by Cathleen C. Flanagan .................................................. 69
The College Library: A Collection of Essays, reviewed by Dorothy F. Thomson .... 71
Larsgaard, Mary. Map Librarianship: An Introduction, reviewed by Joan Winearls . 71
The Information Society: Issues and Answers, reviewed by W. A. Moffett .......... 73
Conroy, Barbara. Library Staff Development and Continuing Education: Principles and Practices, reviewed by Sheila Creth ........................................ 73
National Library and Information Services: A Handbook for Planners, reviewed by Sylvia G. Faibisoff .................................................. 75
Books Are For Use, reviewed by Joan K. Marshall ........................................ 75
Morehead, Joe. Introduction to United States Public Documents, 2d ed., reviewed by Yuri Nakata .................................................. 76
Downey, James A. US Federal Official Publications: The International Dimension, reviewed by Alan Edward Schorr ........................................ 77
Carpenter, Ray L., and Vasu, Ellen Storey. Statistical Methods for Librarians, reviewed by Timothy D. Jewell .................................................. 78
The Copyright Dilemma, reviewed by Nancy H. Marshall ................................ 80
Seltzer, Leon E. Exemptions and Fair Use in Copyright: The Exclusive Rights Tensions in the 1976 Copyright Act, reviewed by Madeleine Cohen Oakley ........ 81
Bibliotherapy Sourcebook, reviewed by Sister Alma Marie Walls ..................... 83
Bramley, Gerald. Outreach: Library Services for the Institutionalized, the Elderly, and the Physically Handicapped, reviewed by Lucille Whalen ........ 84
One Book/Five Ways: The Publishing Procedures of Five University Presses, reviewed by Budd L. Gambee .................................................. 84
Advances in Librarianship, volume 8, reviewed by William E. Hannaford, Jr. ..... 85
Lancaster, F. W. Toward Paperless Information Systems, reviewed by Audrey N. Grosch .................................................. 88
Townley, Helen M. Systems Analysis for Information Retrieval, reviewed by Stephen M. Silberstein .................................................. 89
Smith, Lynn S. A Practical Approach to Serials Cataloging, reviewed by Judith P. Cannan .................................................. 89
AbSTRACTS .................................................. 90
Other Publications of Interest to Academic Librarians .................................................. 93

With the publication of Dennis Thomison's history of the American Library Association, librarians and others may now take a retrospective glance at the dreams, achievements, failures, and follies of their professional organization.

Covering the years 1876-1972, the author has written a selective history highlighting the activities of the association's deliberative bodies and executive leadership. Less attention is devoted to ALA's many divisions and to such important topics as library education, which have been treated previously in specialized studies. This volume is not a commemorative panegyric; Thomison injects critical assessments of ALA's performance throughout the text.

The year 1876 still must rate as the most significant in the history of American librarianship. Fortuitously, most of the elements characteristic of a profession—leadership, organization, communication, and cognitive foundation—converged to ensure the basis for orderly development. Few professional associations were launched with such a superb cast. The founding fathers of ALA—Melvil Dewey, William F. Poole, Charles A. Cutter, and Justin Winsor, among the more prominent—are justifiably venerated for their creative contributions.

Other elements were publication of the *American Library Journal,* printing of Dewey's *Decimal Classification* and Cutter's *Rules for a Printed Dictionary Catalogue,* and distribution of the U.S. Bureau of Education's *Public Libraries in the United States.*

For the next several decades, ALA expended much energy defining the parameters of librarianship and addressing technical matters. Even during the nineteenth century, problems emerged and issues were debated that would continue to the present. Among these were censorship, democratization of the association, recruitment, regulation of library education, and participation in the selection of the Librarian of Congress.

In 1909, ALA felt the sting of fragmentation with the formation of the Special Libraries Association. ALA's participation in World War I quite unexpectedly transformed it from a small professional body with limited resources into a public welfare organization serving the library needs of several million soldiers.

Euphoric over its wartime successes, ALA fashioned the enlarged program in 1919, a bold plan that encompassed creation of an endowment, adult education, extensive publicity, and reforms in library education. Divisive internal bickering, coupled with an unresponsive public, proved too difficult to overcome, and ALA suffered a humiliating defeat.

Despite this setback, the 1920s signalled the beginning of the association's modern era. A strong executive secretary, Carl Milam, was appointed; international library relations were promoted; library education was more closely monitored; and the adult education movement flourished.

The depression years were difficult for everyone, and ALA was confronted by serious problems and critical choices. The association's Board of Education for Librarianship was criticized by many for failing to curtail the supply of graduates in a time of considerable unemployment. Benefactions from the Carnegie Corporation were less generous after the corporation concluded that some ALA activities "may well have surpassed the limits of prudence."

Various special committees made proposals to decentralize the association and to bridge the estrangement believed to exist between the headquarters staff and the membership. Under Milam's prodding, sustained support for federal aid to libraries was achieved. Thomison describes the abortive attempt to prevent the appointment of poet Archibald MacLeish to the post of Librarian of Congress as a "shrill, histrionic outburst."

World War II again stimulated the association's interest in international library affairs. During the 1940s an International Relations Office was established, and ALA acted as midwife to the birth of the Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin in Mexico. Pur-
suit of the federal connection was intensified by creation of a Washington office in 1945.

Divisional dissatisfaction resurfaced after the war when the Association of College and Research Libraries made forceful demands for more autonomy and improved financial support. By 1948, many in ALA were res­
tive over Milam's long tenure and sometimes autocratic leadership. Milam's exit was undoubtedly influenced by a committee report, which criticized the association's centralized approach and lax financial man­
agement.

With varying degrees of courage, ALA faced threats emanating from the virulent anti-intellectualism of the McCarthy era. Loyalty oaths, book labeling, and censorship of library materials in overseas libraries were condemned. In 1953, the eloquent Freedom to Read Statement was adopted, an expression that still guides the association's commitment to intellectual freedom.

Following a decade of struggle, federal aid to libraries became a reality with pas­sage of the Library Services Act in 1956. A cascade of federal library programs, all endorsed by ALA, were soon to come. Fur­ther democratization of the association was recommended by a management consulting firm in 1955. More divisions were created, and the Council assumed more policy­
making prerogatives.

The leadership was clearly uncomfortable about the calls for an organizational re­sponse to the wrenching national debate on human rights during the 1960s. When a 1963 report, Access to Public Libraries, concluded that direct discrimination was found in sixteen southern states and that indi­rect discrimination was prevalent throughout the country, many northerners were outraged.

By 1968 younger members began a sus­tained assault on what they viewed as ALA's cumbersome bureaucracy, elitism, and insensitivity to social issues. Once more committees were appointed, and modest gains were achieved in making the associa­tion more responsive. Perhaps the greatest legacy of this period was an enhanced com­mitment to the principle of intellectual freedom.

Clearly, the first hundred years have been a fascinating odyssey. Enduring achievements may be claimed in the areas of standards, education, intellectual free­
dom, legislation, and publishing. Still await­ing resolution is the pervasive fragmentation that militates against a shared vision.

In passing judgment on the merits of Thomison's volume, one must differentiate the objective of history to educate from the objective to achieve an authentic recon­struction. The writing is felicitous, at times moving, and the conclusions generally sound. Apart from the limitations of over­reliance on secondary sources and question­able omissions, such as a contextual discus­sion of the professionalization of American society, librarians should profit from reading this study.

One can readily agree with Edward Hol­ley's prefatory comment that Thomison has identified the persistent issues and thus made it easier to avoid roasting the same chestnuts again.

When evaluated as a work of scholarship, some disquieting observations must be noted. Conceptual acuity is sometimes ab­sent. For example, the author fails to explo­re the early period as a clash between elitists and advocates of the diffusion of knowledge. More than two dozen misspellings and factual inaccuracies have been iden­tified. The names of ALA presidents Linda Eastman and Frances Spain are incorrectly rendered in several places; Frank Hill is re­ferred to as Frederick; the title of the Williamson report of 1923 is inaccurately transcribed; and the American Expeditionary Force is wrongly named the Allied Expeditionary Force. More substantive errors, such as the assertion that ALA first endor­sed federal library legislation in 1930 (it was 1919), reflect inadequate primary re­search.

Regrettably, the $30 price tag will not stimu­late the broad exposure needed to prevent a reroasting of those chestnuts. A paperback edition is urgently recom­mended.—Arthur P. Young, University of Alabama.

Human beings seem to be divided into two groups: those who recognize the need for something but do nothing about it (except perhaps complain about its lack) and those who, realizing a need, set to work to fill that need. Leslie T. Morton, the editor of this work and formerly librarian of the National Institute for Medical Research, Mill Hill, London, is one of the latter group. (His tale of hiding the shoeboxes containing the cards for “Garrison-Morton” under the dining room table in World War II air raids is characteristic of the man.) Author of books on how to use a medical library and directories of medical libraries, as well as his famous “Garrison-Morton” (medical bibliography), without which no medical librarian could purchase rare books or mount a historical exhibit, he has now come out with a second edition of his Use of Medical Literature, which first appeared in 1974.

The work is a series of articles by specialists in each subject field, written for other specialists or for beginners going into one field from another specialty. As such it has the admirable qualities of authority and pragmatism, but also the poor qualities of unevenness in coverage and style and inevitable gaps and duplication. Most of the chapters are lists of books and journals with a few words explaining the general subject and other descriptions about the individual titles. The second edition follows the lines—and often the texts—of the first edition, but adds historical sections to each of the subject chapters, offers an entirely new chapter on pediatrics, and revises extensively the chapter on mechanization in literature indexes. Indeed, that chapter is perhaps the only one so thoroughly revised—due to the advent of both on-line capabilities in computerized data bases and the growth of the number of such data bases—that it makes a second edition reasonable and logical. Without it, a small supplement to the first edition would probably have sufficed for some time.

American readers will note the British emphasis on works cited and institutions recommended, as is to be expected in such a work; but they will also note the great influence of American efforts in this field. The National Library of Medicine and its publications and data bases are extensively described, and the cost of many services is given in American dollars. Less frequent references to German, French, Italian, or Russian material—to say nothing of non-European works—mirror the natural tendency for English-speaking scientists to stay within their own linguistic capabilities as much as possible. This tendency has, of course, been reinforced by the fact that the overwhelming percentage of scientific literature today appears in the English language.

Altogether this volume points to the much more common personal involvement by British scientists in literature searching and reading than by their American colleagues. The tradition of reading and studying the publications of others is obviously still a British tradition, which might well be accepted more frequently in the United States.

The book is well printed and the binding is what one expects from the Butterworth series Information Sources for Research and Development. The only question has to do with the price of the book. Even with inflation and the sinking of the worth of the American dollar internationally, does this book really merit a price of $24.95? We doubt it.—Estelle Brodman, School of Medicine, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.


The Scandia Plan was organized in the 1950s by Sweden, Norway, and Finland. Its initial purpose was to bring about a more efficient coordination of the acquisition of literature among the Nordic countries. In 1972 a special committee was appointed to coordinate inter-Nordic lending, and the
conference at Oslo in 1977 is one result of its work.

The published proceedings come at a propitious time for United States libraries when a great deal of thought and concern has been expended upon the development and implementation of a national library service policy. The papers are divided into two major sections: interlibrary lending in non-Nordic countries, and interlibrary lending in the Nordic countries. It is unfortunate that the Nordic presentations could not have been translated—one must be content with English-language summaries—but the sections dealing with non-Nordic lending are presented in English and in their entirety.

Maurice Line’s exposition of the British Library Lending Division (BLLD)’s streamlined document delivery pleads the case well for a highly centralized national lending system. In contrast, Jurgen Heydrich’s description of West Germany’s intricate and decentralized lending picture is emphatically not a model to be emulated. User frustration must be widespread in West Germany, as a large percentage of requests are returned unfilled after many months, and bearing a great number of official stamps, mute testimony to the bureaucratic hands through which they have unsuccessfully passed.

Conversely, simplicity, extremely minimal record-keeping, and speed are keynotes of the British system, and although the BLLD charges for its services, the number of requests handled has risen dramatically from 118,000 in 1962 to 2,540,000 in 1976, demonstrating users are not at all reluctant to pay for a reasonable turn-around time.

While the avowed purpose of the conference was to set goals for interlibrary lending and planning among Nordic countries, two themes recur that transcend regional concerns. First is the need for each country to develop a strong, centralized national bibliographic system, buttressed with adequate and reliable financial support. Second, the concept of universal availability of publications, already acknowledged by the International Federation of Library Associations and by UNESCO, must be recognized and understood.

As Line points out, universal bibliographic control made possible by computer technology will avail us little if the documents to which they refer are not readily accessible. When, and only when, the concept of availability has been accepted and a concrete plan developed for its fulfillment at the national level, can a truly effective international interlibrary lending structure be postulated.

For librarians interested in expanding, promoting, and strengthening international interlibrary lending, careful study of the Oslo document is indispensable to an assessment of the present state of the art, and the editors are to be commended for this contribution to the literature.—Alice Weaver, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio.


This readable description of computer-output microfilm (COM) is a must for libraries or other groups considering COM usage. The coverage of COM hardware and software is outstanding. The considerations involved in output selection, COM display equipment, and retrieval coding and indexing are discussed in detail.

This report includes a description of the state-of-the-art through January 1978. Limitations as listed by the author include (1) libraries as users not owners of COM recorders, (2) mention of representative equipment, and (3) an appendix that lists COM recorders available in the United States. These are not seen as limitations of this volume by this reviewer. Libraries currently need a broad introduction to COM hardware and software. Specifics in COM hardware will change with improvements in the technology.

This volume includes an excellent glossary of COM terms that librarians and others need to know and understand. There are pictures showing various types of hardware. The appendix includes a formula for determining monthly COM costs, a list of companies specializing in the production of COM catalogs for libraries, and a selected bibliography.
The volume is extremely well done in what it does include. However, the title implies that this volume will discuss COM applications to library activities. Several library applications are alluded to in this volume, but none are handled in depth. This lack does not overshadow the importance of the hardware and software of the COM process to libraries.

Most library COM activities will probably be handled by a service bureau. But librarians have to deal with the service bureaus and with the computing staff developing the software. The volume is a needed tool for the librarian contemplating COM applications.

The value of this volume to COM users outside the library field should not be overlooked. All COM users need to have a general understanding of the technical side of the process.

This type of publication would have been a very useful tool for those who pioneered COM applications in libraries. Librarians currently anticipating the use of COM should refer to it. The volume is a needed tool for the librarian contemplating COM applications.

The lectures are approximately equally divided between subject and non-subject cataloging. The work of several other authors is criticized in a very thoughtful fashion (the reader should find these criticisms quite useful), but the basis for selection of the works criticized seems idiosyncratic.

The thoughts and ideas presented in this work are valuable and will reward the reader who has the patience to work through them. It would be a service to the profession if the author would undertake to re-present his ideas in a form more suited to those who need to hear them.—Jessica L. Harris, St. John’s University, New York, New York.


Other than the fact that they are both committed to the concept of multimedia library service, these two books really have very little in common. Nadler’s book is a collection of essays (each by a different author) intended to help launch a public library audiovisual program. The choice of audiovisual in the title is deliberate; this is a book about how to add nonprint services to an already functioning print collection. The Cabeceiras book, on the other hand, is a systematic treatment by one author of the characteristics and utilization of various forms of media in a generalized library setting; this author uses the umbrella term multimedia to emphasize the fact that he is dealing with library programs where print and nonprint resources exist as coequals.


This set of six lectures is a heavily philosophically oriented disquisition on the significance of order in bibliographic files. The fundamental thesis is that, for searching to be successful, the searcher must be able to predict the location of an item in a file, requiring that the file be designed with this need in mind. The work is limited to alphabetically ordered files.

The subject matter of these lectures is extremely important. One wishes that all those responsible for file arrangement understood and applied the points the author is making. Unfortunately, the practical cataloger and head of cataloging who stand most in need of the points elucidated are unlikely to wade through the rather abstruse philosophical arguments. Furthermore, having done so, they will find little practical assistance; only readers who are prepared to apply philosophical abstractions for themselves will be able to profit.

The perusal of the contents will, of course, be limited by the changing technology in the COM area. Certain capabilities of COM service bureaus are not mentioned, since their development and availability have occurred in the last few months. Because the whole area of computer usage and COM applications by libraries is changing rapidly, more books of this type are needed.—Helen R. Citron, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta.
Myra Nadler, former chairperson of the PLA Audiovisual Committee, has some well-known names in public library audiovisual work as her contributors. The first section, by Helen W. Cyr, gallops through the selection, evaluation, and organization of a basic audiovisual collection—all in twenty-four pages. The second essay is a lengthy recapitulation by Leon Drolet of audiovisual hardware, complete with makers’ names, model numbers, and prices. The information is highly pragmatic and useful—for the moment. Unfortunately, such data become obsolete very quickly, and the advisability of including them in a permanent volume seems questionable.

Following this, William Sloan considers services related to audiovisual materials. He singles out reference and advisory service, bibliographic aid, outreach activities, and the emerging concept of the media study center. The fourth chapter, by Patricia del Mar, deals with space and facilities requirements. Her primary concern is the avoidance of what Don Roberts has called “technocensorship,” or the impairment of effective audiovisual programs by below-standard production and utilization facilities.

In chapter 5 Laura Murray looks at basic personnel requirements for audiovisual services and includes a brief job analysis for professional, clerical, technical, and library page levels. Masha Porte has the last essay and uses it to set forth some suggestions for developing an effective public relations program. Many of her ideas relate equally well to either print or nonprint services. Definitions and a glossary of terms, contributed by Wesley Doak, round out this slim volume. Glossaries are useful, but one wonders how the inclusion of such terms as accredited library school will enable a novice audiovisual librarian to build a better media program.

While the Nadler book is clearly intended as a pragmatic beginner’s manual, the Cabeceiras book seems designed primarily for use as a textbook in classes on library materials selection. The bulk of it (chapters 5–14) is devoted to specific kinds of materials: periodicals and pamphlets, microforms, 16mm films, 8mm films, filmstrips and slides, audio recordings, television, globes/maps/games/realia, programmed instruction, and books. Other chapters deal with selection aids, the learning center concept, local preparation of materials, criteria for equipment selection, and the application of the systems approach to materials selection. The entire book, in fact, reflects the systems orientation.

If this book is compared to one of the standard texts on materials selection, Building Library Collections, by Carter, Bonk, and Magrill (Scarecrow, 1974, 4th ed.), some interesting contrasts emerge. The older book is print-oriented, devoting only one chapter to the selection of audiovisual materials; the Cabeceiras book leans heavily towards nonprint items and changes the balance by disposing of the evaluation of fiction, nonfiction, textbooks, and children’s books (plus the use and nature of book reviews) in one solitary chapter.

Topics such as developing a philosophy of selection, the purpose and contents of selection policies, the importance of community analysis, and how to recognize and deal with censorship are dealt with in some detail by Carter, Bonk, and Magrill; Cabeceiras mentions them, but only summarily. For example, on page 205 the librarian is admonished to “know the community,” but no suggestions or techniques for acquiring this knowledge are provided. And some topics that one might have expected to find included (the publishing industry, the producer/distributor network) do not appear at all.

All this is not to say that the book is without merit. To the contrary: it has much to commend it. The writing style is clear and consistent; while greater elucidation of some points seems advisable, what is included is presented coherently. The stress on the characteristics and utilization of different forms of media reflects more of an instructional technology orientation than a library one, but this is not unappealing.

The author seems quite fond of charts and grids for the evaluation of materials. The effort to systematize the act of evaluation is certainly commendable; yet one wonders just how successfully the impact or value of a work of the imagination may be conveyed through quantifiable data and the rather rigid fiction-evaluation form suggested on page 214. In short, this title should not be
used alone as a textbook for materials selection classes, as too much is omitted or dealt with in summary fashion; used in conjunction with other materials, however, it could be a valuable contribution to the literature of library materials selection.—Cathleen C. Flanagan, University of Utah, Salt Lake City.


Is a "college" library a unique combination of resources and services, or is it like any other library of similar size forming part of an educational institution? The question is not posed by the authors of the nine essays in this volume, but the libraries they describe do belong to a special class. They are libraries in colleges of higher education, polytechnics, and junior colleges mainly in Great Britain.

Their closest counterparts on this continent are to be found in our community colleges and junior colleges. Most of these institutions offer a wide variety of programs to a heavy concentration of students who are served by a library of core materials, which usually contains a high proportion of audiovisual material in relation to its holdings of the more conventional book stock.

Although the essays contain many references to the North American situation, and the last essay is by a member of the staff of a Canadian university library who discusses the cooperative programs made possible by automation—OCLC, BALLOTS, UTLAS, among others—most pages are devoted to the growth of the college library in Britain during the past two decades.

There is a long essay on the history of the college library and others on financing, organizing, and staffing and on the services and training such libraries provide. The most interesting essays for the North American reader are those devoted to organizational structure and to staffing. Many of the problems defined have a familiar ring, and the solutions, though seldom new, are refreshingly stated.

The essays are consistent and well written, and the emphasis on the British scene should present no serious problem for most North American readers. There is one annoying feature: the rather too generous use of acronyms in some essays, which requires frequent scurrying to the list in the front of the book in order to identify the organization or group being discussed. The problem is doubtless greater for the North American reader, since many of the organizations are British and Australian and not commonly referred to in our library literature.

The book is essentially factual and descriptive and does not invite much argument. Each essay is well documented and provides a useful bibliography that the editors have conveniently left at the end of each section. The work is carefully edited, only a few minor typographical errors having been missed.

In spite of its positive features, the book is not likely to command a wide readership in North America. It is mainly useful for the student of recent library history or of comparative librarianship and for the beginning librarian in a community or junior college.

—Dorothy F. Thomson, University of Ottawa.


Mary Larsgaard's *Map Librarianship* is the first, and long awaited, North American textbook on map librarianship. Its predecessor as the first textbook on the subject is Nichols' *Map Librarianship*, reviewed in the January 1977 C&RL. The Nichols volume has a strong English bias and, therefore, more limited applications in the North American context.

This new book is constructed in an unusual but very practical manner. It is basically a massive review of the literature, with footnote references in the form of author and date appearing directly after a statement. For knowledgeable map librarians, this means that the sources selected as the basis for the theory or analysis of a topic are immediately apparent. For novices they
lead easily to more detailed literature in the field.

This review of theories in the field does not stand alone but is coupled with a clear and incisive commentary from the author, in most cases directing readers to the most practical approach to take in applying the theories to their own map collections. North Americans in the field of map librarianship sometimes refrain from recommending one method over another in their articles to the detriment of students and beginning map librarians. It is to the credit of this author that she does take a stand in most cases and reveals a very sane and intelligent grasp of the possibilities, impossibilities, and potentialities of operating map collections today.

The book follows a fairly standard pattern of arrangement: A chapter on selection and acquisition is followed by two chapters on classification and cataloging, a chapter on storage and preservation, one on public relations and reference services, a chapter on administration and planning of facilities, and finally an overview. The book concludes with fifteen appendixes covering a variety of topics and the bibliography.

The chapter on selection is somewhat uneven, ranging rather too generally over the theoretical problems vis-à-vis policy, basic map purchases, atlases, globes, and aerial photos, with all examples geared to an American setting. She does however make the point very clearly that selection and acquisition are probably still the most difficult tasks in running the map library because of lack of bibliographic control, the dispersed nature of the sources, the exclusion of maps from central handling by government agencies, and security controls. These problems can never be pointed out too frequently to the beginning map librarian.

From the point of view of an instructor in map librarianship, the chapters on cataloging and classification are invaluable, as they provide excellent summaries of manual and computer map cataloging systems as well as the various theories in the field, including the conflict over main entry. The timing of this summary is particularly pertinent, and the author emphasizes that standardization, through use of MARC-Map formats, ISBD (CM), LC Class G, probably AACR II, and cooperative cataloging, is the only real direction to move in map cataloging to save time and money. As she queries: Is a briefer system really so inexpensive if it has to be done all over again in a few years' time?

The section on reference service perhaps stresses public relations, orientation, and user studies more than actual reference work; all are areas that have been overlooked until recently, particularly reference work. It is not surprising then that this chapter is one of the shorter in the book; but considering that neither Nichols' Map Librarianship nor any other overview of the field has included the topic in a separate section, it has been very well covered here.

The chapter on storage and preservation covers most topics, from sources of paper deterioration and repair methods to map drawers and storage modes for wall maps, plastic relief maps, etc. Since this is the topic most covered in the existing literature, it might have been useful if the author had a special section on practical repair and handling in a small library, i.e., minimum standards.

The administration chapter begins with a section on planning space layout, which, as the author points out, is affected by major concepts about the library, such as goals, parent organization, and funding. She devotes a section to the presentation of a budget, which has scarcely been covered before in the literature, and she discusses the question of loans and photocopying in the light of the new U.S. copyright law. The final part of this chapter is a series of useful hints on moving the library.

Not all the appendixes are as successful as they first appear. The sample acquisition policy is not really detailed enough, while the basic list of world atlases omits a major new atlas: Rand McNally's The International Atlas (2d ed., Chicago, 1976). The source lists are generally useful, as is the glossary of map terms. The bibliography is arranged alphabetically because of the referencing method and is very large and quite adequate for further research.

The author's style is relaxed and in many places amusing and/or flip, depending on one's point of view. To experienced map librarians, many of her jokes are almost apoc-
ryphal and help to emphasize the problems.
This text should supersede many of the earlier (and poorer) articles in the field and should be basic reading, for some time, for North American map librarians, whether experienced or beginners, and for nonmap librarians who want to know what is happening in the field.—Joan Winears, University of Toronto.


The ALA program in Detroit two summers ago attempted an ambitious departure from the usual Annual Conference format: an all-day, plenary, think/talk session devoted to an examination of some major problems librarians face in the emerging "post-industrial society."

Five major speakers followed in the wake of a keynote address by Norman Isaacs, a communications specialist from Columbia's Graduate School of Journalism (who harangued the gathering on those shortcomings of librarians—negativism, arrogance, self-serving behavior, absurd bureaucratic routines—he presumed must stand in the way of libraries becoming "working community centers," a function he saw as their higher calling).

OCLC director Fred Kilgour briefly reviewed past applications of technology to libraries, Chiefly in cataloging, and invited participants to speculate on the fountain of beneficial effects about to shower forth as computer technology moved librarianship into "another of its great ages."

New York State Senator Major Owens lambasted librarians for failing to respond positively to social change during the past twenty years and, with the White House Conference in mind, called for greater participation by librarians in the government's policy-making procedures in order to overcome public indifference.

Thomas Buckman, president of the Foundation Center, treated information as a commodity and discussed the economic implications posed by new technology; Gerald Shields of the School of Information and Library Studies, SUNY Buffalo, invited analysis of the new role of librarians resulting from that technology; and Fay Blake of the School of Library Science, University of California at Berkeley, warned that public access to information must be determined, not by technology, but by librarians with a clear notion of their patrons' need.

Following each address, the audience of some 1,500 participants broke up into small group discussions and proceeded to kick around these and other topics. It was, as one participant said, "the world's largest reactor panel."

It is chiefly as a record of the event that publication of conference proceedings must be judged, and as a record this one is intelligently designed, well edited, and thorough. Feedback from the discussion groups is summarized and presented along with the texts of principal speeches; the editor's inclusion of reviews of literature prepared as handouts for the discussion sessions—and in some instances the review essays were more stimulating than the formal addresses themselves—gives the volume some claim to utility.

Predictably, although some of the fundamental concerns are shared by academic librarians (especially the identity crisis of the professional librarian caught up in a changing economic and technological environment), the public library context of the session, as well as its necessarily superficial and hortatory treatment of issues, made it—and makes its tardy report—of only incidental interest to the vast majority of readers of this journal.—W. A. Moffett, State University of New York, College at Potsdam.


This book provides an in-depth presentation of all aspects of establishing staff development and continuing education pro-
grams. The material is divided into three major areas: planning, implementation, and evaluation. Within these broad areas, specific and detailed information is provided.

Part I covers planning and addresses the topics of determining needs, developing program objectives, identifying resources, and designing a program. Part II deals with program implementation and includes material on determining administrative responsibilities, the selection of educational staff, the involvement of learners in an adult education environment, and the provision of facilities, equipment, and materials. Part III is focused entirely on the important area of program evaluation and contains information on the design of evaluation tools and the collecting, analyzing, and utilizing of evaluative information.

The differences between staff development and continuing education are established in the introduction. Conroy describes staff development as the "effort intended to strengthen the library's capability to fulfill its mission effectively and efficiently by encouraging and providing for the growth of its own human resources." The responsibility for initiating learning opportunities within a staff development program rests with the employing library. Continuing education is described as "those learning opportunities utilized by individuals in fulfilling their need to learn and grow following their preparatory education and work experiences." These programs are produced by library associations, state library agencies, and graduate library schools.

A number of sample forms are presented to illustrate a specific procedure or methodology, and examples of specific staff development and continuing education programs are also presented. A wealth of reference resources are also provided on each topic covered.

The organization and the scope of the material combine to make this a useful resource tool for those with responsibilities in staff development and continuing education. This book can serve as a manual in directing libraries and library associations and schools in formulating their own needs, approaches, methods, and activities within the areas of staff development and continuing education. Because of the author's detailed approach and her emphasis on planning, Conroy's book should stimulate a more thoughtful consideration of the role that staff development and continuing education play in maintaining and advancing library service. It should also encourage librarians to approach both areas in a more systematic and organized manner.

While the book contains an overwhelming amount of jargon and detail and could have profited from greater brevity in places, it does offer a sound basis for approaching staff development and continuing education, as well as considerable information on the particulars of developing, implementing, and evaluating such programs. This should be required reading for library staff with responsibilities in either of these areas. It would be advantageous if all library staff could read this in order to gain a better understanding of the effort that is required.
to present quality programs, as well as the responsibility of participants in such programs.—Sheila Greth, University of Connecticut, Storrs.


Librarians familiar with the works of C. V. Penna will find that this volume is an elaboration and expansion of his theories and earlier works on planning library services for underdeveloped nations. In this handbook, in collaboration with P. H. Sewell, formerly senior library advisor in the Department of Education and Science in Great Britain, and D. J. Foskett, librarian of the University of London Institute of Education, Penna makes a case for "conscious and systematic" planning of national library and information systems at the highest government level.

The authors propose, furthermore, that effective and efficient systems can only be developed if planned within the nation's social and economic structure and submit that these systems are successful only if managerial control is similar to that used in large-scale industry.

Librarians, interestingly enough, are not the target audience for this book. The authors state that, in their treatment of this topic, they have deliberately catered to the "political, educational and administrative authorities who, in many cases, have had to assume responsibility for LIS planning with very little information or precedent to guide them." They hasten to add, however, that they recognize that library professionals have been trained by many library schools in the principles and techniques of planning but unfortunately have had few occasions to use their expertise.

The authors have likewise been careful to point out that centralized planning is more apt to take place in countries such as the USSR where centrally planned economies are the norm, rather than in countries such as the United States and western Europe where national libraries and information centers have developed in a decentralized and more happenstance fashion.

Although extremely informative, the scope and content of the handbook are so broad that coverage of each topic is uneven. At times it appears that the authors cannot decide whether they are writing a textbook or a handbook and end up doing a little bit of both. Educators can find a list of topics useful for teaching a course in planning library information systems; others will find this a compact guidebook.

Two-thirds of the book deals with methodology, principles, and techniques of planning; the preparation of plans and matrices; policy making; the relationship between formulation of policy and financial control; and the relationship of library and information systems to other government agencies. The authors touch upon problems unique to underdeveloped nations such as lack of publishing houses, use and maintenance of nonbook materials, accountability, and difficulties of forecasting manpower needs and supply.

Only the last chapter of the book deals with implementation and hastily covers such topics as staffing; acquisitions and selection policies and procedures; cataloging and bibliographic control; the variety of classification schemes that lend themselves to systematic arrangement of an information system; abstracting and indexing; thesauri; and use of automatic data processing.

It is unfortunate that, although the authors appear to have used an extensive amount of documentation in collecting data for this volume, they chose to limit their bibliography to a few selected items. In spite of its limitations, the handbook is a worthwhile addition to library collections.—Sylvia G. Faibisoff, Northern Illinois University, De Kalb.

The need for expanded subject access to books has long been neglected in practice but not in the literature. Atherton concludes *Books Are for Use* with a quotation from Thoreau: "The book is the most treasured wealth of the world." This quote, she reminds us, is included in the mosaic decoration of the Library of Congress, and she asks: "Are we the bankers and brokers of that wealth or are we the misers?" We have been, and are, the misers.

On-line data bases have expanded the access to journal articles and similar materials. These data bases, however, rarely include expanded access to books. And books, however media-minded and journal-oriented we may have become, are still the core of our collections, account for a very large part of the expenditure of our resources, and are underused due to the limited access to their contents that is provided by the traditional catalog record.

The Subject Access Project added from thirty to thirty-five subject descriptors, derived from the contents and index terms and phrases in the book, to 1,979 MARC records, thus constructing the BOOKS data base. A number of free text-searching tests were then conducted. During these controlled search tests, the regular MARC data base retrieved 56 and the BOOKS data base retrieved 130 relevant items. BOOKS searches resulted in fewer non-relevant items; the average precision of MARC searches was 35 percent and of BOOKS searches 46 percent. The average MARC search took eight minutes; the average BOOKS search took four minutes. And BOOKS provided access to some items that a MARC search would never have revealed.

The project successfully demonstrated that suitable information to augment the traditional record is already available in a high percentage of the books we catalog. The terms and phrases selected from contents pages and indexes did produce a useful, if not the most useful, vocabulary for on-line searching. The cost of selecting and inputting these additional descriptors is not prohibitive, nor is the cost of storage and retrieval. And, finally, the augmented records did provide greater, more specific, and faster access to the books in the data base.

Again the need for expanded subject access has been demonstrated and significant research toward a viable means of expanded access completed. But who is going to follow it through? Atherton suggests "that some effort needs to be launched by a responsible organization if we are ever going to get off the dead center of poor subject access . . . . Either the Library of Congress, the National Library of Canada, the National Federation of Abstracting and Indexing Services, or the American Association of Publishers needs to review the present scene and begin to work towards improvements" (p.87–88).

Will *Books Are for Use* become another lost work, through poor subject access, on the dire need for expanded subject access? Will the responsible organization please stand up?—Joan K. Marshall, Brooklyn College.


Continuing his record of scholarship and writing in his inimitable style, Morehead has refined and updated the excellent first edition. The purpose of the work remains the same: "To set forth an introductory account of public documents, their locus, diffusion, habitation and use . . . for library school students, professional librarians and the general user of government publications."

The new edition covers the following major categories: Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, depository library system, nondepository publications, selected general guides to federal publications, legislative branch materials, publications of the presidency, department and agency publications, publications of the judiciary, documents of independent and regulatory agencies, and reports of advisory committees and commissions. In addition, two appendixes cover special problems in documents librarianship and abbreviations,
acronyms, citations, and popular names used in the text. There are personal author, selected title/series, and subject indexes.

An improvement in the second edition is the elimination of the chapter on clerical procedures and record keeping, the details of which appeared out of place in the first edition. A discussion of technical reports, an important part of the literature with which all librarians must grapple, has been added to the work. Other new information includes GPO micropublishing, on-line retrieval systems, and changes in the Monthly Catalog since 1976.

In changing the concept for the chapter on department and agency publications in the second edition to emphasize categories of publications rather than individual publications, some sense of the wide diversity of departments and agencies and their publications, apparent in the first edition, has been lost. Departmental and agency publications comprise a large segment of the total output of the federal government, and some agencies have published significant titles over a long period of time, e.g., Occupational Outlook Handbook of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and Uniform Crime Reports of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. For the latter overview, the first edition is still valid, but one must keep in mind that all units of government are subject to constant reorganization, and publications begin, change titles, and fade with regularity.

Appendix A, entitled "Special Problems in Documents Librarianship," identifies them as mapping and charting, census bureau information, computer-based bibliographic services, federal audiovisual information, and microforms. These may be problem areas to some librarians, but they are sources important to all librarians and might have merited chapter status.

This work is of especial value to library school students who can use it as a basic introductory text to United States government publications. General reference librarians will find the work a useful current reference tool. It is also a readable text for users of government publications in general.

Morehead's style is envied by some and criticized by others. And while those to whom the English language is not a primary language may have some difficulty with sentences like "No theme, however fey, antic, arcane or ostensibly in apposite, remains far from the omniverous curiosity of government" (p.131), his style adds a light touch to the otherwise serious business of understanding and servicing federal government publications.


This book is a revision of U.S. Federal Official Publications: A Foreign Viewpoint issued by the University of Sussex Library [Great Britain] in 1975. Downey's book is divided into two sections; the first describes the intricacies of bibliographic control and acquisition of federal publications and discusses many government and commercially produced reference sources. The second section lists the major legislative, executive, judicial, and independent agencies, with a brief history of the unit and description of publications, especially those relevant to librarians and researchers outside the United States. The second section comprises three-quarters of the book.

The information included in the first section is accurate and current, though much of it is gathered from numerous articles and monographs published in recent years. In some ways the first section parallels the early chapters of Morehead's Introduction to United States Public Documents (Libraries Unlimited, 1975; 2d ed., 1978), but Downey does not attempt to cover the Superintendent of Documents classification system, the administration of government...
documents collections, or the depository library system. However, Downey is perhaps a bit more comprehensive in his treatment of reference sources, the problem of non-GPO government publications, and the OP market.

The entries for each issuing agency in the second section, with the exceptions of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Commerce; and State, are very brief. The forty-page chapter on the Agency for International Development is a fine analysis of its publications. My primary criticism of this second section is that it merely includes a random group of federal publications that might be of interest to foreigners. This is basically the same criticism I have of Morehead's book. Downey does not provide a systematic or well-organized list; individual titles may be noted while some basic reference works from these agencies are omitted, making it very difficult to believe such a listing is of much value to anyone with more than a cursory interest in the publications of the federal government.

It is extremely difficult to be comprehensive in listing government publications that would appeal to an international audience, but haphazard attempts do not seem the best method to follow. Given that I question the methodology employed, it should be pointed out nevertheless that Morehead's treatment of congressional and judicial materials is more comprehensive than Downey's, though when it comes to the executive agencies it is a tossup between the two books.

Government publications librarians who have access to works by Morehead, Schwartzkopf, O'Hara, and others will generally find little in this book to justify its exorbitant price.—Alan Edward Schorr, University of Alaska, Juneau.


Librarians are far from embracing empirical research methods and statistical techniques as core elements of their professional
competence, even though these approaches present significant potential for establishing and expanding their knowledge base and for solving ordinary operational problems. Now demands for accountability in publicly funded programs, the increasing size and complexity of libraries and networks, and the constantly plummeting costs of computer time suggest that they can no longer afford to ignore them.

On the face of it, a book setting forth the use of statistics that takes into account the limitations and interests of librarians is clearly warranted. For this reason, Carpenter and Vasu should be thanked for writing their book, and ALA should be applauded for publishing it and, therefore, indicating the importance of the subject to the profession. Unfortunately, though the book ably discusses many of the basics of statistics, there are many reasons for considering this an unfinished work that could have been substantially better.

By “introductory” statistics textbook standards, the present volume is slender, and as a result of the book’s length, several important topics are discussed incompletely or not at all. For example, while two of the five chapters are devoted entirely to sampling and regression, there is hardly any mention of probability or the concept of statistical independence. Library research projects are unlikely to generate data satisfying the requirements of a valid regression model, and it would therefore have been helpful to have included material regarding control variables and other refinements of tabular analysis. From the standpoint of their utility to evaluation studies, a discussion of experimental design and analysis of variance would also have been desirable.

The illustrative material could have been more provocative; the many competent and interesting studies in the professional literature might have been drawn upon for this purpose or at least mentioned in a bibliography. Working through the sparse selection of exercise problems is unlikely to inspire confidence in the reader that the material has been mastered.

Given these drawbacks, the instructor or student may wish to consider alternate texts. A comparable work by Srikantaiah and Hoffman (C&RL, March 1978) picks up more material on research design and methodological questions, gives more exercises and a detailed bibliography, but has a poorer glossary of terms, less material regarding tabular analysis and measures of association. Until revisions to either or both of these volumes are made, it may unfortunately be better to rely on such general-purpose books as Kerlinger’s Foundations of Behavioral Research (Holt, Rinehart, 1973) or A Basic Course in Statistics by Anderson and Zelditch (same publisher, 1975), which was written with the specific intention of attracting the student “frightened of mathematics.”—Timothy D. Jewell, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio.


This new revised edition of Banned Books is an important and vital title in the field of intellectual freedom. As with the three previous editions, there is no pretense to exhaustiveness. The third edition contained a chronological list of books, banned from 387 B.C. into the 1960s; this edition, the fourth, has been expanded by about 60 new entries and now covers more than 300 books that have been censored, from 387 B.C. to the present. The format and content of this edition follow that of the earlier ones. It is a handbook, a quick reference work that shows censorship trends through the years, and it covers most of the famous episodes in our history of censorship.

Among the titles are classics and contemporary publications, including Homer’s The Odyssey, Dante’s The Divine Comedy, Shakespeare’s King Lear, Twain’s The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, Confort’s The Joy of Sex, The American Heritage Dictionary, and others. None of the books named are banned, at present, in the United States.

This edition, in Appendix 1, as did the third, covers “Trends in Censorship,” with discussion of the political and religious control of books, overseas libraries, library cen-
sorship, paperbound books, and textbook censorship. Added in this section in the fourth edition are "Government Papers, the CIA, Official Materials," and "Censorship in 'A Good Cause.'"

Appendix 2 covers statements on freedom of the press from John Milton's Areopagitica, from Thomas Jefferson's writings, from John Stuart Mill's On Liberty, from amendments to the Constitution of the United States, from the Library Bill of Rights, from Eisenhower's letter on intellectual freedom, and from the Freedom to Read Statement.

Appendix 3 contains "Excerpts from Important Court Decisions." Appendix 4 is an added feature and includes excerpts from the 1970 U.S. government document, "The Report of the Commission on Obscenity and Pornography." Appendix 5 is a selection of federal statutes and customs and postal regulations relating to matters of censorship. The "Selected Readings and References" at the end of the volume will serve as guides to further reading and study for persons who wish to do additional study in the field of intellectual freedom and censorship.

The informative, witty, and challenging essay written by Attorney Charles Rembar, which appears after the preface in this edition of Banned Books, gives an entertaining picture of censorship and law in America. This lawyer who successfully defended Lawrence's Lady Chatterley's Lover, Cleland's Fanny Hill, and Miller's Tropic of Cancer describes (among other topics) landmark obscenity cases and discusses the safeguards of the first amendment.

Banned Books is a valuable source of information for educators, librarians, students, writers, publishers, and for all people who are interested in preserving our First Amendment freedoms.—Martha Boaz, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.


This conference had as its focus problems of implementation and provisions of the new copyright law. As editor White points out in the preface, it was hoped that the conference would provide the environment for "... the development of a solution through intensive debate[,] and compromise could indeed result in a rational outcome... . The proceedings that follow indicate quite clearly that this assumption was highly premature." For those who have participated in or followed the copyright saga and have been aware of the tensions between librarians and copyright proprietors in recent years, that statement comes as no surprise.

The conference planners put together a panel of distinguished representatives for the various viewpoints, providing a balanced program of representatives from government, publishers, authors, information services, as well as various types of library interests. The conference began with a historical overview of copyright legislation, presented by Professor Maurice Holland of the Indiana University School of Law.

Government representatives included Thomas Brennan, chief counsel of the Senate Subcommittee on Patents, Trademarks, and Copyright; Jon Baumgarten, general counsel of the Copyright Office at the Library of Congress; and Robert Frase, assistant executive director of the Commission on New Technological Uses of Copyrighted Works (CONTU). Also participating was Lee Burchinal, director of the National Science Foundation's Division of Science Information.

Representatives of the copyright proprietor community included Irwin Karp, counsel for the Authors League of America; Bella Linden, senior partner in the law firm of Linden and Deutsch, which has as its clients a number of major American publishers; William Koch, director of publications for the American Institute of Physics; and Paul Zurkowski, president of the Information Industry Association.

Representing the library community were Robert Wedgeworth, executive director of the American Library Association; Richard de Gennaro, former president of the Association of Research Libraries and director of the University of Pennsylvania Library; Efren Gonzalez, past president and member of the copyright committee of the Special Libraries Association; and Alphonse Trezza, executive director of the National Commis-
sion on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS). In addition, a stimulating and provocative after-dinner talk on the subject “Intellectual Property and Intellectual Freedom” was given by Robert O’Neill, vice-president of Indiana University and senior official of the Bloomington campus.

The format consisted of formal presentations by each speaker, discussion and interchange among presenters, and interaction with members of the audience. The volume faithfully records all, which makes for interesting reading, if not always explicit clarification by presenters of questions raised by conference attendees. Without doubt, the proceedings make a worthwhile contribution to an understanding of the various and diverse conflicting viewpoints and, equally important, point to the continuing difficulties in resolving them.

Having attended the conference, I was pleasantly surprised to find a reading of the proceedings to be as timely now as in April of 1977, with many of the unanswered questions still unanswered, and most of the adherents to a specific point of view still adhering, tenaciously. Of particular interest to librarians are the comments of the representatives of library interests, which are solid and well articulated. This volume is one of the better efforts in the plethora of publications purporting to explicate this complex subject.—Nancy H. Marshall, University of Wisconsin—Madison.


The contents of this book first appeared in the April and June 1977 issues of the Bulletin of the Copyright Society of the U.S.A. Seltzer’s work is a major contribution to the copyright literature, and the publication of the text, with the addition of appropriate appendices, in hardbound book form is welcome.

As director of Stanford University Press and a member of the California bar, Seltzer’s perspective on copyright is one deserving of attention from academic librarians. Seltzer is concerned not with the heated and narrow arguments among librarians, publishers, and authors that have surrounded the emergence of the Copyright Act of 1976, but rather with analyzing the constitutional and theoretical foundations of copyright and with formulating an intellectually sound framework for “the continuing public policy debate on the proper limits of copyright protection.”

Although the Constitution gives Congress the power to grant an author the “exclusive right” to the use of his or her work, the purpose of that right is to benefit society, and the right, which is intended to function as an economic incentive, is modified by two restrictions. One is that of exemptions from copyright control made by Congress to accommodate competing interests. The other is the reading public’s implied right to use copyrighted materials in certain ways without permission, a right that has come to be known as “fair use.”

It is the tensions generated by this scheme that are the focus of Seltzer’s book. Seltzer examines the possible impact of the 1976 Copyright Act on the workings of copyright in the U.S., especially on the areas of exempted use and fair use, and concludes that the new law does nothing to resolve the old problems in these areas and has furthermore introduced troublesome new problems.

The first chapter is a lucid, solid, gracefully written presentation of the meaning of the constitutional copyright clause. Seltzer includes a particularly helpful diagrammatic portrayal of the different concepts involved in the copyright scheme, their economic position, and how they overlap. Later sections of the book thoughtfully and knowledgeably examine the library photocopying question, in the context of the concepts Seltzer has developed.

Seltzer’s cogent, original thinking and careful writing shed light in an area suffused mostly by heat in the past few years. Exemptions and Fair Use in Copyright is strongly recommended for academic libraries and librarians. Although readers unfamiliar with legal concepts and terminology may find parts of this volume somewhat difficult reading, it is well worth the intellectual effort.—Madeleine Cohen Oakley, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

This review of 200 research collections from 40 publishers should prove very useful to research libraries, both as a selection tool and as a guide to the contents, organization, and use of specific microform collections held by the library. Selection was made on the basis of general usefulness. Size and complexity, timeliness of subject matter, the availability of reviews, and ownership by many libraries favored inclusion. An attempt was made to achieve a broad coverage of subject areas and to include collections of similar content for the sake of comparison. The editor chose not to evaluate the collections.

Entries are arranged alphabetically by title, listing publisher, date, format, price, and review citations. Under each entry there is a detailed description of arrangement and bibliographic control and a listing of bibliographies, indexes, and other related materials. Scope and content notes were taken primarily from publishers' brochures and statements but sometimes from a review or the bibliography forming the basis of the collection. Those without citation, which presumably were written by the editor, are informative and concise, but the quality of the others varies considerably. Many are verbose; condensation would increase convenience of consultation. It would have been helpful to have the title of the collection under review as a page heading rather than the title of the guide.

The dictionary index gives extensive and excellent page references to all the bibliographic citations from variant titles and names associated with them. Omitting subtitles and other descriptive matter would make it more concise. References from variant titles and added entries are in see reference form to other entries in the index, instead of giving the page in the body of the work. This often results in an unnecessary two-step look up. The same is true for subjects: e.g., "Funnies see Comic books, strips, etc." instead of "Funnies—Canadian, 61" (the only entry under comic books being "—Canadian").

There are also inconsistencies, e.g., "Holland see Dutch literature: Europe—but no entry under Netherlands and none under other European countries referring to Europe. Many subject entries are of an analytic nature. There are references from "Anthropology," "Fisheries," "Mycology," and many other subjects to the U.S. depository government publications. A separate subject index would have permitted rapid overview and spotting of these repetitious analytic entries.

Price information is up to date as of June 1976, while reference to reviews is current to the fall of 1977. Some caution is advised. Dodson lists Documents on Contemporary China, 1949-1975 as ca. 4,000 microfiche, issued in six sections at $5,850. The only indication that the information may be tentative are two sentences: "Each section . . . will have its own bibliography/index. When the collection is complete these sections will be combined into one entity." The same collection, reviewed in Microform Review (v.7, no.2 [March/April 1978]) is quoted at $4,800 for 525 microfiche issued in five sec-
tions. The guide itself is advertised at $35 while Books in Print 1977/78 quotes a price of $17.50. At the latter price it should be in every research library.


Bibliotherapy is “a program of activity based on the interactive processes of the use of print and nonprint materials whether imaginative or informational, facilitated by a librarian or other professional, to achieve insight into normal development or to effect changes in emotionally disturbed behavior,” according to the author.

In Using Bibliotherapy: A Guide to Theory and Practice Rhea Joyce Rubin traces the development of this adjunct therapy in the United States. During a typical session the bibliotherapist presents the material to a group or to an individual, hoping that identification with a remote character and projection leading to catharsis will occur. Essential to the process is discussion on a personal level, an avenue for the client’s insight into the solution of his or her own problems. The differences between bibliotherapy and the newer poetry therapy are enumerated. Both have proved beneficial in hospitals, correctional institutions, educational environments, and community settings.

Success for bibliotherapists seems to depend more on personal qualities such as emotional stability and the ability to relate well with people than on academic back-ground. Professionally, the preferred combination of disciplines includes library science, psychology, and literature, with field service training recommended. Rubin quotes from several sources on each of the above points to demonstrate that the information on bibliotherapy is conflicting and confusing.

In selecting materials for bibliotherapy, the content is more important than the literary quality. The suggested juvenile books and films, arranged and cross-referenced by topic, draw heavily from those of the last five years. An extensive, much-needed bibliography of poems, plays, short stories, films, and books for adults deals with subjects causing problems for them.

In the companion volume, Bibliotherapy Sourcebook, Rubin gathers studies from various sources and disciplines into a book to facilitate research. The section, “Classic Works on Bibliotherapy (1927-1949),” includes selections by William Menninger, Alice I. Bryan, and Caroline Shrodes.

The second part, “The View from Other Disciplines,” shows that bibliotherapy combines with a number of fields. The editor selected writings illustrating how bibliotherapy is linked to psychiatry, education, counseling, occupational therapy, and poetry therapy.

“Bibliotherapy and Library Science,” the third part, begins with two articles that provide an overview of the goals, methods, and limitations of bibliotherapy. Other contributions demonstrate the opportunities for its use in diverse settings.

During the last twenty years, foreign journals have published much on bibliotherapy. The final section, “Foreign Perspectives,” describes such programs in England, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, the USSR, and Sweden, none of which are so sophisticated as those in the United States.

Numerous references at the end of every chapter, plus bibliographies, appendixes, and indexes in both volumes, increase their usefulness. Because they include the works of the best-known authors in the field, these could be used as textbooks for a course on bibliotherapy. They should help to fulfill Margaret E. Monroe’s wish in the foreword
of *Using Bibliotherapy* that they "will lead
the alert, prepared librarian-bibliotherapist
to undertake the research needed to move
bibliotherapy from its status as an activity to
its desired status of an art and a controlled
science."—Sister Alma Marie Walls,
I.H.M., Immaculata College, Immaculata,
Pennsylvania.

Bramley, Gerald. *Outreach: Library Ser­
dvices for the Institutionalised, the Elderly, and the Physically Handicapped.*

Gerald Bramley's *Outreach* covers both
the British and U.S. aspects of library ser­
dvice to the institutionalized, the elderly,
and the handicapped. Two chapters each
are devoted to hospital libraries and prison
libraries; one each to library services for the
elderly, the disabled, the blind, the par­
tially sighted, the mentally retarded, and
the deaf. Generally, the background and
services for each group are described first
for Great Britain and then for the U.S. with
footnote references at the end of each chap­
ter. Curiously, however, the chapter on li­
brary services for the disabled is almost en­
tirely devoted to the British scene with only
one of the twenty citations referring to a
U.S. publication.

It is evident throughout the work that
both countries have faced similar problems
in attempting to provide outreach services.
With a chronic lack of personnel and funds,
both have relied heavily on volunteers to
staff programs, and few programs to any of
the groups have been notably successful.

The chapters on the blind and partially
sighted are probably the most comprehen­
sive, giving detailed descriptions of the
Braille and Moon systems, talking and
large-print books, cassettes, and services,
such as those offered by RNIB (Royal Na­
tional Institute for the Blind) and the Na­
tional Library of Talking Books, both of
which are British. DBPH (the Division for
the Blind and Physically Handicapped, Li­
brary of Congress, now the National Library
Service for the Blind and Physically Handi­
capped) and the American Printing House
for the Blind are also described. The chap­
ter on services to the deaf is the least com­
prehensive, a result, probably, of the dearth
of literature in this area.

The book is intended primarily for stu­
dents of librarianship and for those begin­
nng their professional careers. While there
are some minor inaccuracies, e.g., reference
to Rhea Rubin as "he" (p.86); "Christina"
for Christa (p.116); and reference to the in­
troduction of the Library Services and Con­
struction "Bill" in 1966—LSCA was passed
in 1965 (p.169), as a comparative study of
British and U.S. approaches to outreach
services, it does fulfill its purpose and pro­
vides a good overall view.

In addition to the references found at the
end of each chapter, there is a select read­
ing list and index in the appendix. Concern­
ing any detailed account of U.S. involve­
ment in these types of outreach services,
however, one must go considerably beyond
what is found in this work. The Rehabilita­
tion Act of 1973, a crucial piece of legisla­
tion underlying any service to the disabled,
for example, is not mentioned. It should be
useful to those in public libraries but less so
for those in academic and special librar­
ies.—Lucille Whalen, State University
of New York at Albany.

One Book/Five Ways: The Publishing Pro­
cedures of Five University Presses.
Foreword by Joyce Kachergis. Introduc­
tion by Chandler Grannis. Afterword by
$9.75 paperback; $18.75 hardcover. LC
78-9505. ISBN 0-913232-53-X; 0-91323-
54-8 paperback.

This book describes how five presses
would publish the same book, *No Time for
House Plants* by "Purvis Mulch." The same
180-page manuscript with illustrations was
presented to the university presses of
Chicago, North Carolina, Texas, Toronto,
and the Massachusetts Institute of Technol­
y. Each press agreed to treat this manu­
script as if it were actually going to publish
it and to prepare complete logs of the work
for presentation in *One Book/Five Ways.*

The presentations run from thirty-five to
sixty-six pages, but all conform to the same
outline covering the four major aspects of
publishing: acquisitions and administration,
editorial, production and design, and sales
and promotion. Brief narrative texts explain
the operations of the publishing houses, but
most important are the actual copies of the
documents involved in the publishing proj-
et.
There are photocopies of all the forms
used—readers' reports, contracts, cost esti-
mates, specifications, schedules, and the
like—filled out with information relative to
the “one book.” The manuscript was com-
pletely edited by the presses, and each
shows portions of chapters 2 and 4 with
editorial corrections. Reproductions of
artwork and page proofs give an excellent
idea of the appearance of the final book as
evisioned by the various designers. The
presses show many similarities and dif-
fences in their treatment of the book. The
differences are most noticeable in the illus-
trations, which range from delicate line
drawings to photographic halftone plates.
Formats vary from paper-, through spiral-,
to hardbound, at prices from Chicago's
$5.95 to Toronto's $9.95.
It is not often that a reviewer can say that
an unreadable book is at the same time
totally fascinating, but this one is to the
person interested in or knowledgeable about
publishing. One Book/Five Ways would
make an excellent textbook—or supplement
to a more conventional textbook—for classes
or workshops in publishing, and its issuance
in paperback as well as hardback will en-
courage this use. For the newcomer in pub-
lishing it provides an invaluable practical
handbook; to the established publisher, an
insider's view of five famous university
presses. There is no other book that treats
publishing in exactly this way, so that
within its highly specialized area of interest
it should be a "best-seller."
But the book raises certain questions. Who is "Purvis Mulch," and is No Time for
House Plants available in book form? The
publisher's "Afterword" answers these ques-
tions. The idea originated with Hilary Mar-
shall of the University of Toronto Press in
the 1960s. Somehow it evolved into the
"Manuscript Project" of the American As-
sociation of University Presses (AAUP)
under the leadership of Joyce Kachergis,
then head of design and production at the
University of North Carolina Press. In June
of 1977, when the AAUP held its annual
meeting in Asheville, a limited edition of
this material was published by the associa-
tion and distributed to the delegates. Here
it was disclosed that "Purvis Mulch" was ac-
tually Jerry Minnich, assistant director of
the University of Wisconsin Press. Sub-
sequently his No Time for House Plants was
accepted for publication by the University
of Oklahoma Press, which expected to have
it in the bookstores in the fall of 1978. Por-
tions of Oklahoma's plans for the house
plant book, including examples of page
proofs and artwork, are at the end of the
book, making it actually one book six
ways.—Budd L. Gambee, University of
North Carolina, Chapel Hill.
Advances in Librarianship. Volume 8.
Edited by Michael H. Harris. New York:
There are few places one can go in library
literature to find literate, comprehensive,
and brief overviews of specific subject areas
in librarianship. Advances in Librarianship
is just one of these places.
Volume 8, as the preface states, "focuses
on some of the major nontechnological prob-
lems currently facing the profession." Non-
technological does not, of course, mean
simple or nontechnical, because the seven
articles in this volume deal with some of the
most technically difficult issues facing librari-
rians in the last half of the twentieth-cen-
tury. The articles range over a wide spec-
trum—from collection development to li-
brary service to the American Indian to con-
tinuing education. If volume 8 has any
weakness, it is that the articles contained in
it are somewhat more descriptive than theo-
retical in a field that needs more of the lat-
ter. Most of the papers include excellent,
up-to-date bibliographies.
The paper on collection development in
large university libraries, by Mona East and
Rose Mary Magrill, is one of the best prim-
ers available on the subject. Collection de-
velopment has seen a great deal of change
during the last decade, and much of this is
detailed in this essay.
During the halcyon days of the 1960s,
budgets increased rapidly and libraries pur-
chased materials at tremendous rates. These
increases caused numerous problems. Once the collection development apparatus to expend the funds was assembled, the funding just as rapidly declined. This brought new problems. East and Magrill have written a paper that should be read by all librarians involved with collection development or acquisitions.

John Cole, executive director of the Library of Congress’ Center for the Book, in his essay on the role of the Library of Congress in American life, discusses the controversy of LC’s dual role that has existed since the turn of the century. The issue of whether to be a legislative library and a national library at the same time has not yet, of course, been solved. Cole neatly skirts the issue of a nonlibrarian being the Librarian of Congress by saying that “when one considers the national character of the Library’s history, this preference is hardly surprising” (p.67). The paper is brief, historical, and very much to the point.

The article by Elizabeth Dickinson and Margaret Myers details many of the difficult aspects of affirmative action currently facing librarians and also points out that the idea is here to stay. Further, guidelines for a plan of action are presented. We are also rightly told that affirmative action will not take hold overnight because “social change generally takes place in an evolutionary fashion” (p.128).

Charles Townley’s paper on library service to native Americans is a survey of what is going on in Indian America in terms of library service in the 1970s. Specific libraries and their information needs are described and policy development and funding bases are discussed. This paper should be of interest and use to anyone involved with library service to native Americans.

In his survey of recent historical literature in librarianship, David Kaser adapts one of Will Rogers’ sayings to librarianship: “library history is not as good as it used to be, and it probably never was” (p.183). The survey is thorough, and Kaser claims that the literature of library history is on the increase, is of high quality, and is useful to the profession.

Library education, including continuing education, is the topic of the two final papers in volume 8 of Advances in Librar-
equipment; a simple replacement of a dirty filter in an air conditioner, for example, will improve the efficiency of that system by 10 to 15 percent.

Library administrators should be interested in the significance of budgetary savings offered by various energy conservation programs. A mere reduction in the lamp voltage from 100 to 75 watts will reduce the cost of electricity by 25 percent. Energy saving programs may also appeal for their high investment value. If, for example, Boston Public Library had not invested in its present energy saving program, its current energy bills would have exceeded 1.38 million dollars, 15 percent of the total library budget. And, finally, by reducing or eliminating some of the fancy ornamental lighting in their libraries, librarians can, in a literally "visual" way, reinforce the message that energy conservation is important—everybody's business.

Each of the above illustrations, quoted from the July/August 1978 issue of Library Technology Reports, ought to attract the attention of the readers of this review. The feature article in this issue was originally written for the Buildings and Equipment Section of ALA's Library Administration Division. Its authors, the staff of Xenergy, Inc., a consulting firm specializing in energy issues, are well versed in library conservation needs.

Following an introductory overview of energy costs, shortages, and government regulations, the article lists various factors that affect the consumption of energy, such as the size, age, and location of the library building. The paper suggests possible energy conservation plans that could be tailored to local situations. A large part of the study is dedicated to a detailed discussion of major types of energy usages, including lighting, humidity, heating, ventilation, and air conditioning. A separate chapter summarizes the potentials of new technologies, from solar energy to computer-controlled energy saving systems. The study ends with a list of sources of assistance and a current bibliography on the subject of energy conservation.

The essay is written specifically for librarians...

This book gives the author's view of our transition to a paperless society, i.e., the replacement of print-on-paper by electronic media for many forms of human communication, particularly in science, technology, government, and business fields. The author views this as an inevitable and normal process that is also desirable because of the cost/benefit and efficiency possible.

This well-designed, easily read book begins by summarizing the gains made in the application of computers to the storage, retrieval, and dissemination of information. The concept of a paperless system is introduced through next discussing a prototype system at the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency called SAFE (Support for the Analyst File Environment). Here the goal is to reduce the need for extensive personal document files through the substitution of a system that permits individuals to practice their own organization of documents and have access to better central information.

Next, through an excellent summary of the work that has been done on communication in the scientific and technological disciplines, the author introduces a scenario for an electronic information system set in the year 2000. Feasibility and benefits of such a system are discussed in the next chapter in a logical and well-reasoned manner. Assessment of the technological, intellectual, social, and psychological problems to be encountered are realistically dealt with, and of interest to librarians will be the final chapter before the conclusion, which deals with the role of libraries in a paperless society.

Lest we all think we can hide our heads in the sand and play ostrich, information specialists and librarians should note that we see ample evidence around us daily of what Lancaster addresses in this neat volume. The pieces are here now: computer conferencing, large on-line data bases, full text storage and retrieval, personal microcomputers that will soon rival the power and storage of our present mainframes, and new forms of storage, to name a few examples.

In fact, today many people perform work at home or out of their offices that only several years ago had to be done in the office. Whether we really accept it or not, paperless information systems will slowly permeate our work and even affect our lifestyles and our leisure, perhaps more than we would care to admit.

But perhaps of most interest to those who may read this review is the impact of these developments on the information sphere that libraries serve. Lancaster approaches this area with a positive posture but not without warning the library community that librarians and libraries will have to change their service views and their activities. He further points out the fact that librarians have largely neglected serious study of how paperless systems will affect their role and that of their libraries.

Perhaps the best way to taste of this book is to read a recent article by Lancaster entitled "Whither Libraries? or Wither Libraries" in the September 1978 issue of C&RL (p.345-57) in which he addresses this problem further.

This reviewer recommends purchase of this volume for library and information science collections, both personal and institutional. It should be read by librarians, information specialists, computer professionals, and those interested in technology trends, future studies, and economics of information. Collections concentrating on computer developments, future studies, and intelligence community activities should also acquire this volume at its modest price for the information it contains.—Audrey N.
Grosch, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.


Exactly how does one go about designing and implementing an information retrieval system for a particular organization? What are the various options that the designers and programmers must choose among? How does it all work? One can get a pretty good feeling for the answers to these questions from this very readable little book of about ninety pages (plus a few appendixes).

The author has almost twenty years of experience designing and implementing information retrieval systems. In her book she has interspersed little gems of wisdom only that experience can give. These range from the seemingly trivial "never make a note of anything without dating it" to the key observation that the system is likely to veer off course, or flounder entirely. Hence the statement of project goals "is to be the most important single document... for obtaining (and keeping!) backing for the project and for keeping control of the evolving system as it comes into being."

It is refreshing to read someone who realizes that systems analysis is very subjective, "partly technique and partly flair." Townley realizes that there are numerous designs that can result from analysis and that we will create and destroy dozens of such seemingly clear-cut things as record specifications before we settle on one to actually implement.

In this book we are once again reminded that the job of the analyst is only possible if he or she can get people to talk—and it is important to talk to all levels of workers and to more than one at each level.

Townley takes great pains to demonstrate to us exactly how dumb the computer is (without going through the boring details of binary number systems!). By providing clear and concise descriptions of the concepts of files, records, and fields, as well as several major file and field addressing techniques, we can begin to get a picture of how sophisticated systems are built out of simple elements. The illustrations of computer searching techniques (such as Boolean logic) bring out the work that computers do in information retrieval systems in order to perform their amazing feats.

The author's final word of warning is something that we are only now beginning to appreciate: "It must not be forgotten that the computer based service will not save labour: it will only permit more work to result from the same effort. Management must never underestimate the manpower and time that will be required to keep the new system working."

In short, this is a very down-to-earth and practical book on systems analysis for information retrieval, filled with good advice to those who are about to embark on projects in this field.—Stephen M. Silberstein, University of California, Berkeley.

A Practical Approach to Serials Cataloging ostensibly aims to teach librarians how to catalog a serial, but for a number of reasons the text is not geared for instruction. The author has covered everything that might conceivably fall within the scope of serial cataloging and as a result has highlighted the problems without offering workable solutions. Through emphasis on coverage, organization and brevity have suffered. The future cataloger is not guided logically through the stages required to create a catalog entry, and the rambling text makes it difficult to extract the portions on the practical aspects of cataloging.

Of the eighteen chapters, only about eleven are concerned with the construction of a serial catalog entry. Basic cataloging tools and reference works essential to the cataloger are not mentioned in the opening portion of the text, nor is searching. Almost at once the reader is plunged into a discussion of serial entry, which focuses on rule six of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (AACR). When the discussion reaches AACR 6B1, the reader is not informed that only certain categories of material are covered by this rule, and that the exception accompanying the rule relates only to these categories.

The chapter on title changes discusses the pros and cons of earliest, latest, and successive entry cataloging without adequately identifying the major differences between the cataloging entries.

Large portions of chapter seven of AACR have been reproduced in the chapter on descriptive cataloging, but revised chapter six is rarely even cited. Yet rules from both of these chapters are followed when transcribing bibliographic data onto the catalog entry. Often the author claims the rules in chapter seven are obvious, but history has proved otherwise, for catalogers have been subjected to endless interpretations. Although she recommends practices and procedures that violate the AACR in this chapter and elsewhere in the text, she often does not make it clear that they are nonstandard.

Selection of the title page, which is crucial to accurate bibliographic description, is mentioned briefly on page 97 in the chapter on descriptive cataloging. The author dismisses the subject because the majority of serials do not have title pages. The majority of periodical issues are published without title pages, but not the majority of serials. And even if her observation were true, the cataloger still has to know how to select a title page or a title page substitute. This erroneous statement is one of many that are made, particularly when the author embarks upon a discussion of serial cataloging at the Library of Congress. Unfortunately, the impact of automation on serials cataloging in the past couple of years has dated the book prior to publication. For example, cooperative on-line cataloging, a result of the CONSER Project, is not mentioned.

An unusual and admirable feature of the book is the emphasis on the relation between technical and public service. Although excellent indexes and useful lists accompany the text, there is no glossary of cataloging and bibliographic terms. In fact, the author gives little attention to defining the library terms she uses.

Regrettably, for all of the above reasons, the text fails in its main purpose, to teach the basic principles of serial cataloging.—Judith P. Cannan, Washington, D.C.

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.

Planning Information Services in the Liberal Arts College Library. By Richard E. Miller and Bruce Morton. 1977. 27p. ED 154 780. MF—$0.83; HC—$2.06.
A program and policy statement was developed by librarians at the Carleton College Library to address various planning demands being made of the library, to meet the specific and idiosyncratic information needs of the academic community, and to help clarify long-range goals of the library and policies by which these goals may be successfully pursued. The statement includes enumeration and discussion of the following: (1) specific factors that influence the quality and quantity of information services; (2) information needs that are seen as basic and recurring within the college community; (3) standards regarding the organization, development, and characteristics of the reference collection; (4) guidelines for reference facilities and environment; (5) personnel selection requirements and guidelines for professional development; and (6) evaluation procedures for the major elements of the information services program. A paradigm of the library planning process that graphically illustrates the complex relationships among the various parties to the planning process is included.

The Relationship Between the Use of the San Diego State University Library and Selected Personal Characteristics of the Student Population. By Mary Ada Burns. 1977. 74p. ED 154 807. MF—$0.83; HC—$3.50.

This study examined the relationship between the use and nonuse of the Education Resource Center (ERC) at the San Diego State University Library and selected socioeconomic characteristics of graduate students enrolled in educational technology and librarianship classes. A questionnaire was administered to a sample population of 181 students; 140 were returned. While analysis of the data using the Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) found relatively small differences between the personal characteristics of users and nonusers, two patterns based on other variants were indicated: library usage increased as students progressed through the university; and the average nonuser, while as intelligent or academically competent as the user, regarded the use of the library as strictly course-related. Frequency analysis distributions are summarized and tabulated for the following areas: service and reference materials; print materials; media software; function of the ERC; students' feelings toward the ERC; students' use and opinion of the university library and other libraries; and personal characteristics. Recommendations for further research include conducting another study that could better isolate the factors that contribute to use and nonuse of the ERC by students. The questionnaire and students' comments are appended.


A document retrieval study conducted before and again after the building of a more centralized library at Syracuse University is used as an example of the kind of data gathering that can lead to improved decision making and evaluation of library services by library administrators. The study is discussed in detail to facilitate replication and to assist administrators in calculating the effect major changes or potential changes in library organization will have on the amount of time it takes to locate and retrieve materials. A specific application of the study would be to determine the extent to which a centralized library would be advantageous to a particular campus by measuring degrees of "cross over" and the impact changes in library organization would have on current library usage patterns, as well as the effects of changes in library organization on retrieval times, need for patron assistance, and management. Suggestions are offered for more effective data gathering and administrators are urged to use data to support their decisions.


This selected annotated bibliography lists almost 200 documents, added to the ERIC data base since 1972, which deal with adaptations of the learning resources center concept to specific situations. The bibliography is divided into ten sections: (1) elementary and secondary schools; (2) colleges and universities; (3) personnel and training; (4) resources in career education; (5) ethnic minorities; (6) environmental, health, and military resource centers; (7) combined public and school libraries; (8) budgeting; (9) production and equipment; and (10) facilities. A wide range of types of materials includes guidelines for planning, day-to-day operations, materials selection, evaluation, and administrative and technical processes.

Centralization of Current Periodicals in Elmer Ellis Library at the University of Missouri at Columbia. By June DuWeese and Michele Reiling. 1976. 19p. ED 153 605. MF—$0.83; HC—$1.67.
The feasibility of centralizing current periodicals in this university library was investigated as a means of providing for greater accessibility to the periodicals, reducing theft, and improving the efficiency of technical services. Highlighted are concerns brought up by eight other academic libraries that have some type of centralized periodical collection: (1) the periodical room's being utilized as a study hall, (2) security, (3) circulation, (4) special control of high-risk titles, (5) periodical arrangement—by title or call number and (6) supervision of the periodical room. Appendices include the questionnaire sent to the eight academic libraries, a layout of the periodicals room, and checkout and circulation procedures at the Ellis Library.


In addition to supporting instructional services, a major function of the community college library or learning resources center (LRC) is satisfying the widely differing information and communication needs of students enrolled in four basic types of programs: (1) preparatory courses for transfer to four-year institutions; (2) vocational-technical programs; (3) general education programs ending with an associate degree; and (4) continuing education programs. However, the LRC is often underutilized. Since one of the major reasons for this is the students' lack of library skills, library instruction programs should be designed to meet real information needs of students in specific courses. Librarians are advised to plan programs based on need-related objectives, develop closer faculty cooperation, and investigate the possibilities of obtaining program grants. The appendix provides a directory to thirty-two community college libraries in Michigan and describes their 1977 library instruction activities, ranging from none to comprehensive programs.


The objective of this study was to determine how large research libraries perform the function of collection development. The paper describes collection development theory within the formal organizational structure of the library, identifies the actual decision points involved in selection of materials, and examines the staff and facilities provided for collection development. Information was obtained through personal interviews of 300 librarians at eighteen ARL (Association of Research Libraries) libraries throughout the United States. Those interviewed included collection development officers, area and subject librarians, bibliographers, and curators. Findings are summarized in the following areas: allocation decisions, automation, approval plans and orders, book funds, collection policies and committees, cooperation, elitism versus no one cares, evaluation of collections, exchanges and gifts, faculty versus librarians in selection, interlibrary loans, microforms, organization, preservation, reference, serials, space and staff, teaching, technical services involvement, use studies, and weeding and storage.

*Guide to Chicano Resources in the University of Arizona Library.* By Iliana Sonntag and others. Tucson: Univ. Library,
Arizona Univ., 1976. 110p. ED 153 663. MF—$0.83; HC—$6.01.

This guide is designed to call attention to and make more accessible the collection of materials in the University of Arizona Library on Mexican American history, culture, and social and economic development. It contains current materials, although some older works may be included due to their comprehensiveness. Each of the fifteen subject sections—general works, the arts, economics, education, folklore, health, history, labor and laboring classes, language, literature, politics and government, psychology, religion, sociology, and sports—is divided into: subject headings related to the specific topic; bibliographies; encyclopedias and dictionaries; indexes and abstracts for journal articles and books; directories of persons and organizations; a selected list of journals; and a list of pertinent University of Arizona theses. An index containing topics and phrases, as well as index terms, provides cross-references to the subject sections of this guide.

The Impact of Nonverbal Communications on the Public Services Functions of Libraries. By Kay Weiss. 1976. 9p. ED 153 659. MF—$0.83; HC—$1.67.

This annotated, selected bibliography of 21 monographs and articles on nonverbal communication is designed to help library personnel develop their perceptions of body language, thereby helping them respond more appropriately to user queries. Introductory material includes a brief literature review.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS

Alexander, Drury Blakeley. The Sources of Classicism. Five Centuries of Architectural Books from the Collections of the Humanities Research Center. Austin, Tex.: Humanities Research Center, 1978. 1v. unpaged. (Available from: The Humanities Research Center, the University of Texas at Austin, Postal Box 7219, Austin, TX 78712.)


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