In This Issue—

LARRY HARDESTY, NICHOLAS P. LOVRICH, JR., and JAMES MANNON, 
Evaluating Library-Use Instruction

WILLIAM MILLER and D. STEPHEN ROCKWOOD, Collection 
Development from a College Perspective

EVAN I. FARBER; WILLIAM MILLER, Collection Development from a 
College Perspective: A Comment and a Response

DAVID R. MCDONALD, MARGARET W. MAXFIELD, and VIRGINIA G. F. 
FRIESNER, Sequential Analysis: A Methodology for Monitoring 
Approval Plans

DIMITY S. BERKNER, Library Staff Development through Performance 
Appraisal

EUGENE P. SHEEHY, Selected Reference Books of 1978–79
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Editor: RICHARD D. JOHNSON
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Evaluating Library-Use Instruction

Although library-use instruction programs have become popular during the 1970s, they are often not given the same type of support by library and college or university administrators as the more traditional library services. The paper contends that appropriate evaluation is an important element in gaining this support and describes the development and results of a systematic assessment of library-use instruction at DePauw University.

All social institutions or subsystems, whether medical, educational, religious, economic, or political, are required to provide "proof" of their legitimacy and effectiveness in order to justify society's continued support.1

During the 1970s library-use instruction has enjoyed a renewed popularity.2 Each passing year has brought reports from more and more academic libraries that they too have established library-use instruction programs. A survey of the number of conferences on this topic and the articles published in the library literature confirms that library-use instruction has been revived. Despite these developments, few academic libraries accord library-use instruction programs the same degree of importance as the more traditional services of the library.

Often library-use instruction programs are an "extra" service that a few librarians or even a single librarian, working at the grass-roots level, have been willing to provide in addition to their other responsibilities. As a result, there is a history of library-use instruction programs floundering as the librarians responsible for them have changed positions or simply lost their initial enthusiasm when the work load became too great a burden.

A common concern among librarians promoting library-use instruction programs is how to gain the same kind of continuing support from the library and college or university administration as that received by traditional library services such as cataloging, circulation, acquisitions, and reference. Certainly there are many ways of seeking this support, but a most important method that should be part of any library-use instruction program is that of systematic evaluation.

In the field of education, evaluation is customarily divided into two types: formative evaluation and summative evaluation. Familiarity with the rationale and techniques associated with both types of evaluation is important for librarians developing library-use instruction programs. This article deals with both aspects of evaluation but focuses primarily upon summative evaluation.

This does not mean the same test or questionnaire cannot be used for both types
of evaluation. However, most formative evaluation is intended to provide short-term feedback, and the program developer often does not have time for a highly sophisticated statistical analysis or for other complex procedures to be carried out. Formative evaluations often are simplified, more error-prone versions of tests or questionnaires used for later summative evaluations. Also, a good summative evaluation will have formative implications.

Summative evaluation reports are usually directed toward those individuals who set policy at various levels, such as library and college or university administrators. It is these individuals who decide whether to continue funding a program or whether to increase or decrease support available for a program. It is this type of evaluation that librarians will find most useful in gaining further support for their library-use instruction programs, and this article provides an example of the systematic summative evaluation of a library-use instruction program at one academic library.

In May 1976 the Council on Library Resources awarded DePauw University a one-year grant as part of the Council's Library Service Enhancement Program. The Council on Library Resources established this grant program to "stimulate additional activities intended to result in the more imaginative, effective involvement of the academic library in the teaching/learning program." Using the information available in the literature provided by such leaders in library-use instruction as Knapp, Farber, Wiggins, Hackman, and others, one of the authors initiated the development of a library-use instruction program at DePauw University beginning in the fall of 1976.

The program will be described only briefly here since it has been reported in more detail elsewhere. The librarian planning the program placed considerable emphasis on a common instructional experience for freshman students through which they would develop a basic level of library skills and a positive attitude toward the academic library. He intended that the freshman library-use instruction program would serve as the foundation for more advanced library-use instruction later in the academic careers of students.

It is not yet possible to conduct a summative evaluation on the role of the freshman library-use instruction program as the foundation for more advanced library-use instruction. However, a summative evaluation of the freshman part of the program in terms of the development of basic library skills and positive attitudes toward the library has been completed. The efforts made to evaluate this part of the library-use instruction program at DePauw University are reported in this article. Included is information on how the evaluators considered each of the major areas of summative evaluation, such as the objectives of the program, test selection, design of the evaluation, and statistical analysis.

**THE DEPAUW LIBRARY-USE INSTRUCTION PROGRAM**

The freshman library-use instruction program consisted of the following elements. First, during the beginning week of each semester a librarian presented a brief slide lecture to each of the freshman English and basic communication classes. This presentation introduced the students to the personnel, collections, and services of the library. At the end of the presentation, the librarian made the students aware of a self-guided tour pamphlet that could be obtained near the main entrance of the library so students could tour the library at their own convenience.

The purpose of this presentation was to give students very early in their academic career the impression that the library contained a wealth of resources and a variety of services, and that there were people in the library to help them make use of these services and resources. In short, the presentation was not intended to promote skill development, but rather concentrated on fostering a positive attitude on the part of the students toward the academic library.

The second element of the program occurred later in the semester and concentrated on skill development. For instructional purposes, two forty-five minute slide presentations, accompanied by instructional booklets and worksheets, were given to each of the freshmen in English and basic communication classes. These presentations provided the student with instructions on
how to make introductory use of each of the major collections of the library and how to develop a basic search strategy to obtain information needed for compositions that were part of the usual course requirements. This second element of the program had rather modest objectives. The instruction emphasized actual library use and finding information in each of the major collections for use in the writing of compositions. While a variety of topics were discussed, the librarians making the presentations spent relatively little time on details such as the constituent parts of the catalog card or elements of Readers’ Guide citations. Instead, the librarians emphasized the type of information that could be obtained from each of the major library collections and the development of a search strategy.

From the conception of the program a concern existed both for formative and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation was needed to provide information for the continued improvement of the program. The completed worksheets, interviews with instructors, and questionnaires completed by the students provided information for this type of evaluation. At that point the need for immediate feedback for modification of the program did not lend itself to the development of rigorous tests and questionnaires more appropriate for summative evaluation.

However, since only a one-year grant supported the program, the developer recognized that summative evaluation would be very important to gain the necessary support from the library and university administration in order to continue the program. It would take more than the results from hastily made questionnaires or impressions gained from interviewing instructors to convince the administrators. A major commitment of time and resources therefore was devoted to the development of summative evaluation procedures.

The librarians involved in the program considered several methods of evaluation, including the more traditional measures of library services such as reference and circulation statistics. They decided that, in addition to these methods of evaluation, a paper-and-pencil type test could provide useful information for summative evaluation purposes concerning the skills and attitudes the students developed as a result of the program.12

A survey of library literature revealed very little helpful information on available tests. As noted by Bloomfield, many of the more popular published tests place considerable emphasis on such details as parts of the catalog card and elements of Readers’ Guide citations.13 These tests did not appear to match very closely the goals and objectives of the program being developed at DePauw University. Carolyn Kirkendall, director of the Project LOEX Clearinghouse at Eastern Michigan University, provided a number of locally produced library-use tests.

The quality and objectives of these tests varied greatly, and their usefulness was questioned since there was no information available concerning their development. (This concern proved to be well founded considering the number of seemingly reasonable questions that later proved unreliable.) Finally, in an effort to gain the benefit of both their expertise and their objectivity, two professors from DePauw University—one in political science and one in sociology—were employed in the efforts to develop a useful library-use test.

**Creating a Reliable Evaluation Instrument**

An understanding of how the authors fashioned a reliable and valid systematic evaluation design can be acquired by reviewing the methodology in a step-by-step manner. The framework for the evaluation consists of four basic parts.

The first consisted of considering the test in terms of validity and reliability; these are the two major criteria in education in defining the quality of an evaluation design.

Validity concerns the question of whether the test measures what it purports to measure. Validity in the measurement of test items can be determined by a variety of methods, many of which can be quite complex and time-consuming. In this case validity of measurement was obtained through the criterion of face validity.14

Reliability concerns the consistency of measurement observed over repeated assessments. An instrument may be unreliable...
because the characteristics being measured may be unstable, or the procedures may change from one application to another. This criterion was particularly important in this study, and the method used to develop a reliable test is discussed in more detail later in this article.

After a test of the items of measurement for reliability and validity, the second step involved the extraction and combining of the most valid and reliable items into a library-use questionnaire administered to samples of freshman English students before library-use instruction began.

Third, the administration of the instructional program took place in some of the pretested classes—with others being left to serve as "control" classes wherein no instructional intervention occurred.

Fourth, it was then possible to compare pre- and posttest results on library-use attitudes and skills for the test and control classes to evaluate the effects of the instructional program.

Such quasi-experimental designs require that instruments used to measure the effects of instruction be reliable. Since the critical issue for our study was that of assessing the effects of instruction, it was absolutely necessary to make certain that observed changes were not the result of undue variability of the testing instrument. One of the most positive features of this study is that of the pretesting of the evaluation instrument for reliability. As previously mentioned, few library-use competence tests found in the literature have adequately addressed this problem.

The test-retest method was used to determine the reliability of items on the library-use attitudes and skills test. The original draft of the evaluation test consisted of ten attitudinal items concerning student library utilization and twenty-six items to test library-use competence. This test was administered to 102 freshman students at DePauw University enrolled in a variety of introductory freshman-level courses the semester prior to the beginning of library-use instruction on a university-wide basis.

Three weeks later in the semester the identical test was administered to the same students; their test-retest responses were carefully compared. The attitudinal items were assessed for reliability using item analysis and Pearson correlation coefficients. Items that demonstrated either a positive or negative trend from test to retest and items with a correlation coefficient of less than .70 were considered unreliable and hence dropped from the test. Items that are consistent on both the aggregate (i.e., do not generate either higher or lower mean responses) and the individual level (i.e., the same person tends to answer in a consistent manner over time) are necessary to conduct a valid evaluation of effects.

Library-use skills items were considered reliable if more than 50 percent and fewer than 90 percent of the students answered the items correctly. (The figures 50 percent and 90 percent were selected based on the authors' judgments that these were reasonable a priori cutoff points for overly easy and overly difficult items, respectively.)

On the basis of this process of elimination of inconsistent attitudinal items and overly difficult and overly easy skill items, some six attitudinal and twenty skills items of strong reliability were selected from the draft evaluation instrument (see appendix for items used).

The pretest instrument was then administered to 162 freshman students enrolled in several freshman English composition courses. There were 133 freshman test subjects; during the semester these students were given library-use instruction by reference librarians.

Twenty-nine students (two separate classes taught by the same instructor) were treated as a control group, which received no library instruction. At the time of the experiment, the students in the control group did not receive any library instruction that either the instructor or the authors were aware of.

Eight weeks later in the semester all 162 students were again given the original test, hence allowing the comparison of the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental and control subjects.

**THE EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTION UPON SKILLS ACQUISITION**

Table 1 reports the overall findings derived from the evaluation study with respect to skills acquisition. It should be noted that
TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF TEST/RETEST SCORES FOR CONTROL AND TEST CLASSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control Classes</th>
<th></th>
<th>Test Classes</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N = 29</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>N = 133</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Score*</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard error of the mean difference</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference of means</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistical Summary†</td>
<td>t = .42</td>
<td>t = 10.30</td>
<td>df = 28</td>
<td>df = 132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
<td>Significant at ( p &lt; .001 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Scores refer to responses on a 20-item skills test.
†The t ratio test of the significance of differences of means for matched observations (test/retest format) is being used to evaluate the differences observed. Since the direction of change is predicted, a one-tailed test is used to assess the level of confidence of the t scores.

The control group students exhibited a very slight decline in their aggregate skills scores (from an average of 12.4 to 12.2 items answered correctly on a 20-item test), while the instructed students registered a mean aggregate gain of 2.7 items on the retest.

The t ratio test for matched observations was used to evaluate the degree of statistical significance of the difference in means for the test and control group, with the result that the amount of change in the control group proves insignificant while the change in the test group proves highly significant.

The findings reported in table 1 indicate that the instruction received by students was effective in improving library information search skills. The difference of means between pre- and posttests for the test group indicate the significance of effect, and the comparison of that difference with the results of the control group assures us that the difference observed in the test group was not an artifact of time or shared environment.

The interpretation of the 14.9 posttest score can be made in relation to the gain possible on this test. From an average pretest score of 12.2 the students could gain a possible 7.8 on a twenty-item test. A gain of 2.7 represents 34.6 percent of the total possible gain of 7.8 on a test where both the overly easy and the overly difficult items have been eliminated.

The interpretation of the 14.9 score for instructed freshman can be even more meaningful when it is compared to some relevant reference group norm. To the end of establishing such a norm for interpretative comparison, the graduating seniors of DePauw's 1977 class were surveyed. Approximately half of the members of the class were selected at random, with 60 percent (ninety-five students) completing and returning questionnaires. The mean score for the seniors was 14.8, indicating that the library-use instruction can bring freshman students to the level of competence on general library skills of graduating seniors (who have four years of library-use experience) within the period of a single semester and within the context of three brief sessions with librarians.

In assessing the value of instruction programs, it is very important to determine whether the effects of instruction are generalized or specific—that is, whether just some or all kinds of students derive benefit from instruction. The question must be raised whether library-use instruction is appropriate for all levels of students or whether it might be "too elementary" for the brightest students and/or "too difficult" for the slower students. In table 1 it is important to note that the standard error of the mean difference (a measure of variation about the average amount of change evidenced by individuals) for the test students is almost half that of the control group—an indication that the effect of instruction was quite uniform among students instructed. Table 2 displays the data from the evaluation study in a way that the question of generalizability of effects can be more directly assessed.

Table 2 investigates the degree of improvement demonstrated by slower, average, and brighter students—as classified by scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (S.A.T.). It should be noted that in all three classifications the amount of im-
TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF TEST/RETEST SCORES ACROSS S.A.T. VERBAL LEVELS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Score (20-item scale)</th>
<th>Mean Score (20-item scale)</th>
<th>Mean Score (20-item scale)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low S.A.T. Verbal Level:</td>
<td>Medium S.A.T. Verbal Level:</td>
<td>High S.A.T. Verbal Level:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Than 500* N = 39</td>
<td>500 to 549 Range N = 49</td>
<td>550+ Range N = 32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard error of the</td>
<td>Difference of means</td>
<td>Statistical Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean difference</td>
<td>t = 6.67</td>
<td>df = 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.45</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df = 38</td>
<td>t = 4.71</td>
<td>df = 48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>t = 7.44</td>
<td>df = 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant at p &lt; .001</td>
<td>Significant at p &lt; .001</td>
<td>Significant at p &lt; .001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* S.A.T. scores were not available for 13 students.
† Level of significance of one-tailed tests.

Improvement registered is statistically significant to a high degree. (It also should be pointed out that this is not a test of any hypothesis concerning the effect of the S.A.T. on the impact of library-use instruction. Such a hypothesis regarding instruction effects would involve a much different research design and the employment of very different statistical procedures. In this study the authors used S.A.T. scores only to assess the uniformity of learning rates.)

It is encouraging to observe that both the slower students (with S.A.T. verbal scores below 500) and the brighter students (with scores of 550+) register mean gains of 3.0 items or better. The uniformity of positive results across the three categories of student aptitude demonstrates that all kinds of students stand to benefit from library-use instruction.

THE EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTION UPON STUDENT ATTITUDES

Two types of attitudinal analysis must be accomplished in a systematic summative evaluation. First, the attitudes of subjects of instruction toward the instruction presented must be assessed; and, second, the degree of attitude change of subjects toward the phenomenon or skill area of instruction must be measured.

The first type of question will inform the evaluator of the degree to which subjects view instruction as beneficial—an important aspect of instruction given the fact that self-motivated learning tends to be retained longer than enforced mastery. The second type of question will assess the degree of effect instruction has upon relevant attitudes of impact—i.e., attitudes that the instruction was designed to alter in some manner.

Table 3 reports the results of a survey of student participants in the library-use program. A fairly strong pattern of positive responses is evidenced in each of the questions asked. A clear majority of students instructed in the program found instruction to be informative and useful, and only a small proportion of the students believed that the program was repetitious.

The final area of evaluation is that of attitude change resulting from instruction. It must be noted that relatively little overall attitude change was registered; mean responses on the six attitude questions differed only marginally as between pre- and posttest scores. Most interestingly, however, although overall attitude change was not dramatic, attitude change was important for that group of students initially holding negative attitudes toward libraries. Table 4 displays the pattern of response typical of these students. It should be noted that, although the control students demonstrated no net change in their attitudes on the question of viewing libraries as unexpectedly interesting places to be in, the test group students register a strongly positive pattern of change on this question.

It appears that either attitudes about libraries are far more difficult to influence or measure than are library-use skills, or the particular program at DePauw University was less effective in influencing attitudes than it was in influencing library-use skills. It is understandable that three brief sessions with librarians might have little impact on the attitudes of students toward the library considering that a number of studies have concluded that four years of college experi-
presentations on the Library Search Response Effects A Informative? Enjoyable? Repeating What Process. phenomena . values held by many students. Useful? used for formative evaluation, i.e., to

\text{\textsuperscript{1}}: students who gave 1 and 2 responses on the attitude-change problems in library-useidences have little effect on the attitudes and values held by many students.\textsuperscript{20} The authors suggest that further research is indicated to determine skills-change versus attitude-change problems in library-use instructional programs.

\textbf{TABLE 3}

\textbf{PARTICIPANT ATTITUDES TOWARD LIBRARY INSTRUCTION:

\textbf{POST-INSTRUCTION STUDENT IMPRESSION (N = 177)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question: Were the classroom presentations on the Library Search Process.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Much So</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useful?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informativ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Waste of Time?†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyable?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeating What You Already Knew?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\*These questions were part of a separate survey form completed by students involved in the program each semester. The results are used for formative evaluation, i.e., to modify the program to make it more effective.


\textbf{CONCLUSIONS}

This article has sought to accomplish two goals: to provide a model of evaluation and its application, which may be of use to others interested in systematic assessment of instructional programs; and to present evidence of the utility of library-use instruction. From the previous discussion, and from evidence collected in the DePauw University library-use instruction program, it would seem that library-use instruction is an important element in enhancing the role of the academic library in the educational process through promoting increased skill development and, to a more limited degree, positive attitudinal change on the part of students involved.

The evaluation model described did answer the questions as to whether the students increased their general library-use skills and whether students from different aptitude groups benefited in this respect from library-use instruction. The evaluation model was less successful in addressing questions relating to attitudinal changes resulting from such instruction.

From the number of questions that proved unreliable on this part of the pretest questionnaire it may be surmised that the DePauw study instrument either requires revision, or it requires the employment of a supplementary methodology (such as documentating student behavior) to measure any
attitudinal changes that may occur. This area proved to be much more complex and difficult to study than was supposed at the beginning of the study.

The evaluation model used did indicate that library-use instruction is an activity that can prove its worth in a systematic assessment of its impact. The authors believe that the careful application of systematic assessment to library-use programs can be very important in obtaining adequate, long-term support for such programs from library and college or university administrators.

Using such methods, it is possible to obtain useful information, such as the fact that freshman students can develop library-use skills equal to those of graduating seniors through relatively little instruction; or, taken from another point of view, the library skills of graduating seniors are no better than those of freshman students after brief instruction. These and related findings generated by evaluation studies can be very important in gaining needed administrative support for a library-use instruction program.

The information provided in this article and other related information quantifying the results of the library-use instruction program at DePauw University proved helpful in gaining administrative support for a successful grant proposal to the Council on Library Resources and the National Endowment for the Humanities under their joint College Library Program.

It is hoped that this example will encourage others active in promoting library-use instruction programs to apply the principles of systematic assessment in evaluating the achievement of instructional objectives in their particular programs.

References

2. Library-use instruction in academic libraries has a long history and has gone through several cycles of popularity dating back to before the turn of the century. For more complete information on the history of library-use instruction see Kenneth Brough, *Scholar's Workshop: Evolving Concepts of Library Service* (Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Illinois Pr., 1953) and Johnnie Givens, "The Use of Resources in the Learning Experience." *Advances in Librarianship* 4:149-74 (1974).
4. Ibid., p.177.
11. A full report of the activities carried out as a result of the Library Service Enhancement Program grant to DePauw University is available from ERIC. See James Martindale and Larry Hardesty, *Library Service Enhancement Program, DePauw University, Grant Proposal and Quarterly Reports*, U.S. Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 145 839, March 1978.
12. The authors recognize that there are a number of useful alternatives to paper-and-pencil type tests in evaluating a program. For an excellent discussion of these methods see Eugene Webb and others, *Unobtrusive Measures: Nonreactive Research in the Social Sciences* (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1966).
14. The authors recognize that face validity is only one of several validity checks, and in part their judgment here was based on Earl R. Babble, *The Practice of Social Research* (Belmont: Wadsworth, Inc., 1973), p.360.
15. For an excellent exposition of methodological concerns regarding systematic evaluation see Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, *Experimental and Quasi-Experimental De-

For a discussion of the uses of Pearson correlation coefficients see Kenneth Bailey, *Methods of Social Research* (New York: Free Press, 1978), p.341. The coefficient is a measure of association between two measures; in this case, the more similar the response of individuals on pre- and posttest items the higher the measure of reliability of the item in question.


### APPENDIX: LIBRARY-USE INSTRUCTION EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

**Pre-Tested Attitude Items:** Response Categories = Likert Scale—Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree and Strongly Disagree.

1. I find a library a very comfortable place to work when I need to go there.
2. Walking into a library is like going into church because I'm in awe of the surroundings.
3. I only go to a library when someone makes me go.
4. When I go to a library, I often spend more time than I planned because I find so many interesting things.
5. A person should only ask a librarian for help when it looks as if they aren't busy.
6. Normally a librarian can only help you when you know what you're looking for.

**Skills Test:** Directions: In the following exercise read each item carefully. Decide which area of the library is the most logical place to start your search for the information described in the item. Respond to each item by placing the IDENTIFICATION NUMBER of your choice in the blank preceding it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library Area</th>
<th>1 Card Catalog</th>
<th>2 Index Area</th>
<th>3 Reference Area</th>
<th>4 Rotary File of Periodical Holdings</th>
<th>5 Periodicals Reading Room</th>
<th>6 New York Times &amp; Index</th>
<th>7 Government Documents</th>
<th>8 Abstracts</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3/7</td>
<td>Wilson, John Arthur, <em>Modern Practice in Leather Manufacturing</em></td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Census data on Putnam Co., Indiana</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>A current <em>Newsweek</em> for browsing</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>You want to make a current comparison of the <em>Indianapolis Star</em> and the <em>Chicago Tribune</em></td>
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<td><em>Games People Play</em></td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Congressional debates on the Alaska pipeline</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Who's Who in the Humanities</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>A professor sends you to read an article in May 1975 <em>Society</em></td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>Watchmaking information to check out of the library</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Does the Library subscribe to <em>Ms., Ebony, or Time?</em></td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Book with a Superintendent of Documents classification #</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Find current information on the fad of tie-dyeing</td>
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<td>Supreme Court decisions</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Birthdates for Albert Schweitzer and Lawrence Welk</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Day-to-day coverage of the Kent State &quot;incident&quot;</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Magazine article on ESP</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Review in a magazine of Alistair Cooke's <em>America</em></td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Bibliography of resources on black Americans</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Ten longest bridges in the world</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>Organization chart of the U.S. Postal Service</td>
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WILLIAM MILLER AND D. STEPHEN ROCKWOOD

Collection Development from a College Perspective

University-centered theories of collection development are inappropriate for the college library; yet they still constitute much of the theoretical basis for college collection development. While some librarians have begun to think of the college library as a unique entity, too many others continue to treat the college collection as a miniature version of a university library. This article contends that the college library is primarily an illustrative collection of materials designed to support undergraduate teaching, and it suggests advisable directions for college collection development in the light of this conception of the college library.

Collection development today is certainly a most inexact science. As Michael Moran demonstrated in his recent article "The Concept of Adequacy in University Libraries," there is really no way, at present, for any of us to determine whether a collection is or is not adequate. Formulas exist, but these are arbitrary constructions rather than validated criteria. This inexactness need not concern university collection development officers very much, for they have the comfort of aiming for total coverage in many, or perhaps even in every field; they might even have the funds to acquire near total coverage. For small college collection development officers, however, the situation is quite different. They have neither the funds, nor the space, nor the staff to attempt total coverage. Unfortunately, also, they have little in the way of theory as a guide in their quest for enlightened selectivity.

Review of the Literature

Where can college library collection development officers look for guidance? The locus classicus would presumably be Guy R. Lyle's Administration of the College Library.2 Lyle provides common sense advice about considering the nature of the curriculum, the composition of the faculty, the amount of funds available, the initial size of the collection, and geographical location, among other factors. For instance, a college surrounded by institutions with significant collections can engage in cooperative acquisitions and could afford not to acquire certain items (expensive sets of legal materials or science abstracts, for example). Isolated college libraries, on the other hand, might wish to acquire such items, not only for students and faculty, but also as a service to the surrounding community.

Lyle's recommendations are good advice and have yet to be superseded. However, there is no special guidance here for the college collection development officer. These factors are precisely those that university development officers would also have to consider, were they trying to spend their resources according to a formula. Indeed, one might even say that the factors which Lyle suggests for consideration are misleading for college collection development officers, because they are generally applicable principles and are not especially relevant to their special needs.

This problem was illustrated well by the pioneering citation analysis that Gross and Gross, two small college chemists, did in 1927 for their department.3 They were in-

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interested in reducing its periodicals budget and hit upon analyzing footnotes in journal articles to eliminate subscriptions to journals that were little used. What Gross and Gross ignored, however, was that they were analyzing the use patterns of researchers and publishing scholars, not of the college undergraduates. They had unwittingly done a study which was perhaps relevant for the college faculty members, or for university-use patterns, but irrelevant for their primary college audience. 4

Their study was archetypically off-base. It is only recently that librarians have conceived of the college library as an institution at all distinct from the university library. Newton McKeon’s 1954 article “The Nature of the College-Library Book Collection” 5 illustrates this lack of awareness well. McKeon, more interested in faculty than in student needs, stated that the college library had the responsibility to supply the faculty with “working materials for scholarship in their fields.” 6 These “working materials” included journals, proceedings, official documents, reprints of manuscripts, and original source materials of all kinds, most of which would in practice undoubtedly have proved irrelevant to student needs. McKeon contended, however, that such a collection would serve students as well as faculty, because a “rewarding educational experience” 7 required the very best available resources.

Clearly, McKeon’s intention was to create a university library in miniature at every college. How colleges could afford to do this was left unsaid, and whether or not such attempts at universality are desirable was left unquestioned. As for the execution of his development plans, it was all art and intuition, a “spirit of team play” between librarians and faculty members, chance conversations, informed suggestions, and inquiries about unfulfilled needs. Nevertheless, this is probably still the state of the art at many institutions.

By 1963, Stuart Stiffler, in “A Philosophy of Book Selection for Smaller Academic Libraries,” 8 had realized some of the inherent differences between college and university libraries and was stressing the need for college libraries to select materials, not only for their intrinsic merit, but also for their ability to complement the existing collection and the college’s educational philosophy and program. Stiffler correctly noted that a book collection “consists of ideas, or themes, events, and interpretations” 9 that combine to form a distinctive entity. Stiffler did not eschew subjective criteria for collection completely, but he subordinated them to criteria based upon a conception of the existing collection, perceived as an ideationally and structurally coherent whole. Obviously, Stiffler’s article was quite abstract, and he never grappled specifically with how we might define a collection in order to build upon it. Yet, his inherent recognition of college collection building as different from university collection building remains valuable.

**Recent Theory**

Recent college library collection development theory is best represented by Evan Farber’s work. Many people now realize intuitively that college libraries cannot be small versions of university libraries, because they cannot afford to be, financially. But to rest there is to define college libraries in the negative; Farber takes a more positive approach. He has worked actively to create an alternative to the “university-library syndrome” that affects so many college librarians.

According to Farber, college libraries differ from university libraries “not only in quantitative terms but in their educational roles.” 10 The college librarian must build a collection that directly fulfills student needs, which means, most importantly, “a collection of cultural and recreational materials that can expand students’ horizons.” 11 Farber’s ideal college collection must be a cultural center and do more than serve basic curricular needs. It must also have a “good reference collection that will serve as a key to the immediate library and to resources elsewhere.” 12

The reference collection is the link that puts users in touch with the universe of resources their library does not, because it cannot, and perhaps should not, have. The reference collection, along with a strong program of bibliographic instruction, is also the key to making full use of the collection the library does have, and justifying the
library's material and processing expenditures.

As a supporter of the no-growth library, Farber believes that the present financial difficulties of colleges are not necessarily bad, because as librarians have to curtail expenditures, they will have to pay more attention "to what a college library should be doing."\(^{13}\)

**IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE**

As we analyze the trend in collection philosophy from McKeon to Farber, one point stands out: the trend is toward emphasizing the differences between college and university libraries. One can no longer pretend that collection development for the college library is simply a lilliputian version of university collection development; more attention is now being paid to the goals of the small college and to the library's role in the fulfillment of those goals.

Instead of bridling at the restrictions forced upon the college librarian by financial exigency, Farber and his followers now glory in the singular nature of the small academic library. They want us to emphasize our differences and to turn our limitations into creative assets. Thus the attitudinal change in twenty-five years has been great.

Corresponding to the change in thinking concerning the purpose of the small college library, there has also been a change in the view of the selector's position. McKeon advocated selection by intuition. Stiffier called for "hard analysis of the individual title in its relation to some conceptualization of the book collection."\(^{14}\) This was an advance, abstract concept though it is.

Farber would endorse Stiffier's analysis of the individual title but would do it even more critically. By committing himself to a no-growth library, he has increased the need for discipline in selection. The librarian in a fixed-sized library must continually evaluate the collection and, for every book added, must weed a book out. This places greater responsibility on the selector, both as acquirer and as weeder, because it magnifies the impact of mistaken decisions.

In this post-university-library syndrome era, we wish we could offer college collection development officers validated, scientific guidelines with which they could confidently make the hard decisions they face daily. However, we cannot offer such guidelines; as Michael Moran's article suggests, we doubt that such guidelines can ever be formulated. Therefore, all college collection development officers will continue to use *Choice*, use standard lists, involve faculty in collection decisions, give special attention to the existing strengths of their library, consider the holdings of other area institutions and the willingness of such institutions to extend their resources to others, make interlibrary loan arrangements, and try to anticipate the changing nature of the college curriculum. We hold these practices to be self-evident. Yet, we think that something more emerges out of a consideration of college collection development theory in recent decades.

**STUDENT-CENTERED LIBRARIES**

First, we must now recognize very frankly that our primary client is the student and not the faculty member and collect with that fact in mind. This is radical doctrine, which many faculty members would undoubtedly find unpalatable, but it is the inevitable conclusion we draw from Farber's work. As undergraduate teaching institutions, colleges cannot afford to devote much of their resources to highly specialized research materials, even when these would facilitate faculty dissertations and publication.

The reference collection can and should be the link, for faculty, between their needs and the universe of resources available at research institutions, resources that their own college library very properly does not have. Their research, important as it may be, is secondary to the primary mission of the college, and the faculty member's needs are secondary, for the library, to those of the students.

The reality of our college curricula today is that at most institutions, a basic work (such as, for instance, the Twayne series on standard authors) is more valuable to an undergraduate than a more sophisticated work that concentrates on minute details of an author's writing.

We do not mean here to demean scholarship, and we would not like to be accused
of pandering to student taste or taking students' perceptions as the ultimate measure of what is valuable. However, as working librarians, we cannot ignore the obvious disparities between what faculty too often request and what students actually find useful.

The college library needs to have a written collection development policy that specifically names its primary clients and attempts to delineate as far as is practical the kinds of books that are and that are not appropriate for its primary collection goal. With this policy in hand, the librarians can contend with the faculty member who wants to spend the English department's remaining thousand dollars on first editions of Arnold Bennett, or the biologist who has a list of specialized journals considered essential for his or her research.

College faculty members at first view this attempt to rationalize acquisitions as a usurpation of prerogative, or an abridgment of academic freedom, but they can usually be made to understand and admit the difference between college education as a process and university training as a specialized inculcation of particular facts and information. Once they accept this distinction, they are likely to become partners in the endeavor to collect a useful working collection, on a fixed budget, for undergraduates.

PERIODICALS COLLECTIONS

A second principle becomes evident as a corollary to the proposition that the college library exists primarily for the benefit of the student. It is that the periodicals collection should not be apportioned by department. The result of departmental apportionment is a haphazard collection of journals designed for no particular purpose. If periodical collections in colleges are to be as useful as the book collection, they should, for the most part, reflect the titles covered in the major indexing tools that the library receives and that students are most likely to use. There should probably be a core collection of indexing tools that are most appropriate for undergraduate work and that are essentially surrogates for the periodicals collection. Such a core collection concept, presently being employed at Alma College, has been defined by the Alma College library staff to include Readers' Guide, Humanities Index, Social Sciences Index, Essay and General Literature Index, and the new General Science Index. Copies of these indexes are prominently shelved as a group and are given special treatment in bibliographic instruction.

Of course, the library will also have indexes and abstracts that refer users to resources to which they would not have immediate access. Thus the core indexes are essentially analogous to the card catalog and signal clearly to the user that "this is what you can have, immediately, in our library."

The other indexes and abstracts would be analogous to specialized bibliographies, about both of which library instructors could say, in effect, "these tools are for the more scholarly, sustained, or adventurous projects. Be forewarned: we do not have all, and perhaps not even many, of the items included here, so you may have to use interlibrary loan, or go elsewhere, to obtain your materials."

University librarians need not worry very much about the rationale for their periodicals collections and can confidently expect a collection of thirty to fifty thousand periodical titles to satisfy any average student user from any department.

College librarians, however, may be expending half of the materials budget on only seven hundred, one thousand, or at most two thousand periodical titles. If they accept the proposition that all periodicals, and the indexes and abstracts, are created equal, they are accepting a formula for perpetual student frustration and dissatisfaction.

It is folly for college libraries to attempt to satisfy research needs on a hit-or-miss basis; it would be much more sensible to conceive of periodical acquisition primarily in terms of a core of indexes, which students could easily be instructed to use and which would lead the student, with confidence, to the articles themselves.

Of course, the library should also have indexes and abstracts which refer the users to resources that they do not have immediate access to, but the personality and the tenacity of undergraduates is such that they need quite a bit of positive reinforcement in their searching for periodicals. We have never seen this consideration built into calculations of what percentage of user
needs a library should be expected to satisfy, but clearly the college undergraduate demands more immediate gratification than do university graduate students and faculty.

The typical first contacts of college students with the library occur when they are under immediate time pressure to produce a paper. If they learn that the indexes and abstracts exist only to point out material that is, for their practical purposes, unobtainable, they will not soon return.

We suggest, therefore, that the college librarian's first periodicals priority is to subscribe to journals whose articles the students will surely be directed to when they use the standard periodical indexes. Even if another library exists in close proximity, and holds these same journals, their purchase is still justifiable. The time to wean students from excessive dependence on the Readers' Guide is after they have mastered its use, and after they know that they can always fall back upon it for quick references if PAIS or the other indexes point them to too many unobtainable items.

CHARACTERISTICS OF UNDERGRADUATES

In talking about student frustration and about the disparity between their needs and faculty needs, a third principle becomes evident for college librarians, a principle which McKeon would have rejected but which Farber would probably endorse: Just as we should not consider college libraries to be miniature university libraries, so we should not assume that college students are all scholar-adventurers. We should not ignore the personalities of our primary user group any more than we should ignore their need for materials.

Perhaps the major difference between the library use of the average college student and the average graduate student or faculty member is that college students rarely need to use the library as anything more than a study hall or a reserve room. Human nature being what it is, they will not generally use the library one whit more, or more intelligently, than they have to.

This is a consideration university collection policies need not concern themselves with, at least where their graduate students and faculty are concerned. These people will have to learn how to use the library, and they will need to discover where the important materials are. Therefore, collection development can proceed in an abstract intellectual vacuum. Subject specialists can procure abstruse materials, secure in the knowledge that the appropriate people will appreciate the acquisition and make proper use of it.

College librarians can assume nothing of the sort. Therefore, they cannot conduct collection development in a vacuum. It must, first and most importantly, be tied to library instruction at introductory and advanced levels. One might even end up purchasing more expensive materials for departments that will encourage students to use them, or for courses whose faculty members will be cooperating in the library's instructional program.

To a great extent, the college library can generate whatever level of bibliographic expertise its students acquire, and it can control (and justify the cost of) expensive items by instructing students in their use.

This is not the place for a lengthy discussion of the merits of bibliographic instruction, but it is clearly here that the library discharges a good bit of its instructional responsibility, and collection development must focus on areas of heavy instruction. Here again, a written policy, coupled with a check on how often expensive materials are used, may defuse resentment and even result in more sober assessments of the library's place in the instructional life of the campus. Departments that have resisted bibliographic instruction should very properly have their book budgets cut, and if they complain, it should be easy to explain and defend the move.

If there is a place in the college library for specialized materials, or computerized versions of them, it is in the reference collection. Here the faculty and more sophisticated students can become aware of those resources their library does not stock. Here, also, the interlibrary loan and cooperative lending processes are facilitated. As more indexes and abstracts become available online, departmental and reference materials budgets should probably be channeled away from traditional, expensive, and little-used hard-copy bibliographies and indexes and
toward the computerized versions of them.

We doubt that on-line reference work will become an integral part of college library activity very soon, especially because college budgets will not permit extensive on-line searching. Undergraduates will not usually be willing to bear the cost (and should not be made to bear the cost) of searches which would be just as valuable, at their level of inquiry, if done manually.

However, some of the more specialized indexes could conceivably be eliminated in favor of on-line work, if they were readily available. There is a danger here of limiting access and of frightening away timid potential student users. But we judge this hazard to be more theoretical than real, especially if such services are advertised as a regular part of reference service and are underwritten as a normal part of departmental and reference budget expenditure.

Average undergraduates are unlikely to care to go beyond Readers' Guide and the other core-searching tools, but if they do, a readily available computer search may stimulate as much sophisticated research as it stifles.

**Microforms**

Should the curriculum warrant a small college's attempt to acquire research-strength holdings in a particular field, the preselected microform collection might be an acceptable alternative. As subjects such as black studies, women's studies, and popular culture enter the curriculum, librarians often discover that their collection lacks the resources to support work in these areas.

Retrospective collecting is time-consuming and expensive under the best of circumstances, and, lacking subject bibliographers, most college libraries are not set up for it. Thus a microform collection on a discrete subject can save staff time, ensure reasonable coverage of a subject, save expensive space, and make material quickly available, with minimal processing, for student use.

One must expect undergraduate resistance to microform use, especially among the minimally motivated, and for that reason we would not recommend acquiring the more popular, or heavily used, periodical titles in this format. Microform presents a number of barriers that will too easily frustrate the students who will not persevere. However, the ability to use microform is a skill that college libraries should probably be teaching, and one should not shy away from acquiring microform when it represents desirable material, including replacements of missing periodical volumes, which could not otherwise be conveniently acquired.

**Curriculum-Centered Collecting**

In order to discharge their collection development responsibilities adequately, college librarians must, to a much greater extent than university librarians, know the curriculum, the existing collection, and the students and faculty at their particular institutions. Though it may sound harsh and elitist, the truth is that the level of academic sophistication varies considerably from college to college. A collection that would support the curriculum and serve the students well at one college might prove entirely inadequate, for any number of reasons, at another.

Thus librarians must collect for their individual schools, not for some ideal abstract institution. They should be cautious in approaching standard lists or in using selection aids such as Choice; they should also try to anticipate academic developments and curricular change, so that the library can evolve along with the college. Finally, they should secure control of the acquisitions budget, if they do not already have it.

In too many colleges, academic departments control and expend their budgets according to no discernible criteria. While the faculty may know their subjects, they probably know little about how students use the library, and their judgment as book selectors is questionable.

As Massman and Olson point out, faculty members are too often either "overburdened with other duties," lacking in their knowledge of books, disinterested in books, unconvinced that library materials are really of value in instruction, prone to selecting only narrow research works on the one hand or textbooks on the other, or simply too lazy to care what happens to their book budget, even though believing that "only they are capable of selecting." It is probably only
the librarian who can see the collection as a whole, as Stiffler suggested, and select material that is relevant to the students, the curriculum, and the existing collection.

SUMMARY

Working from the proposition that college libraries are not simply small versions of university libraries, four guidelines that college collection development officers should follow become evident.

First, college librarians should recognize their primary obligation to collect for undergraduate students.

Second, in the same way that book acquisitions should reflect student needs, periodical acquisitions should be based primarily upon major periodical indexes that students would see as analogous to the card catalog.

Third, college librarians need to take account of the nature of the undergraduate personality, for instance avoiding microform material where it would tend to be most discouraging to the weakly motivated student.

Finally, college librarians, to a much greater extent than university librarians, should know their institution's curriculum and exercise maximum control over their materials budget. Extensive faculty selection, too common at colleges, is liable to result in haphazard collections.

REFERENCES

6. Ibid., p.52.
7. Ibid., p.53.
9. Ibid., p.205.
12. Ibid., p.39.
13. Ibid., p.40.
15. For an alternative viewpoint on the place of microform collections in the small college library, see Stiffler, "A Footnote on Confusion," p.18.
Collection Development from a College Perspective: A Comment and a Response

Editor's Note: We are pleased to present below a comment on the preceding article prepared by Evan I. Farber, Librarian, Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana. A response by William Miller, one of the authors of the article, follows.

EVAN I. FARBER

A COMMENT

TO BEGIN WITH, I agree fully with the main thrust of the article—that the approach to building a college library's collection must be very different from that for a university library and that it is really the college librarian's responsibility, not the faculty's, to ensure the collection's usefulness. I do, however, have several reservations about specific points.

1. Periodical collections "should, for the most part, reflect the titles covered in the major indexing tools the library receives."

To be sure, whether or not a periodical is indexed should be an important consideration, but it is also important to have as many of those titles as possible that are important for supporting course work. Restricted to indexed periodicals, most college libraries would not consider subscribing to Paris-Match or Der Spiegel, for example, because they're not in the generally available indexes, even though students taking French or German should be able to see them.

A periodical not covered by the indexes needs to be examined very carefully for possible subscription, but should not be eliminated from consideration on that basis alone. The reason its being indexed is important, of course, is because that makes its use more likely. If other factors, such as class assignments or even student browsing, ensure its use, whether or not it's indexed is not as important.

There's another reason for not using indexing as a primary goal. It takes a while for any new periodical to get into an index—and that is particularly true, of course, of the Wilson indexes, for which inclusion of particular titles is determined by subscribers' votes. I think, however, that a college librarian has a responsibility for adding new periodicals—not constantly or hastily, but judiciously, with as much or more care than is given to book selection.

Among the titles our library has added within the past year are some not covered yet by any index, but I can defend the selection of each of them on some other basis of selection: Omni, Grants Magazine, Asia, Bennington Review, Public Opinion, and the Cornell Review. In a few years they probably will be indexed, but it's up to librarians to make sure that students do find out about them before then. Encouraging students to read, to browse, to become familiar with new books and periodicals is part of a college librarian's responsibility, and what the indexing services have chosen to cover cannot obviate that.

2. Another objection stems from the authors' overemphasis on bibliographic instruction, their claim that it should be the most important criterion in determining additions to the collection. Now this may
seem a strange comment from one who is so closely identified with bibliographic instruction, and I'm sure our agreements about it are more numerous and important than our differences. But the suggestion that “departments which have resisted bibliographic instruction should very properly have their book budgets cut” simply runs counter to what I think is the desirable, even necessary, approach to bibliographic instruction.

Such a punitive device will hardly engender that spirit of cooperation, that sense of common endeavor between teaching faculty and librarians that is the sine qua non for an ongoing program of bibliographic instruction. It's too easy to forget that bibliographic instruction is not an end in itself—its justification and primary purpose are the enhancement of the teaching/learning process. Together with teaching faculty, we college librarians are in the business of education and regarding and approaching bibliographic instruction as an end in itself, without considering its educational context, can only be counterproductive and result in an unsupported and eventually dismantled program.

I think that one source of the authors' error here is their implicit assumption that all teaching has the same thrust, that bibliographic instruction can be equally useful for all disciplines, or even for all types of teaching. For example, after all these years, I still find it difficult to relate bibliographic instruction to mathematics courses or to foreign-language courses that emphasize language skills. One might respond that, okay, then these departments don't need much library support, but that's very different from saying that they should "have their book budgets cut."

Librarians must understand and appreciate that there are many approaches to teaching, and not every one, not even some of the most successful ones, entail use of the library. To be sure, we believe that good teaching can be made even better if students are required to use the library and are given instruction in that use, but that does not extend to every course.

We need to respect the different approaches to pedagogy and work with those that are appropriate for bibliographic instruction. Our creativity and energy should be focused on the teaching faculty with whom we can work—there's enough to be done just with them. Penalizing others will only put faculty on the defensive and ruin a working relationship that was probably fragile enough to begin with.

3. Librarians "should secure control of the acquisitions budget, if they do not already have it. . . . While the faculty may know their subjects, they probably know little about how students use the library, and their judgment as book selectors is questionable."

I'm not quite sure what Miller and Rockwood mean by "secure control," and if they mean the librarian is responsible for allocating the budget and supervising its expenditure over the fiscal year, I cannot argue with that. But if, on the other hand, they mean (and this is what I think they do mean) that the librarian should initiate all ordering or at least have to approve every request, I can't agree.

First of all, it's not wise politically and will surely test the fragility of that relationship I spoke of earlier. More important, though, it assumes that librarians know more about the content of disciplines than most do, or even more than they should be expected to know. It is unfair to categorize faculty members (even with a qualified "too often") as "lacking in their knowledge of books, disinterested in books . . . prone to selecting only narrow research works on the one hand or textbooks on the other." My experience is that the few faculty members who fit that description will not even bother to order, and then the librarian can fill that gap.

It is more likely that most faculty members can't be depended upon to maintain some sort of balance in the library's collection, but that is where the librarian comes in: to suggest titles for filling in gaps and, more important, to work with faculty and help them develop a wider perspective. The library collection is not an end in itself: It exists primarily to support the teaching program, and teachers should be interested in making sure the collection does that. If they do not, then it's up to the librarian, but he or she should always be conscious of faculty expertise and responsibility.
WILLIAM MILLER

A RESPONSE

WE APPRECIATE Evan Farber's thoughtful critique, which gives us an opportunity to clarify several matters. Farber senses, quite rightly, that our article is somewhat rigid and doctrinaire. It is so because we were attempting to define some theoretical, objective criteria and then explore what the logical consequences of these criteria might be, ignoring for the moment the political and social context in which the library exists. In real life, of course, we do not ignore the political and social context, and as a result we end up behaving very much as Farber suggests that we should.

Nevertheless, we thought it valuable to theorize, with this question in mind: "If I were not running the risk of offending department X, and if I did not need to do a favor for professor Y, what objective criteria could I apply to my acquisitions process, to provide maximum educational benefit to the greatest number of students, given a budget which does not allow me to purchase everything I want?"

This question is complex and frustrating, so much so that many college librarians refuse to accept its legitimacy, preferring instead to follow whims, hunches, and prejudices, and to bemoan the inevitably insufficient budget.

A second group of college librarians acknowledges the question but says, in effect, "Although we cannot order everything, which every faculty member might theoretically want, we can and will order anything any faculty member actually does request." We see little difference between the first and second responses; in both cases, librarians are refusing to make professional judgments.

We suggest a third response: "Although I have the money to order any particular item and could order it if I wanted to, I do not want to unless it fits into a collection development policy built around an objective set of criteria, which I have already defined." With that third response in mind, we should like to respond to Farber's three specific reservations.

1. In emphasizing that periodical collections should reflect titles covered in indexing tools, we acknowledge we are out on a limb and would like to address important questions he raises.

There are many thousands of fine periodicals, all of them potentially useful for course work. But which ones will students actually use? Clearly, they will almost always use the most highly indexed periodicals, because indexing provides their most important subject access. There are, of course, bibliographies that students might use, and they may be introduced to periodicals in several other ways. But how can one rationally build a small periodicals collection based on these other ways? On the other hand, we know for certain that students will be using the periodicals suggested to them in Readers' Guide and the other more common indexes.

We have no wish to make demigods out of the people at H. W. Wilson, and we recognize that there are other bases on which to collect periodicals, but they are weaker, more subjective, and too dependent on individual needs that may be transitory. Therefore, for small academic libraries, we have no hesitation about calling the acquisition of highly indexed periodicals the primary task in the development of the collection, assuming that the primary goal of collecting is use, and not the creation of that mythical budget-eating monster, the "balanced collection."

Der Spiegel illustrates our point well. Any large academic library should have it, and any small academic library should have it, if it is actually playing a part in the instructional program. But we would hate to see a library of 700 or 1,000 periodical titles subscribing to Der Spiegel simply because someone believes that it is the most important German newsmagazine, something that one "must" have. We would ask librarians at such an institution: "As far as you can tell, do any students actually use it?" "Is there any faculty member who seriously (and not just wishfully) supports the subscription as an aid to the instructional program, or who expects students to use it?" If the answers are "no" on both counts, then the subscription should be cancelled—unless there is a political consideration that...
outranks one's normal criteria. Certainly, after cancellation, there may be an occasional person who asks for Der Spiegel. But how many students ask, every day, for more common titles that the library cannot supply?

2. Perhaps we were too insistent about library instruction. We do counsel an aggressive instruction program, but Farber is right to make a distinction between departments that are noncooperative and those that simply cannot accommodate library work into the structure of their courses. A hostile attitude toward either kind of department is certainly inappropriate and self-defeating.

We like Farber's distinction between consulting with departments about their reduced need for support rather than telling them that their budgets are being cut. The difference can certainly be substantive as well as semantic and political. At the same time, it is also appropriate to make special efforts to enrich the collections in those areas where bibliographic instruction has created increased demand.

3. By "securing control of the acquisitions budget," we meant that librarians should apportion a large part of the acquisitions budget among departments, expecting departments to initiate the bulk of their own book ordering, but standing ready, not only to expend departmental funds, but also to exercise judgment on all departmental orders.

We do think that librarians should reserve the right to approve every request, but this does not mean imperious, arbitrary action; it means questioning and negotiating requests that seem too specialized, too expensive, too redundant, or otherwise inappropriate. We think also that librarians should retain approximately 25 percent of the budget for discretionary buying. Here, and in their control of the departmental funds, librarians would be exercising their professional judgments.
Sequential Analysis: A Methodology for Monitoring Approval Plans

Sequential analysis is a statistical method based on drawing sample items one at a time, with a decision at each stage whether further sampling is necessary to reach a conclusion. This methodology is shown to provide a convenient and appropriate method for investigating the performance of a library approval plan. The sequential approach minimizes the investment in staff time, by delaying, until a title is chosen for the sample, the determination of its status in the approval plan. Application of the methodology at an academic library is reported in detail, and adaptations to other library situations are explained.

Although approval plans have become widely used in the last ten years as an important acquisitions mechanism, doubts have been expressed regarding the reliability of such plans. McCullough, Posey, and Pickett note that looming largest among these [shortcomings] is the uncertainty factor. . . . Except in a minority of cases, it is difficult to guarantee that a specific book will be produced by an approval plan.1 Dudley has indicated that one of the charges against an approval plan, based on experience and the literature, is the uncertainty of knowing whether a specific book will arrive. . . .2 Librarians using approval plans must contend with two major problems: (1) receipt of unwanted material and (2) nonreceipt of wanted material. Receipt of unwanted books is admittedly troublesome and entails some expense.

However, failure to receive desired material poses, by far, the more serious consequences. To the degree that the approval plan breaks down and wanted books are not received, (1) the library staff must attempt to fill the gaps on a title-by-title basis, a difficult task when it is impossible to predict what will and will not arrive on approval; and (2) gaps discovered by patrons frequently result in complaints and poor evaluation of library service.

Approval plans are beneficial only to the extent that staff time and paperwork associated with the selection and acquisition of material are reduced. Any attempt to monitor approval plans on a title-by-title basis in order to overcome the "uncertainty factor" defeats the purpose of approval plans as staff time devoted to selection and searching is not significantly reduced.

Monitoring of approval plans is important, for much of the uncertainty surrounding the receipt of approval material appears to stem from differing expectations and interpretations on the parts of vendors and of librarians. An objective monitoring plan, coupled with detailed analysis, can do much to reconcile differing interpretations. To date, however, most reports concerning the
monitoring of approval plans have been informal and descriptive. Librarians frequently retain a subjective impression of approval plan performance as a result of user complaints and time spent supplementing the plan; however, librarians seldom have facilities for collecting and analyzing quantitative data.

Sequential analysis refers to a statistical method in which sample items are drawn one by one and the results of the drawing at any stage decide whether sampling is to continue. The sample size is thus not fixed in advance but depends on the actual results and varies from one sample to another. The sampling terminates according to predetermined rules which are decided by the degree of precision required.

Sequential analysis offers several advantages:

1. It requires a minimum of staff time and essentially no other expense.
2. It can be used for a single evaluation or for periodic monitoring.
3. It yields quantitative data of value in explanations to patrons and to administrators.
4. It should lead naturally to analysis and correction of any weaknesses found in the approval plan.

In a recent study at Kansas State University (KSU) Libraries a sequential analysis was performed to find how well the library's interpretation of an approval plan, particularly the profile, coincided with that of the vendor. Sequential analysis, in other words, was used to investigate whether the percentage of "defects" (that is, books that the library expected to receive on approval but did not) was low enough to indicate good performance (Accept rate), or whether adjustments were indicated (Reject rate).

Sampling, rather than 100 percent screening, was necessary as a practical matter because of the number of titles involved and the limited amount of staff time that could be devoted to the project.

The purpose of the sampling experiment was to allow statistical inference as to the degree of conformity between the interpretation of librarians and the interpretation of the vendor's book selectors. Each instance in which the library expected to receive a book on approval but did not was counted as a "defect," with an "Accept" result for a low percent defective and a "Reject" result for a high percent defective.

Once a decision was made to conduct a sampling experiment, the next decision was whether to use a fixed-size sampling plan or a sequential plan—whether to choose the sample size in advance or to sample until enough evidence is accumulated to warrant an inference. A sequential approach was especially advantageous in this study because of the difficulty of determining the necessary sample size for a fixed sampling plan in advance.

When conclusions are generalized from a statistical sample, there are risks that an atypical sample (sampling "error") will lead to the wrong conclusion. It is especially difficult to decide in advance on some fixed number of titles to sample when the variable is "percent defective" as in the KSU study. The problem is that the sample size necessary to achieve reasonable risks depends on the variability from sample to sample, and the variability depends, in turn, on the unknown percent defective. Fortunately, this circularity can be avoided by use of a sequential plan whenever, as in the approval monitoring application, it is convenient and economical to draw and inspect one item at a time.

As noted above, in a sequential sampling plan the size of the sample is not determined in advance of the experiment as it is in a fixed sampling plan. Sampling, in a sequential plan, simply continues until an "Accept" or "Reject" conclusion is supported by the evidence. So long as the evidence is inconclusive, the investigator continues to draw additional sample items.

It should be pointed out that, as suggested by capitalization, the words "Accept" and "Reject" are used in a technical sense. "Accept" and "Reject" do not refer to acceptance or rejection of the approval plan as a whole, and at no time was rejection of the entire approval plan under consideration by the KSU Libraries. Nor do the terms refer to acceptance or rejection of specific books. Rather, sequential analysis was used as a device to "tune" the approval plan.

In a sequential analysis plan the sample size that will be necessary to reach a conclusion is not known definitely in advance.
However, the average sample number (ASN) can be calculated for various actual defect rates. If the actual defect rate is very high, a conclusion follows quickly, on the average. Similarly, the ASN for a very low actual defect rate is small. The largest ASN values occur at intermediate percentages. The saving in sample size (and therefore in actual defect rate is small. The largest average. Similarly, the
defect rates. \textit{values occur at intermediate percentages. For that reason, sequential plans are in wide use in production quality control and acceptance sampling. Details of sequential plans are available in several references}.\textsuperscript{6,7,8}

\textbf{METHODOLOGY}

The choice of a particular plan amounts to the choice of an “Accept” defect rate \( p_1 \) with a related risk \( \alpha \), and a “Reject” defect rate \( p_2 \) with a related risk \( \beta \). In the KSU study the “Accept” rate, that is, the acceptable level of conformity between the interpretations of librarians and vendors, was set at \( p_1 = 2 \) percent defective, with a (“producer’s,” i.e., vendor’s) risk of \( \alpha = 5 \) percent of an atypically bad sample leading to an error. The “Reject” rate was set at \( p_2 = 10 \) percent defective, with a (“consumer’s,” i.e., librarian’s) risk of \( \beta = 10 \) percent of an atypically good sample leading to an error. Other values, adapted to the needs of other libraries, can easily be substituted for the ones used here.

The sequential sampling chart shown in figure 1 was drawn according to specifications in standard references for the set of values \( p_1 = 2 \) percent, \( p_2 = 10 \) percent, \( \alpha = 5 \) percent, and \( \beta = 10 \) percent, used in the KSU study. As explained below, critical line boundaries separate the two decision regions, “Accept” and “Reject,” from the region of continued sampling.

The 1977 edition of \textit{American Book Publishing Record}\textsuperscript{9} was used as a source of titles for sampling. Five-digit sequences were drawn from a large random number table (uniform distribution),\textsuperscript{10} entered randomly and read in a predetermined order to avoid bias. Since individual titles are not numbered in the \textit{American Book Publishing Record}, an estimate was made of the number of titles per page. Each random sequence was decoded to represent a page number and then the number of a specific title on the page. For example, the number 12,305 would be read as page 123, the fifth title.

The purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which the library’s (i.e., subject bibliographers’) interpretation of the approval plan profile coincided with the interpretation of the vendor (i.e., the vendor’s book selectors). That is, did the approval plan supply the titles that the subject bibliographers expected it to supply?

Consequently when a title was drawn by this method, it was included in the sample \textit{only} if it was expected to arrive on the approval plan. Subject bibliographers reviewed each title drawn, in order to determine whether the books were expected to arrive on approval. If the book was not expected on approval, it was not included in the sample and a new random number was drawn. If the book was expected, it was included in the sample and the cumulative sample size \( n \) was increased by one.

A record trace was entered on the sequential sampling chart (figure 1) as sampling continued. Whenever the cumulative sample size \( n \) increased (because the title drawn was an expected book), the record trace was extended one unit to the right.

If an expected book was not received on approval, it was counted as a defect, the cumulative defect number \( d \) was increased by one, and the record trace was extended one unit up. If the book had been received on approval, the cumulative defect number \( d \) was not changed and the record trace was not moved upward, but held at the same height on the chart. The record trace for the KSU study (bold step trace in figure 1) shows by upward steps that defects were found at items 10, 14, and 19.

When the record trace entered the Reject region in figure 1, that is, when the third defect occurred at item 19, sampling was discontinued. Enough evidence had accumulated to support a statistical “Reject” conclusion indicating need for a clearer understanding between the library and the vendor regarding the approval plan. The staff time involved was minimal—only five or six hours after preliminary conferences on goals and methods.

It must be pointed out that questions concerning the status of individual books
did arise during the monitoring program. In some cases communication with the vendor was necessary before it could be determined that a book was not expected and so should be dropped from the sample count n and the defect count d. In borderline cases the librarian, after gathering information from the vendor and elsewhere, should determine status according to the reflection on approval plan performance.

RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The second component of the study was the detailed analysis of individual defects in order to identify generic problems (see table 1). The results verified and documented the impression of the librarians. The three defects identified resulted, as expected, from differing interpretation and understanding of the approval plan by the vendor and the KSU Libraries.

Librarians verified that titles published simultaneously in the United States by a United States publisher and in the United Kingdom by a United Kingdom publisher were automatically excluded from the domestic approval plan. Some excluded titles were supplied through a U.K. approval
TABLE 1
ANALYSIS OF DEFECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interface with foreign publications</td>
<td>Library expected to receive books published simultaneously in the U.S. by a U.S. publisher and in the U.K. by a U.K. publisher. However, such titles are automatically excluded from the domestic approval plan and supplied through a U.K. plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interface between subject areas</td>
<td>Instructions from the library to the vendor to exclude medical materials resulted in exclusion of materials on the politics and sociology of medicine that were expected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previously published material</td>
<td>Instructions to exclude previously published material led to the exclusion of books containing some previously published articles, along with new material.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

plan; however, the U.K. plan was limited in coverage relative to the domestic plan, and as a result many titles were missed.

In a similar vein the library had excluded medical material from its approval profile, since KSU does not include a medical school. Unfortunately, the deletion of medical material also resulted in the exclusion of material concerned with the politics and sociology of medicine, topics of interest to the library.

Similarly, instructions to exclude previously published material from the profile also resulted in the exclusion of titles which included a mix of original and previously published articles. Clearly all these defects stemmed from inconsistencies in interpretation or understanding on the part of the library and vendor. With the inconsistencies identified and the necessary changes made, the defect rate can be expected to decrease, so that a second analysis in six to twelve months may well lead to an Accept conclusion.

The methodology explained here is adaptable to the needs of a wide range of libraries, since sequential plans for various Accept and Reject rates are readily available. The choice of the Accept rate \( p_1 \) is usually based on practical considerations, since more samples, on the average, are required if \( p_1 \) is decreased.

The choice of the Reject rate \( p_2 \) affects sample cost, but it can also be chosen by a given library to reflect the perceived role of the approval plan. If the approval plan is viewed primarily as an acquisitions device rather than as a collection development tool, then a defect rate of 15 percent may be reasonable. However, if the collection development role is emphasized, a reasonable defect rate may be 10 percent or less.

The role of the approval plan, therefore, influences significantly the definition of what is and is not a reasonable defect rate.

In short, sequential analysis enables collection development librarians to "fine tune" their approval plan. Collection development librarians can, in other words, ensure that approval plans function correctly without investing so much staff time that the purpose of the approval plan is defeated.

Sequential analysis leads to an Accept conclusion or to a Reject conclusion. If an Accept conclusion is reached, librarians and patrons can be assured that receipt of material is generally consistent with the profile. A Reject conclusion indicates some inconsistency of interpretation between librarians and vendors, a situation that frequently results in collection gaps. Resolution of such inconsistencies through further analysis can lead to improved performance of the approval plan and of library service in general.

REFERENCES


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**ABOUT COLLEGE & RESEARCH LIBRARIES**

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

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

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

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

General information on submission of manuscripts may be found on the masthead page in each issue. More detailed information on the journal and news issues is included in a statement in the April 1978 issue of *College & Research Libraries News*, pages 86 and 87.
Library Staff Development through Performance Appraisal

The use of performance evaluation is suggested as a means of improving staff motivation and expertise and of providing a higher level of library service. A summary of the types and uses of performance appraisal and the arguments for and against its effectiveness are followed by a proposal for including this tool in a total program of management communication, goal-setting, and evaluation as they can impact on professional development and job satisfaction rather than directly on promotions and salary increases.

In an effective academic library the professional staff can be the most valuable resource—more important than any other one component: books, card catalog, documents, etc. A good professional staff is the key to all the rest, providing access to information whether through selection, cataloging, reference, interlibrary loan, or administration of others. Giving the level of service that offers total access to information requires a staff that is well trained, highly motivated, and cooperative; and the encouragement of such a staff has been a continuing goal of administrators.

One method of encouraging higher standards of performance that has been popular for about the last twenty years in business is the use of performance evaluation. A variety of appraisal techniques have been used, ranging from essays to absolute rating scales, forced comparisons, or ranking of employees. (An excellent short summary of standard methods and their applicability was provided by Winston Oberg in 1972.)

Performance appraisal is applied for a variety of goals:
1. To improve performance in the present job.
2. To provide a basis for recommending promotion, salary increases, or dismissal.
3. To give the employee a chance to "know where he or she stands" in the supervisor's estimation.
4. To develop an inventory of human resources for the use of management—a record of the available talents and potential among the present staff.
5. To provide a method of counseling and encouraging staff members to grow and to plan for future development.

As early as 1957, however, Douglas McGregor pointed out the dangers of using the same technique to try to accomplish such diverse goals. The evaluation of a subordinate can force the supervisor into "playing God," judging performance on personality rather than on results, employing subjective standards, demanding that one employee be measured against another in a win-lose situation, and requiring an uncomfortable face-to-face interview in which neither manager nor subordinate is prepared to give or receive criticism.

The problems inherent in traditional appraisal systems are summarized in Marjorie Johnson's 1972 academic library survey, and specific psychological errors to avoid when evaluating an employee are described in the Pennsylvania State University Libraries "Management Guide to Performance Evaluation."

These errors include the "halo effect" (an overall or early impression of the employee that affects the rating of the individual work factors); the "central tendency" error (rating

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most people toward the middle of any scale; unconscious prejudice or partiality based on race, politics, friendship, etc.; "contrast" error (rating an employee on his or her potential, rather than on actual performance); inappropriate upgrading of all ratings (to compete with what the supervisor thinks that other department heads are doing, to prevent unfavorable reflections on the supervisor's managerial ability, or to avoid any direct confrontation with the employee); as well as many others.

Pizam discussed still another intrinsic error, "social differentiation." It has been found that some appraisers have difficulty in evaluating subordinates objectively simply because they never recognize wide differentiations in behavior and do not use most of the scale in rating their employees. "It appears therefore that the act of appraisal ... merely expresses the appraiser's differentiating ability or style of rating behavior. ... Low differentiators tend to ignore or suppress differences, perceiving the universe as more uniform than it really is."

The credibility of traditional performance evaluation programs was further undermined by studies done at the General Electric Company, which concluded:

- Criticism has a negative effect on achievement of goals.
- Praise [relating to general performance characteristics] has little effect one way or another.
- Performance improves most when specific goals are established.
- Defensiveness resulting from critical appraisal produces inferior performance.
- Coaching should be a day-to-day, not a once-a-year, activity.
- Mutual goal setting, not criticism, improves performance.
- Interviews designed primarily to improve a man's [sic] performance should not at the same time weigh his salary or promotion in the balance.
- Participation by the employee in the goal-setting procedure helps produce favorable results.

As one of the few carefully documented, methodologically acceptable management studies on the effect of criticism and mutual goal setting, the study has provided the rationale for many recent performance appraisal programs—including the one proposed in this paper. The conclusions reached at General Electric support current psychological findings about the use of behavior modification to encourage and reinforce positive behavior while extinguishing negative behavior by, to put it simply, ignoring it.

**Management-by-Objectives (MBO)**

An important part of the General Electric study was to confirm what Peter Drucker had presented and McGregor had recommended years earlier: the use of management-by-objectives (MBO) as the basis for professional performance evaluation. This system involves the supervisor and employee in the establishment of priorities and goals, with specific objectives to be accomplished (by a certain date) to further these goals. The evaluative process then becomes an analysis with an emphasis on the future and on the strengths and potential of the employee. It should blunt some of the judgmental aspects of appraisal and promote a better relationship between superior and subordinate.

An article by Thompson and Dalton provides a good defense of the management-by-objectives approach because it is future-oriented rather than focusing on mistakes of the past. It is an open system in which employees are compared with their own objectives rather than on a scale where some must be ranked lower than others, and it is a flexible system that can be tailored to promote the strengths of each individual.

The pendulum has now swung away from the old judgmental ranking scales with their emphasis on "traits" (aspects of personality, which are supposed to have a bearing on job performance, such as "dependability," "initiative," etc.) toward management-by-objectives and/or a discussion of observable behavior only (number of books cataloged, reference questions answered). Sometimes this is supported by the use of techniques such as "critical incidents," where the supervisor records actual occurrences that exemplify positive or negative behavior.

We are beginning to recognize the use of performance appraisal as a tool that can be appropriate for counseling, career planning, and staff development. A summary of recent research into the use of performance appraisal, with suggestions for affecting
motivation, is found in Belcher’s excellent text *Compensation Administration*.11,12

**PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT**

In 1971 Ernest deProspo13 applied Kinnell and Gatza’s five-step program14 to libraries in an effort to focus on employee growth through appraisal. This program includes discussions by the individual and the supervisor on job content, setting of performance targets by the employee, review of these with the supervisor, establishment of evaluative checkpoints, and appraisal of results at the end of the time period.

At about the same time Harry Levinson sounded a warning against unqualified use of MBO. Levinson called MBO “one of the greatest management illusions” and recommended that an MBO program include consideration of an individual’s motivation and personal goals, avoidance of the static job description, which is so often a basis for the objectives, and the recognition that the way in which an individual goes about achieving these goals can be as important as the goals themselves.15,16 He makes a point that is particularly applicable to libraries, since supportive working relationships can do so much to improve service and increase motivation.

Every organization is a social system, a network of interpersonal relationships. A man may do an excellent job by objective standards of measurement, but may fail miserably as a partner, subordinate, superior or colleague.17

In the library these interpersonal relationships can be even more important because so many areas of professional librarianship cannot be appropriately measured by objective standards. How does one cope with the colleague in the selection department who refuses to buy interdisciplinary material out of his or her departmental book budget, thus keeping carefully within set financial limits and building a narrow, specialized collection in depth, but ignoring new fields of interest to the students and cross-disciplinary faculty? A straight MBO approach to evaluation is unlikely to reveal or discourage this inadequacy.

Current practice in academic libraries, according to Yarbrough’s *ARL Management Supplement*,18 includes much use of mutual goal setting and evaluation by librarian and supervisor (and often library director), along with or as a substitute for other procedures such as traditional appraisals (in checklist or essay form), peer evaluations (mainly to recommend for or against promotion, tenure, or salary increases), and even appraisal of supervisors by their subordinates.

One of the most innovative and detailed approaches to performance evaluation was developed at McGill University Libraries in cooperation with the ARL Office of University Library Management Studies in 1975.19 The key to its uniqueness is the focus on supervisory training in motivation, evaluation, and counseling that appear to be essential in developing such a program. It then recommends the setting of unit and individual work goals, followed by semianual performance reviews. Salary decisions are treated as a separate procedure, although a formal, annual evaluation does go into the employee’s file.

The bases for the McGill program are excellent, but there seems to be a heavy emphasis upon improving the library’s performance with too little regard for the individual’s motivation and for the General Electric findings that “criticism has a negative effect on achievement of goals” and that general praise (which is treated almost as an aside in the McGill program) has little effect either way. While the McGill program does recognize that an individual’s performance may be helped or hindered by that of some other unit, it does not deal with a solution to this dependency or with the idea of teamwork.

**THE “CRITICAL INCIDENT” TECHNIQUE**

Current performance appraisal, as exemplified by MBO, by statements of accomplishments on typical faculty (library) evaluation forms, and by the McGill program, focuses not on behavior but on the results of behavior. This stems from the aversion to judging personality when one should be measuring performance. It is certainly true that goals can be legitimately attained by many means, but there is a danger in considering only quantifiable or objective achievements in a service-oriented field like librarianship.
In other words, the way in which one reaches specified objectives is as important as actually reaching them. However, the process of identifying appropriate behavior in specific instances is a difficult, time-consuming one—but one that can lead to genuine staff growth and to the development of future managers and/or specialists. One useful technique in describing specific behavior (such as how to handle the reference interview) is the "critical incident" process.

Let us suppose that the head librarian of the reference department has two librarians who need to be developed into reference specialists. In observing the behavior of the first librarian, the department head might note that individual failed to probe sufficiently when a student inquired about articles on air pollution. The librarian pointed out Public Affairs Information Service; the student wandered away, and the librarian returned to a project of selecting books from Choice.

The second librarian received a query on behavior modification and, not stopping to find out that the student was a freshman with a two-page summary to prepare, totally overwhelmed the student with a half-hour explanation on the use of Psychological Abstracts, on-line access to the ERIC database, and a tremendous amount of material in the card catalog. During the process, however, the librarian forgot to explain to the freshman how to get from a bibliographic journal citation to the actual printed article.

Now these descriptions are exaggerated, but they illustrate that the "critical incident" records actual, specific behaviors, which can then form the basis for a future learning discussion. It is also quite important that positive incidents be recorded so that the employee can recognize and receive reinforcement for appropriate behaviors.

**Performance Profiles**

Critical incidents can also form the basis for a general list of important behavior aspects in each department or in general interaction in the library. In order to analyze how something was accomplished or the quality of performance, it is necessary to identify the important behaviors expected of employees and how those can be recognized in specific situations, for example, in open meetings, in patron contact, in telephone answering, etc. The actual process of identifying these is most helpful if everyone participates.

In another example from business of the use of critical incidents, the Corning Glass Company developed a fascinating "performance profile" that isolated behaviors which managers could specifically identify, recognize, and discuss with subordinates to give them concrete ideas on how to improve performance and strengthen managerial abilities. A sample of the behaviors that were isolated by identifying approximately 300 critical incidents and translating these into 150 general behavioral descriptions included:

- a. Objects to ideas before they are explained.
- b. Takes the initiative in group meetings.
- c. Has difficulty in meeting project deadlines.
- d. Sees his problems in light of the problems of others (that is, does not limit his thinking to his own position or organizational unit).

Appropriate behavioral descriptions for each individual, depending on his or her position and goals, can be selected from such a general list, to be used as a personal performance profile to reflect strengths, weaknesses, and planned areas of improvement.

**Developing Managerial Abilities**

At the beginning of this paper I said that the professional staff of an academic library can be its most important resource. I now suggest that positive, constructive performance appraisal can contribute to the development of that resource both for the good of the library and for the personal and professional growth of the individual librarian; and that in the long run these goals are more relevant to the library than concern about using evaluation for salary and promotion purposes per se.

A typical university library has a percentage of librarians who, having served for a few years, have tenure in fact if not in theory. Operating at a level of membership motivation (wishing to continue to belong to the organization) but not sufficiently motivated to perform, they often develop...
attitudes that tend to encourage mediocrity, until they are working at a decreased level of output, service, morale, and personal satisfaction. This atmosphere can discourage new employees and cause the loss of valuable talent to the library. A staff development program has the potential to expand both specific service skills and general managerial abilities. By managerial abilities I am not necessarily referring only to the ability to supervise but to organizational and leadership qualities, generally accepted as desirable managerial traits in any organizational setting. Charles Gibbons called them the "marks of a mature manager" and stated that the individual should:

1. Possess well-defined goals.
2. Be able to allocate resources according to priorities.
3. Be able to make decisions, act upon them, and accept responsibility for them.
4. Be willing to compromise.
5. Be able to delegate and to depend on subordinates.
7. Be able to organize, plan, and communicate for effective use of resources.
8. Maintain good relationships with others.
9. Possess emotional maturity and the internal resources to cope with frustration, disappointment, and stress.
10. Be able to appraise oneself and one’s performance objectively, to admit to being wrong.
11. Expect that one will keep on growing, improve one’s performance, and continue to develop.

I would add to this list two qualities that Harlan Cleveland stresses in his excellent book The Future Executive. These are a tolerance for ambiguity and an openness to change. A performance appraisal program that is aimed at professional growth should contribute to the development of these characteristics in the professional staff.

THE LIBRARY AS AN INTERACTIVE SYSTEM

If libraries are to participate actively in technological developments and cope positively with the information explosion while faced with the pressures of decreasing staff and collection funds, then the best talents of that staff must be recognized, cultivated, and used. An emphasis on teamwork rather than competition, an acknowledgment that each department is part of a cooperative system, is essential.

Discussions and negotiations for participation in national and regional library networks and academic consortia have become commonplace; yet in my experience, true day-to-day cooperation among departments within one organization is less usual.

The need for accountability and performance measures is recognized when dealing with large library projects, and these serve as motivating factors for the project directors. In a similar way, performance appraisal can be used as feedback within a library to keep the system functioning on the highest level and as one organization rather than as fragmented pieces with conflicting goals.

In the establishment of a performance appraisal program for an individual library, the organization and its employees can be considered as an interactive system involved with mutual goals for the library, the department, the unit, and the librarian, including for each a feedback loop where goal setting is one input, performance is an output, and evaluation is used to correct the system and keep it on course. The action of departments and users upon each other should be kept in mind at every stage of the program.

For example, the interdependence of the acquisitions, collection development, and catalog departments in providing access to a book is usually recognized and talked about—like the weather—but little is done to contribute to meaningful cooperation. Goals can be set for such things as the quantity of orders placed in a given time, the length of time for receipt of the book, and optimum use of bibliographic searchers in handling the book before and during cataloging. But much of this is based on the quantity and cyclical flow of orders from the selection librarians into the acquisitions department or the percentage of receipts through standing orders and approval programs, which the cataloging department can then handle. The development of such quantitative goals, therefore, might best be done jointly with an open acknowledgment.
of the interdependence of these departments rather than with a fruitless competition between them.

A PROGRAM PROPOSAL

Let us consider the use of performance evaluation in an interactive system that includes supervisory training, mutual goal setting, peer discussions, and teamwork, with an emphasis on behavior as well as results, as a means of developing future leaders and promoting better library service while providing satisfaction for the individual.

The program outlined below is an attempt to use performance appraisal as a library management development tool. It can be modified to meet individual needs and library situations, and whether it should be implemented formally or informally depends to a great extent on the resources of manpower and time available. It does require the support of the library administration, but the procedures themselves could easily be guided by members of a professional development committee if there is no specific personnel librarian at the institution. In any case, its focus should remain the same: communication training for supervisors, goal setting as part of an interactive system, positive motivation, and the highest utilization of and response to individual needs, skills, and strengths.

Step 1: Training of Library Supervisors

The goal setting and analysis, both individually and collectively, that this program requires will call for supervisors to act as facilitators, to listen carefully and accurately, to spot nonverbal messages, to keep a discussion on track, and to avert the game-playing that often develops out of self-defense when one's ego is threatened. To prepare them for this, the first step is a workshop for supervisors. This ought best be led by an outside consultant or an internal specialist in communication skills (perhaps from the psychology, public administration, or business department in a college or university) to cover active listening, group discussion leadership, how to reach a consensus, how to motivate positively, etc. An interesting approach might be to make use of The OK Boss by Muriel James as background reading to introduce the concept of transactional analysis and then to use this tool as a basis for the communication skills to be developed in the workshop.

Step 2: Goal Setting

This involves group meetings for all staff units of the library, to discuss the purposes and responsibilities of the library, the department, and the individual. These discussions ought to begin at the level of the library director and associate directors meeting with their department heads. It is easy enough to say that a library provides information, but what are its priorities?

In a specific academic setting, who comes first—faculty, students (graduate, undergraduate, transfer), community, alumni, university staff, library staff, who? Each has different needs, and the priorities that are established will ultimately have an impact on the type and scope of reference service, the emphasis in book selection, the key hours for staffing public desks or keeping the library open, etc.

What are the priorities in terms of time versus money, expenditures for staff salaries versus books, for automated systems, for cooperative projects? (If any part of the staff is unionized, the union will have to be brought into the discussions at some point too.)

This kind of discussion and planning is so often lost in the day-to-day, crisis management that harried administrators are forced into. I realize that the examples above are issues for which there is no one right answer, but some consideration and thought given to these priorities at the beginning of the project is the best basis for rational and consistent goal setting in each department down the line.

As supervisors next participate in sessions of goal setting for their departments, it will be quickly recognized by the group that each department member has certain strengths that can be most effectively used in particular projects. This does not deny the need for job descriptions and the use of these in setting objectives (as has been generally recommended). However, job descriptions are static and based on past experience and needs. Goal setting, which looks toward the future, optimal utilization
of available resources, and an open feeling of cooperation among peers to achieve similar objectives can result in a whole new use of skills.

A traditional reference department, which assigns each librarian to three hours of desk duty a day, might find that the optimal use of manpower would call for a division on the basis of subject expertise (depending on the question asked), with a student assistant to respond to those general queries that are routine (Where's the drinking fountain? What are the hours of the reserve reading room? Where's the latest issue of Readers' Guide?) At the same time the reference librarians may realize that their work of interpreting the card catalog to users might be enhanced by a short orientation or refresher course run by the catalog department for the rest of the staff. They might wish to be brought up to date on such questions as, What's the best way to locate government documents? How are branch library holdings handled in the main catalog? These thoughts lead us directly into step 3.

Step 3: System Interaction

As each department has a chance to discuss its responsibilities, priorities, and goals internally, the staff members will recognize their interdependence with other departments. The supervisor can keep track of these relationships and the particular points of congruency, to be used as a basis for discussions between departments. The usual procedure, when conflicts of interest arise, has been for the two department heads to meet privately and try to work it out. More often than not, however, a win-lose situation develops in which neither can compromise without losing face. A general meeting between the acquisitions and the catalog departments to discuss bibliographic searching, with the head of technical services as facilitator, can do much to clear the air, promote cooperation, and develop a workable compromise—or at least foster an understanding of the other point of view.

Step 4: Refresher

At this point, if not before, it is time for a one-day refresher workshop for the supervisors. They will have participated in goal-setting discussions with their own superiors, with their own departments, and with related departments (all group sessions) and will now have all kinds of situations to discuss: where their group got off the track, when the expected consensus was not reached, where face-saving or game-playing took the place of constructive negotiations. Role-playing and further guidance in transactional analysis and facilitation are appropriate here.

Step 5: Individual Goal Setting

Each librarian should now be prepared to list his or her goals—professional, departmental, and personal career or life goals—relating them to the operation of the department and the library, building on strengths in order to best utilize one's talents. Each goal should be accompanied by specific, recognizable means to attain this. For instance, the librarian whose goal is to head the acquisitions department might plan to prepare for this responsibility by:

1. Gaining knowledge of publishers and vendors through regular reading of Publishers Weekly, scanning catalogs, and visiting exhibitors' displays at conventions;
2. Attending acquisitions discussion groups and applicable committee meetings at professional conferences;
3. Taking a continuing education course in out-of-print acquisitions;
4. Assisting with budget and book fund allocations (with the support of the present department head).

The supervisor will then take this list of goals and the specific means to achieve them and discuss these with the staff member, offering guidance, suggestions, and support. The more positive the response that can be given, the better. At the same time, however, the manager has an obligation to see that the goals and tactics are realistic—within the librarian's abilities but requiring a consistent effort.

Specific target dates must be set wherever possible, and if the goal or project is a long-term one, then benchmarks should be established to measure interim achievement. If the librarian's goal is to become a specialist in rare books, this may require courses, conferences, contacts, reading, an internship or exchange, etc. To begin with, a tentative curriculum can be listed, the
most relevant conferences targeted, a special collections bibliography prepared in an area that will benefit the library users. Out of this may come an application for a grant, travel funds, or professional leave time, and a structured program to achieve this expertise.

The supervisor must also be realistic with the employee, even encouraging him or her to seek other opportunities if the librarian's goals are not compatible with the library situation at all, or when the librarian is really ready for additional responsibilities but no openings are expected to exist for some time. In all areas, once agreement is reached, the supervisor has an obligation to assist in the achievement of the goals.

By listing individual goals and strategies and then discussing these with the supervisor, the librarian will also begin formulating a performance profile that shows strengths and developmental needs. These are relative to the individual, not on a scale that compares one person with another. As this profile is developed, it can form the basis for future appraisals and then future goals. Figure 1 gives an example of the form that might be used for this purpose.

Step 6: Critical Incidents

Another component in building a performance profile is the use of critical incidents, as described earlier. This technique should be used informally to record observable, applicable occurrences, rather than depending upon memory, judgment, and impressions. Emphasis should be placed on specific, positive contributions made by the employee and on noting occasions when the librarian does demonstrate improvement in an area of the performance profile as this is developed. The critical incidents will form the basis of private discussions between the supervisor and the librarian, both to specifically praise good performance and to determine individual strengths and weaknesses that both parties recognize are pertinent to goal achievement.

For the library with sufficient time or interest, an extrapolation of performance needs from critical incidents can form the basis for preparing general performance profile characteristics against which each staff member may wish to measure himself or herself.

Step 7: Review and Analysis

An essential part of performance evaluation is to establish feedback loops through frequent, supportive, scheduled, and unscheduled work review and analysis sessions, again building on strengths and future potential rather than on past performance failures. The first informal checkpoint should be in three months, with a midyear goal reevaluation after six months. This is the time to redefine goals that no longer seem realistic or where financial or technological developments in the library require new responsibilities or new directions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strength</th>
<th>Weakness</th>
<th>Improving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ability to set priorities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organizational perspective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ability to complete a project</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decisiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accuracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>willingness to delegate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ability to follow up</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Name: ______________________ Date: ________ Interim Follow-Up: ________ Review Date: ________

Fig. 1
Performance Appraisal Form
At each step—the first unit meetings, the interdepartmental discussions, the individual goal setting and reviews—it is up to the supervisor to keep the conversations focused on the relevant topics (without stifling productive discussions), to come to decisions, and to record progress.

Preliminary preparation by all parties will contribute to productive meetings, but it is easy for busy staff members to forget to prepare lists or goals before the meeting is scheduled to start. To avoid this, it is helpful to allow fifteen minutes at the start of the unit meetings particularly for each person to consider the subject of the meeting and his or her views on it and to make a list of goals and priorities for discussion with the group.

Step 9: Evaluation of the Evaluation

Since this is an experimental program, which should be designed and adapted to respond to staff and service needs, an evaluation of its effectiveness is necessary. This can be done in two parts:

1. An attitude questionnaire for staff, management, and client groups (faculty and students, library users and nonusers). The same questionnaire should be administered before the program begins, after one year of activity, and after two.

2. An examination of actual goals achieved after two years—on each level and through interaction and cooperation among the parts of the library system. All examples of cooperation, improvement of service, or professional development that were not originally specified goals should be noted as well, with an attempt to discover whether these arose in part or in whole out of the performance evaluation program.

CONCLUSION

The entire process of defining responsibilities, establishing goals and the means to achieve them, developing performance profiles, and then evaluating achievement should all follow a regular cycle. The process should begin again annually with goal setting by the library administration, and a refresher course in communication for the supervisors or the entire staff would also not be amiss.

The proposed program is, indeed, a time-consuming one. The underlying principles of MBO and participatory management, however, have been applied in academic libraries around the country through the Management Review and Analysis Program and its more recent small-library counterpart, the Academic Library Development Program. In contrast, this proposal presents an opportunity to improve communication, performance, and morale through a limited area of library management, which can, however, have broad-reaching effects. With support from the library administration (mandatory for the success of any of these projects), the old concept of performance evaluation will make a positive impact on librarians and library service.

REFERENCES

6. Ibid., p.245.
10. Paul H. Thompson and Gene W. Dalton,


12. An opposing point of view is presented by E. C. Keil, Performance Appraisal and the Manager (New York: Lebhar-Friedman Books, 1977). This is an excellent practical summary of performance review, with emphasis on the interview itself, but Keil concludes that a manager is not qualified to become involved in long-range career development; this is better left to an outside consultant. Believing that most libraries cannot afford this luxury, I have proposed an alternative approach in the second half of this article.


22. For further comments and citations, see the discussion of equity theory and expectancy theory in Belcher, Compensation Administration, p.50-68.

23. An expansion of these ideas can be found in Edward Roseman, Confronting Nonpromotability: How to Manage a Stalled Career (New York: AMACOM, 1977). Part one, "Concerns of the Manager" (p.1-148), gives advice on appraising, counseling, and motivating employees.


27. Muriel James, The OK Boss (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1975).

28. This is discussed in detail in Beer and Ruh, "Employee Growth," p.63. However, they suggest that the supervisors use an already developed performance profile and rate each employee. I believe a similar device can be developed by the librarian and supervisor together, even where there is no personnel specialist available for regular assistance.

29. As done at the Corning Glass Company (discussed above) and described by Beer and Ruh, "Employee Growth."


This Article continues the semiannual series originally edited by Constance M. Winchell. Although it appears under a by-line, 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. 1

Since the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and general works of interest to reference workers in university libraries, it does not pretend to be either well balanced or comprehensive. A brief roundup of new editions of standard works, continuations, and supplements is presented at the end of the article. Code numbers (such as AE213, DB231) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide to Reference Books. 2

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Tsien, Tsuen-hsuin. China: An Annotated Bibliography of Bibliographies. Boston, G. K. Hall, [1978]. 604p. $45. LC 78-5541. ISBN 0-8161-8086-5. Title also in Chinese. Intended for both "specialists in Chinese studies and [for] students with a general interest" (Intro., this comprehensive work on "all aspects of Chinese life and civilization" lists more than 2,500 bibliographies and bibliographical essays whether published separately, in periodicals and serials, or in monographs. Materials are chiefly in English, Chinese, and Japanese, with a small percentage in European languages. Emphasis is on recent (through 1977) and comprehensive works, with some older materials included to illustrate development in certain subjects. Inclusion depends on "usefulness for information, study, or research" (Intro.), and selection varies "from one section to another, depending primarily upon the availability of sources." Where Western-language works were lacking or where supplementary information was needed, Chinese and Japanese works were listed.

Arrangement is in two parts of ten chapters each, with subdivisions (for language, subject, type of material) as appropriate. Part I, "General and Special Subjects," covers reference books, collective works, periodical lists and indexes, library catalogs, rare books, etc. Part II, "Subject Bibliographies," consists of chapters for classics and philosophy, religion, history, geography, social sciences, language, literature, art and archaeology, sciences, agriculture, and technology. Citations give full bibliographical information and a descriptive annotation; occasionally a critical comment is added. Chinese and Japanese titles appear in Oriental characters, romanization, and translation. The detailed table of contents, the list of Chinese and Japanese serials cited, and the author, title, and subject indexes, together with a lucid, succinct introduction, all serve to guide the reader and facilitate the search.—R.K.

ARCHIVES


It has been four years since the National Historical Publications and Records Commission began work on the revision of Philip Hamer's Guide to Archives and Manuscripts
Questionnaires were sent to 3,200 archives and repositories throughout the country, and the data contained in the replies of the 2,700 respondents are presented here. Anxiously awaited (since Hamer’s Guide is now almost twenty years old), the resulting work does not supersede its predecessor but does provide an updated companion.

A great deal of information is supplied in each entry. In addition to such useful information as hours of opening, terms of access, and holdings of repositories, there are descriptions of collections and bibliographical references. The latter include, not only citations to Hamer’s Guide and the National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections, but also to library catalogs, brochures, checklists, bibliographies, and articles that describe various individual collections. Arrangement is geographical, and a long names/subject index—almost 125 pages—provides an indispensable guide to the entries. Anyone looking for historical manuscripts should certainly begin the search with this directory.—P.C.

**BIOGRAPHY**


This dictionary offers 1,665 short biographies of American educators from the seventeenth to the twentieth centuries, the earliest representative being John Eliot, the famous missionary teacher. Over 400 contributors, most of them professors of education, participated in creating the work. The result is a handy, three-volume compilation, the chief virtue of which seems to be the convenience of having biographical data on so many educators in one place. As the bibliographical references at the end of each sketch readily indicate, most of those written about here are more fully—and in most cases, more satisfactorily—treated in other biographical dictionaries. However, this is not always the case: educators in certain special areas not generally included in the standard compilations are represented in this work. For example, here one finds biographical data on the leaders in industrial arts education, education of minorities, and textbook authors. The appendixes have useful geographical, chronological, and professional breakdowns, and the lengthy general index provides an additional guide to the entries.—P.C.


The International Society for Educational Information has set itself the task of correcting errors of fact about Japan and Japanese culture found in foreign textbooks and reference works, and this dictionary is one of its efforts to prevent the continuing spread of misinformation. (Already published is the Biographical Dictionary of Japanese Literature [1976], and work has begun on a third volume concerned with notable figures in the fine arts.)

Happily, we are given much more than just the facts in this beautifully produced volume. Each short biography endeavors to convey the essence of the subject’s character as well as the vital statistics and accomplishments. Thus through the lives of these carefully chosen “prime movers” and prominent citizens we are afforded an interesting view of Japan’s political, social, religious, and scientific life from the age of myth and legend through the modern period.

Entries are arranged by period—“Ancient,” “Medieval” (1185–1572), “Early modern” (1572–1868), and “Modern” (1868– ). The whole is indexed by name and subject. For the user’s orientation in the social and political background of the biographies there are seventeen appendixes concerning such matters as family lineages, shogun lineages, Buddhist sects, bureaucracy and shogunate organizations, military actions, army and navy cliques, political parties, and cabinets. Finally, there is a bibliography offering from one to six references for each individual included in the dictionary.—M.A.M.


As the subtitle says, this is a “biographical
encyclopedia of 10,000 leading personalities in 16 Communist countries.” Although those sixteen countries are nowhere listed in the volume, they are: Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania, the Soviet Union, Yugoslavia, Cambodia, China, Korea, Laos, Mongolia, Vietnam, and Cuba. The Soviet Union and Eastern Europe receive very thorough coverage for all fields of endeavor, including politics, party activities, economics, the sciences and social sciences, the military, the arts, literature, history, philosophy, and religion. Cuba and the Asian countries, on the other hand, are represented primarily by government and party officials and diplomats. Although this work is meant to be a dictionary of basic biographical information on living persons, it also includes a number of important people who died during the past few years. For the most part, emigres are excluded; dissidents and others in official disfavor who remain in Communist countries are included.

The compilers acknowledge the problems caused by the necessity of working from official sources (including newspapers), as well as the difficulties of reconciling conflicting accounts and of obtaining accurate, up-to-date information. The amount of data provided varies from one entry to the next, but this is an extremely valuable source for information that is not available elsewhere in one place, and often not available elsewhere in English.—A.L.

RELIGION

Accounts of about a thousand saints of English origin, saints of foreign origin who died in England, and those who were known and venerated there make up this dictionary. All saints in the Book of Common Prayer, the Sarum rite, and the modern Roman calendar are included, as are representative saints of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, and a few others important in the Christian church or in calendars other than the three mentioned. Byzantine saints are, in general, excluded.

The concise entries, none more than a page in length, give dates, alternate spellings of names, biographical information, history of a saint’s cult in England, artistic associations (with reference to specific English works of art), and feast day. Bibliographies conclude the accounts, giving citations to official sources, the best hagiographical studies, and sometimes to popular works. There is a short appendix of entries for persons not formally canonized but for whom there is evidence of a popular cult in England at some period. An index of places in Great Britain and Ireland associated with particular saints will please readers interested in British local history and literature. The introduction is an interesting essay on English hagiography and the history of the cult of saints.—R.K.


The tumultuous first century of Mormonism has produced a large and fascinating literature, the very richness of which has created a formidable task for its bibliographer. Chad Flake of Brigham Young University has spent many years preparing this bibliography and has compiled a work of more than 10,000 entries. Included are broadsides, pamphlets, books, and newspapers relating in some way to Mormonism. Some items have only a page or two on the subject, while others are wholly concerned with it; works of fiction are also included.

Items are arranged by main entry, and copies (and variant editions) have been located in some 200 libraries. Flake has also supplied historical and bibliographical notes for many of the entries. Collations are included, but unfortunately these are not given by signatures as one would expect in a work that is otherwise so thorough. Nevertheless, this is altogether a remarkable bibliography with attractive facsimile title pages at the beginning of each section.—P.C.

LITERATURE
Arbour, Roméo. *L’Ere baroque en France; Répertoire chronologique des éditions de*
Broadly interpreting the term "literary," the compiler of this bibliography has assembled references to more than 7,900 editions of literary texts published in France and French literary texts published abroad during the first half of the "baroque era." Scope extends to foreign-language works published in France as well as to French translations of foreign literary works. Within the yearly arrangement, listing is alphabetical by author or anonymous title, and there are indexes of names of persons, of editors, and of places of publication. Library locations (including many American institutions and European libraries outside France) are given whenever possible; source of the citation is provided when there is no known location. The completed work (the intention, presumably, is to extend coverage through 1640 at some future date) should prove useful to researchers in various areas of seventeenth-century studies, not to the specialist in French literature alone. —E.S.


These two modest volumes succeed admirably in providing thorough, in-depth analyses of "the best biographical and critical writings" (Pref.) about twenty-four seminal black writers, not counting those represented in the section on "slave narratives." Volume 1 begins with three eighteenth-century writers and includes the slave narratives, polemicists, early modern writers, the Harlem Renaissance, and Langston Hughes. Volume 2 is devoted to four major twentieth-century authors: Richard Wright, Ralph Ellison, James Baldwin, and Amiri Baraka (LeRoi Jones). The editors acknowledge that other important writers have come to prominence since the latter four, but they have imposed a chronological limit because of the perspective needed for this kind of work.

Each essay opens with discussion of the subject's bibliography, published editions, manuscripts, and letters. Writings about an author are grouped as biography (or autobiography) and as criticism (divided by genre). Focus is on the state of the art of the bibliography, biography, and criticism of the writers, e.g., the changing favor of Phillis Wheatley's work in the eyes of scholars; the difficulty of dating and locating the slave narratives; the elusiveness of Baraka's output published in obscure and unconventional sources. And each essay is generous with specific factual information. For any student or scholar interested in the black American writers here considered, these rigorously selective historical/critical essays are indispensable. —M.A.M.

Marken has produced a typical bibliography in the Goldentree series: judiciously selected entries, balanced coverage of all aspects of the topic, yet not exhaustive despite the compiler’s wish “to list all major and minor collections in an attempt to make this the best and most comprehensive bibliography available” (Pref.) of the literatures and languages of the Indians of North America (excluding Indians of Mexico and Central America and the Eskimo). Writings by American Indians are featured, although standard scholarly works are included as are secondary materials on non-Indian authors who wrote on the Indian (e.g., James Fenimore Cooper, Thomas Jefferson). Entries are presented geographically following the order in Murdock’s Ethnographic Bibliography of North America (Guide CD28), with general sections of bibliographies, autobiographies, general literature, and general language. An asterisk beside an entry points up importance; a dagger indicates the availability of a paperback edition. The index is primarily by personal or tribal name, with some subject entries (which might profitably have been expanded to include jokes and riddles, songs, etc.).

There are a few omissions and mistakes that should be corrected for any future edition, and the compiler might consider the usefulness of some kind of chronological listing of literary works by American Indians. All in all, however, this is a useful bibliography for both the beginning student and the advanced researcher—easy to use, and with a wide range of sources cited.—E.M.


Students and librarians with little or no Spanish who needed a ready reference source for Spanish literature have long had to make do with the limited coverage of Newmark’s Dictionary of Spanish Literature (Guide BD866) or glean what they could from the entries in the Diccionario de literatura española (Guide BD865). This new addition to the “Oxford companion” series, therefore, will be welcome as an English-language handbook covering a broad range of Spanish literary topics. Although more closely limited to authors and specific works than other “Oxford companions” (i.e., some literary terms are defined, but historical and political references are largely excluded), its geographic coverage is unusually wide: because “a great deal of literature in Spanish has been written beyond the geographical confines of Spain, . . . this necessitates the inclusion of entries on the more important authors and books” (Pref.) of the Central and South American countries (but not Brazil and Portugal). As might be expected, entries are accorded critics, historians, philosophers, etc., as well as the strictly creative writers. A particularly welcome feature is the inclusion of more bibliographic information than is generally found in the “Oxford companions.”—E.S.

CINEMA


This is not just another coffee table book with many glossy photographs and few facts. Rather, it is a serious reference work providing a great deal of information on the Academy Awards from 1927/28 through 1977. Not merely the winners, but all the nominees in all categories are listed here, as well as the recipients of the special awards such as the scientific or technical awards, honorary awards, etc. In addition to the lists of nominees and winners (together with the citations for nomination) short historical notes trace the establishment, development, and other significant features for each award category; for example, the many changes in the awards for special effects are clearly explained. The work is in two main sections, a “Listing by Academy Award Categories” and a “Chronological Index of Academy Awards,” so that full information can be found either by type of award or by year. (The chronological listing also gives the date that the nominations were announced, the date and location of the awards ceremony, and the MC for each year.)

The volume begins with a historical survey of the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences and the awards and ends with three useful appendixes (“Academy Founders,” “Academy Presidents,” and “Directors
of Best Picture"), a selected, annotated bibliography, and an excellent index of names, titles, and subjects. Such thorough and accurate information on the first fifty years of "Oscar" should be welcome in many libraries.—A.L.

FOLKLORE

Contents: Part 1, North America; part 2, The West Indies, Central and South America.

The thesis around which this bibliography was assembled is that "Afro-American cultures exist, cultures which are neither entirely African nor Euro-American in origin, but which contain elements of both, plus the inevitable developments attendant upon enslavement, the plantation experience, Native American contact, poverty and racism, as well as the vigor and creativity of human beings."—Intro.

In support thereof, the authors cite almost 7,000 published works on the values, symbols, language, and cultural expression of Afro-Americans, to be used with other bibliographies more concerned with the history, economics, and social organization of black people. Entries are grouped by linguistic or political division (e.g., English-speaking and French-speaking West Indies) and within each division, alphabetically by author. Most entries have very brief annotations unless the titles are self-explanatory.

The complete index appears in both volumes and consists of a general subject index and a locale index (excluding those areas listed in the tables of contents). The authors admit that indexing has not been easy because of the variance in detail of the annotations and the problem of generic classification of tales, songs, etc. As a result, the user will find detailed subject headings (e.g., "corn-shucking activities," with fourteen entries) and subject headings that are almost impossibly broad ("Africa: questions of antecedents and influences," covering almost two pages of entries). However, subject headings are subdivided by geographical division when appropriate, and numerous cross-references are provided.

Although the cutoff date (through 1973) is disappointingly early, academic libraries will find this a useful addition to reference collections in anthropology and black studies.—D.G.

STATISTICS

For this compilation the editors have used as a basis all the articles relating to statistics from the International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (Guide CA44) and have added some twenty-two new articles dealing with statistics in the broadest sense. Thus besides articles bearing directly on statistics, such as "Errors," "Life Tables," etc., there are biographies of "statisticians and others important in the development of statistics" and "a considerable number of articles about fields in which statistical methods are significantly applied, for example, epidemiology, public policy . . ."—Intro.

In order to update the articles from the parent work, each original author was given the option of rewriting his or her article, amending it, or adding a postscript; each author was requested to update the bibliography. Only a few of the articles are exactly as they appeared in the 1968 work. Bibliographies have been updated to about 1973/74 and are designed to "contain explicit suggestions for further reading, sources for further bibliography, sources for historical and current data, and the titles of journals concerned more or less exclusively with the topic of the article." References in the bibliographies to articles in the IESS seem an unnecessary addition.

The articles and postscripts are well-written, beginning with a general, nontechnical summary and proceeding to a thorough discussion of the topic. Indexing is very detailed, and scholars' names cited in the text are included. This is a carefully
edited compendium, useful to the student or researcher at any level.—E.M.

POLITICAL SCIENCE


This three-volume collection of essays, written and signed by scholars in the field, is organized alphabetically by topics ranging from “Alliances, Coalitions and Ententes” to “Unconditional Surrender.” Enlightening and highly readable, the articles focus on a conceptual analysis of major themes, theories, doctrines, and distinctive policies in the history of American foreign relations, tracing ideas with consistency and continuity. Specific events are mentioned only when they relate to the broader discussion. Coverage is selective, but at times, very imaginative—for example, the articles on “Ethnicity and Foreign Policy,” “Missionary Diplomacy,” and “Protection of American Citizens Abroad.” Each essay concludes with a short bibliography and a list of cross-references to related articles; there is a detailed index.

An added feature is a biographical section of essays, written and signed by scholars in the field, which is organized alphabetically by topics ranging from “Alliances, Coalitions and Ententes” to “Unconditional Surrender.” Enlightening and highly readable, the articles focus on a conceptual analysis of major themes, theories, doctrines, and distinctive policies in the history of American foreign relations, tracing ideas with consistency and continuity. Specific events are mentioned only when they relate to the broader discussion. Coverage is selective, but at times, very imaginative—for example, the articles on “Ethnicity and Foreign Policy,” “Missionary Diplomacy,” and “Protection of American Citizens Abroad.” Each essay concludes with a short bibliography and a list of cross-references to related articles; there is a detailed index.

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This is the latest addition to the series of bibliographies sponsored by the International Commission for the History of Towns. The 3,331 items relating to urban history in the Netherlands include books, periodical articles, and academic dissertations. Basic arrangement is by province, subdivided by specific city or town; thereunder, items appear in a topical arrangement according to a scheme outlined in the prefatory pages. There are indexes of place-names and of authors.—E.S.


Students, researchers and librarians, to whom this volume is addressed, will welcome it as a ten-year extension of Paul Horecky’s basic bibliographies, Russia and the Soviet Union (Guide DC361), East Central Europe (Guide DC17), and Southeastern Europe (Guide DC18). Although originally undertaken as a revision of the compiler’s Junior Slavica (Guide DC359), it serves effectively as a selective updating of the Horecky titles, listing about 1,600 English-language monographic works in the social sciences and humanities for almost all the subject areas of those volumes. There are three main divisions: (1) general works on the USSR, Eastern Europe, and Communism; (2) more specific topics concerning Russia to 1917, the Soviet Union, the non-Russian Soviet republics, and Jews in the USSR; (3) Eastern Europe. Each section is appropriately subdivided by topic or country. Although non-Slavic Eastern Europe (East Germany, Hungary, Romania, and Albania) is included “for geographic and political reasons” (Intro.), Greece, which had a chapter in Southeastern Europe, is excluded, as is the historical Byzantine Empire. Parts 1 and 2 constitute about three-quarters of the list, with more than 1,200 entries. Each entry gives full bibliographic information and carries a descriptive and critical annotation excerpted from a signed book review in a leading Slavic studies journal. There is an author/title index and one of subjects.—R.K.

HISTORY & AREA STUDIES


At head of title: Acta collegii historiae urbanae societatis historicorum internationals.

Witherell has here compiled a bibliography of selected publications issued by or for the United States government relating to any part of Africa (with the exception of Egypt), including the islands of the southeast Atlantic and western Indian Ocean. The first four sections—covering 1785-1819, 1820-1862, 1863-1920, 1921-1951—are "limited primarily to congressional and presidential documents, commercial reports, diplomatic treaties" (Pref.) and are subdivided geographically. A few National Archives microfilms are included for the first period.

The final section, 1952-1975, adds to the listing of the above types of government publications "translations issued by Joint Publications Research Service and printed and mimeographed studies concerning American assistance programs prepared by or for federal government agencies" (so long as they are unclassified). This part, comprising about 80 percent of the entries, is also arranged geographically and further subdivided by broad topic. Library of Congress call numbers are given for most entries; for those not available at LC, location symbols for other libraries are given. Indexing is by topic, main entry, and issuing body.—E.M.

**HISTORICAL ATLASES**


Many years in planning and preparation, this atlas is indeed an impressive publication. It "seeks to provide a comprehensive cartographic record of the history of South Asia from the Old Stone Age to the present day" (Introd.), with history taken to mean "not merely the recounting, analysis, and interpretation of political events, but also the consideration of cultural, social, demographic, and economic developments."

The 149 pages of maps and plates are presented in fourteen principal sections, and the explanatory text that follows is similarly arranged. Section I is designated as "the physical stage," section II as "prehistory." Sections III–IX deal with significant historical periods, the emphasis in these sections being on political history, but with some attention to social and cultural processes. Sections X–XI are concerned with social, cultural, economic, and demographic evolution; section XII is devoted to the rural and urban settlement pattern of India; section XIII is intended as an aid to detailed regional study; and the final section offers a "geopolitical analysis." Maps (nearly all in color) are mainly at the scale of 1:12,700,000; and two overlay maps, one indicating physiography, the other administrative divisions as of 1975, are found in the pocket at back (along with three folded chronological charts).

A general bibliography is provided at the end of the introduction to each section of text, with references to sources and specialized bibliography following individual subsections. The main bibliography (p.267–304), a classified listing of some 4,000 items, is in itself a substantial reference source. The detailed index lists not only regions, places, movements, and other mappable features shown in the atlas but includes names of persons mentioned in the text and the major subject headings.—E.S.


Departing from the more usual approach in the presentation of history through maps, Barraclough and his contributors have shifted from a political and Europe-centered view to an emphasis on change, on economic and social history, and on international movements, thus presenting "a view of world history appropriate to the age in which we live."—Introd. Each map is original and is accompanied by commentary, densely packed with data, written by a specialist. Although the maps are informative, handsome, and generally clear, two reservations may be noted. In a few maps the variations in color are not distinct enough, e.g., the yellows on the map on p.72–73, or the browns on p.99. The other reservation
concerns the absence of reference to scale; lines indicating latitude and longitude appear on some maps, but a note on conversion of latitude/longitude to miles or kilometers would have been useful.

Maps and commentary cover every period from "Hunters and Gatherers" to "The Eurasian World in 814" to "The World in 1975: Rich Nations and Poor Nations." There is a world chronology that lists major events in regional columns, with a separate column for cultural events (including developments in science and technology). A glossary of names "of individuals, peoples, events, treaties, etc., which . . . received only brief mention on the maps and accompanying texts" is separate from the index of geographical names.

The volume seems well made, lies flat when opened, and should not need rebinding soon—which is fortunate, since there are many double-page maps with little or no inner margin.—E.M.

NEW EDITIONS, SUPPLEMENTS, ETC.

Described as the "third and last" supplement to the British Museum's General Catalogue of Printed Books (Guide AA100), the Five-Year Supplement, 1971-1975 (London, publ. for the British Library by British Museum Publs. Ltd., 1978— ... To be in 13 v.) will include nearly 600,000 entries (about 400,000 main entries plus added entries and references) for works cataloged 1971-75. Later information about the library's holdings is to be made available through the "products and services" derived from the British Library data base of machine-readable records. Changes in cataloging procedures (designed to bring entries nearer to conformity with Anglo-American cataloging rules) were gradually introduced during the period of coverage and are reflected in the Supplement—particularly in regard to entries for serials and anonymous books. Thus some serials are entered by title, while others are grouped under the heading "Periodical Publications" according to the older practice. Reduction in the size of entries and use of a three-column page has resulted in a smaller number of volumes and a lower cost for the set, but the text is legible and the pages attractive despite the small print.

The publication gap in the Bibliothèque Nationale's Catalogue général . . . (Guide AA105) has been closed with the appearance of V.214 (Paris, Imprimerie Nationale, 1978. 2v.), which is devoted to Voltaire. In order to provide a useful and up-to-date bibliography of Voltaire's writings, a departure was made from the established rules for the Catalogue: rather than the 1959 cutoff date observed since V.189, some editions of his works published up to 1978 have been included. Moreover, 239 pages of indexes (of titles, of incipits of works in verse, of translations and adaptations, of pseudonyms, of names cited, of illustrators, etc.) precede the 1,824 columns of catalog entries in this impressive compilation.

Some 69,650 titles published throughout the world through 1974 are listed in the third edition of Eleanora A. Baer's Titles in Series (Metuchen, N.J., Scarecrow Pr., 1978. 4v. $95). In addition to all works included in earlier editions (Guide AA90) and titles in newly published series, some older series have been added for the first time.

The second edition of Books in Series in the United States (New York, Bowker, 1979. 3,273p. $62.50) "provides access to some 113,154 titles issued by some 1,270 publishers and distributors in some 10,837 series."—Pref. It cumulates the information from the first edition (1977) and its 1978 supplement, together with additional entries providing both current and retrospective coverage (i.e., date of publication is no longer a criterion for inclusion); future editions will close gaps in retrospective listings and also add data for new and ongoing series.


About 6,500 periodicals are annotated and evaluated in the third edition of Magazines for Libraries by William A. Katz and Berry G. Richards (New York, Bowker, 1978. 937p. $37.50). As in earlier editions, "titles have been selected to include (1) some general, nonspecialist periodicals of interest to the layperson; (2) the main English-language
research journals sponsored by distinguished societies in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain; and (3) some high-quality commercial publications commonly found in academic/special libraries.”—Pref. About 95 percent of the annotations from previous editions (see Guide AA419a) were edited and revised for this edition.

Numerous revisions and changes, as well as general updating, characterize the second edition of Joe Morehead’s Introduction to United States Public Documents (Littleton, Colo., Libraries Unlimited, 1978. 377p. $17.50). One significant change is that “chapters on the publications of the several departments, agencies, and independent establishments now emphasize categories of materials rather than a lengthy recital of individual titles and series” (Pref.) as in the 1975 edition.


Information on approximately 39,000 currently active scholars in the humanities (4,700 appearing for the first time) is provided in the seventh edition of the Directory of American Scholars (New York, Bowker, 1978. 4v. $165). Division into volumes is the same as for the previous edition (1974); there is a geographic index in each of the four volumes, and a combined index of scholars in volume 4.

The promised supplement to the Dictionary of Scientific Biography has been published as V.15 of the set (see Guide EA225). Approximately two-thirds of this new volume (N.Y., Scribner, 1978. 818p.) is an alphabetical arrangement of biographical sketches of persons from all periods (references to many of these articles having appeared in the main sequence of volumes); the balance of the work comprises a series of topical essays on aspects of the history of science in India, Mesopotamia, ancient Egypt, and Japan, plus an essay on “Maya Numeration, Computation, and Calendrical Astronomy.” An index to the full set has yet to appear.

The Eighteenth Century: A Current Bibliography has begun a new series (Philadelphia, American Society for Eighteenth-Century Studies, 1978—n.s.V.1—$25) and is no longer issued as part of Philological Quarterly (see Guide BD16). The first volume covers publications of 1975 and continues the broadened coverage instituted when the annual bibliography “English Literature 1660–1800” (Guide BD396) adopted the new title in 1971. The bibliography covering 1973 (published 1974) was the last to appear in P.Q.

French 17 (Fort Collins, Colo., Colorado State Univ., 1978—no.26—$2.25 pa.) represents a change of title for the Bibliography of French Seventeenth Century Studies (Guide BD730). Published for the Seventeenth Century French Division of the Modern Language Association of America, the new series continues the coverage of the earlier annual and assumes its numbering.


Although it bears a different title, Safire’s Political Dictionary by William Safire (New York, Random House, 1978. 845p. $15.95) is presented as the “third edition” of The New Language of Politics (Guide CJ49), considerably enlarged and updated.

The fifth and final volume of Sources in British Political History, 1900–1951, compiled by Chris Cook and Jeffrey Weeks, is entitled “A Guide to the Private Papers of Selected Writers, Intellectuals, and Publicists” (London, Macmillan, 1978. 221p. £20). It lists, locates, and briefly describes an interesting array of relevant collections in numerous United States repositories as well as those in Great Britain and other Commonwealth nations.—E.S.
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Recent Publications

American Book Publishing Record Cumulative 1950–1977, reviewed by Ruth P. Burnett .................................................. 358
Formal Reader Education Programmes in Post-Secondary Libraries: Their Justification, Implementation, and Evaluation, reviewed by Mary George .......................................................... 362
Progress in Educating the Library User, reviewed by Robert J. Merikangas .......................................................... 362
Beyond Media: New Approaches to Mass Communication, reviewed by Mary B. Cassata .................................................. 365
Downs, Robert B. Books That Changed the World, 2d ed., reviewed by Henry Miller Madden .................................................. 365
Downs, Robert B. In Search of New Horizons: Epic Tales of Travel and Exploration, reviewed by Henry Miller Madden .................................................. 365
National Research Council. Study Project on Social Research and Development. Knowledge and Policy: The Uncertain Connection, reviewed by Thelma Freides .................................................. 366
Southgate, Robert L. Black Plots & Black Characters: A Handbook for Afro-American Literature, reviewed by Robert Fikes, Jr. .................................................. 368
Mitchell, Betty Jo; Tanis, Norman E.; and Jaffe, Jack. Cost Analysis of Library Functions: A Total System Approach, reviewed by Barbara R. Healy .................................................. 369
Davinson, Donald. The Periodicals Collection, rev. and enl. ed., reviewed by Martha Willett .................................................. 370
Symposium on Retrieval of Medicinal Chemical Information. Retrieval of Medicinal Chemical Information, reviewed by David Kuhner .................................................. 372
Martin, Murray S. Budgetary Control in Academic Libraries, reviewed by George W. Cornell .................................................. 373
The On-Line Revolution in Libraries, reviewed by Audrey N. Grosch .................................................. 374
Dewey, Melvil. Melvil Dewey: His Enduring Presence in Librarianship, reviewed by Jeanne Osborn .................................................. 377
“Libraries and Society: Research and Thought,” reviewed by Jovian P. Lang .................................................. 377
Ash, Lee, comp. Subject Collections, 5th ed., reviewed by Marc Gittelsohn .................................................. 378
Prentice, Ann E. Strategies for Survival: Library Financial Management Today, reviewed by Albert F. Maag .................................................. 381
COM Systems in Libraries: Current British Practice, reviewed by Helen R. Citron .................................................. 381
Corkill, Cynthia, and Mann, Margaret. Information Needs in the Humanities: Two Postal Surveys, reviewed by Charles E. Perry .................................................. 383
Campaine, Benjamin M. The Book Industry in Transition: An Economic Study of Book Distribution and Marketing, reviewed by Don Lanier .................................................. 384
Turow, Joseph. Getting Books to Children: An Exploration of Publisher–Market Relations, reviewed by Mary E. Thatcher .................................................. 386
Lockwood, Deborah L., comp. Library Instruction: A Bibliography, reviewed by Anne Roberts .................................................. 387
Kiewitt, Eva L. Evaluating Information Retrieval Systems: The PROBE Program, reviewed by Sylvia G. Faibisoff .................................................. 388
Evans, G. Edward. Developing Library Collections, reviewed by William Schenck .................................................. 389
Collection Development, reviewed by William Schenck .................................................. 389
BOOK REVIEWS


R. R. Bowker has undertaken a major project in creating the American Book Publishing Record Cumulative 1950–1977 by adding to the data base for its Weekly Record and American Book Publishing Record thousands of titles from MARC tapes and from the National Union Catalog, 1950–1968, to amass over 900,000 entries—practically all the titles published or distributed in the United States from 1950 to 1977.

Following the pattern of previous issues of the American Book Publishing Record, the first ten volumes are arranged by Dewey Decimal Classification with the sequence broken carefully between hundreds rather than by size of volumes. Social Sciences (300–399) and Applied Sciences (600–699) require two volumes, and unfortunately the breaks come in the middle of 340.0942 and 627 so that one would not know in which of the two volumes a desired entry would come.

Fiction and juvenile fiction, in separate alphabets by main entry, comprise volume 11. In volume 12 all books lacking Dewey classification, and hence unable to be listed in the first ten volumes, are arranged by main entry. Volume 13, the author index, and volume 14, the title index, list works by the first nine digits of their Dewey classification by Fiction or Juvenile Fiction, or as v. 12 with the author's name in parentheses.

Volume 15 is the subject guide, an alphabetical listing of LC tracings (including proper names and uniform titles used as subjects) from volumes 1–12. Just the hefty title index of 2,225 pages in four-column format is quite an impressive project and its usefulness should be proportional to its size.

The set is printed on acid-free paper, Smythe-sewn, and sturdily bound. The print is very legible even though rather small type. Entries in four columns to the page are very clearly set up with the author's last name in all caps on the left and the Dewey class number on the right with plenty of space in between. Titles are in italics followed by subtitle, imprint, collaboration, series, notes, LC classification, LC card number, ISBN, price if given in the original ABPR record, and LC tracings. Any entry prepared by the Bowker staff when LC cataloging was unavailable is marked with an asterisk.

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assigned under previous editions of the Dewey Decimal Classification, an extensive "Table of Relocations of Dewey Decimal Classification Numbers" located in each volume of the set shows changes from the 15th to 16th, 16th to 17th, 17th to 18th editions with numbers no longer being used enclosed in brackets, and numbers that have been discontinued followed by an asterisk. This is very helpful and I don't know of other places where it is to be found. There is also a "Table of Obsolescent Dewey Classification Numbers." In the first ten volumes prime marks divide the Dewey numbers into logical breaks so that a shorter number may be assigned by a nonprofessional in a smaller library.

At first glance this set seemed like a very handy tool for any reader who wanted to find the author of a particular title, or other works of a favorite author, or more books on the same subject. It is—but that is a small part of its usefulness. It will be very valuable to librarians needing reliable LC cataloging and classification when they are reclassifying from Dewey to LC, for finding LC call numbers when OCLC records give only Dewey call numbers, for revising cataloging done under old editions of the Dewey Decimal Classification, verifying interlibrary loan requests, finding the contents of collections, or developing collections in various subjects. Libraries not owning The Combined Index to the Library of Congress Classification Schedules may find some of their questions regarding numbers for particular authors, classes of persons, geographic names, or all the class numbers relating to a single topic answered in this set.

Perhaps a certain amount of nit-picking is necessary in reviewing a set such as this. I found relatively few misprints, but even the computer became fatigued at the magnitude of the filing job and dumped problems in a clump at times. In the title index, numbers were quite well alphabetized except for a little clump running "1967, 1980, 1976, 1967, nineteen bishops" and then on accurately again. In volume 12 there were many
titles beginning "Report" or "Proceedings," but at the beginning of each were clumps of mystifying entries such as:

1. "Report
   [Amherst?] v. 29 cm. annual. Report year ends June 30. $8"
   with the tracing "I. Massachusetts. University. Library."

2. A similar report with the tracing "I. Howard University, Washington D.C. School of Law."

Although I did not locate 1. in the NUC, I presume the tracing should have been the main entry as was the case with 2. which had no tracings in the NUC.


The main entry in the 1958–82 NUC was "Hardwood Sawlog-Grading Symposium, Indianapolis, 1957," and there were no tracings.

"Who's who in golf" and "Who's who in Malaysia" fell between "Who, what, when in Kansas" and "Who, why, what."

Acronyms and initialisms caused some problems. Acronyms were usually filed as though they were words. Initialisms were filed at the beginning of a letter when there were periods between (as A.L.A.) but were filed as words otherwise (ALA). U.S. had its variations: some were interfiled with us, some with United States, and some appeared at the beginning of the us's.

Mr. was filed as mister except for five cases as mr. Mrs., on the other hand, was under mr except for five under Mistress. Of course, I take no notice of thousands of correctly filed entries!

Since there are no references in the author index, in order to find all of an author's works, one would need to know both the author's real name and pseudonym if works were cataloged at different times under both. Often, however, the entry for one would give the other in the author statement, as for example, the case of "Moravia, Alberto" and "Pincherle, Alberto"—plus in this case the spurious variations of "Pinchere" and "Pincherie" who also turn out to be "Moravia, Alberto." If one looked under a pseudonym when only the real name was used, nothing would be found.

It was very easy to locate items in the fiction and unclassified volumes through the indexes, but one cannot deny the fact that using an up to nine-digit number to gain access to the first ten volumes is really cumbersome. In the author index, there may be, for one author, a block of Dewey numbers in paragraph form separated only by semicolons.

For example, Julian May has eighty-five Dewey class numbers after his name. If one remembered the first one long enough to look it up in the proper volume, it would be necessary to find one's place again in the index paragraph each of the other eighty-four times unless one is efficient enough to write them all down on scrap paper and cross them out one at a time. A double-column listing of numbers under the name or at least several spaces between numbers would help. Also guide numbers at the tops of pages in classified volumes use only three digits so there may be many pages headed 973–973, for example.

At least in the title index, I thought, there would be only one class number for a title, as The Remarkable Henry Cabot Lodge 923.273. Entries for 923.273 are arranged by author or main entry on pages 943–957 of volume 10, but since I don't know the author I'll hope it was another Lodge. No such luck, so there's nothing to do but go through all the entries on fourteen four-column pages until I find The Remarkable Henry Cabot Lodge under "Zeiger, Henry A." If the author's name could be given in parentheses as in the fiction and unclassified volumes, the title would be easy to locate.

The subject guide has no references, but all headings and subdivisions used are printed out individually. A page at the beginning of volume 15 showing how to use the guide explains the fact that some tracings appear in both abbreviated and full form. One may locate related material by using one heading and turning to its class number and browsing. The use of geographic names may lead one to interesting local history items. The subdivision "Juvenile literature" will help librarians locate books on many subjects suitable for younger readers.

The 920s in volume 10 may help locate
biographies of people in various occupations and categories—scientists, journalists, baseball players, etc. Although I found no explanation of it, some entries in the other classified volumes had a B after class numbers (823.912B, 551.0924B) which also were biographies, but not all biographies were so marked. I found no explanation for two other symbols: a dagger before an 809 number and a small s after many 551.08 numbers.

There is a fantastic bibliographic base in this American Book Publishing Record Cumulative 1950-1977. I think it would be of greatest value to libraries converting from Dewey to LC or adding retrospective holdings to OCLC. It would be of tremendous value to many small public and school libraries who cannot afford many bibliographic tools, but they also could not afford this set unless it became available on microfiche.

It may be unfortunate for Bowker that Carrollton Press has recently announced a Cumulative Title Index to the Classified Collections of the Library of Congress, 1978. That publication of 132 hardcover volumes scheduled for completion in 1982 will contain in one alphabet six and one-half million titles. Less information will be given in each entry (title, author, LC call number, LC card number), for it is intended to be used with the National Union Catalog and Mansell by means of the LC card number and author, or the LC Shelflist in microform by means of the call number. Academic libraries and large public libraries who could afford this set ($11,432 prepublication price) would have access to many more titles covering a greater geographic area and a much longer period of time. Most libraries, I fear, will be waiting and hoping for a microfiche edition of one set or the other!—Ruth P. Burnett, State University of New York, College at Oneonta.


Proceedings volumes are typically a “mixed bag” of strong and weak papers more or less addressing a common theme. This example, the record of an Australian conference on library use instruction (termed “BI” for “bibliographic instruction” in this country and “formal reader education” in Australia) qualifies as a uniformly thoughtful and helpful contribution to the literature in this ever-expanding area. For one thing, the papers included give American readers a reassuring sense that everyone shares the same problems and concerns, from cost-effectiveness and objectives to staffing and evaluation. The ten published presentations touch on all of these issues and others as well.

Especially interesting are the details of a survey done by Chooi-hon Ho, which show “overwhelming evidence that libraries with Formal Reader Education programmes have a substantial increase in reference transactions.” Ursula Newell cautions in her discussion of appropriate methodologies that there is often a difference between librarian and faculty concepts of what students need to know and that in selecting a means of instruction the entire educational system must be taken into account. David Foott’s piece “Why Evaluate; What to Evaluate?” is likewise straightforward and insightful.

Several short case studies conclude the volume, giving a picture of current BI efforts in Australia. Although it is staple-bound with paper covers and lacks continuous pagination and an index, this item would be a worthwhile addition to any library science collection or to any BI reference shelf in an academic library.—Mary George, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.


This collection of fifteen papers is “meant to complement and bring up to date the 1974 volume, Educating the Library User,”
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also edited by Lubans. It complements the earlier volume's role as a handbook for library instruction by offering additional models of instruction based on successful programs. Included are papers on teaching the use of libraries to an adult education class (Christopher Compton), on a library school course (Vida Stanton), and on the British Travelling Workshops Experiment (Colin Harris and others).

This shorter book, however, focuses more on the assessment of trends and common activities in American, British, Scandinavian, and Canadian libraries. "Progress" was measured by a variety of means: a survey of opinions by American "veterans" in library skills instruction (Lubans), an excellent review of the literature (1973-78) by Arthur P. Young and Exir B. Brenner, and a number of mail surveys done in 1978. Jon Lindgren surveyed 220 undergraduate colleges, Allan Dyson reports on programs in 25 of the largest undergraduate libraries, and 75 of 130 questionnaires were returned to Sheryl Anspaugh from public libraries.

What impressions does one gain from this information?
First, library instruction activity has been increasing, but the often-called-for research and evaluation have been sparse.
Second, as Lubans notes, there has been no real progress against the lecture/textbook syndrome in academic institutions, and public libraries have barely begun programs (except for public relations).
Third, the brief attention that can be given to basic principles and issues in short papers such as these points out the crying need for more monographs in this area.
Fourth, even within the constraints of space, several of the contributors offer useful suggestions for program planning. Anne M. Hyland, writing on elementary schools, gives specific ways to implement a basic principle: "it is incumbent upon the librarian to work closely with teachers throughout the year to develop assignments that will address all identified skills" (p.39). A focus on assignments that develop technical skills is found also in John Lolley's chapter on

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junior and community colleges. A more conceptual approach is found in Jon Lindgren's provocative paper on colleges. He draws implications for a persuasive rhetoric and teaching methods from the parallel between library instruction and the teaching of composition.

Of course, some topics a reader might want to see are not covered. I missed discussions of library instruction in special and federal libraries, the use of statistics, and programs for teaching faculty and on-line data base users. Lubans makes the cogent suggestion that schools should look to "faculty development" programs as a way to change attitudes, but this is not expanded upon.

Chapter and final bibliographies and a list of library instruction clearinghouses, directories, and newsletters make this well-presented volume more valuable. The index was a good idea but unfortunately is too incomplete to be very useful. This book is highly recommended to all who found the 1974 volume useful and to all academic librarians and faculty.—Robert J. Merikanagas, University of Maryland, College Park.


The central thesis of this book is that the concept of mass communication and mass communication institutions should be broadened beyond the more traditional mass media such as radio, television, newspapers, magazines, and film to include such nontraditional media as architecture, art, libraries, museums, political image-making, religion, restaurants, and theater. Taking a McLuhanesque posture, the authors put forth their broadened perspective as a bridge toward interinstitutional interaction, suggesting that the application of the mass communication model of one to many might cast new light on how to handle problems familiar to the more traditional mass media institutions.

This book should be required reading for all librarians. The authors pronounce that libraries could well become the most outstanding mass medium of our information-rich age. But they point out libraries can just as easily go out of business! Comparing the library to any of the classic mass media, they point to a reversal of the mass communication process, for, instead of having the source (librarian) communicating to a receiver (library user), the library user becomes the communicator and the librarian becomes the receiver. It is the user who has the message that he or she attempts to articulate to the librarian—and unless that user "communicates," the library might remain nothing more than a storehouse of materials with all communication going one way. To assume a leadership role, the library must take a pro-active stance, rather than be reactive. It must be a client-centered, information-disseminating agency. The librarian must be an information agent, who actively initiates the message process. The library's governance structure must be democratic with dynamic leadership directing it on a broad, worldly course, with an outward focus on information networks.

In summary, to compete with the traditional mass media, libraries must become more convenient to access for greater numbers.—Mary B. Cassata, State University of New York at Buffalo.


Robert B. Downs has done it again, or—rather—done it again twice. He has produced the second edition of his Books That Changed the World, and he has ventured into a companion piece that, in capsule form, recounts the narratives of twenty-four eminent explorers.

Books That Changed the World has been greatly expanded. Its two sections deal with books that changed the world of humanity and books that changed the world of science. The former extends from the Bible and Homer to Mein Kampf and the latter from Hippocrates to Einstein and Rachel
Carson. There is no point in quibbling with the author's selection of the titles or in proposing substitutions by the reviewer; Downs' list of books is as good as any, and his depiction of the impact of each work upon history is sound. The book is one for dipping and browsing, rather than for continuous reading. Experienced readers will find little that is new, but they will have at hand a reliable assessment of the books Downs considers to be epochal.

In Search of New Horizons performs the same function for explorers and travelers, arranged chronologically from Herodotus to the conquerors of Annapurna and Everest. Here the subject matter calls for a more vigorous treatment than that which Downs' rather sluggish prose gives it. The information is solid, but the spark of life is frequently missing. As the range of narratives of exploration is so great, one may properly question some of Downs' choices. When there is still so much doubt that Peary reached the North Pole, why describe his account of the supposed feat? One also wonders why this work was published by the American Library Association rather than a commercial publisher, considering that its subject matter appears to be more appropriate for trade publication.—Henry Miller Madden, California State University, Fresno.


The works cited above are the report and one of five volumes of background papers of the National Research Council's Study Project on Social Research and Development, commenced in 1974. This was the fourth federally sponsored investigation since 1968 of the usefulness of social science to social policy and possibilities for improvement.

According to its chairman, Professor Donald Stokes of Princeton, the latest study differs from its predecessors in considering the limitations as well as the potentialities of social research for governmental purposes; in encompassing all aspects of "knowledge production and application" (including, for example, collection of social statistics) in addition to research and development as conventionally defined; and in including nonfederal users and uses in calculating the benefits of federal knowledge-promoting activities.

Among the study group's recommendations are that federal research sponsorship be more systematically planned, as well as increased; that research users outside government be involved in planning, that dissemination activities include periodic syntheses of the knowledge gained from research (a proposal that recalls the Weinberg Report of 1963); and that the role of knowledge brokers—officials whose job is to identify and elucidate for government and the scientific community their opportunities for mutual betterment—be enlarged.

The six background papers collected under the title Knowledge and Policy: The Uncertain Connection make for livelier reading than the study report, displaying an interesting range of opinion on such matters as the past usefulness of social science to policy formation and the extent to which society both can and should expect direct and immediate benefits from scientific endeavors.

To mention just a few examples in this small space, Carol H. Weiss reports that use of social science by federal decision makers has been shown to be greater than is generally assumed (p.26), while James Q. Wilson asserts that serious social science is given serious governmental attention only rarely, and perhaps never (p.82, 92). A system called PIPs (policy implication papers) established in HEW to systematize dissemination and use of research results is judged promising in one paper (Howard Davis and Susan Salasin, p.121-22), while another concludes "PIPs flopped" (Weiss, p.70).

Alone among the contributors, Weiss dis-
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LIBRARY SERVICES FOR THE BLIND AND THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED: AN INTERNATIONAL APPROACH (IFLA Publications, volume 16)
By Frank Kurt Cylke
An outgrowth of IFLA conferences held in 1977 and 1978, this work proposes international cooperation and standardization for library resources, identification of production formats, inter-library loans and the coordinated application of existing and future technologies to production requirements. An essential work for those serving the blind and handicapped.

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cusses the mixed motives of social scientists in seeking to forge stronger links between research and policy (p.25, 33, 35, 55), and the mixed benefits to society of more scientific contributions (p.61, 73). The other writers seem inclined to assume an identity between research and progress and between the interests of the research profession and the public at large, although Wilson's short piece hints at skepticism on the latter point.

The forthcoming volumes of background papers will consider federal agency funding of research, issues in the management of social R&D, and case studies in the uses of basic research.—Thelma Freides, State University of New York, College at Purchase.


This handbook helps to fill a long-standing void in the field of Afro-American literature and will undoubtedly prove a handy source of information for librarians and interested readers. But it is unfortunate that this handbook was not undertaken as a collaborative effort by two or more scholars. Although Southgate's knowledge and abilities are obvious, his choice of entries for discussion leaves much to be desired and is certain to frustrate users.

The handbook is divided into four parts. Part I, plot summaries, comprises the largest portion. One hundred significant works of Afro-American literature, including fiction, plays, poems, speeches, and essays, are described and commented on. The format is similar to that used in Masterplots. The summaries are well written and average nearly a page in length.

But the problem here is that while the author has chosen a number of the familiar, standard works he has failed to include quite a few very important works that most readers would expect to find, e.g., Richard Wright's Native Son and Black Boy, Lorraine Hansberry's Raisin in the Sun, James
Baldwin's *Another Country*, or Pulitzer Prize winners *Elbow Room* by James Alan McPherson, *Annie Allen* by Gwendolyn Brooks, and *No Place to Be Somebody* by Charles Gordone. It appears the author chose instead to include a number of less popular works from the past century and the 1940s and 1950s.

Part II is a dictionary of Afro-American literature and history with too much emphasis on the latter for what is supposedly a handbook for literature. Notable literary figures omitted are Nikki Giovanni, Addison Gayle, Nick Aaron Ford, Tom Dent, Larry Neal, Joseph A. Walker, Sonia Sanchez, Carolyn Rodgers, Blyden Jackson, and Maya Angelou. Possibly they were omitted in favor of a good many persons and things that have no relationship to Afro-American literature per se. Most entries, particularly historical occurrences, are substantial in content.

Part III, containing ninety-four author bibliographies, and part IV, general bibliographies, can assist those interested in further reading and research. Of the two chronologies following part IV, probably only the second, pertaining to events in Afro-American history and literature, is needed in this volume.

Despite its rather startling omissions and superfluous inclusions, *Black Plots & Black Characters* must be purchased, since it is unique in the field of Afro-American literature. It is hoped that Southgate will revise and expand his handbook in the near future.—*Robert Fikes, Jr., San Diego State University, San Diego, California.*


A cost accounting system specifically limited to library labor costs in time and dollars developed, implemented, and continuing in the libraries of California State University, Northridge, is carefully described in *Cost Analysis of Library Functions* in an "attempt to provide a model for libraries to produce their own set of labor cost data from which sound management decisions can be made and, eventually, from which relevant and meaningful staffing formulas can be developed" (p.2). The authors also hope that their program will serve as a prototype for a generally applicable system that, when implemented in other libraries, would allow for a meaningful comparison of costs.

Four years in the making, the CSUN library's ongoing program includes an automated function cost analysis system and a manual task analysis system. The rationale, assumptions, and guidelines are succinctly highlighted by the conclusion that a complex library audit such as this must be developed in a library setting if clean, useful data are to be assured.

A systems analyst was appointed early on to coordinate the project and to be responsible for overall system design. The continuing operation of the function cost analysis costs the library, which has 400 employees and 600,000 volumes, about $8,000 a year. Unfortunately, there is no estimate of the costs for the manual part of the program or, more important, for the development of the systems.

A concise and cogent discussion of the methods used includes, in addition to definition and description, consideration of some of the problems and pitfalls met, such as staff resistance, the discovery that actual library jobs are performed at variance with stated procedures, and the frustration attendant on the definition of activities, tasks, and functions to produce valid results—so much so that the authors conclude that "installing major data systems is a slow painful process that requires unending revision and rethinking" (p.43).

Documentation of the programs includes the procedures manual for the automated system, forms, punch card formats, a monthly report, and a cumulative data printout for 1976-77. In addition, there are five microfiche with 1976-77 cost data included.

The reader is warned that the program was not designed to be used for cost/benefit analysis where standards of quality have yet to be set, if in fact they can be set at all. The system does, however, generate valid
data that let librarians ask questions about productivity and efficiency and give them the tools to begin to analyze library problems and to present a realistic audit. For example, it was determined from the program that file maintenance cost for 1976-77 was more than $149,000. This was 9 percent of all staff costs and 10 percent of all staff time, clearly an area for further study.

It is good to read that a start has been made with a program covering labor and time costs of all library functions. This is necessary, difficult, and costly work, but it can and must be done. This competent, practical account should be useful in showing the way.—Barbara R. Healy, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York.


Perhaps the biggest problem with this book is determining who will find it useful. Practicing librarians who have worked with periodicals for some time should know most of the material; while library school students may find it difficult to follow without reading many of the references. The beginning librarian or the experienced librarian just moving into the periodicals area probably will be its best audience and should find it to be a good introduction with many references to other material for additional study.

The book is divided into three parts. The first section is a history and description of the types of periodicals. While mainly concerned with the British viewpoint, it covers the subject thoroughly. Even the experienced periodicals librarian undoubtedly will find it informative. Although most of the examples listed are British publications, it should be relatively easy to transfer the information for use in American libraries.

The second part covers bibliographic access to periodicals. Specific publications, e.g., Ulrich’s International Periodicals Directory, Chemical Abstracts, Current Contents, Science Citation Index, Union List of Serials, are mentioned and their uses and limitations described. Again the British slant is noticeable, but the titles covered include the major U.S. and European bibliographies. Davinson’s comments on the proliferation of abstracting and current awareness services are interesting. Because so many more articles are being published now than in the recent past, specialists are finding it increasingly difficult to read all the material pertinent to their fields and, therefore, are forced to resort to abstracting and similar services. The increases in the size, number, and price of these services, in turn, are causing problems of control for librarians and of production for the publishers.

The third part covers the librarian’s and the user’s contact with the actual periodical. This is the weakest part of the book because Davinson tries to cover too much in too little space. Only the highlights of purchasing, recording, storing, and displaying periodicals receive mention, and the reader is left needing more practical advice to put into immediate use or more theory for future consideration.

The 1978 edition of The Periodicals Collection is a revised and enlarged edition of a title with a rather long and apparently evolving history. The 1960 edition, Periodicals; A Manual of Practice for Librarians (London: Grafton), was more a practical manual with suggestions on titles to be purchased, staffing, and furniture. As time has gone by, the book seems to have become more and more theoretical. Whether or not this edition is needed depends upon the type of information being sought. It is not a how-to-do-it book; it does give the history and purpose behind what is being done. There are a selected subject and title index and an author index.—Martha Willett, Indiana State University, Evansville.


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and administrative functions of an industrial information service as well as to advise information officers, librarians, and management on various aspects of the acquisition, analysis, processing, storage, retrieval, dissemination, and use of new and significant information. The introductory chapter, presenting an overview of the information explosion and its implications for management, is lucid, comprehensive, and very carefully written.

The material in this monograph is systematically presented; the authors write clearly, and the text is liberally supplied with well-chosen examples and the latest references.

Based on their extensive experience in both conventional and nonconventional information products, services, and systems, the authors offer very practical recommendations on services, facilities, personnel, policies, and procedures for establishing and maintaining an industrial information service and center.

Of special interest is the summary data on the industrial library systems of the Fortune 500 companies (Appendix B). Another interesting feature of this publication is a chapter by Robert A. Kennedy of the Bell Telephone Laboratories Libraries and Information Systems, Murray Hill, New Jersey, in which he focuses on practices at the premier industrial library in operation today.

In summary, this is an excellent book and should be read by all persons engaged in the management of industrial libraries and information centers and systems. It is highly recommended as a required textbook for courses in industrial librarianship, information systems and services, and information storage and dissemination technology.—Jata S. Ghosh, Ardmore, Pennsylvania.

Symposium on Retrieval of Medicinal Chemical Information, Anaheim, California, 1978. Retrieval of Medicinal Chemical Information. W. Jeffrey Howe, Margaret M. Milne, and Ann F. Pennell, eds. Based on a symposium cosponsored by

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This symposium was organized to examine some important current developments in the storage, retrieval, and manipulation of types of data that are associated with medicinal chemistry in the pharmaceutical industry, in governmental agencies, and in related organizations. For those librarians willing to turn a few pages and browse here and there and not be put off by the somewhat forbidding technical aspect of the papers presented here, there are insights and information of real value to the professional.

The discussion starts off with a definition of "medicinal chemistry" as that area of synthetic organic chemistry that deals with the preparation of molecules likely to have some desired physiological response. But when you learn that all this chemical talk is only one element in a much larger set of functions in the total drug development process, the text begins to grab the attention of anyone interested in information science and library networks.

The chapters are expanded versions of the papers presented at the symposium as well as several additional invited papers, and it is very obvious that a number of the authors' names include technical and special librarians. Information systems are described and evaluated in detail from the National Cancer Institute, National Library of Medicine, Office of Naval Research, and such commercial establishments as Rohm and Haas, Parke Davis, Upjohn, and Merck Sharp & Dohme.

The development of a safe and useful drug, which is an extremely complex and costly process, may interest only a few librarians; but when the extraordinarily diverse types of information necessary to support this process are described in terms of the data banks and computer terminals and on-line activities of the present day, then interest rapidly widens—the applications are so similar to the day-to-day bibliographical processing features of our own systems in academic libraries. Although the report is a state-of-the-art view in a very special segment of medical and special librarianship, the "transfer points" are very obvious and enlightening.

It is very clear we are all going in the same direction when future trends in chemical information are discussed. Integration, they say, means the pulling together of discrete in-house systems and the creation of automated interfaces (read networks, if you will) with public and government systems along the lines of some kind of national linkage. That is of foremost concern. Another extremely important trend is toward greater end-user orientation: make the systems a working tool of the public who will use them; don't limit them only to the trained information specialist. Heard that before?

As the subway sign says, you don't have to be Jewish to enjoy Levy's rye bread. Nor indeed do you have to be a science librarian to get something worthwhile out of this book.—David Kuhnner, The Claremont Colleges, Claremont, California.


This is an excellent discussion of academic library administration viewed from the special (and, therefore, limited) perspective of the library budget. As stated in the preface, "There is no pretense that this is a definitive study of budgetary practices, nor that it will answer all questions that could be asked." The approach is practical rather than theoretical, focusing upon budget making and budgetary control as fundamental administrative activities which are continuous. The end product is a conceptual framework within which administrators in any size academic library should be able to construct appropriate budget procedures, even though the examples given pertain exclusively to rather large research libraries.

The text is divided into thirteen chapters beginning with a discussion of "The Need for Fiscal Management"; proceeding through discussion of the development, presentation, and control of the library
budget; and concluding with "Retrospect—Important Issues to Remember." An appendix, "The State University Libraries: A Case Study," a brief but useful glossary of budgeting terms, and a four-page list of "References" round out the work. If this outline imparts a ring familiar to experienced library administrators, it is not surprising, for Martin has grounded his work carefully in the current literature on library administration. But his chief contribution might have been made more readily apparent had he subtitled the book, "The Political Aspects of Academic Library Administration."

Currently, library administrators are entangled in a difficult situation caused by diminishing levels of financial support, the eroding effects of inflation, outside demands for greater accountability, pressures resulting from the adoption of various forms of "participatory management," and the lack of widely supported standards of library service. They now face the difficult problem of setting priorities among programs, which in more affluent years would have been funded without question as equally worthy of support. Martin argues persuasively that the budget is a primary tool for coping with this situation.

"A budget," as defined by Martin, "is a statement which identifies in monetary terms the ways in which an institution will seek to achieve its goals during the period for which it is valid. It is not perceived similarly by all those who are affected by it and will require conversion into whatever mode is appropriate to each group, program or activity. It implies control and feedback to measure both conformity to the expressed or implicit goals and the degree of success attained in achieving those goals." He acknowledges that "fiscal consideration cannot be the sole determinant in policy-making," but stresses that "without knowledge of the financial situation, decision makers can seldom arrive at acceptable conclusions on other activities."

Martin disclaims any intention to explore the political basis of budget making on the grounds that it would require a monumental work to discuss policies on such a level. Yet, in my opinion, it is his successful illustration of the relationships between policy decisions and fiscal decisions that gives vitality and importance to his work.

While obviously a "must" purchase for library school collections, *Budgetary Control in Academic Libraries* is worthy of the attention of all academic library administrators.—George W. Cornell, State University of New York, College at Brockport.


This volume contains a collection of papers, organized in four parts, with the lead paper in each part (except part four) an invited view and the subsequent papers generally reactions or commentary or amplification of a special aspect of the lead paper. Each paper is well organized, informative to both expert and neophyte, and many of the papers are quite perceptive.

Part one deals with the "Potential of On-Line Information Systems," with a lead paper by Allen Kent carrying that title. Samuel A. Wolpert, Anita Schiller, Martin D. Robbins, Joseph F. Shubert, and Carlos Cuadra offer their reactions to Kent and their own opinions on the future potential of on-line systems. Divergent views are taken, and even the transcription of the discussion sessions throughout the book is well done, normally a failing in many proceedings more often than not.

Part two is titled "Impact of On-Line Systems," with the initial paper by Lee G. Burchinal concentrating on the impact on national information policy and local, state, and regional planning. Following this paper, Melvin S. Day comments on national policy, Miriam A. Drake on library functions with John G. Lorenz reacting to Drake. Then Paul Evan Peters and Ellen Gay Detlefsen discuss the impact on on-line systems on clientele, and Martha Williams looks into the future. Contributions on other areas of on-line impact, including academic and public libraries, are well explained by Alphonse F. Trezza, Roger K. Summit, Richard DeGennaro, Keith Doms, and Detlefsen.

Part three concentrates on "Training and
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Retraining of Librarians and Users.” Elaine Caruso, Sally Bachelder Stanley, Judith Wanger, Susan K. Martin, Anthony A. Martin, and Elizabeth E. Duncan provide a spirited view of the nature of the training problem, and the issues of concern in user training, which should be read by every librarian, in this reviewer’s opinion. Moreover, Stanley’s paper powerfully reminds us of the inherent value of data base search training and reinforces the fact that it is the key to the full utilization of any data base and not merely some mechanical skill!

Part four contains the closing summary by Thomas J. Galvin. He highlights the results of the conference in these very fitting eight words:

Potential — Enormous
Training — Essential
Funding — Uncertain
Integration — Mandatory

Also attached is a conference evaluation in an appendix that was done by administering a pre- and postconference questionnaire. Not only are the results given but concrete suggestions are made for future improvement. The conference did appear to change some attendees’ attitudes with respect to certain problems of instituting online services and served to highlight where needed research should be done now to prepare for the future.

After reading this whole volume, which I believe to be very well edited, I am left with the feeling that since I missed attending the actual event these proceedings are a welcome and profitable experience to read. The French have a saying, “Il ne se mouche pas du pied,” which means that “one did things up in a big way.” This volume lives up to that exclamation. Moreover, although the type is of reduced size, the book is very readable, and a surprising amount of content is packed into its pages with only two typographic errors discovered—on pages 93 and 165, both name misspellings. The book is certainly worth its somewhat high price, even for addition to one’s own private library. This should be a prime acquisition for any library and information science collection and particularly useful to student...

Here is another worthwhile contribution to a growing body of works by and about the bearer of the best-known name in American library history. From Grosvenor Dawe's official eulogy, published under the Lake Placid Club imprint the year after Melvil Dewey's death, to this latest compilation, biographers have given as much attention to revealing the man through his writings as through their own narratives. Small wonder, for while the bulk of Dewey's publication during his lifetime is substantial, that of his unpublished correspondence, notes, and diaries is even greater and harder to access because of its dispersion and difficult shorthand.

The editors of this work, and of the series to which it belongs, disclaim having produced the definitive study "so badly needed." Yet Sarah Vann researched an impressive list of sources to give us a concise biography, a useful selection from Dewey's library writings, and a nearly definitive chronological bibliography. She mentions, but does not attempt to document, such other enthusiasms as simplified spelling, the metric system, and the Lake Placid Club.

This biobibliography adds nothing startling to our general acquaintance with a nineteenth-century titan. Ardent, industrious, high-principled, optimistic, hyperactive, and opinionated, Dewey deliberately chose librarianship as his primary sphere of action. He was not merely a joiner but also a founder of lyceums, societies, and clubs. He planned, organized, and administered at every opportunity, attracting loyal supporters and antagonizing other strong-willed associates throughout his long career. He was more an activist than a contemplative scholar or researcher. His writings tend toward exhortation, bolstered by fairly absolutist pronouncements based on shrewd practical observation. Yet through the familiar idiosyncrasies of his nature and his milieu emerges a picture of a genial, just, dedicated, and effective man.

Following a short but revealing biography in part I, part II, which forms the bulk of the volume, groups selected professional papers of Dewey into fourteen subtopics, each prefaced by a brief critical commentary. They cover his views on the American Library Association, women in librarianship, education for librarianship, library cooperation, cataloging and classification, the Library of Congress, public and academic libraries, and glances toward the future and the past. The bibliography in part III first identifies extant Dewey manuscript collections. It next cites in chronological order his editorial achievements and his library-related publications. Finally it gives a useful survey of works about the man. The book closes with a general index.

Few readers will proceed straight through this book from cover to cover. It is more a source for reference and browsing. Its chief impact will be to remind us how little in library theory and practice is new. Terminology and modes of expression alter, but the issues are perennial, resulting in solutions that frequently become cyclic. That is, the issues transcend our temporal solutions. They must be faced and "solved" by each new generation. Historical perspective becomes, then, not an excuse for skepticism or irresponsibility, but an opportunity to learn from the experience of the past. Melvil Dewey packed into his eighty years a great deal of observation and common sense that can inform and guide us today.—Jeanne Osborn, The University of Iowa, Iowa City.


The need for librarians to study their relationship to society in these changing times is of prime importance. The library's role in our sociocultural milieu is dependent on varied circumstances, technological advances, changing human thought and behavior, to name but a few factors. This issue
of Library Trends attempts to go beyond the usual summaries of what one can read in the field and attack the nagging problems that exist between librarians and society. It opens up an uncharted area for critical thinking and presents challenges unique to our times.

What our professional goals were is thoroughly discussed by Lester Asheim historically, and options presented as to where professional standards should lead. Beverly P. Lynch contrasts two aspects of management: its formal characteristics organized for administrative efficiency and the informal processes whereby personnel react antagonistically toward service goals.

How demographic trends and social structure will affect librarianship is foretold by Lowell A. Martin in sections dealing with population growth, an older population, women and the family, urban concentration and dispersion, minorities and the poor, class and libraries, and, finally, demand for continued social research in the library field. What implication certain issues of governance (equalization of educational opportunity, research methodologies analyzing public policymaking, accountability for public funds) have for libraries is treated by R. Kathleen Molz. Much study still remains in these areas. To be read in conjunction with Asheim’s article, Richard L. Darling’s approach to intellectual freedom and access to material during the last forty years would seem to preview the future.

The history and current scene of American education in the schools depicted by Elaine Fain allows us to reexamine our past and to seek how libraries can be significant in the educational system. Lewis F. Stieg’s insistence on the need for a theory in academic librarianship ties in beautifully with Martin’s presentation. Academic library goals and objectives must relate to societal factors.

F. W. Lancaster and Linda C. Smith describe the current pattern of disseminating research results and predict that the present communication cycle will give way to the electronic mode, offering the librarian the role of an indispensable, respectable explorer of a tremendous electronic “library without walls.” Robert D. Harlan and Bruce L. Johnson do not mince words as they lay it on the line for librarians in reporting the recent trends in American book publishing. Computer and communication technology with its effect on the library environment is addressed by Joseph Becker, who recognizes that technology alone cannot solve the problems of a pluralistic society. The challenge is before us.

In spite of the fact that the editors are aware of several other problems in our profession, particularly as they relate to broad areas of concern in society, all of us can read at least this material with open minds and allow research by pertinent disciplines to have its impact on librarianship, as long as we pick up the ball and run with it! Let us thank the editors and writers for compiling and organizing these topics into a worthwhile pattern for us to study.—Jovian P. Lang, O.F.M., St. John’s University, Jamaica, New York.

Ash, Lee, comp. Subject Collections: A Guide to Special Book Collections and Subject Emphases as Reported by Uni-

As they used to say about the Kingfish, Subject Collections is "sui generis." There is simply nothing like it for general coverage of libraries in North America. The new fifth edition enhances an established tradition of substantial reference and bibliographical value. Since it appeared in 1958, librarians and booksellers and book collectors have turned to it as a first guide to library holdings on special topics and the answers to such questions as, Where are the "Trollope, Anthony" or the "Agricultural Machinery" collections in the U.S. and Canada? Now, with the 1978 edition much greater scope, depth, and specificity of coverage have been realized, thanks to automation. Ash drew from his data base established with the fourth (1974) computer printouts of each institution for changes and additions. The response has been very positive and has greatly expanded the researcher's capability to get a handle on his topic.

Not only will one find an increased number of new entries but also many new and useful "see references" not in the fourth; many new subject headings ("Black Holes [Astronomy]"); and especially name collections or names that are part of a larger collection (e.g., collections under the surname Smith were two in 1958 and thirty-three in 1978). As Ash warns, users must read the introductory sections with care as these cover inclusions and exclusions. Some headings (e.g., "Slides—Collections") yielded so many entries as to be unwieldy and were dropped. His admonition still holds: "The larger a collection the less adequate any description is likely to be." Of greatest importance is the stipulation that there is valid material in the fourth not contained in the fifth; therefore, the earlier version must remain available for consultation.

Successive editions of the important reference works like Ash are themselves key documents reflecting change over time. What libraries process and house mirror in their own way our social and intellectual history during a turbulent two decades. We do not wonder that the fifth has over twenty-five entries for collections about Vietnam and its war, whereas the fourth has nineteen and the third (1967) but three. The aftermath of that debacle lingers in a new subject heading: "Refugees, Vietnamese."

Automation affects our lives increasingly: note that the first shows fifteen collections on "Computing Machines" and "Electronic Data Processing," whereas the fifth boasts no less than seventy-seven under updated terms. "Concrete Poetry" didn't exist to collect in 1958, and now three libraries report special holdings on that literary form. Libraries now report five times as many "Evolution" and "Darwin, Charles" collections and twice as many "Crane, Stephen" collections as they did twenty years ago, whereas "Dolls" has dropped from six to four.

While the content has changed markedly—mostly through growth—what about internal organization and format? Arrangement still follows a single alphabetical sequence of subject headings used and "see references." Beneath the former, collection entries are by state. Two changes inaugurated in the fourth were continued: LC subject headings were substituted for Sears, and "see also" references were dropped. In form the size of the entries has grown from mostly short ones of two or three lines giving the name and location of the repository to some very long (20-30 lines), which discuss the collections more. Many more entries in the fifth cite available printed bibliographies (e.g., G. K. Hall catalogs) and calendars.

In his preface, Ash cites the continuing "demand" for his work. But, we may appropriately ask, just how much is it actually used by public service academic libraries and in what ways? I suspect that a portion of that demand stems from librarians checking to see how their library "came out" and quibbling over the results. I informally canvassed a number of respected reference librarians in our large UC system. There was a broad range of responses: from "very little" to "quite often." None reported daily
use. Its direct use in interlibrary loan is negligible as those quests are mostly for known items. *Subject Collections* seems to be one of those books always seen at the front desk right along with the *Encyclopedia of Associations*, *Statistical Abstract*, and *Granger* but not used with their regularity. The substantial virtues realized in the fifth will doubtless resolve any problem of underutilization.

Some faults mar the fifth and should be worked on before the sixth appears. Many of the entries are confusing as to actual holdings. Segments of collections will show the same number of volumes as the larger collections of which they are a part. This is disturbing and should be corrected. Also, as reviewers of the fourth have noted, very long entries are repeated in toto under as many as five headings. This method wastes a good deal of space and could be corrected either by briefer entries with a reference to a main entry or by an index (a solution Ash has resisted). A word about the physical properties of the work. The paper seems durable and the typographical characteristics clear; but the binding is insubstantial for the overall book weight. I am afraid that the binding will "spring" as it did for several copies of the fourth that I've inspected.

Puzzling also to this reviewer is the actual number of collections cited in the fifth. Ash doesn't give a figure, but the fourth is claimed to have over 70,000 entries. I ran counts of a number of pages of the fourth and found that the number of entries (including "see references") was from about twenty to forty-five per page—never more. Multiplying the largest possible number by the pages (908p.), I conclude there couldn't be more than 40,000. By the same process, the fifth couldn't contain more than 54,000 entries. For the price, Bowker owes us a correct count or an explanation.

Despite the above minor deilities, about which I feel slightly churlish in having even mentioned, *Subject Collections* is an essential tool. Along with Mansell and the *National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections*, it helps marshal our scholarly resources into a common pool more accessible to all readers.

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able debt to Lee Ash mounts. —Marc Gittelsohn, University of California, San Diego.


A fairly current and well-balanced selection of principles, techniques, and methodologies to aid the library administrator in financial decision making during times of fiscal stress, this concise "report" could serve as a handy outline of some major management issues facing library directors today.

The Delphi technique, community analysis, program and performance budgeting, ZBB, model building, and other currently sexy economic analysis techniques are sketched. (For an antidote see De Gennaro's masterful put-down of same in the December 15, 1978, Library Journal.)

How budget cuts may affect various personnel management issues and what the library can do to maintain control in this area are the subject of Sheila Creth's (University of Connecticut Library) chapter.

A discussion of some library services that may be contracted out or implemented through automation is nicely balanced by a chapter on ways to raise money within the library (fees, Ms. Blake).

Further potential for easing the financial burden on libraries is seen in the chapters on resource sharing and "Architectural Considerations," the most useful of which are conducting an "energy audit" of the library and determining the cost of renovation versus construction. Some general advice on the cost of automating services is only minimally useful.

Evaluation of services, the one area in which libraries traditionally have been weak, is the subject of the last chapter. (Unfortunately, Lancaster's important work, *The Measurement and Evaluation of Library Services*, is not included in the bibliography.)

Within such short chapters Prentice and others manage to balance their presentations with relevant con arguments and cautions. One strain that comes through all ten chapters is the suggested analytical and quantitative approach to economic decision making in libraries and the implication that seat-of-the-pants, intuitive management is inadequate to deal with complex library problems.

Armed with a fleshed-out understanding of the ideas presented here in skeletal form (the bibliography items are essential reading for anyone wishing to go beyond Prentice's treatment), the neophyte may gain a good understanding of the major issues and trends in library management today, whereas the seasoned administrator could use the "report" to fill in some gaps in his or her knowledge.—Albert F. Maag, Capital University, Columbus, Ohio.


This pamphlet contains seven articles discussing computer output microfilm (COM) applications at seven British libraries. Advantages and disadvantages of COM are discussed within the specific setting outlined at each institution. Limited insight into the automated library system behind each application can be gained by careful reading of each article.

This reviewer is particularly impressed with the cooperation of British libraries, which several of these articles discuss. Each library's operation is different, yet each has elements of commonality. The meeting, which was attended by most of the libraries represented in this publication, with COM vendors provides insight into the British library scene. This type of activity produced excellent results in Britain.

Advantages and disadvantages are discussed from the viewpoint of each COM application. A general theme is evident in the change from film to fiche, either completed or planned at each library. The reasons cited for this change to fiche are as valid in the U.S. as Britain.

The reasons given for the change to fiche
are: (1) cost of fiche equipment is lower, (2) fiche equipment has less mechanical problems, (3) the cost of COM fiche is cheaper than COM film, and (4) the library's users found fiche easier to use.

All but three of these articles are revised versions of papers published in Microdoc. This duplication of publishing seems a bit unnecessary. However, the collection of these articles in one publication may have some advantages to British readership. This publication would have been greatly enhanced for the American library reader if a glossary of abbreviations had been included.

Even with the limitations cited above and the additional one of the brevity of each article, this publication has merit for the American librarian. The positive points are: (1) the diversity of applications of COM in British libraries, (2) the strong trend in Britain to COM fiche and reasons for this trend, and (3) the cooperative approach to library COM problems.—Helen R. Citron, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta.


This book may easily become the librarian's best friend by suggesting ways to lessen the risk of fire in the library and by lightening the director's concern, if disaster strikes, about a decision made in a hurry to salvage the collection. Recently experiencing the impact of such a burden in directing an early Sunday morning rescue operation of a water-damaged collection of periodicals, I know how soothing it is to be able to confirm one's own decision in print.

Managing the Library Fire Risk is written explicitly for library administrators. Its main goal is to convince librarians that books do burn, that they are very combustive, but also that they don't have to be vulnerable to fire igniting arson, malfunctioning equipment, or natural causes of damage. Half of the book's ten chapters dramatize the immense destructive power of library fires, well demonstrated by the Gondring Library fire in California that was started by a single paper match dropped into a bookdrop, and which ended in $200,000 damage (p.100).

The two introductory chapters of the book sketch the extent of fire risk, further documented by a historical overview of the world's major library fires (chapter IX and appendix 6). A case study of Temple University's Law Library fire in 1972 (chapter IV) examines in detail the lessons learned. A separate chapter on arson (chapter III) discusses one of the currently most prevailing causes of library fires.

The other five chapters of the book deal with fire prevention. Fires can be avoided, and if started, can be localized. For example, 70 percent of all fires in libraries equipped with automatic sprinklers are put out by the action of a single sprinkler head, minimizing the water damage of the volumes saved (p.29).

In a seemingly mislabeled chapter, “Alternatives for Protecting the Library Fire Risk” (chapter V), Morris reviews available fire protection systems, each reducing (not protecting) the risk of fires, by improving the protection against them. “Disaster Preparedness and Fire Prevention” (chapter VI) lists some water emergency and fire prevention guidelines; while the “Automatic Fire Protection System” (chapter VIII) discusses different types of detection and fire-extinguishing systems. Additional data are also provided by inclusion of manufacturers’ descriptions of their fire preventive hardware.

The author's basic optimism is expressed in the chapter “Salvage of Wet Books” (chapter VII); the optimism is illustrated by his reference to a very successful restoration of a copy of Merchant's Almanac, recovered from a shipwreck sunk more than 100 years ago (p.47). The content of the book is brought up to date in the last chapter, “Library Risk Management: Current Topics.”

The publication is richly illustrated with most of the same photographs used in both the first and the second editions. In fact, the present edition does not replace the one published in 1975; it merely expands its coverage by adding two chapters (chapters IX and X) and three appendixes to the practically unchanged main body of the first edition. Even the dust jacket of the second, bound edition is the same as the cover of
the first, paperback edition. The bibliography is, however, updated by the inclusion of approximately fifty new titles. Missing in both editions are references to fire prevention economics and to types of fire insurance that may be available to libraries.

The book is not a vade mecum of fire prevention or salvage operations. Rather, it is a plea for a paradoxical, yet unavoidable strategy facing the librarian: to invest the fast depleting budget in an expensive fire preventive system and to limit a very essential free access to book collections, by tightening security measures—all in order to decrease a statistically moderate fire risk. This paradox parallels the equally paradoxical concept of modern fire prevention strategy to fight library's deadly enemy, the fire, with an equally evil enemy, the fire-extinguishing water.

The book should be purchased by every library. A second copy could be given to the organization's risk manager, who may be as impotent in trying to include the coverage of library in the institution's fire insurance as is the librarian, trying to persuade superiors to install a fire prevention system in the library before, not after, it burns down.—Joseph Z. Nitecki, University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh.


This survey of information needs in the humanities is part of a wider project under way at the Centre for Research on User Studies, University of Sheffield, in conjunction with the British Library Reference Division. Preliminary investigation at Sheffield and a longitudinal study still in progress at that university give focus and direction to the survey at hand.

Hypotheses about the humanities scholar include: heavy reliance on library materials, need for access to a large number of titles, greater relative importance of older materials, and the propensity of the humanities researcher to work alone. The five areas chosen to represent "humanities" are English, French, history, music, and philosophy.

Following a pilot survey, separate sets of questionnaires were sent to Ph.D. students and to academic staff (faculty) in thirty-five selected universities in the United Kingdom. There were 612 codable questionnaires returned by the academic staff and 203 returned by the Ph.D. students, giving overall response rates of 64.4 percent and 76 percent respectively. Both questionnaires dealt with the respondents' academic background, current research in progress, degree of difficulty experienced in obtaining research materials, extent of use of the British Library Reference Division, and methods of keeping up to date in one's field. Replies were analyzed by computer and reflected in the sixty-two tables, which comprise over half of the work itself (p.62-135).

The discussion of the methodology, procedure, tabulation, and interpretation of the responses is highly detailed and informative. A frank attempt is made to reveal potential flaws and problems in each stage of the study. One especially distressing response of the Ph.D. students as a group was that fewer than half of them had asked their own library staff for help or advice in doing their research; those who did seek such aid were mainly interested in interlibrary loan services and not in consulting subject/information specialists for their expertise (cf., p.38, 56).

Comments made in responses of the academic staff would sound familiar to their counterparts in the United States: neither sufficient time nor money for research activities, necessity to travel extensively in order to consult needed materials, delays in receiving items through interlibrary loan, inaccessibility of some materials altogether, high cost of books and journals, and general problems of keeping current. The two humanities areas illustrating extremes in the responses proved to be history and philosophy, with history researchers making very heavy use of libraries other than their own.
and those in philosophy being much more inclined to find needed material at their home university or in their own private collections.

This study tends to confirm the hypothesis that information in the humanities does not readily go out of date. There is, however, considerable variation within the five humanities areas studied as to extent of library use, and types of materials used by researchers in these areas.

Composed of some sixty pages of text and seventy-four pages of tables, plus appendixes that include the two sets of cover letters and questionnaires, this study reflects thoughtful and meticulous scholarship. Many of the findings are of the "impressions confirmed" nature, and the confirmation is itself of obvious value.

The step-by-step discussion of the preparation, method, procedures, and findings is readable and enlightening. The survey has clear implications and usefulness for similar investigations in the U.S. and could serve as a model for future researchers in this (and related) areas.—Charles E. Perry, North Texas State University, Denton.


Ben Compaine begins The Book Industry in Transition by saying, "This report was written 47 years ago under a different name." So he compares the work with Cheney's Economic Survey of the Book Industry 1930-1931 (New York: National Association of Book Publishers, 1931). And in fact Cheney's work has been the primary reference on the book industry for almost half a century. The present work is a direct result of market research activities conducted by Knowledge Industry Publications (KIP) on behalf of book industry clients. Compaine, a KIP officer, has a background in marketing and communications, and this background is evident throughout the report.

It should be pointed out that this book was previously issued as Book Distribution and Marketing, 1976-1980, in 1976. At that time the price was $450, or $395 to subscribers to KIP publications. Compaine describes the differences between the 1976 report and this 1978 publication as being a matter of price and minor updating of statistics. The high price of the original report, while perhaps appropriate for KIP's book industry clients, was evidently unacceptable to most libraries. The OCLC data base indicates only a handful of holding libraries. On the other hand the $24.95 price for the 1978 book has evidently permitted numerous libraries to acquire essentially the same book—albeit two years later.

An updating of Cheney's survey is long overdue. And The Book Industry in Transition accomplishes this quite well—at least in the areas of book distribution and marketing. The author identifies five results of the study. First, there is an analysis of the general status of the book industry, its history, and its direction. Second, the study presents a description of the way general books are marketed and distributed. Third, there is a sharing of techniques, innovations, and experiments that will hopefully benefit the industry as a whole. Fourth, the study provides an outsider's evaluation (Compaine's expertise in marketing and communications) of the effectiveness of certain distribution practices and marketing programs. Fifth, the study provides a sense of direction in regard to solving long-standing problems in the book industry.

The problems of the book industry today are much the same as those identified by Cheney in 1931. Distribution of literally hundreds of thousands of unique products (titles) is a problem not faced by any other industry. Market research, an essential element in production and marketing for most other industries, is not widely used in the book industry—and then primarily by the mail order publishers. These and related problems are the focus of the author's concern as he surveys how the book industry is organized, who buys books and why, how books get to readers, and comments over and over again on the economic factors that are unique to this industry.

Each of fourteen chapters provides a succinct description of a particular aspect of the book industry. Four chapters are devoted to "Getting Books to the Reader"—one chap-
ter each for trade books, libraries, mass market paperbacks, and book clubs and mail order publishers. As might be expected from his background, Compaine devotes much attention to the chapter on "Promotion, Advertising, and Market Research." All chapters have an ample supply of examples and statistics that effectively support the summary and conclusions offered. Statistics are fairly up to date and come primarily from Bowker publications, the Association of American Publishers, the U.S. Bureau of the Census, and Knowledge Industry Publications' own files.

The very nature of this study and the current emphasis on the needs and rights of consumers make a chapter on "Who Buys Books, Where, and Why" of considerable interest. Unfortunately, the little new information included in this chapter is derived from a very small sample of bookstore customers—hardly adequate for substantial conclusions about who buys books and why.

Recently, however, and possibly because of the transition climate described by Compaine, two major studies have been published that provide valuable insight into the publisher-consumer relationship. *Consumer Research Study on Reading and Book Purchasing* (Darien, Conn.: Book Industry Study Group, 1978) was released in the fall of 1978 at a prepublication price of $1,000, after publication $1,500. Reminiscent of the arrangements for the work being reviewed, a recent announcement from the American Library Association offered the *Consumer Research Study on Reading and Book Purchasing* to ALA members for $60.00. Price notwithstanding, this study adds much information to the existing body of literature about the reading and book-buying habits of Americans. There appears to be some correlation between "Factors Important in Book Selection" reported in this *Consumer Research Study* and those reported by Compaine in *The Book Industry in Transition*.

Another recent contribution in the area of publisher-consumer relationships is *Getting Books to Children: An Exploration of Publisher-Market Relations* by Joseph Turow (Chicago: American Library Assn., 1978). The emphasis of Turow's book is clearly on the "relationship" between the publisher and market. Nevertheless, in exploring this relationship and its implications, his findings are quite similar to those of Compaine in *The Book Industry in Transition*.

During this transitional period, Compaine supports greater utilization of wholesalers to relieve the magnitude of the distribution problem and to offset the "horror of returns" to publishers. He is very supportive of jobbers like Ingram and Baker & Taylor and feels their role in distribution has not reached its potential. He views the development of the bookstore chains (B. Dalton, Walden, etc.) as positive influences in the industry.

In spite of the severe problems facing the industry, not the least of which is gaining new markets (consumers), Compaine is optimistic. He applauds the use of new technology by publishers, jobbers, and retailers. However, little mention is made of the potential for on-line data bases during this transition period.

In addition to the summaries and conclusions contained in the individual chapters,
one chapter is devoted to a summary and conclusions of the entire study. Also, a final chapter consists of "Profiles of Selected Companies." Anyone interested in the book industry will find these profiles quite interesting. An appendix provides an analysis of the book buyers survey that supplied the data for the chapter on "Who Buys Books."

The book, although first published at $450 and now available for $24.95, is still overpriced. And there are several glaring typographical errors. Nevertheless, among librarians, communications faculty, book dealers, and publishers there is a ready audience for this current assessment of the book industry. Compaine's book may not last as long as the Cheney report. Hopefully, the changes expected and suggested for the book industry will preclude that possibility.—Don Lanier, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama.


A careful attempt to examine factors that can predetermine which books will be produced, in even one segment of the publishing world, is noteworthy. In Getting Books to Children, Joseph Turow, assistant professor of communication at Purdue University, applies the perspective of mass communications research to children's publishing in a way that bears upon fundamental concerns of librarians, the consideration of quality in books selected for a library collection, and the desire to satisfy the needs and wishes of readers.

Basing his study on material gathered for his 1976 Ph.D. thesis, the author examines the organizational relationships that have reinforced the two major markets for children's books, the one library oriented and the other the mass market. His work is divided into two main parts as he investigates, in detail, the two different patterns of publishing to see what effect the relationships of publishers and their markets (not children, but in the one case, librarians, and in the
other, buyers for department and bookstore chains) have on each other. He tries to determine how these "client relationships" have affected the publishing structures and how much influence they have on publication decisions.

The four large focal organizations selected for study are one library-oriented trade publisher, one mass market publisher, one public library system with forty-six branches, and, in the commercial area, both a bookstore and a department store chain. Research methods, clearly set forth by the author, include interviews, questionnaires, and analyses of new titles in production or released during the period of his study and the new titles selected for the library system and the mass market outlets in the same time period. A summary chapter, appendix, notes, and bibliography enhance the validity of his findings.

The results are provocative. In retrospect, one is impressed, especially, with how far the readers, the children for whom the books are intended, are removed from major consideration by both publishing structures. Also, as a nonlibrarian, with the objectivity that an outside discipline allows, Turow is able to comment dispassionately on the close relationships among children's librarians, particularly library coordinators, and children's editors. Within the library system, he is made aware of the tensions that arise when branch librarians reflect a closer relationship with their public than with publishers, even though the branch librarians agree with their coordinators that quality must be a prime consideration in book selection.

The ramifications of this study extend beyond the realm of children's books, and the hypotheses may be applicable to other areas of librarianship. With a better understanding of organizational relationships, we may be able to exert changes where they are needed. Written clearly with a minimum of jargon and based on meaningful research, Getting Books to Children is recommended not only to all active in children's librarianship but also to other librarians, especially those concerned with book selection. Evaluations of quality and measures of popularity, concerns with what stretches our minds and what sells itself, are not limited to one segment of the publishing or communications industries.—Mary E. Thatcher, University of Connecticut, Storrs.


Deborah Lockwood in her book, a bibliography on library instruction of that title, sets forth criteria for her selection of titles from the sometimes overwhelming number of works on the subject. She chooses to pick works that are in English and are readily obtainable, thus eliminating the many workbooks, handbooks, manuals, and guides for term papers; she also selects few items published before 1970. She divides her work into three broad categories: general philosophy and state of the art, types of libraries, and methods of instruction.

Each major section of the bibliography has subdivisions by subject and is arranged in chronological order. The individually numbered entries are annotated, albeit unevenly, and a few not at all. Several annotations are either so brief or ambiguous as to be meaningless, such as "addresses the question of whether or not to evaluate" for one entry. There is a name (author) index that refers the reader to individual entries, but no subject index.

Deborah Lockwood is currently a reference librarian at George Washington University and was an instruction librarian at Indiana University. She provides, in her preface, a brief note on the field of library instruction, emphasizing that little library instruction literature has been published outside of the library field. She further encourages instruction librarians "to begin reaching beyond the library field and to start thinking in broader terms than individual programs and develop a philosophy and a concept that will be acceptable to our clientele and colleagues," which is sound advice indeed.

The compiler includes familiar library instruction authors: Patricia Knapp, Tom Kirk, John Lubans, Hannelore Rader, Louis Shores, Carla Stoffle, and Marvin Wiggins and also gives the reader some less familiar studies that appear in ERIC. The book is a
good introduction with over 900 entries; the price is rather dear and the annotations inconsistent in quality, but instruction librarians will want to see this one.—Anne Roberts, State University of New York at Albany.


Currently, the use of on-line searching to retrieve bibliographic data from machine-readable bases has become such a common phenomenon, and the use of batch retrieval appears to be almost anachronistic. Nevertheless, in the early seventies, batch retrieval was still novel, experimental, and daring. At that time, ERIC was particularly concerned with the dissemination and use of the ERICTAPES, and a number of universities and commercial organizations prepared programs that were predominantly batch mode-oriented. Ronald Tschudi prepared PROBE, a batch process for Indiana University. Eva Kiewitt, then education librarian, evaluated the program at the request of ERIC.

The primary purpose of the study was to test the performance of PROBE and recommend improvement and/or change. The information collected was ultimately used in the author's dissertation, "PROBE: Computer Searches of the ERICTAPES—An Evaluation of a Pilot Study" (1973). The present study is neither as tight nor as well organized as that dissertation and to some extent suffers by comparison. However, the intent and functions of this book are different from that dissertation, and although the author has drawn heavily on that thesis, it has been manipulated and massaged for publication.

The book has merit. It is a good state of the art on the literature evaluating the performance of information retrieval systems, and is particularly useful for library school students. Not only does Eva Kiewitt review the classic literature in this area, but through her discussion of the pitfalls and mistakes that she experienced in her study of PROBE future evaluators can profit from her errors. The reader is provided with a number of caveats and guidelines. It is unfortunate, however, that she has not significantly updated her original bibliography. Fewer than 10 percent of the references bear post-1973 imprints.

The book does have other limitations and omissions and is at times frustrating, especially when the author reaches conclusions that do not appear to be supported by the data. Among these limitations is the failure to include evaluations and studies comparing on-line and batch-oriented search services. Inasmuch as one of the stated purposes of the book was to determine, not only if changes should be made in PROBE, but also to determine whether "it should be used in addition to or in place of the use of online capabilities," it is disappointing that the author does not come to grips with this stated purpose.

A more extensive investigation of this problem would have been appropriate inasmuch as DIALOG, an on-line retrieval service, is already available to students and faculty on the Indiana campus. Only one comparative study is reported, and a very brief summary of the methodology and the results is presented. The study undertaken in 1977 replicating the 1973 study simply substantiated the 1973 findings, and on this basis the author recommended that PROBE or a "similar program" remain an integral part of the overall reference services.

Then the author again recommends that the advantages of batch mode retrieval be compared to on-line access in order to determine whether PROBE is still a viable form for searching ERIC tapes. One suspects that although the 1977 study confirmed user satisfaction, adequate turnaround time, and the lower cost of the PROBE search versus the DIALOG search, the author still suspected its feasibility. She is careful to point out that cost analysis of PROBE is based on the pricing structure at the university and that additional costs are built into a retrospective search. Other limitations of PROBE are noted, and one questions its lower cost benefits.

There are a number of unanswered questions that remain after completing the book. Why, for instance, has Kiewitt failed to compare the original and the current goals
of PROBE? This is one of her recommendations, and yet it is difficult to understand how one can examine the feasibility of a system without examining its goals. What is the justification of maintaining PROBE with its searching limitations? How would the addition of supporting data bases such as Psychological Abstracts affect cost? And a minor irritation. Why has the author omitted punctuation from the title of the book? It was difficult to determine whether this was a two-part essay or whether PROBE had a built-in evaluation program.

The author has attempted to include too much information in too little space. As a result, many topics are hastily and unevenly covered. Although the review of pre-1973 literature is extensive, later studies, as pointed out, are slighted. The 1973 study is presented in laborious detail, the 1977 study sketchily. Little or no attempt is made to summarize results, and one wonders if the brief history of ERIC was really necessary. The author, however, does present a good case for continuous evaluation of retrieval systems, and the study of PROBE is probably not only of historic interest but should prove helpful to future evaluators.—Sylvia G. Faibisoff, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb.


Changes and studies relating to collection development make it difficult to produce a textbook on the subject that is anything more than a general overview, which is soon out-of-date. Those previous books that have succeeded have concentrated on general principles and not specifics. Evans tries to combine these principles with practical applications to cover collection development in all libraries. The result is a well-written yet flawed discussion of collection development principles and applications.

Evans defines collection development as being comprised of six elements: community analysis, policies, selection, acquisitions, weeding, and evaluation. (Preservation of library materials is, unfortunately, completely ignored.) Each topic is described in detail, with variation depending on the type of library. The chapters on selection (one on audiovisuals and one on books) are quite strong, with emphasis on current selection aids and their applicability. Students should find the short synopses of nine previous books on collection development to be especially useful.

The book attempts to show that selection of library materials does not take place in a vacuum. Thus, Evans covers not only A/V selection; he also describes the production, distribution, and acquisition of these items. Similarly, there are chapters on production and distribution of books and a description of basic ordering procedures. Unfortunately, some of his statements in this area are incorrect; Ford's revised work on acquisitions remains a better student text in this area. However, while areas related to collection development are covered, Evans doesn't manage to convey the importance of seeing collection development as an integral part of total library operations.

Evans discusses interlibrary cooperation, copyright, and censorship in separate chapters under a "related issues" heading. The description of the effect on collection development of the new copyright law is very general. Ten pages are wasted by simply reproducing sections of the new copyright law.

There are too many gaps to make this an effective text. Neither the article by Edelman and Tatum (C&RL, May 1976) on development of collections nor Magrill and East's excellent review of collection development trends (Advances in Librarianship, v.8) is cited in the text. Budgeting is not well covered; Clapp-Jordan is practically ignored, while common terms, such as periodical back files, are explicitly defined. The usefulness of this book to both librarians and students is undermined by its broad scope, general coverage, and failure to discuss important issues, such as those raised by Galvin and Kent in their Pittsburgh study.

The LJ Special Report is mistitled. It is
not about collection development but is a compilation of fourteen previously unpublished, annotated subject bibliographies (or bibliographical essays in some cases). The work is focused on “the needs of a medium sized public library or undergraduate library clientele,” and the bibliographies, designed to serve librarians building collections for general readers, should be very useful. The book’s major strength is that it contains good bibliographies on areas of current interest—microcomputers, the aged, bioethics, farming—as well as such popular topics as careers, fantasy, dogs, and science fiction.—William Schenck, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.


Here is another book written by a librarian for librarians who need access to the mathematics literature. I suppose it is asking too much to hope that real library users might find it and enjoy it; these nonlibrarians might be helped by its simple, direct descriptions of classification systems and card catalogs and a careful explanation of what Mathematical Reviews is all about.

It is a sprightly up-to-date book covering selectively the literature of mathematics: greatest emphasis is put on pure or “core” mathematics without much dallying in the interdisciplinary swamp of applied mathematics, except for brief chapters on statistics and operations research, which are comparatively self-contained subjects. There is a definite bias toward American literature, especially the publications of the American Mathematics Society. Mathematics is one of the more international disciplines, and there is no mention of such important sources of papers as the French Seminaire publications.

The book begins with a concise history of mathematics, followed by an informative chapter on the nature of mathematics and its literature. Mathematical activity is divided into three segments: research, applications, and exposition. While the needs of the mathematical researcher can be satisfied by access to a comparatively small amount of literature, applications-oriented mathematics is widely dispersed through a variety of subjects and a diverse collection of journals and abstracts.

The third segment, exposition, involves bringing together research from both pure and applied sources to arrive at consolidations, simplifications, and relations within a general body of theory. According to Schaefer, this last area is the most neglected and difficult: mathematics is less susceptible to rapid review than the rest of the sciences due to its abstract nature, dependence on old as well as new literature, and specialization.

The next area of discussion is information needs of mathematicians depending on the depth, currency, and focus of their interest. How the library and publishers organize literature to meet these needs is mentioned, along with the different forms this literature takes: journals, society publications, abstracts, monographic series, and reference sources are included. The book ends with two brief chapters on applied subjects, statistics and operations research, where the literature is pretty well packaged. No mention is made of the lack of a computer searchable data base for mathematics or the problems involved in this.

This is all presented in a fresh, direct style. I have only a few specific gripes. First, there is no mention of handbooks such as the CRC mathematics handbooks: even with the advent of hand calculators some tables are still useful to mathematicians. Second, for historical searches by author I find it useful to remember the sequence from Poggendorff; through the Royal Society Catalog, 1800–1900; the International Catalog (math section) 1905–15; the Jahrbuch über die Fortschritte der Mathematik, 1864–1936; then the Zentralblatt, beginning in 1931; and Mathematical Reviews, beginning in 1940. With this sequence you can access almost 200 years of mathematics literature. Third, there is too much concentration and explanation in Schaefer’s book on the publications of the American Mathematics Society and not enough editorial comment on such things as the lack of a cumulated annual index for Statistical Theory and Method Abstracts.
Altogether this is a useful and practical guide to mathematics literature. It would be most applicable to college libraries rather than large research collections in mathematics, where there would be more stress on foreign literature.—Alice W. Hall, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge.


The two works of similar genre, by necessity selective and geographically limited, are both designed to aid the researcher and librarian, but their philosophies are somewhat different, as an examination of the arrangement of the contents reveals.

Lewanski believes in a strict subject approach as defined by the eighteenth edition of the Dewey Decimal Classification, which necessitates the repetition of information on libraries that may be strong in more than one subject. The author is himself aware of the shortcomings of the scheme for his purpose, yet so stern is his commitment to this approach that he adds only one index—an alphabetical key to the classification scheme.

The Roberts and others work, on the other hand, arranges the selection of UK libraries in alphabetic order in four groups: (1) national, specialist, and public libraries, (2) university libraries, (3) polytechnic libraries, (4) Scottish central institutions. Although not mentioned in the table of contents, some references to libraries in Northern Ireland are sprinkled among the first three categories. There are four indexes to this work: subject, name of collection, geographical, and list of libraries; the latter arranged in the same order as in the body of the text seems redundant.

Both works try to give essential information about the libraries, including address, name of librarian, date of foundation, size, access, services rendered, hours, etc. (Roberts even lists phone and telex numbers.) This information, although unevenly supplied within each work, seems to be more detailed and exhaustive in Roberts. Both works list publications and guides describing the collections and libraries with each entry, the only difference being that more general guides are found in Lewanski after the subject entry while Roberts lists them in the beginning of the work (p.13-18).

Apart from the difficult task of obtaining, sorting, interpreting, and arranging massive materials, which the authors of both works had to face, Lewanski had to surmount in addition the problems of multilingual entries with diacritical marks (which he omits throughout) and the uniform transliteration of non-Roman scripts. In general, he succeeds in this and even translates the Slavic, Finno-Ugric, Greek, Albanian, and Turkish names of libraries, albeit not always idiomatically, which may in some instances be misleading. There are other types of mistakes which are almost unavoidable in a large and complicated work as this. There are the usual misprints such as "Kunliga" for Kungliga (p.481b last entry), "Franoiškanska" for Frančiškanska (p.26 top), "Stata" for Stat (p.23a second entry from bottom). Pančevo is situated in Voivodina, not Slovenia as given (p.465a entry 4 from top). Apparently some misplacement occurred also in the subjects; at least the description of the collections would so indicate. Thus, for example, under 686 Printing—History and Technology for France, one finds the Vivaréz collection of ex libris that is not accounted for under 097 Book-Plates.

The above imperfections notwithstanding, every well-stocked reference department will want to acquire both works. As Lewanski requests, the scholar and researcher should continue to suggest improvements and make corrections so that the next edition will be exact and complete.—Miroslav Krek, Brandeis University, Waltham, Massachusetts.

by means of the right information at the right time for the appropriate people is the role for the librarian” (p.11). While Wright's specific suggestions for services are not particularly new or imaginative, he does offer sufficient information to help libraries plan for change and provides many references for further study.

Kieth Wright also participated as a spokesman for the handicapped in the institute at Albany, New York, "Library Services for the Adult Handicapped," the proceedings of which are being reviewed here. The format of the institute was a series of speakers chosen to represent various aspects of library service to the handicapped on the adult level. The contents move from a historical perspective on library services to this group: the psychology of the disabled, attitudes toward the handicapped, legislation affecting them, the legislative basis of federal support for public library services, the art of helping, to specific examples of resources for use, services offered, design of libraries, and reviews of programs of service currently offered in several regions of New York State. A brief description of bibliotherapy and mention of the role of the governor's conference are also included.

Unlike Wright’s book, the institute’s proceedings do not cover the spectrum of major handicapping conditions. Primary emphasis focused on the visually impaired and physically disabled, and very little mention was made of the deaf, mentally retarded, and the aged. This flaw could be a reflection of a lack of an inclusive definition of major handicapping conditions on the part of the planners of the institute or merely the result of the availability of speakers and the limited existence of programs of library services. In any case, coverage is uneven and emphasis is on public library services. This reflects the affiliation of the forty conference participants, twenty-six of whom were employed in public libraries and state agencies.


Each book offers the reader a different
focus, but each makes a useful contribution to a topic on which there is currently a dearth of material. Kieth Wright's book will no doubt serve as the introductory textbook for library school students and practitioners in the field for some time to come.—Meredith A. Butler, State University of New York, College at Brockport.


It is tempting to describe this report by Richard Boss on circulation systems as "Everything you ever wanted to know about . . ." etc., but that simply isn't true, as the author would be the first to admit. It is primarily a survey of the features of existing systems. Of the one hundred and eight pages in the report, fifty-four are devoted to descriptions of existing circulation systems. After a few pages on manual and photocharging systems, which after all are still valid in many applications, the author turns to a description of automated systems. He briefly examines the systems of nineteen developers, mostly commercial but also including those of three universities and one public library. For each developer he lists addresses, telephone numbers, and a brief description of what the developer provides. The extent of the descriptions varies, depending on how much information the author could obtain. He attempts little evaluative comment on each one, observing that most of the applications surveyed do not yet have an operational history sufficient to provide much that is helpful.

The value of this report is rather limited because it is of necessity quite topical. The market for circulation systems is very dynamic and subject to rapid change. There is no clear leader in the field. So this report shares with earlier LTR reports in 1975 and 1977 a very short half-life. To some extent it is useful to compare what Barbara Markuson and William Scholz said in those earlier reports with what Richard Boss says in this one, but such comparisons are now largely of historical interest simply because the rapid pace of technological change has made most of their comments obsolete.

No one who is about to decide on what circulation system to purchase, as Richard Boss himself indicates, can totally rely on surveys like these. They are useful largely as an introduction to what products are available and as an indication of how someone should pursue an independent investigation.

It is on this latter score that Mr. Boss' work is of most value. The last third of his report is devoted to helpful advice on methods of investigation, solicitation of bids, evaluation of responses, and contract negotiations. As an example of one safeguard to follow, he includes the acceptance plan of the Tacoma Public Library, which recently acquired a rather comprehensive automated circulation system. He also attaches something that is frequently difficult to find but yields at a glance the relative success a developer may have enjoyed up to now: a list of the systems they have installed. Finally, he has some sage advice on the use of consultants and the balance that should be maintained between

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reliance on consultants versus developers versus making one's own independent judgment.

This report will not resolve many issues. Even Mr. Boss' attempt to define an idealized circulation system is subject to argument. Who can now say to what extent a circulation system should be a finding list or a partial surrogate for the card catalog in addition to keeping track of what is being circulated? No one knows. The answer is a function of cost, availability of equipment, perhaps even taste. Nevertheless, Mr. Boss' work will benefit those who are now confronted with an immediate decision on whether or not to buy a circulation system. It won't simplify the decision, but it can shorten and guide investigation.—Richard J. Talbot, University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

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 charge may be obtained from a recent issue of Resources in Education.


Present central library operations are discussed in terms of emerging needs and possible direction for future development. Library objectives include acquiring and organizing relevant records of knowledge and providing satisfactory information service standards. Issues relating to objectives include the library's involvement in planning developing educational programs, support of programs offered, and a well-selected professional staff, strong in subjects relevant to library coverage and involved in continuing education. Library organization and structure are concerned with the centralization of library services within the university, and the functional arrangement of activities within the library. At present, Temple's library structure is a combination of centralized and decentralized services. Issues involving personnel are consultative management, professional self-governance, unionization, and affirmative action policies. The library's budget recommendations are based on a balanced budget principle, and library department heads' participation. Collection development is based on stimulus-response buying and a system approach. Gradual computerization is taking place with a fully automated circulation system, OCLC, microforms, and semiautomated interlibrary loan. Future issues include cooperation and networking within the profession; cooperation and coordination within the university; and structural reorganization, development of long-range personnel programs, continuing automation, and additional library space.


This case study describes the application of an analytical library network model to data collected during April 1977. Models are developed for describing the intralibrary processing activities encountered at each of the resource libraries in the study, and alternative routing policies for referring requests among resource libraries are analyzed. A recommended routing policy is suggested that predicts an improvement in network probability of satisfaction and a slight decrease in writing time for roughly the same reimbursement cost experienced in April 1977. Understanding of the intralibrary processing activities is also useful for analyzing the impact of alternative technologies on network probability of satisfaction, processing time, and cost per request. Seven alternative technologies with various combinations of location and availability information are identified, and performance predictions for Illinois are estimated. Data tables are supplied; requests, tabulated by subject class and publication date, and recommended request routes for each system in the network are appended.

The Role of the University's Library Resources in Teaching and Learning in the
Contingency Theory and Its Implications

Contingency Theory and Its Implications and the methods of data collection are explained. The availability of appropriate library materials, and courses, developing the accessibility and students, library staff, and faculty) are identified, structure determined by external as well as inter included. Groups participating in the study (students, library staff, and faculty) are identified, and the methods of data collection are explained. Over forty data tables provide the objective findings. Conclusions drawn from the study include ideas for establishing teaching objectives for courses, developing the accessibility and availability of appropriate library materials, and increasing communication between library and academic staff.

Contingency Theory and Its Implications for the Structure of an Academic Library.

By Robert F. Moran. 1978. 22p. ED 163 949. MF—$0.83; HC—$1.67.

The theoretical basis for an organizational structure determined by external as well as internal factors—the contingency model—is presented through a consideration of two studies. The current research and speculation that have updated and augmented this theory are also included, and a contingency approach to library organization is justified. The changing nature of the academic library is described, followed by a discussion of specific changes in the structure of an academic library that seem appropriate in the light of the external environment.

Identifying the Future Roles of the Library at the Community College: A Delphi Study.

By Yong Sup Sim. 1977. 209p. ED 163 945. MF—$0.83; HC—$11.37.

Divided into five parts, this report describes a research project that used the Delphi method to identify the future roles of the library at Mercer County Community College through 1986 and to set priorities for those roles. The introductory section includes definitions of the problem, the terms used, the subject, and the organization of the study, as well as a review of the literature. A discussion of procedures and methodology focuses on the participants—faculty/staff, students, librarians from other institutions, and a jury of experts—and the three questionnaires used to gather data. Analysis of the data from all three rounds is described, and the ten roles considered to be the most significant are listed. The summary and recommendations include a priority-ranked list of seventy-nine future library roles.

Rules of the University of Oklahoma Libraries Faculty, Including Criteria for Tenure, Promotion and Salary Increases.

By Sue Harrington and others. Univ. Libraries, Oklahoma Univ., Norman. 1977. 40p. ED 163 989. MF—$0.83; HC—$2.06.

This statement of rules, policies, and procedures of the University of Oklahoma Libraries covers the areas of library government and organization, library faculty relationships, and criteria for tenure promotion and salary increases. Regulations for the election of officers, holding meetings, dues collection, committees and councils, and responsibilities of library faculty are defined. Criteria for tenure are presented, including consideration of teaching, research, and creative achievement, professional service, and university service, as well as criteria for appointment or promotion, and definitions of ranks from instructor to professor. Guidelines for filling faculty vacancies are discussed along with procedures to handle complaints and employment grievances of faculty, classified staff, student assistants, and special employees. Official policy on equal opportunity, confidentiality of library records, leaves of absence, and vacations and holidays are also included. Appendixes contain procedures for evaluation of library faculty for tenure, promotion and salary increases, and nine sample tenure and promotion forms.

Bibliographic Services in Education: A Survey and Analysis of Secondary Services in the United Kingdom.

By Dai Houssell and others. Centre for Educational Research and Development, Lancaster Univ., England. 1978. 73p. ED 163 990. MF—$0.83; HC—Not Available from EDRS.

The results of a survey are reported in two parts: (1) the compilation of an annotated inventory of recurrent secondary services in education produced in the United Kingdom—abstracting, indexing, and current awareness services; and (2) detailed analyses of the important characteristics of time lag, coverage, physical format, and entry format in the four principal services—British Education Index, Research into Higher Education Abstracts, Sociology of Education Abstracts, and Technical Education Abstracts.
OTHER PUBLICATIONS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS


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Bernard Becker, M.D., Collection in Ophthalmology: Catalog of the Bernard Becker, M.D., Collection in Ophthalmology at the Washington University School of Medicine Library. St. Louis, Mo.: Washington Univ., School of Medicine Library, 1979. 103p. $12.50. (Available from: Rare Book Collection, Washington Univ., School of Medicine Library, 4580 Scott Ave., St. Louis, MO 63110.)

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Hess, Stanley W. An Annotated Bibliography of


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