In This Issue—

NANCY E. GWINN, Academic Libraries and Undergraduate Education: The CLR Experience

HARRISON BRYAN, Australian Academic Libraries: The Incomplete Revolution

HARRISON BRYAN, A View of Libraries Down Under

DENNIS J. REYNOLDS, Regional Alternatives for Interlibrary Loan: Access to Unreported Holdings

RONALD RAYMAN and FRANK WM. GOUDY, Research and Publication Requirements in University Libraries

JOHN N. OLSGAARD and JANE KINCH OLSGAARD, Authorship in Five Library Periodicals

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CONTENTS

Nancy E. Gwinn 5  Academic Libraries and Undergraduate Education: The CLR Experience
Harrison Bryan 17  Australian Academic Libraries: The Incomplete Revolution
Harrison Bryan 27  A View of Libraries Down Under
Dennis J. Reynolds 33  Regional Alternatives for Interlibrary Loan: Access to Unreported Holdings
Ronald Rayman and Frank Wm. Goudy 43  Research and Publication Requirements in University Libraries
John N. Olsgaard and Jane Kinch Olsgaard 49  Authorship in Five Library Periodicals
Eugene P. Sheehy 54  Selected Reference Books of 1978–79
67  About College & Research Libraries
71  Recent Publications
71  Book Reviews
92  Other Publications of Interest to Academic Librarians
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Academic Libraries and Undergraduate Education: The CLR Experience

For more than ten years, the Council on Library Resources has been funding programs that have as their goal the closer integration of academic libraries with undergraduate education. The CLR Fellowship Program has stimulated some research. Bibliographic instruction has been the core of most projects funded under the CLR-NEH College Library Program and the CLR Library Service Enhancement Program. While the grantees have realized many benefits, staff and faculty turnover, lack of commitment from library and university administrators, and lack of evaluation remain problems. CLR is directing its efforts toward a new approach by supporting the Academic Library Program administered by the Association of Research Libraries' Office of Management Studies.

Is it possible for an academic library to find happiness as an active, committed partner in the education of college and university undergraduates? In true soap-opera style, for some ten years the Council on Library Resources, Inc. (CLR) has been preparing episodes in a continuing narrative whose climax, one might think, would resolve that question. Through a series of grant programs, each project has carried along the story line, with that question always pushing us to turn the page, to listen in again tomorrow, to keep searching for the answer. There have been subplots and side excursions along the way. It is time, now, to stop and see how far we've come.

As a foundation, the council awards grants to other organizations and individuals for projects that fall within its program objectives; as an operating foundation, it also develops and administers programs of its own. CLR's program goals have shifted over the years as some problems were solved and new ones emerged. Its current interests include bibliographic services (particularly efforts toward developing a nationwide computerized service), library resources and their preservation, professional education and training, research and analysis, and, last but certainly not least, library operations and services.

CLR and Library Instruction

The council's interest in user education in academic libraries began in 1964 when CLR supplied funds for a project at Mt. San Antonio College in Walnut, California, to develop a slide-tape program for use with a then-new "teaching machine." The purpose of the machine was to provide general information to students on the use of the library. Even the language used to describe the grant sounds a little antiquated to our more technologically sophisticated ears. It

was reported that the machines were effective in teaching about the use of the library and in reducing demands on library staff, but the equipment had severe mechanical limitations.  

In 1968, because the council was then interested in developing prototype equipment, it made a small supplemental grant for an improved design of a machine for use in academic libraries and suitable for commercial manufacture. Apparently it never reached the marketplace.

In 1970 the Model Engineering Library within the Massachusetts Institute of Technology's Barker Engineering Library received the first of two grants as one component of Project Intrex.

Project Intrex (Information Transfer Experiments) was a program of research that attempted to establish the bases upon which the technical library of the future would be laid. The project involved the adaptation of technology to improve access to information through a full-text retrieval system coupled with a computer-based catalog. But through the Model Engineering Library, attention also turned to the instruction of library users. It was through this program that the well-known Library Pathfinders emerged, and successful experiments with point-of-use instruction using audiovisual equipment were made.

In 1969, however, the council initiated two programs, under the umbrellas of which most of its projects involving user education have gathered: the CLR Fellowship Program and the College Library Program. The latter was jointly sponsored by the council and the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH).

In 1975 a third program, the Library Service Enhancement Program, added another mechanism through which to explore the possibilities of establishing an effective union of academic libraries and teaching programs. None of these programs had user education as its specific goal.

THE CLR FELLOWSHIP PROGRAM

Under its Fellowship Program, the council offered support to midcareer librarians who developed projects that would occupy a minimum of three months. The projects had to be designed to advance the individual's technical, administrative, or substantive skills in librarianship and could involve research, travel, or internship experiences—anything, that is, short of work toward a degree. Over the years, 215 fellowships were awarded, and thirteen of them focused, in whole or in part, on user education.

The CLR Fellows approached the topic from a variety of angles, from an enumeration of strengths and weaknesses of various teaching strategies to methods of program evaluation, from a synthesis that would form a model program to a view of library instruction as part of a broader study, such as the role of the specialist librarian or interpersonal communication. Most of the research was keyed to the librarian's own work situation. The CLR Fellows most often were either attempting to start a library instruction program or to improve one already in existence.

The methods used were similar: visits to a number of libraries, usually preceded by a questionnaire (although we tried to discourage this) and followed up with interviews either in person or by telephone.

Thus CLR helped Allan Dyson look at how undergraduate library instruction was organized in ten U.S. and about a dozen British libraries, and the council assisted John Lubans' examination of instructional programs in twelve libraries and his conduct of a detailed user survey at the University of Colorado.

Many of the fellows' conclusions are consistent with the last ten years' history of interest and enthusiasm for the topic and would come as no surprise to persons familiar with the basic literature. In the early 1970s, for example, a fellow concluded that there "seems to be emerging an awareness of a need for a new breed of teaching librarian for academic libraries."  

By mid-decade many programs with dedicated staff had emerged, and the conclusions drawn by visiting fellows focused on obstacles as well as successes. Dyson, for example, concluded that "the overriding factor determining the success of an instructional program is the extent of commitment to it by the library administration." Johnnie Givens' "clearest understanding" from her study was that "the development of skills in the use of the library by any instructional
method is likely to be sterile and void of general acceptance and success if it is separate from the other processes of educational experiences the learner is offered. 6

By 1978 Hannelore Rader used her personal experiences and a fellowship study of ten academic library instruction programs in the U.S. and Canada in a classic nuts-and-bolts article on how to set up a program in a college library. 7

THE CLR-NEH COLLEGE LIBRARY PROGRAM

The fellows generated useful information, but the program was supplemental to the council’s main efforts of the past decade, which were embodied in two programs that supported experimental endeavors to improve the relationships of academic libraries with faculty, students, and the college or university as a whole.

Based on concepts generated by Patricia Knapp’s Monteith College library experiment, 8 the CLR-NEH College Library Program provided thirty-six institutions with grants to explore innovative ways of enhancing the library’s participation in the education process, of making faculty and administrators more aware of the collections and human resources at hand, and of imparting to students a clearer notion of the enriching cultural and educational role libraries can play throughout their lives. 9 The NEH participation brought with it the added focus of enhancing the role of academic libraries in respect to humanistic scholarship.

The thirty-six institutions had enrollments ranging from a few hundred students to more than 20,000. There was an emphasis in the early years of the program on helping historically black academic institutions; as the years passed the program grew more competitive and the proposals became more sophisticated. Thus, while at one end of the spectrum institutions such as Miles College in Alabama established very traditional orientation programs, at the other end, Northwestern University hired librarians with Ph.D.’s to carry on research and instructional activities (including developing a course on the history of written and printed communication), and Lake Forest College in Illinois built a program around on-line bibliographic services.

Those thirty-six institutions displayed (and continue to display, since the last institutions to be funded will not finish their programs until the early 1980s) a variety of activities in their search for the key that would unlock the door of library-faculty cooperation on their respective campuses.

Some of them brought faculty members into the library to staff the reference desk, keep regular office hours, survey the collection, redesign their courses to include library components, etc. Some used graduate or undergraduate student assistants and gave them special training so that they might help other students. Some brought speakers to campus and arranged exhibits, lectures, films, and other cultural events, around which were built seminars, special classes, workshops, and other educational scaffolding—all of which brought new people into the library. Some held workshops for faculty—one small college library even going so far as to hold two-week summer sessions, or refresher courses for faculty.

Collectively they have filled to overflowing a cornucopia of workbooks, handbooks, bibliographies, pre- and posttests, flyers, brochures, and a few audiovisual materials. New librarian positions were created with titles such as “Librarian at Large,” “Humanities Librarian,” “Scholar Librarian,” “Coordinator of Instructional Services,” “Orientation/Instruction Librarian,” etc. Librarians have been appointed to curriculum committees and worked part-time in departments—in one case even holding half-time departmental appointments. All were committed to working closely with faculty (a requirement of the program), and most engaged in some form of bibliographic instruction, whether it meant developing a separate course, team teaching in the classroom, assisting faculty and students on an individual basis, or a combination of these. 10

The College Library Programs were funded for three- to five-year periods. CLR and NEH invested more than $2,341,000, but each institution was also required to match its grant with funds above and beyond the library’s regular budget. These stipulations were consciously inserted to help the library “institutionalize” the pro-
gram and to bring extra money to the library that, it was hoped, would continue after the grant period. In both cases, the results have been quite varied.

THE CLR LIBRARY SERVICE ENHANCEMENT PROGRAM

In 1975 the council decided that it would accelerate the demonstration process started in the College Library Program on a more modest basis by providing small planning grants to a variety of institutions.

CLR invested nearly $400,000 for the resulting Library Service Enhancement Program, which provided each of twenty-five institutions with the equivalent of one librarian's salary in order to relieve that person of normal duties and allow him or her to work full time for one year with faculty, administrators, students, and staff. The goal, again, was to find ways of integrating the library more fully into the teaching and learning process and to expand the library's role in the academic life of the college or university. Unlike the College Library Program, the science curriculum could be included. Again, nothing was said that would limit the design of the program to any particular form of bibliographic instruction. But, of course, that method continues to be a most attractive way of working with faculty and of developing a more tangible campus role for librarians as instructors.

The Enhancement Program had a particularly beneficial effect on the project librarians. They were required to be senior staff members who presumably were familiar with the institution and faculty. Their release time provided them with an opportunity to leave behind the established routine for a year and work with faculty and administrators outside of the library. Furthermore, many took the opportunity to travel and gather ideas from other programs in the vicinity. Some were invited to give conference presentations or workshops. Their year of intense, professional growth perhaps can best be summed up by the concluding comment of one Enhancement Program librarian's final report. "Thank you, Council," she wrote, "for the most demanding, fun-filled, frustrating, impossible, rewarding, fast year of my life."

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

In ten years of involvement, then, what has been accomplished in these programs? There have been two attempts on the part of the council to evaluate program activity.

In the summer of 1975, a team of CLR and NEH evaluators visited twelve of the College Library Program libraries. Despite the fact that nearly all of the participants had to make major modifications in their plans at the end of either the first or second year, the evaluators found that the effort had provided many benefits.

At a minimum, the team learned that the joint program focused the attention of the college and university administration on the importance of the library in the total teaching effort. At the most, the learning process was greatly strengthened, since the program brought faculty and librarians together (for the first time on some campuses) in efforts to enlarge the educational perspectives of students and to improve their investigative skills.

Clearly more students were using the libraries than had formerly been the case. And the participants were exchanging a great deal of information with nearby institutions, producing the well-known "ripple effect." After measuring these results against their necessarily flexible yardstick, the team members were convinced that the program should continue.

Last spring I conducted a rather unscientific evaluation by telephoning project and library directors. I called all of the College Library Program grantees who had finished the grant period and a selected number of Enhancement Program recipients—a total of twenty-two institutions.

In two cases it appeared that the program had been dropped in its entirety at the end of the grant period. In neither of these cases, I might add, was bibliographic instruction by librarians the focus of the program. In all of the others it was apparent that while most required adjustments, what had been started was continuing to develop, at least in part, often to expand, and that there was still enthusiasm for the activity.

At Cornell, former project director Joan Ormondroyd, an Enhancement Program grantee, credited some of the successful
growth of their program to changes in teaching style, a return to the basics of rhetoric, composition, and research papers. "The farther we get from the sixties, she said, "the closer we get to the fifties." 12

It is impossible to measure quantitatively the effect that these grant programs have had, but it is clear that in many institutions, administrators and faculty are now more aware of the possibilities for productive integration of library and teaching programs.

The ripple effect observed in 1975 has increased, partly due to Project LOEX, the clearinghouse located at Eastern Michigan University (EMU), which grew out of EMU's College Library Program grant and was itself supported for several years by the council. 13

Several institutions that prepared Enhancement Program proposals but were not funded wrote to say that the mere activity of putting together the document forced them to reevaluate their philosophies, missions, and service goals and encouraged them to find ways of carrying out their plans on their own, at least in part.

The council was not attempting to develop a single model program; one result of our experience that has been quite evident is the need for a variety of approaches on each campus that suit each institution's unique environment and personality. But many of the funded programs have become models, frequently cited in the literature and recognized for their innovative ideas and leadership in the field.

At the same time, a number of them have lacked a purposeful plan of evaluation that would objectively measure progress. Too often evaluation was not considered until the final year, when it was too late to gather statistics, to measure growth in skills, or to conduct more than a perfunctory survey. And despite the council's encouragement, with some outstanding exceptions (Earlham being one), few have disseminated their results widely, although many proposals and reports are available through the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) System and Project LOEX. 14

Lewis and Clark College, a small institution in Portland, Oregon, provides an example of what a little seed money can accomplish if it happens to land on particularly fertile soil. Lewis and Clark received an Enhancement Program grant for the 1976-77 academic year. Reference librarian Louise Gerity was released for the year to begin planning a coordinated program of orientation and instruction. Based on the soundness of her work, and in recognition of the fact that a new program of this sort needs time to grow, the college on its own extended the program for an additional two years, naming Gerity as bibliographic instruction librarian and continuing to give her the freedom to build on her past efforts. This past summer a college committee was appointed to evaluate the three-year effort and determine if it should be continued. The committee endorsed the activities that had been carried out and supported those planned for the next two years. The report emphasized the need for close working relationships and coordinated activity between faculty and library staff. It is clear that, through the grant process, the library was able to garner strong support for its activities, support that, it is to be hoped, will be continued.

In the telephone interviews I conducted, I asked such questions as "What were the greatest problems you had in establishing the program?" and, "If you had to do it all over, would you do the same thing?" The responses became a repetitive litany: poor cooperation from faculty; faculty and administrative turnover; library staff turnover; library director turnover; lack of adequate planning with faculty input, etc.

Turnover directly relates to commitment, of course, and it quickly became clear that the most progressive, well-organized programs had been blessed with stable staff and faculty from the beginning. This is one reason, of course, why the Earlham College program has been so successful.

Lack of support or, perhaps more accurately, indifference on the part of university officials remains a problem on several campuses. Although in the College Library Program the council required a personal letter of commitment and pledge of continuance from the college or university president, with some outstanding exceptions this seems to have made little difference when the grant period ended and competition for internal funds increased.
And where libraries were able to maintain new positions funded under the grant, the funds for the position were more often the result of adjustments or changes of priorities within the library rather than of an increase in the budget.

It is my impression from the telephone interviews, from reading the reports, and from a few site visits, that:

1. In those institutions that, in addition to developing an instructional program, tried such innovative ideas as bringing faculty into the library or training graduate students—ideas that depended on paying some sort of stipend or honorarium—only the instructional program has survived. Even the University of Richmond, which had the most promising program of incorporating grant activity into the campus' faculty development program, failed in the end to win approval of the effort as a recognized activity for tenure purposes.

2. Even the strongest programs will wax and wane depending on staff energies and faculty turnover. Turnover is endemic, a problem incapable of solution. It will continue to affect programs both positively and negatively. One must simply learn to live with it and work around it.

3. Nevertheless, building faculty relations—getting out of the library and into campus affairs—is still the key to building support for the library's instructional program and other services.

4. Finally, our sights may be too high. Perhaps we should not try to reach every student on campus but only those who are most interested or whose needs for research skills are clear. We should not be afraid to enlist faculty and, in some cases, turn instruction over to them. We should be realistic about our capacities and constraints. Perhaps more attention should be given to instructing the instructors, i.e., the teaching faculty.

LOOKING AHEAD

The council had enough funds to support only two years of the Library Service Enhancement Program. Last year NEH and the council arrived at a mutual decision to discontinue the College Library Program, and recently the council has suspended its Fellowship Program, although it still will fund research projects on an individual basis.

The reasons for these decisions are complex. True, in both the College Library Program and the Fellowship Program, fewer and fewer applications were appearing on the horizon. But perhaps more to the point, most foundations and funding agents—and CLR is no exception—see themselves as catalysts. It is not possible, with the limited funding at our disposal, for the council to help every library that exists or help any one library over an extended period of time. As a funding agent that in turn is supported by other foundations, CLR has itself no assurance of immortality. In fact, if programs are not seen as desirable and worthy of local support, few foundations will continue funding them just to keep them from dying.

The idea behind CLR's library services programs was to provide to the academic library world examples of things that could be done to integrate the library more fully into campus life so that other libraries would be able to learn and perhaps engage in similar activities.

This has happened and has contributed to the momentum of the last ten years. CLR's library programs, and bibliographic instruction programs in general, have not caused a major revolution among the American teaching faculty. They are not, for the most part, crowding into the library to enlist the aid of eager librarians. It will take much longer than ten years for a feeling of general acceptance of this activity to develop—and even then the idea may never catch fire in some institutions or in certain disciplines.

Nevertheless, it is clear that instructional programs are slowly having a positive impact on the educational process and on the image of academic libraries and librarians. The council would underscore the fact that it has not lost interest in the subject of enhancing academic library services and helping libraries improve their abilities to serve the causes of scholarship and teaching. It is time, however, for a new approach.

It is no secret that libraries have entered into a world of financial constraint and limited growth. We have left behind those expansionist years when, to add a new service, it was a simple matter to ask for and receive newly budgeted positions. Dyson
has found that where instructional programs have flourished, they are an expensive addition to, rather than a replacement for, traditional undergraduate library activities. 

Somewhere, instructional activities have to become meshed with other library services; they must cease to be isolated or added on and instead must be viewed as part of the total operation, as one of a number of library functions that must be managed wisely.

THE ACADEMIC LIBRARY PROGRAM

Earlier discussion focused on the council's feeling that if it gave its College Library Programs enough time to evolve, they would become institutionalized. Perhaps given more time, they will. But perhaps the problem needs to be approached from another perspective, that of management and institutional planning, in order for instructional services to attain their rightful place among the library's priorities and goals. To this end, the council sees library services as one of the principal components of the Academic Library Program, a new program announced last year that is cooperatively funded by CLR, the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation, the Lilly Endowment, and the Association of Research Libraries (ARL).

The Academic Library Program is operated by the ARL Office of Management Studies, which has applied a kind of self-help methodology to library operations in such programs as the Management Review and Analysis Program, the Academic Library Development Program, or the Collection Analysis Project. These programs provide guidance in the form of manuals, procedures, and personal consultation to academic libraries to help them examine themselves, analyze their operations, identify strengths and weaknesses, and outline areas and methods for change.

A high priority for development is a program that will emphasize services. Scheduled to be available in spring 1980, the Services Development Program will help academic libraries examine such services as reference, circulation, interlibrary loan, reserve book, and bibliographic instruction. It will draw in its design on both the College Library Program and the Library Service Enhancement Program.

In preliminary discussions on the design of the program, Office of Management Studies director Duane Webster listed six objectives of the new effort:

1. To provide tools and techniques to enable libraries to determine and analyze use patterns, user needs, and user satisfaction levels;
2. To provide assistance in relating use of the library to current operating policies and services;
3. To design measures of performance that can be applied in evaluating the success of current service programs and in planning future improvements;
4. To provide guidelines for a library to use in designing new service activities or remodeling current ones;
5. To suggest improved methods for promoting the use of library services and enhancing the image of the library on the campus; and
6. To develop and apply principles of effective library service.

All academic libraries in the United States are eligible for the Academic Library Program. It requires a modest fiscal commitment of $4,000-$7,000 for a library to participate. Such modest amounts, we hope, can be found among local sources of support and will result in an enormous pay-off in providing libraries with a capacity for change.

CONCLUSION

It is my view from working with CLR's services programs that service activities must be seen as an integral part of library operations and must be integrated into the local library environment. The objectives of this new program encompass that perspective and also a very important function that has still to be adequately addressed: measures of performance.

Libraries cannot depend on outside funding for continuing operations but must find ways to provide services within current budget constraints and priorities. It is hoped that the Academic Library Program and its services development module will help with this process.

Most of the previous discussion has emphasized what librarians are doing to in-
struct users in response to the users' documented (through surveys) or perceived needs. Other than the use of pre- and post-tests, little has been done to really measure how much library instruction is retained by users and whether it truly contributes to academic performance.

In their review of research trends in library instruction, Young and Brennan point to the fact that "for nearly 50 years, librarians have attempted to document a positive correlation between library use and/or proficiency and academic performance." In those studies that have been done, they say, statistically significant relationships have not emerged. Lubans has called for "a long-range program of evaluation . . . that would study groups of students through four or five years of college and [determine] what library use instruction or the lack of it means." Until a way of evaluating learning is found, library-use educators will have to find their motivation in the comments and reactions of faculty and of students, such as the undergraduate who, in response to a query of the University of New Hampshire Enhancement Program director, said that the library instruction program "made me see the library as a tool, rather than as a pain in the neck."

REFERENCES

3. For a list of these and resulting publications see appendix 1.
6. Johnnie E. Givens, "A Study of Selected Academic Institutions within the Small and Medium Size Range to Determine What Has Been Done or Is Being Planned to Integrate the Library Service Program with the Instructional Program of the Institution," mimeographed (Clarksville, Tenn.: Austin Peay State University, 1974), p.44.
8. The U.S. Office of Education entered into a contract with Wayne State University in 1960 to conduct at Monteith College a research project concerned with exploring methods of developing a more vital relationship between the library and college teaching. As quoted in Patricia B. Knapp's Monteith College Library Experiment (New York: Scarecrow, 1966), p.11, the purpose of the project was "to stimulate and guide students in developing sophisticated understanding of the library and increasing competence in its use," by providing students with "experiences which are functionally related to their course work."
9. For a list of institutions that received Library Program grants see appendix 2.
10. For details of individual programs see the bibliography in appendix 4.
11. For a list of institutions that received Library Service Enhancement Program grants see appendix 3.
12. At the end of Cornell's Library Service Enhancement Program grant, three professional librarians were assigned to support the program. In the last academic year, the group worked with 133 faculty and reached more than 2,800 students.
13. Project LOEX (Library Orientation-Instruction Exchange) was funded from 1975 to 1978, when Eastern Michigan University assumed full responsibility. As of June 30, 1978, more than 360 libraries had become fee-paying members of the clearinghouse. Over the years, members have contributed more than 12,000 items to the project's circulating collection.
14. ERIC is a national system that makes available unpublished, hard-to-find documents on all phases, levels, and subject areas of education. Information as to the availability of reports can be obtained from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources, School of
Education, Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY 13210. Project LOEX is located at Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, MI 48197.


APPENDIX 1

CLR FELLOWSHIP REPORTS

The reports listed below are not available from the Council on Library Resources. They are the property of the individual Fellows. Where articles or books resulting from the research have been published, they are also listed.


Givens, Johnnie E. "A Study of Selected Academic Institutions within the Small and Medium Size Range to Determine What Has Been Done or Is Being Planned to Integrate the Library Service Program with the Instruc-

APPENDIX

APPENDIX 2
CLR-NEH COLLEGE LIBRARY PROGRAMS
(JULY 31, 1979)

INSTITUTION (STATE) AND TERMINATION DATE OF PROJECT
Ball State University (Ind.): August 31, 1980
Brown University (R.I.): June 30, 1975
Clark College (Ga.): June 30, 1980
Colorado, University of: August 31, 1978
Davidson College (N.C.): January 31, 1978
DePauw University (Ind.): August 31, 1982
Dillard University (La.): June 30, 1975
Eastern Michigan University: September 1, 1975
Evansville, University of (Ind.): June 30, 1982
Franklin and Marshall College (Pa.):
December 31, 1982
Hampden-Sydney College (Va.): August 31, 1978
Hampshire College (Mass.): September 1, 1975
Howard University (D.C.): August 31, 1976
Jackson State University (Miss.):
December 29, 1978
Jamestown College (N. Dak.): August 31, 1978
Johnson C. Smith University (N.C.):
December 31, 1981
Kearney State College (Nebr.): July 1, 1980
Kentucky, University of: July 31, 1979
Lake Forest College (Ill.): December 31, 1983
Manhattanville College (N.Y.): October 31, 1978
Miles College (Ala.): August 31, 1978
Mills College (Calif.): July 31, 1979
North Carolina Central University:
January 31, 1977
Northwestern University (Ill.): June 30, 1982
Occidental College (Calif.): December 31, 1978
Pacific University (Oreg.): July 1, 1980
Richmond, University of (Va.): July 31, 1978
St. Olaf College (Minn.): June 30, 1982
Salem College (Mass.): June 30, 1981
Swarthmore College (Pa.): August 31, 1977
Toledo University of (Ohio): September 30, 1980
Tusculum College (Tenn.): June 30, 1982
Utah, University of: June 30, 1980
Wabash College (Ind.): CLR funding only:
December 31, 1976
Washington & Lee University (Va.): June 30, 1976
Wisconsin-Parkside, University of:
December 31, 1980

APPENDIX 3
CLR LIBRARY SERVICE ENHANCEMENT PROGRAMS

1976–1977
Cornell University (N.Y.)
DePauw University (Ind.)
Earlham College (Ind.)
Lawrence University (Wis.)
Lewis and Clark College (Oreg.)
University of New Hampshire
North Carolina Agricultural and Technical University
Oregon State University
Presbyterian College (S.C.)
University of South Carolina
State University College at Potsdam (N.Y.)
West Georgia College
1977–1978
Beloit College (Wis.)
Colorado College
Georgia Southern College
Georgia State University
Glenville State College (W.Va.)
Guilford College (N.C.)
Hampton Institute (Va.)
Joint University Libraries (Tenn.)
Lake Forest College (Ill.)
Tusculum College (Tenn.)
University of Colorado at Colorado Springs
University of Missouri at Kansas City
Wayne State University (Mich.)

APPENDIX 4
PUBLICATIONS ABOUT CLR-SUPPORTED PROGRAMS INVOLVING ACADEMIC LIBRARIES AND THEIR USERS, 1970–79

GENERAL
College Library Program*


"Four Win College Library Program Grants," CLR Recent Developments 5:3 (Dec. 1977). (Ball State University, DePauw University, University of Toledo, University of Wisconsin-Parksied)


"Jamestown, University of Colorado Get CLR-NEH Joint College Library Grants," CLR Recent Developments 1:3 (May 1973).


"University of Evansville, Northwestern, St. Olaf Receive College Library Program Awards," CLR Recent Developments 5:1 (July 1977).

*The College Library Program is jointly supported with the National Endowment for the Humanities.
LIBRARY SERVICE
ENHANCEMENT PROGRAM


PROJECT LOEX


PROJECT INTREX—
MODEL LIBRARY PROJECT


Australian Academic Libraries: The Incomplete Revolution

Over the last twenty years academic libraries in Australia have been transformed in terms of accommodation, staffing, resources, and services. This was brought about as federal funding became available, in succession, to the libraries of universities, colleges of advanced education (CAEs), and institutions of technical and further education (TAFE). University libraries have become the nation's largest bibliographical resource and can now lay some claim to providing resources for research. CAE libraries are within sight of beginning adequacy for undergraduate teaching. TAFE libraries, though transformed, still fall far short of adequacy. Economic constraints have slowed development in recent years, but the future cannot be said to be wholly bleak.

HISTORY

The first universities were established in Australia during what has been termed the era of colonial pride.1 The initial moves to recognize what were originally, with one exception, penal colonies as self-respecting outposts of European civilization, came in the 1840s and 1850s; and it is no accident that Australia’s oldest universities, Sydney (1851) and Melbourne (1853), were founded almost immediately on the establishment of responsible government in the colonies of New South Wales and Victoria respectively. There followed a period, which extended beyond the federation of the six colonies into the Commonwealth of Australia in 1901, during which each colony or state established “its own” university. Thus we have Adelaide, 1874; Tasmania, 1890; Queensland, 1909; and Western Australia, 1912.

It is important for the non-Australian reader to appreciate that Australian federalism has a strong “state-rights” strand to it. Residual power, including that relating to education, lies with the states not the commonwealth, and it has been asserted, with what degree of facetiousness one can but conjecture, that the only force which unifies Sydney and Melbourne, the two big Australian cities, is their common distrust of Canberra, the national capital.

Partly due to this, at least potentially, disruptive force, and partly to the problems of distance and demography in a country the size of the United States but with perhaps 10 percent of its population, there has been an irrepressible urge toward complete self-sufficiency on the part of the first six “state” universities. This has made for a degree of sameness among them. It has also led in some cases to a dangerously early overextending of their resources.

Since 1913 a further thirteen universities have been established. Three trends are traceable in this development: an urge to diversify; a need to multiply to meet population growth; and a repeated stirring of conscience toward decentralization, in a country whose population seems remorselessly to be concentrating in a handful of cities, most of them on the southeast littoral.

Diversity and Multiplicity

In response to the first urge, the Australian National University (ANU) was founded in 1948, virtually coincident with the pro-
duction of "Australia's own" motor car—actually by a subsidiary of General Motors—and for the same reasons of national self-assertion. ANU was to be a simon-pure research institution; but, as noted below, it acquired in 1960 an undergraduate operation, which has seemed to water down in part its claims to difference from other universities, some of which have considerably larger postgraduate enrollments.

Almost coincidentally, the New South Wales University of Technology was established as a fairly strong reaction to what was seen, perhaps unfairly, as an unduly "ivory tower" preoccupation on the part of the University of Sydney. Originally eschewing the humanities and dedicated to a new academic and administrative structure, the University of New South Wales, as it is now called, seems rather less clearly distinguishable today from other universities. The accent on applied science and technology has remained, but much of the "new look" structure has gone and the university has a well-developed faculty of arts.

The drive to multiply produced further metropolitan universities in five of the six state capitals; another in Sydney (Macquarie, 1964) making, with the University of New South Wales, three altogether in that city; two more in Melbourne (Monash, 1958, and La Trobe, 1964), and one each in Adelaide (Flinders, 1966), Brisbane (Griffith, 1970), and Perth (Murdoch, 1970).

Federal Intervention

In 1957 the Australian university system was rescued from chaos and near immolation by the commonwealth's entry into university financing, following the report of the Murray Committee.²

In 1965, the Martin Committee recommended a binary system of tertiary education, which resulted in the identification, ultimately, of a total of eighty-three, now reduced to sixty-seven, colleges of advanced education (CAEs), of a status described as "equal but different" in relation to universities.³

The colleges comprise a range of institutions from several large central institutions of technology with at least a family resemblance to MIT, through a large number of former teachers colleges, many of which have become multidisciplinary to a group of monodisciplinary colleges such as agricultural colleges and conservatories of music.

A Grinding Halt?

In common with other Western nations, Australia seems to have developed, in recent times, some community disenchantment with tertiary education and especially with universities. In association with the country's recent economic problems, a process of "stabilization" has been applied to federal funding of universities and a "no growth" situation has developed. It might be noted that the CAEs have also had the brake applied, though not quite as drastically. The only growth area in the post-secondary field has been in technical education, the so-called TAFE (technical and further education) sector, which began to receive federal aid following the Kangan report of 1974.⁴
Most recently a committee appointed by the commonwealth government to advise on the future of education and training, the Williams Committee, suggested the likely continuation of this trend, with most of the increase in aspirants to postsecondary education (resulting from population and economic growth) going to TAFE institutions. At the same time, the Williams Committee recommended that the boundaries between the sectors be clarified and urged in particular that universities tighten up on their selection and admission procedures and give increased emphasis to research.5

Funding Mechanisms

It is rather ironic to note that, despite the constitutional reservation of education as a state power, none of the universities, though each was established under a state statute, could survive without commonwealth funding. The constitutional problem has been solved by a sleight of hand called special grants to the states. The same device has been employed not only in the other two tertiary sectors but also in both primary and secondary education.

Funds for tertiary education are disbursed by the commonwealth on the advice of a Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), which has three advisory councils, one for each sector. In the case of the TAFE sector, there is a further stage of consultation with state boards variously entitled boards of advanced education or boards of higher education.

One interesting aspect of federal funding was the decision of the Whitlam government in 1972 to increase university grants, provided the institutions concerned abolished tuition fees. Thus, theoretically, tertiary education is not only open to all but also free.

Library Reviews

A final historical note covers published sources for the development of academic libraries themselves. University libraries were surveyed in 1934 as part of an overview of Australian libraries by Ralph Munn of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, in association with Ernest R. Pitt, an Australian librarian.6 They were looked at again by Lionel McColvin, city librarian of Westminster, in 1947, again as part of a general survey.7 In 1961 Maurice F. Tauber completed the only in-depth survey of Australian library resources ever undertaken.8 In 1978 Robert B. Downs looked specifically at academic and research library resources in Australia.9

Neither college nor TAFE libraries have been the subject of published surveys, but the former were reviewed with some care over several years by a library subcommittee set up by the Commonwealth Advisory Committee on Colleges of Advanced Education and were mentioned in the reports of that committee and its successors.10 TAFE libraries were surveyed specifically by E. H. Flowers and A. J. Brown as part of the Kangan Committee’s investigations in 1974.

A very good statistical record of university library development is to be found from 1961 to date, originally in the text and later in the annual supplements to Australian Academic and Research Libraries and its predecessor, the Newssheet of the University and College Libraries Section of the Library Association of Australia.11 Since 1969 the same source includes college libraries. There are no easily available sources of collated TAFE statistics.

BOOKSTOCK

The main feature of the bookstock of Australian academic libraries has been its mushroom growth in recent years. In 1934 the six Australian university libraries were able to account for a total stock of fewer than 425,000 volumes, and of this some 55 percent was held in one library, that of the University of Sydney. By the end of 1978 the total bookstock had risen to 12,519,000 volumes. By far the greater portion of this growth had followed the availability of federal funding from 1958 onward.

There has also been a similar growth of the libraries’ potential reader population (academic staff—full and part-time—and students—undergraduate and graduate, full and part-time, including external students, on a simple head count). By 1977 the nineteen university libraries served a potential direct population of 169,846.

Although statistics are not so readily available for the libraries in the colleges of advanced education, there has also been
like growth. Bookstock has increased from some 287,000 volumes in 1969 to more than 5,000,000 in 1977, with potential readers numbering 184,000 in 1977.

For both university and CAE libraries the pattern is clearly the same: a massive increase in stock and a parallel increase in reader responsibilities. In terms of a crude measure of books available per reader, the improvement rate has been higher in the colleges than in the universities, but the relative levels of provision in the two sectors tell a different story.

No comparable measurement can be made of TAFE bookstock. It appears, however, that, once again, the "shot in the arm" of federal funds has had a tremendous effect. Total bookstock rose from approximately 677,000 volumes to 1,100,000 between 1974 and 1977. Unfortunately, the starting point was pathetically low, and the number of students at TAFE institutions, on a head count, is formidable indeed. Even allowing for the high proportion of part-time enrollments, it comprises a service load far beyond those handled by either the university or the college libraries.

Quantitative Evaluations

In an attempt to assess collection adequacy more accurately, the Clapp-Jordan formula and its later refinements by Blanchard have been applied to university and college collections. The limitations of using such a fourteen-year-old yardstick must be appreciated.

Bearing in mind the tendency noted earlier for Australian universities to attempt self-sufficiency, it may come as no surprise that only one library, that of the University of Sydney meets Clapp-Jordan and indeed Blanchard standards, and that it has only recently achieved this position. As table 1 shows, Sydney has far and away the largest bookstock and the largest accession rate.

A more common pattern is demonstrated by Macquarie, a much more recently established library, where the Clapp-Jordan deficiency stood at 1,247,000 volumes in 1978, though it should be noted that this was a reduction of some 440,000 volumes over a decade.

If we attempt a rather less ambitious exercise, it is possible, again by using the Clapp-Jordan formula in each case, to establish that, in 1978, eighteen of the nineteen university libraries at least had some resources beyond those needed for undergraduate study and teaching and that the national total of this "surplus" amounted to some 7,468,000 volumes. The point is made simply to contrast the present situation with

### TABLE 1

**AUSTRALIAN UNIVERSITIES LIBRARIES IN 1978**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order of Size</th>
<th>Name of Institution</th>
<th>Size of Collection*</th>
<th>Accessions*</th>
<th>Order of Accessions</th>
<th>Number of Reader Places</th>
<th>Order of Reader Places</th>
<th>Total Expenditure†</th>
<th>Order of Total Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sydney</td>
<td>2,522</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,444</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5,228</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Queensland</td>
<td>1,146</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3,136</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4,637</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>998</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3,503</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4,330</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Adelaide</td>
<td>977</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2,333</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3,020</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Aust. Nat. Univ.</td>
<td>954</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4,421</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Monash</td>
<td>939</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3,818</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4,280</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>New South Wales</td>
<td>924</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3,430</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4,544</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>West. Aust.</td>
<td>747</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2,711</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2,677</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Macquarie</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2,389</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>New England</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1,401</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Flinders</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1,071</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Newcastle</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1,607</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Tasmania</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1,030</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1,593</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>La Trobe</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1,463</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2,348</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>James Cook</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1,139</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Wollongong</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1,194</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Deakin</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1,605</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Murdoch</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1,146</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Griffith</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>986</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


*Size of collection figures are × 000 bound volumes (including microform equivalents).
†All figures are × A$000.
that at the time of the Munn-Pitt report, when only three libraries had any holdings in excess of the Clapp-Jordan minima for undergraduate instruction and the national surplus totaled only 142,000 volumes.

In 1978, with six libraries in addition to Sydney at, or within early sight of the one-million-volume mark, it does seem possible to claim some potential for higher education and research in Australian university libraries.

As a group, and indeed library for library, Australian university libraries are beginning to measure up quite well to British university libraries, though very few would qualify for an Association of Research Libraries listing.14

It may be even more appropriate to apply this second calculation to CAE libraries since, though there are blurred edges between the two sectors, the colleges are asserted to be less concerned with higher education and research than are the universities.

Table 2 sets out the basic statistics for the larger CAE libraries. If we measure the Clapp-Jordan undergraduate teaching minimum for that institution against the bookstock of each, we come up with a result that is rather less depressing than the table suggests.

In short, although only eleven of the sixty-seven CAE libraries would have had any "surplus" in 1978, given current accession rates, a total of twenty-nine should be equipped for undergraduate teaching by the time this paper is published, and a decade of growth at the present rate would see the vast majority equally well placed. There would remain a handful of institutions, principally monodisciplinary colleges, with no real hope of ever achieving that modest pinnacle of success.

One feature that distinguishes many CAE libraries is their relatively heavy reliance on audiovisual material. With some notable exceptions, of which the best example is Macquarie, Australian university libraries have been slow to develop in the nonbook area.

The imagination boggles at applying Clapp-Jordan to TAFE libraries, and it might be argued that it would be unrealistic

TABLE 2
LARGER AUSTRALIAN COLLEGES OF ADVANCED EDUCATION LIBRARIES IN 1977

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order of Size</th>
<th>Name of Institution*</th>
<th>Size of Collection†</th>
<th>Accessions†</th>
<th>Order of Accessions</th>
<th>Number of Reader Places</th>
<th>Order of Reader Places</th>
<th>Total Expenditure†</th>
<th>Order of Total Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>West. Aust. I.T.</td>
<td>(A) 401</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,081</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,807</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>State Coll.</td>
<td>(C) 275</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1,178</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Canberra CAE</td>
<td>(A) 248</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>950</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Royal Melbourne I.T.</td>
<td>(A) 212</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,552</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sydney Tea. Coll.</td>
<td>(C) 202</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Swinburne Coll. Tech.</td>
<td>(A) 138</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>934</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>New South Wales I.T.</td>
<td>(A) 132</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1,243</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>South Aust. I.T.</td>
<td>(A) 125</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>461</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>881</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Tasmanian CAE</td>
<td>(A) 118</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Mitchell CAE</td>
<td>(B) 109</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Torrens CAE</td>
<td>(C) 95</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ballarat CAE</td>
<td>(B) 94</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Darling Downs I.A.E.</td>
<td>(B) 93</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Caulfield I.T.</td>
<td>(A) 92</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>643</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Kelvin Grove CAE</td>
<td>(C) 91</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Adelaide CAE</td>
<td>(C) 91</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Riverina CAE</td>
<td>(B) 90</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Bendigo CAE</td>
<td>(B) 90</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


*Suffixes marked capital letters indicate the group of colleges to which the institution belongs: (A) Central Institutes of Technology (a group of eleven colleges); (B) Other "first generation" colleges (a group of fourteen colleges); (C) Former Teachers Colleges (a group of thirty-eight colleges).

†Size of collection figures are × 000 bound volumes (including microform equivalents).

‡All figures are × A$000.
to undertake such an exercise. However, it must be stated that the leeway resulting from decades of neglect is so substantial that only a handful of TAFE libraries can hope to meet, in the foreseeable future, even the modest interim standard set by Brown and Flowers in the Kangan report.

ACCOMMODATION

This article appears at just the right time, in that it is still possible to say that a feature of the commonwealth's intervention in tertiary education has been the great fillip given to academic library building.15 Since 1959 every Australian university library has been either housed or rehoused in a custom-built building of high quality, excepting only two: the University of Adelaide Library, whose parent institution's restricted site has required a series of increasingly ingenious extensions to the library, and Deakin, the most recent foundation.

College libraries, too, have benefited from the availability of capital funds, and there are several new buildings of international quality. Unfortunately, there are still many ill-housed libraries, including several of the larger ones.

Very few TAFE institutions have either new or adequate library premises, but there may be hope in the continuation of a real increase in support in this sector.

A somewhat unsatisfactory measure of accommodation is the percentage of the full-time student population that can be seated at any one time.

In 1977 the median for Australian university libraries in this respect was 33.95 percent, with a high range of 46.6 percent and low of 9.7 percent. For the CAE libraries treated in table 2, the median was 19.6 percent and the range from 33 to 9.9 percent.

Unfortunately, the recent shutdown in fund increases has been felt first in the accommodation area; and, particularly in the university field, there are a growing number of institutions facing the grim reality of a rapidly filling building with no prospect of relief. In this respect, the Australian reception of the Atkinson Committee's report in the United Kingdom is interesting.16 To date no serious suggestion has been made at an official level in support of the concept of the "self-renewing" library, or, worse still, the "steady state" library.

It remains to be seen whether, when the crunch comes, sufficient priority will be given to library buildings within drastically limited funding. Already the University of Queensland, twice the recipient of funds for substantial building, is at the point of retiring annually—it hopes only temporarily—the equivalent of its intake, before its on-campus stock has reached a satisfactory size.

Accommodation problems of this kind do not assume the same immediate prominence in the other tertiary sectors, largely because stock expansion has not proceeded at the same rate.

STAFF AND ORGANIZATION

Table 3 demonstrates quite clearly the very considerable improvement over the years in staffing university libraries in relation either to bookstock or to readers served, though the later figures in columns 2 and 3 reflect the results of the recent staff "freeze." Perhaps more significantly, even allowing for the crudeness in the measures used, it indicates quite clearly the notable shift of emphasis from technical services to reader services.

While technical services staff, by and large, has been increased at a rate commensurate with the growth in accessions, reader services staff has grown considerably more rapidly than the number of readers to be served.

This second trend is not as clear in CAE libraries. Compared with the unit load of 1:149 for reader services staff in university libraries in 1977, the average for the larger CAE libraries was only 1:253, with a high range of 1:637. On the other hand, the median work load for technical services staff in the larger CAE libraries was only 1:841 as compared with the university median of 1:960. The low range in the CAEs was actually 1:438. Even bearing in mind the grossness of the calculations, there seems to be some room for redeployment here. This would be wise, since all advice to date has been that, given modest bookstock, there is additional need to develop reader services.17

It is far too early to distinguish trends in TAFE libraries, since they are only now emerging from their Dark Ages.
TABLE 3
STAFF WORK LOADS 1934–77 AT ALL AUSTRALIAN UNIVERSITIES DURING 1934–77

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Staff</th>
<th>Books × 10⁶ Divided by Staff</th>
<th>Readers Divided by Staff</th>
<th>Technical Services Divided by Staff</th>
<th>Acc. Divided by Technical Services Staff</th>
<th>Reader Services Staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1949</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>733</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>1,137</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>591</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>876</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>1,330</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>733</td>
<td>626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>1,690</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>695</td>
<td>734</td>
<td>814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>1,861</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>754</td>
<td>757</td>
<td>896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>1,924</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>778</td>
<td>838</td>
<td>953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>2,066</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>849</td>
<td>852</td>
<td>968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>2,160</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>866</td>
<td>897</td>
<td>1,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>2,226</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>883</td>
<td>914</td>
<td>1,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>2,260</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>828</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>1,144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organization

The staffing structures of Australian academic libraries present, on the whole, a fairly conventional picture. The traditional organization by departments is still common but, since the mid-1960s, a substantial number of university libraries have moved to a functional divisional structure.

The current excitement in the U.K. concerning subject specialization has not aroused a notable response in the antipodes. Monash and New South Wales are examples of university libraries essaying a subject-divisional organization, and Adelaide has moved farthest toward a staff structure based on subject specialists. Inevitably, there is a degree of "subject streaming" in both technical and reader services routines in many libraries.

Participation in management has been the center of considerable discussion in recent years, and the recorded experience of the oldest and largest of the group of libraries, highlighting both the value and the practical limits associated with participation, will sound very familiar to American ears.18

Two current problems of staff qualification and organization have their roots in the slow emergence of a three-tier structure at least in university libraries. The professional cadre has always been distinguished by the requirement that applicants hold a university degree and a library qualification. Leaving aside qualifications secured through the LAA's examination system since this system is now being phased out, professional qualifications from library schools have been secured following the first degrees, the normal award being a graduate diploma. Some colleges of advanced education are now offering bachelor degrees in librarianship, in the form of integrated three- or four-year courses, and a problem area is the acceptability of these for professional posts in academic libraries.

The second difficulty is the distinguishing qualification for middle-grade or paraprofessional staff. Here again, academic libraries have yet to espouse openly the library technician qualifications offered by some TAFE institutions and beginning to be recognized by the LAA.

Reader Services

To emphasize a point made in the previous section, there has been more than just a swing of the pendulum toward emphasizing reader services in academic libraries—and especially university libraries—in Australia.19

Indeed, the last fifteen years or so have seen a considerable movement of outreach to the reader, typified by the standing reader assistance unit at the University of New South Wales and the sophisticated, integrated reader education packages developed at Macquarie.
In recent years computerized literature searching has developed very rapidly. AUSINET, an Australian data base consortium, has existed since 1977. AUSINET mounts, in effect, the relatively recent files of major overseas data bases, but it also accommodates, increasingly, local data bases such as the Australian National Bibliography (ANB), the Australian Public Affairs Information Service (APAIS), both mounted by the National Library of Australia, and Bibliographic Information on South East Asia (BISA) put up by the University of Sydney.

In addition, many university libraries regularly access DIALOG and ORBIT; and MEDLINE has been available in Canberra through a network funded partly by university libraries since 1975 and, in batch mode, since 1972.

**AUTOMATION**

Mention of computerized searching leads to a general consideration of library automation. In this area it could be suggested that Australian university libraries—with which can be included some larger CAE libraries—present a fairly familiar pattern to North American eyes. In several institutions, particularly the older or better endowed, there are in-house treatments of various aspects of library routine. There is little use of turnkey systems, and there is too little interinstitutional cooperation. Overall there is, it must be confessed, an unimpressive degree of concern for the systems approach to a library's totality of activities.

An IBM punched card circulation system installed in the University of Sydney Library in 1964 prefigured a decade of fairly rapid movement into automation. Special purpose listings have been widely developed. Half a dozen university libraries have batch-mode cataloging operations, and there are significant data banks of machine-readable cataloging, for example at New South Wales and Sydney, each with some 300,000 or so records in this form. Increasing use is made of AMRS, the National Library of Australia's Australian MARC Record Service.

Several circulation systems have been developed in-house, of which the most sophisticated is probably CIRCUS, Sydney's online operation. Several of the larger CAEs have acquisition and/or cataloging modules operational, for example, the New South Wales Institute of Technology, the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, and the Western Australian Institute of Technology.

**COOPERATION**

Interlibrary cooperation has been a feature of Australian library development, and, as noted below, academic libraries, particularly university libraries, have played an increasingly important part in resource sharing on a national scale.

Within the academic libraries themselves there are long-standing mechanisms for cooperation, and there are interesting new forms emerging.

The Committee of Australian University Librarians (CAUL) dates back, intermittently and under various titles, to 1928. Though meeting only annually, CAUL members maintain continued contact with one another by the device of multiaddressing inquiries or information of general interest.

CAUL's relationship with the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC), the group of executive heads of universities, has been rather delicate at times, the latter body being somewhat reluctant to be lectured or pressured. In recent times, however, the AVCC has not discouraged submissions from CAUL and has, in effect, accepted CAUL's advice in some of its dealings with the Universities Council of the Tertiary Education Commission. The commission has itself developed informal contacts with CAUL.

ALCAE, the Association of Librarians in Colleges of Advanced Education, was actually encouraged into existence by the Commonwealth Advisory Committee on Colleges of Advanced Education. It functions in an analogous way to CAUL.

There is no really effective mechanism yet for communication among TAFE librarians.

Libraries of all three sectors of tertiary education are represented on AACOBS (the Australian Advisory Committee on Bibliographical Services), a body that has some of the characteristics of the Association of Research Libraries in the U.S. and of the
Standing Conference of National and University Libraries in the U.K. All universities are represented directly on AACOBS by their librarians, but the other two sectors have only group representation on it.

AACOBS operates in part through regional committees, one in each of the seven capital cities, which provide an opportunity, and sometimes a focus, for continuing cooperation at the local level.

**Networks**

Of considerable interest is the emergence of more formalized devices for resource sharing on a regional or type of library basis. In Victoria CAVAL (Cooperative Action by Victorian Academic Libraries) brings together, as a registered company, all university libraries in the state, the state library, and certain of the CAE libraries. CAVAL's first target is a shared cataloging operation.

CLANN (College Libraries Activities Network in New South Wales) is more advanced than CAVAL. It associates in a shared cataloging network a number of CAE libraries spread throughout the state.

Finally, a feasibility study is currently in progress into the establishment of a permanent office of library cooperation, the members of which will be five of the six university libraries in New South Wales, the New South Wales Institute of Technology, and the state library. Once again a high priority is a shared cataloging operation.

All these developments, prompted by the need for more effective resource sharing at a time of shrinking finances, are being planned, hopefully, to be compatible and with the conscious intent that they be integrated into the national network toward which the National Library has been directing its efforts for some years.

**The National Role**

An important aspect of academic, particularly university, library operations in Australia is the significant national role that these libraries play.

Traditionally, the nation's bibliographical resources were to be found overwhelmingly in the independent "national" libraries set up, prefederation, by the six colonies and that are now all named state libraries. The rapid growth of the National Library, established originally as the library of the Commonwealth Parliament, added a new dimension after World War II, and the library network of the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization (CSIRO) had seemed, until recently, to be developing as a national science collection.

The flow of federal funds to university libraries in the 1960s completely changed that picture. Within two decades university libraries have become, overwhelmingly, in volume count, the largest element in the nation's bibliographic resource.

This situation is reflected in the statistics of interlibrary loans in Australia, in the active involvement of academic libraries in all cooperative ventures, either nationally or at the regional or local level, and in the substantial direct use made of university library resources and services by the community at large.

In contrast to what was for long the stance of university librarians in the U.K., academic librarians in Australia have been closely involved in the affairs of the professional association, the Library Association of Australia, and the LAA's qualifications have been both accepted and promoted by academic libraries.

**Conclusion**

The subtitle of this article suggests the rapid and substantial changes that have come over academic libraries in Australia in the past twenty years. It also draws attention to the distance yet to be traveled to achieve an adequate standard of service to the academic community and to the nation.

In fact, there have been three successive revolutions in Australian academic libraries, each resulting from the entry of the federal government into funding postsecondary education.

The first and most nearly complete revolution has been in university libraries. In twenty short years they have changed out of sight, both in degree and in kind, to the point where they have altered the face of Australian academe and the pattern and quality of the nation's library resources.

The second revolution has been in CAE libraries, where twelve years or so of Commonwealth funding have transformed an
area of deep depression into one of optimism and a negligible level of library provision and service into one which is in sight of minimum adequacy.

The third revolution is occurring in TAFE libraries. Here the improvement in stock and services, while it has been remarkable enough, is dwarfed still by the magnitude of the task yet to be achieved. The real change, however, has been in attitudes toward the library and its staff, and here a mere five years of federal support has brought real hope and enthusiasm where before there were only apathy and despair.

It is the more distressing, accordingly, that Australia's economic situation and changing government attitudes have so slowed the tempo of all three revolutions as to put their ultimate success in some jeopardy.

Some twelve years ago an editor subtitled an article by the present writer on Australian university libraries: "A Gloomy Conclusion". Another decade's experience really does make the use of such a term inappropriate. The achievements of the unfinished revolution have been such, in the writer's view, as permanently to preclude the possibility of slipping back to the parlous and quite insignificant position that academic libraries occupied in Australia at the time of the Munn-Pitt report. There will be delay and disappointment; there should no longer be disaster.

References

Editor's Note: We are pleased to supplement Harrison Bryan's article with these photographs of Australian university libraries selected by the author and with his captions. We record our thanks to the universities and the libraries represented here for their helpfulness in supplying these photographs.

Griffith University Library. Designed for Brisbane's subtropical climate, this is among the most recent of the academic library buildings in the country. The campus has retained much of its bush setting.
Monash University Main Library. This building, erected in three stages, 1964-1974, has accommodation for 816,000 volumes and 2,113 readers. It is complemented by three separate and reasonably adjacent buildings housing collections and services respectively in law, biomedical sciences, and applied sciences and engineering.

Macquarie University Library. The building was erected in four stages, 1966-1978, to serve the third university in Sydney. It was designed and built by the New South Wales state government architect.
Baillieu Library, University of Melbourne. This historic picture records the completion, in 1959, of the first stage of the first of the custom-designed Australian academic libraries. Later extensions have brought the total gross area to 20,438 square meters.

Menzies Library, Australian National University. Designed to serve originally the completely research-dedicated ANU, the Menzies Library demonstrates rather more conscious concern for outward appearances than do most Australian academic libraries. Completed in 1963, it grosses 7,432 square meters.
Auchmuty Library, University of Newcastle. The first two stages of a planned three-stage building, this library houses 300,000 volumes and 1,000 readers. Campus planners have made a conscious effort to retain the Australian eucalyptuses that clothe the site.

Morris Miller Library. Designed by the same architect as the Baillieu Library, University of Melbourne, this, the University of Tasmania’s central library building, was completed in two stages, 1959–1969. It accommodates 236,500 volumes and 650 readers.
University of Queensland Central Library. This first stage houses 500,000 books and seats 390 readers. The building is designed for an ultimate quadruplication of these provisions. There is a separate undergraduate library building immediately adjacent.

University of Queensland Central Library. The photograph illustrates the physical separation but visual integration of stack and reading areas. This is the only example in Australia of a controlled access collection.
Fisher Library, University of Sydney. Designed by T. E. O'Mahoney and the state government architect of N.S.W., Fisher, Australia's largest and heaviest used academic library building, was erected in two stages, 1963-1971. It grosses 23,225 square meters and provides space for 3,100 readers and three million volumes.

Chifley Library, Australian National University. Designed originally as the library of Canberra University College, the Chifley building was developed largely to house undergraduate services for the amalgamated university. Its capacity is 250,000 volumes and 1,300 readers.
Regional Alternatives for Interlibrary Loan: Access to Unreported Holdings

Encouraging recent progress in documentation of library holdings has facilitated interlibrary lending, but the problem of more complete bibliographic access will persist for some time. In the meantime, a highly structured teletype system used by several libraries in western Illinois has resulted in filling about 50 percent of the members' requests for monographs, despite a nearly total lack of knowledge of holdings in one another's collections. This system has been very inexpensive and takes advantage of rapid document delivery through regional cooperation. Some recent experimentation using the OCLC interlibrary loan subsystem has indicated that both it and the teletype system are viable alternatives for regional resource sharing under conditions of less than perfect bibliographic knowledge.

Interlibrary lending has been a popular theme in library literature in recent years, and the considerable attention in journals seems justified in light of the increasing extent to which resource sharing is becoming integrated into the daily routine of librarianship. Attendant with the increase in resource sharing, in part a cause and in part a response, has been growing sophistication in the technology and organizational structure designed to facilitate sharing.

It was barely two decades ago that the first five-year cumulation of the National Union Catalog (NUC) was published with the locations of participating libraries, and it was as recently as 1968 that the first volume of the Mansell publication of the NUC Pre-1956 Imprints appeared. During the 1970s, automated systems, such as OCLC and RLIN, that list holdings have increased the number of known locations of materials far beyond the scope of NUC and other printed sources.

On the organizational level, the number of local, state, and regional library networks has increased dramatically through the 1970s. The most recent edition of the American Library Directory lists more than 330 "Networks, Consortia, & Other Cooperative Library Organizations," a majority of which explicitly specify interlibrary loan, union lists, or other locational projects among their list of primary functions. ¹

Formal organizations devoted to resource sharing vary greatly with regard to size of membership and range of activities, but even in the most ambitious, comprehensive plans, there seems to be a recurring emphasis on the "region" as a basic component of library cooperation.

¹ Dennis J. Reynolds is resource sharing systems specialist, Bibliographical Center for Research, Denver, Colorado. At the time the study reported here was conducted, he was reader services librarian, Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois. The author expresses his appreciation to Douglas Wilson, director, Knox College Library, for his comments on an earlier draft of this paper; to Liz Barnea for her assistance at Knox with the OCLC/ILL regional search strategy; and to Bradley University and Augustana College for their cooperation in that effort.
The imprecision of this term is due to the fact that it may be defined on varying scales of geographical proximity. But certainly less elusive than the precision of its definition is its prominence in statements on resource sharing. The National Interlibrary Loan Code of 1968 elucidated the principle of geographical proximity in Section VIII.1, Placement of Requests. That section urged libraries to send requests "to nearer institutions known to possess the desired material." 2

More recently, the National Commission on Library and Information Science reiterated the value of regional cooperation, at least on the state level, in its statement on goals for action, recognizing the states as the "essential building blocks in any national information system." 3

Despite the obvious advantages of regional cooperation, such as the capacity for rapid document delivery and the proliferation of regional networks, major obstacles still confront such endeavors. Historically, one of the more important has been lack of bibliographic access to regional holdings. This has not been as great a problem with respect to periodicals, for which it is often financially feasible to draw up a list of holdings and to compile regional union lists. But for monographs, the production of such an easily distributed list has been economically and technically less practical.

Prior to the advent of automated systems, efforts to locate copies of monographic titles regionally were often thwarted by the absence of locational tools. The alternatives were to practice "blind searching" regionally or send to one of the libraries reporting its holdings to printed sources, such as NUC. While this latter alternative would not necessarily violate the principle of regional proximity, the relatively small number of libraries reporting to NUC resulted in anything but lateral cooperation.

The availability of systems such as OCLC has provided a mechanism to facilitate lateral lending among smaller and medium-sized neighboring libraries. In the process these libraries have found their interlibrary loan costs reduced and the speed of service improved over previous conditions in which they called on major research libraries for even the most common titles.

While these developments have had important consequences already, it would be premature to assume that the problem of bibliographical access to regional resources has been solved. OCLC is the predominant automated system in smaller and medium-sized academic libraries, but its distribution is certainly not universal among them; and in those libraries that are members, the recording of comprehensive holdings through retrospective conversion will not be an overnight process.

A recent survey to which 172 colleges responded serves to illustrate this. Though 65 percent of the responding libraries replied that they were members of OCLC, most of these indicated that they had entered only a very small percentage of their holdings into the OCLC data base. Of the eighty-two libraries that provided an estimate, only thirty-four indicated that their holdings symbol had been entered for as much as 10 percent of their collection. 4

The implication of these results is that, despite positive inroads, there are still a great many titles in American libraries for which the number of known locations is but a tiny fraction of the actual number of locations.

Progress in documentation of holdings in automated systems might be expected to be accompanied by a refinement of and reliance upon regionally defined cooperative arrangements, but in the meantime the problem of unreported monograph holdings is likely to persist for some time.

These unreported holdings may not be as inaccessible, though, as they generally appear, at least on a regional basis. Since the spring of 1977, seven libraries in west-central Illinois with combined holdings approaching 1.5 million volumes have participated in a venture that, despite poor bibliographic access to each other's holdings, has resulted in filling about half of each library's monograph requests within the region.

The system for access used by the West-Central Illinois Library Cooperative is ultimately based on "blind searching," but it is organized in such a manner as to minimize the time spent and costs incurred at each member library. The basis of the system has been a highly structured tele-
type transmission loop for the routing of requests.

While this system continues in use in west-central Illinois, a six-week experiment by three member libraries using the OCLC interlibrary loan subsystem suggests that the new subsystem provides a further viable alternative for gaining access to unreported regional monograph holdings.

THE TELETYPE SYSTEM

The West-Central Illinois Library Cooperative was formed in April 1977 to facilitate resource sharing among seven libraries in west-central Illinois, listed below along with the extent of total volumes held by each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Volumes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Augustana College</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bradley University</td>
<td>290,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carl Sandburg Jr. College</td>
<td>35,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knox College</td>
<td>185,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monmouth College</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Illinois Library System</td>
<td>90,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Illinois University</td>
<td>500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,450,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since six of the seven member libraries had previously compiled and distributed a list of serials holdings, an intense level of interlibrary loan of journal articles had been going on within the region for some time.

The situation was quite different, however, with regard to monographs, since there was a nearly complete lack of knowledge of each other’s holdings. Except for a few titles in special collections, none of the member libraries had reported regularly to NUC, and three of the seven had only recently joined OCLC, while the other four were not yet members.

The problem then, if the advantages of regional cooperation were to be realized, was to gain access to one another’s monograph holdings effectively and inexpensively. A solution has been found through a teletype system that uses a central processing point and a daily transmission loop to transmit requests from one member to another.

The procedure begins each weekday afternoon when all member libraries transmit a list of blind search monograph requests to the Western Illinois University Library (WIU), the central processing point of the cooperative. WIU checks these requests against its holdings the same afternoon to see which requests it can fill. It then collates those which cannot be filled into a single list arranged alphabetically by main entry. Each request includes author, title, and imprint data; a three-letter library identification code; and a request number supplied by the originating library.

This collated list is transmitted to the Knox College Library at 8:00 a.m. the following day. There, Knox checks the requests against its holdings and deletes any titles that can be filled. This revised list is transmitted to Augustana at 9:00 a.m., where the same search and deletion procedure is conducted. It is then forwarded by Augustana to Bradley University at 10:00 a.m.

These steps are repeated at each member library until the list reaches the final member of the cooperative, the Western Illinois Library System (WILS). After the list is checked at WILS, the only requests remaining are those which no library in the cooperative can fill, and this final list is transmitted back to the central processing point.

These unfilled requests, identified only by library code and local request number, are appended at the bottom of the next day’s transmission loop, thereby informing member libraries which of their requests submitted two days before cannot be filled within the cooperative.

Though this system is based on blind searching, its structure and its use of a batch approach minimize the amount of time required for each library to search the requests submitted by the other members.

Once the list has been collated, it is not necessary to retype requests at each library that is unable to fill them. The reproduction of the list can be done on the teletype machine itself, since incoming messages may be recorded on tape and outgoing messages may be transmitted the same way. When a library is able to fill a request and must therefore delete it from the list, it can do this by simply running the tape through the machine locally and manipulating the
tape function so that the filled request does not transfer onto the new tape to be sent to the next library.

Even at peak times when as many as forty requests per day are on the list, the allotment to each library of one hour has been sufficient for checking the requests against its holdings, revising the list accordingly, and transmitting it on to the next library. With the exception of these periods during the middle of each academic term, the handling of the daily list seldom takes more than twenty or twenty-five minutes at each library.

**Volume and Fill-Rate**

By recording the number of requests received at the central processing point and the number of requests sent back unfilled, Ronald Rayman at Western Illinois University gained some measure of the overall performance of the West-Central Illinois Library Cooperative during its first year of operation.

Between April 1977 and March 1978, the cooperative generated a total of 4,146 blind search requests. The number of requests varied considerably according to the time of year, ranging from a monthly low of 143 in August 1977 to a monthly high of 739 in October. The overall fill-rate within the cooperative during its first year of operation was slightly above 51 percent; of the 4,146 requests submitted, cooperative members filled a total of 2,114 requests.

Since the degree and method of statistical bookkeeping practices vary within the cooperative, it is not possible to provide comparable data on volume and fill-rate for each library involved. Approximations have suggested, though, that borrowing is fairly evenly distributed, with each member library accounting for between 10 percent and 20 percent of the total.

Based on discussions at semiannual meetings, the fill-rate also appears to be fairly similar at all institutions. Detailed records at the Knox College Library reveal a 51.8 percent fill-rate for its requests during a two-year period between 1977 and 1979, and other members have also estimated their fill-rates to be approximately 50 percent.

While the volume of requests submitted and fill-rate appear to be fairly equal among the member libraries, there is little doubt that Western Illinois University is the heaviest lender in the cooperative. There are two reasons for this: It is the largest library in the cooperative, and in its role as the central processing point it is also the first library to check all incoming requests against its holdings. From the standpoint of the system as a whole, it is most efficient to place the largest member in the first position for checking requests, since this minimizes duplicate searching for the cooperative as a whole, but it does place a disproportional burden on that library.

WIU has been willing to accept this burden without financial compensation, but alternatives such as rotating the central processing function or compensating the central processing point could be explored if the burden proved too heavy for one library to assume on a permanent basis.

**Document Delivery and Speed of Service**

The primary advantage of regional cooperation rests in its capacity for rapid document delivery. Courier delivery is most feasible when provided within a relatively limited geographical area, and even if delivery must rely instead on mail service, the average time a document spends in transit is generally dependent upon the distance it is sent.

Since April 1977 six of the seven member libraries of the West-Central Illinois Cooperative have used a three-day-per-week courier system, though during vacation periods and transitional phases it was necessary to mail documents between all participating libraries. In either case, member libraries have consistently found delivery within the cooperative faster than delivery from libraries outside the region.

A document delivered via courier generally arrives within three to five days after the request is submitted to the central processing point, and a mailed document usually arrives within five to eight days. Records at Knox College for the period extending between April 1977 and March 1979 indicated an overall average of 4.5 days between the time a Knox request was sent to the central processing point and the
time a document was delivered and processed. This is an average that is probably fairly typical for the cooperative as a whole.

By way of contrast, the average document delivery time at Knox for monograph requests mailed on ALA forms to libraries outside the cooperative was 15.9 days during the same two-year period.

In addition to more rapid delivery, a courier system has other advantages over a system based on postal delivery. There is greater ease in preparing and handling documents, since they do not have to be individually or even collectively wrapped, resulting in a savings in time and materials.

Besides the monograph requests filled via the teletype transmission loop, there is about an equal number of periodical requests filled within western Illinois by direct library-to-library requesting, and these materials are also carried on the courier. Because of the capacity for rapid delivery, it is often feasible to send bound volumes of older issues of periodicals rather than individually photocopied articles. This represents a considerable savings in time and materials at the lending library.

The greatest disadvantage of a courier system is its basic operating cost. For the volume of delivery within the West-Central Illinois Cooperative, the cost of delivery approaches $2 per completed transaction. During one of the two years since its inception, the West-Central Cooperative has secured outside funding for courier service, while during the other year member libraries have funded the service directly.

The average delivery cost could probably be reduced by at least 33 percent using mail during off-peak periods rather than attempting to provide year-round courier delivery and by eliminating the segment of the courier that connects the cooperative to the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The West-Central Illinois Cooperative members have, however, felt both of these elements to be important for providing consistently high-quality service.

Even at $2 per completed transaction, this may not really be so exorbitant, considering the elimination of two-way postage, the reduction in time and materials spent on wrapping documents, and the possibility of sending bound volumes of older periodical issues rather than individual photocopies.

General Cost Considerations of the Transmission Loop

At first glance, it might appear that the processing and sending cost associated with a teletype transmission loop such as the one used in the West-Central Illinois Cooperative might be considerably greater than that involved in an operation relying solely on sending requests to known locations. This is not, however, the case. While each member library in the cooperative does incur additional operating expenses through its handling of the daily transmission loop, there is a reduction in costs in other areas over those associated with traditional channels of interlibrary loan, such as in verification, typing and sending requests, and communications and materials costs.

The processing and sending costs associated with Knox College's participation in the West-Central Illinois Cooperative during a five-month period in 1978 are outlined in table 1. During this period, Knox submitted 335 requests to the cooperative, 182 of which were filled. The total processing and sending cost for the five-month period was about $280, or an average of $56 per month.

The greater part of the expense was clearly the "cost of responsibility" involved in checking other libraries' requests on the daily transmission loop and sending the list to the next library each day, which altogether accounted for about $212 of the total $280.

While the cost of handling the daily list is fairly substantial, the cost of processing and submitting individual requests to the cooperative is extremely low. The total cost at Knox for submitting 335 requests during the five-month period in 1978 amounted to only about $70, or an average of about twenty cents per request, an amount far less than is required for processing and sending a request through other channels of interlibrary loan.

As indicated in table 1, there is hardly any cost of labor at all for verification in sending a request through the cooperative. Since member libraries have traditionally held so little knowledge about one another's monograph holdings, requests submitted at
TABLE 1

**PROCESSING AND SENDING COSTS FOR KNOX COLLEGE'S PARTICIPATION IN THE WEST-CENTRAL COOPERATIVE, JANUARY–MAY 1979**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Costs / Calculation</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verification*</td>
<td>$16.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typing and Sending</td>
<td>$25.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TWX Charges</td>
<td>$24.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TWX Paper and Tape</td>
<td>$1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subtotal</strong></td>
<td><strong>$67.67</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost to Knox for handling daily teletype transmission loop:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor†</td>
<td>$132.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TWX Charges</td>
<td>$68.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TWX Paper and Tape</td>
<td>$11.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subtotal</strong></td>
<td><strong>$211.95</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total cost for five months</strong></td>
<td><strong>$279.62</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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*This represents time spent in supplying essential bibliographic details occasionally omitted by the requester on the in-house request form. Cost for verification is calculated using an entry-level professional salary; all other costs are based on student assistant wages.

†The amount of time used here is an average daily figure for the five months.

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a member library are generally sent through the cooperative before any holdings verification is made, and because of the rapid response of the system, bibliographic detail is seldom verified unless critical information has been omitted or is unclear on the inhouse request form. As a result, the total amount of time spent in verification in Knox's overall interlibrary loan operation is reduced by about one-half, since only those requests not filled regionally need to be put through the normal, often time-consuming verification process.

There is also less time spent in typing and submitting a request to the cooperative than in sending it elsewhere, since only essential bibliographic detail, a three-letter library identification code, and a local request number are included on each request sent to the central processing point of the cooperative. The practice of including only essential information results in a minimization of communications costs, since each request requires very little connect time in its transmission to the central processing point, and the proximity of the libraries involved enables the cooperative to take advantage of the lowest per-minute connect rates available on TWX.

Thus the $56 per month that Knox has spent for its participation in the cooperative is not really entirely above and beyond the amount that would be spent in a traditional interlibrary loan operation. In exchange for the monthly expenditure, a great deal of professional time and expense is saved, since only about one-half of all monograph requests submitted by students and faculty need to be put through the verification process.

By spending seven cents per request in communications costs for submitting a request to the cooperative, the much higher communications cost involved in sending a request via ALA form, by teletype to a more distant library, or through the OCLC/ILL subsystem is borne for only those requests which are returned from the cooperative unfilled.

Because of these savings, a system such as the West-Central Illinois Cooperative raises the cost of the total interlibrary loan operation a very small amount indeed compared to what would be spent in an operation relying solely upon sending requests to known locations. At the same time the ability to gain comprehensive access to regional holdings greatly improves the quality of service available to users of interlibrary loan.

**IMPLICATIONS OF THE OCLC/ILL SUBSYSTEM**

As of the summer of 1979 four member libraries in the West-Central Illinois Cooperative employed OCLC terminals in their operations, two awaited delivery of terminals, and the seventh was still examining the possibility of membership.
In early April 1979 a meeting was called at Bradley University to discuss the implications of the OCLC interlibrary loan (OCLC/ILL) subsystem for library cooperation in western Illinois. The decision was made that, pending further developments at the three cooperative members not yet in OCLC, the teletype transmission loop would continue to serve as the basis of regional cooperation.

However, during a period of several weeks Knox College, with the cooperation of Bradley University and Augustana College, conducted an experiment designed to examine the feasibility of using the OCLC/ILL subsystem as a communications device for regional searching. During that period Knox used two strategies for sending monograph requests. Part of the requests submitted at Knox were sent through the teletype transmission loop, and those returned unfilled were then sent via the OCLC/ILL subsystem to known locations outside the cooperative.

Other requests, however, were not sent on the transmission loop at all but were rather sent through the OCLC/ILL system, using what will be termed here a two-three strategy. On these requests, the five-position lender chain on OCLC consisted of two cooperative member libraries in the first and second lender positions, regardless of whether or not their holdings symbols appeared on the OCLC record, followed by three known locations taken from the OCLC record.

The first of these strategies does not alter the way in which Knox participated in the West-Central Illinois Cooperative, but represents a change in the handling of follow-ups not filled within the cooperative. Whereas previously such follow-ups were sent to a single known location via ALA form, they are now sent to as many as five known locations via the OCLC/ILL subsystem. The performance of the subsystem is compared to previous results using ALA forms in terms of fill-rate and speed of delivery in table 2.

Though two months is a very brief period upon which to base a firm conclusion about the performance of the OCLC/ILL subsystem, these results do suggest that the subsystem promises considerable improvement in the quality of service over sending ALA forms. If anything, the subsystem's performance may be underrated in these results. During April and May, not all libraries on OCLC appeared to have been using the ILL subsystem, and if such libraries were specified on a lender chain, this could result in a lower fill-rate and slower delivery time than would be expected under conditions of more complete participation.

An interesting feature of this experiment has been the distribution of OCLC/ILL responses according to position on the lender chain. For the seventy requests that Knox sent only to known locations during a six-week period in April and May 1979, the distribution of the requests filled by each position on the lender chain is shown in table 3.

It is rather surprising that only 48.6 percent were filled by the first known location specified in the lender chain, but part of the explanation for this may have to do with some libraries' not using the subsystem yet in April and May 1979. Of special interest, though, is the fact that of the sixty-five requests that were filled altogether, sixty were filled by one of the first three positions in the lender chain. Again, this proportion might have been even higher had more OCLC libraries responded to the subsystem.

This already high percentage, though, raises the question of whether there might be a more effective way to take advantage of

### Table 2

**Follow-up Strategies Compared: Use of ALA Forms and OCLC/ILL Subsystem**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Follow-up Strategy</th>
<th>Period Covered</th>
<th>Sent (Number)</th>
<th>Filled (Number)</th>
<th>Fill-Rate (Percent)</th>
<th>Delivery (Time)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALA Form</td>
<td>April 1977–March 1979</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>15.9 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCLC/ILL Subsystem</td>
<td>April–May 1979</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>92.9</td>
<td>10.8 days</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The five-lender capacity on the subsystem than by specifying five known locations, since there is a relatively small difference between the fill-rate after the third position and the fill-rate after the fifth position on the lender chain.

This consideration formed the basis of the second strategy used for interlibrary loan by Knox during the six-week period in April and May. Instead of being sent through the regional teletype loop first, sixty-eight monograph requests were routed immediately to the OCLC/ILL subsystem using the two-three strategy described earlier. For these requests, Bradley University and Augustana College were always specified in the first two positions of the OCLC/ILL lender chain, followed by known locations in the final three positions. The outcome of these requests is shown in table 4.

As might be expected, the overall fill-rate was less for the two-three strategy than for lender chains with five known locations, 86.8 percent compared to 92.9 percent. A rather surprising result, though, is that nearly 40 percent of these requests were filled by one of the two cooperative members, thus enabling more rapid document delivery for these items than had they been filled by libraries outside the region.

The pattern demonstrated in these results suggests that the OCLC/ILL subsystem provides an alternative whereby limited regional blind-searching may be combined in one effort with sending to known locations. While this strategy may be valuable for two, three, or four libraries, it is less clear that this approach would be more effective or less expensive for a larger regional consortium than a dual system with a teletype loop as the first stage such as that used in western Illinois.

The teletype loop used by the WestCentral Cooperative allows for six regional searches and is expandable, whereas regional searching of uncertain locations is more limited on the OCLC/ILL subsystem. While it would be possible to specify five uncertain regional locations in a lender

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**TABLE 3**

**DISTRIBUTION OF REQUESTS FILLED BY POSITION ON LENDER CHAIN (KNOWN LOCATIONS)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position in Lender Chain</th>
<th>Requests Filled by Each Position (Number)</th>
<th>Cumulative Total (Number)</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Position (Known Location)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2d Position (Known Location)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>75.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3d Position (Known Location)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Position (Known Location)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th Position (Known Location)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expired</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>95.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfilled</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 4**

**DISTRIBUTION OF REQUESTS FILLED BY POSITION ON LENDER CHAIN (TWO-THREE STRATEGY)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position in Lender Chain</th>
<th>Requests Filled by Each Position (Number)</th>
<th>Cumulative Total (Number)</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Position (Uncertain Location)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2d Position (Uncertain Location)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>39.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3d Position (Known Location)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>69.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Position (Known Location)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>83.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th Position (Known Location)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expired</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>91.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfilled</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
string on the subsystem, the lender string would have to be modified on requests not filled regionally before forwarding them to known locations. This change of lender string may eventually result in an additional transaction charge for each such request. With an expected regional fill-rate of around 50 percent, this could become a fairly expensive strategy.

A further advantage of using a teletype loop for regional searching is the amount of time required for verification. Whereas requests sent via the teletype loop in western Illinois do not require initial searching and verification, all requests sent on OCLC using the two-three strategy did require searching and verification, even for those requests that turned out to be filled by one of the two regional cooperative members specified.

As for communications costs, a regional teletype loop is fairly inexpensive; the TWX charges given in table 1 average about seven cents per request submitted to the regional processing point; even if a request must be sent through the entire loop, the maximum communications cost for the system as a whole is fifty-six cents.

It should be emphasized here that the success and cost-effectiveness of a teletype loop such as that used in western Illinois depends to some extent on the volume of requests sent through the system, the fill-rate achieved, and the number of libraries involved.

During the six regular ten-week academic terms between April 1977 and March 1979, Knox College sent a total of 1,047 monograph requests through the cooperative, or an average of about 17.5 per week, of which 51.8 percent were filled, and these figures appear fairly typical of most libraries in the West-Central Cooperative.

If the volume of requests were smaller, the fill-rate lower, or the number of participating libraries three or four rather than seven, it is quite possible that a teletype loop would be more expensive than the one described in this paper. In that event, the adoption by a group of cooperating libraries of something similar to a two-three strategy using the OCLC/ILL subsystem may prove a more viable alternative.

Especially when the subsystem is put into use in a greater number of OCLC libraries than it perhaps was during Knox's experiment, the identification of three known locations, and perhaps even two, should be sufficient to fill an extremely high proportion of requests, thus presenting an opportunity for nearby libraries to enter into cooperative "blind searching" ventures if it would prove beneficial to do so.

In any case, if results in using the OCLC/ILL subsystem at other libraries have been similar to those at Knox, it appears that whether used by itself or in conjunction with other interlibrary loan strategies, the subsystem promises a substantial step forward in the cooperative borrowing and lending of library materials.

CONCLUSION

The ideal circumstances for interlibrary loan would be those in which there was little or no need to devise mechanisms for gaining access to unreported holdings. This would require, of course, far more complete locational knowledge than is currently available in American libraries. Progress in the documentation of holdings has made significant strides in the past quarter century, and there seems little doubt that this represents the most promising direction for the future.

This documentation has taken on many forms, the most popular today in small and medium-sized libraries being the OCLC data base. There are other developments in the sphere of on-line systems as well, one of the more recent the development of the Library Computer System (LCS) at the University of Illinois. Thanks to grants from the Illinois Board of Higher Education, a number of other libraries in Illinois are to be tied into LCS and will be entering their shelflist into the system. While these and similar developments may indicate the most promising direction for the future, such advances are not realized overnight nor at all libraries at the same time. The strategies described in this paper are perhaps indeed interim measures but are ones that, at least in western Illinois, have proved successful and are likely to continue to be so until bibliographic knowledge of regional holdings is more complete.
REFERENCES


4. These figures are taken from a survey conducted by the author in September 1978. Surveys were sent to 300 liberal arts colleges with enrollments between 500 and 2,000 students and whose library holdings were between 65,000 and 250,000 volumes. One hundred seventy-eight surveys were returned, of which 172 were usable. The full results of the survey will appear in a book in preparation under the editorship of William Miller and Stephen Rockwood at Albion College and to be published by Scarecrow Press.


Research and Publication Requirements in University Libraries

A questionnaire survey of the ninety-four academic libraries holding membership in the Association of Research Libraries was conducted to determine the overall significance and ramifications of research and publication activity among academic librarians, with a major finding indicating that 15 percent of the libraries surveyed require librarians to publish.

The status of academic librarians has changed considerably over the past decade. As this status has changed, college and university librarians have experienced increased demands upon them to document their professional performance, notably in the area of scholarly research and publication. Arguments both for and against this heightened emphasis have been put forward in some detail, but those are not the concern of this investigation.

Rather, using librarians in the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) as a sample group, this study seeks to determine to what extent research and publication actually constitute a requirement for academic librarians, the inhibiting or promotional factors affecting this activity, and the ramifications that this issue holds not only for ARL librarians, but also for the field of academic librarianship itself.

Review of the Literature

A great deal has been written about the status of academic librarians, less about their overall research and publication activity, and almost nothing regarding the direct impact that research and publication have upon them as librarians, particularly with regard to questions of tenure and/or promotion.

Two studies of ARL librarians conducted during the late 1960s revealed that, while verbal support was lent to the concept of research and publication for librarians, concrete assistance in the form of funding or released time was limited. Jesse and Mitchell found that support in the form of clerical assistance and photocopying allotments was sometimes available, but actual funding was scarce. Kellam and Barker found tacit support for research and publication existed so long as library service was not compromised in any way. Both studies revealed that research and publication were viewed as a laudable “plus” but not as a requirement. Neither study broached the question of tenure, thereby implying that research and publication were not critical factors in tenure decisions.

A constricted job market, combined with the increased tendency to grant faculty status and tenure to academic librarians, altered this situation during the 1970s. More and more, scholarship on the part of academic librarians was demanded. At those institutions where librarians held faculty status, research and publication requirements tended to bring librarians into conformity with prevailing academic expectations for promotion and tenure consideration, a circumstance hindered by the fact that academic librarians traditionally have not been research oriented.

Recent studies by Watson and by Davey...
and Andrews have suggested an alternative to this situation through the concept of "dual tracking" that would allow beginning librarians to gain badly needed on-the-job experience by delaying their entry into the normal tenure track by several years. This respite would permit them to gain valuable knowledge that could later be channeled into appropriate areas of research and publication. This concept has received little attention in the field.

**METHODOLOGY**

A questionnaire containing twelve questions was mailed to the directors of the ninety-four academic libraries that hold membership in the ARL. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a self-addressed, postage-paid return envelope to facilitate replies and to help ensure a favorable return rate. Whether due to the ease of replying, a keen interest in the questionnaire topic, or both, one-half of the questionnaires were returned within seven working days from the original date of mailing, and sixty-eight replies (72 percent of the entire sample) were eventually returned.

The opening four questions requested data regarding the formal status of librarians at each institution, their eligibility for tenure, and a determination whether research and publication was or was not mandatory. The next five questions sought to measure various types and amounts of support provided by the institution or individual library to promote research and publication. The final three questions were relevant only where librarians were required to publish for tenure and/or promotion consideration, and those dealt with identifying appropriate publication mediums and established criteria to measure publication activity.

**FINDINGS**

Table 1 summarizes the findings from the survey. For the initial question pertaining to status, twenty-four libraries (35 percent) reported that librarians held faculty status; twenty-eight (41 percent) reported academic status; and sixteen (24 percent) indicated a status of "other."

Academic status denotes a separate professional classification that is neither civil service nor administrative and yet does not meet the standards for faculty status including corresponding rank, promotion, tenure, and compensation as detailed by the ACRL "Standards for Faculty Status for College and University Librarians" adopted in June 1971. For the third group, "other," most institutions listed the librarians' status as an administrative classification within their individual schools.

**Tenure**

On the question of tenure, librarians at thirty-nine institutions were eligible for tenure, while twenty-nine indicated that librarians were not eligible for tenure.

Hardly surprising was the fact that at all twenty-four institutions where librarians held faculty status they were eligible for tenure as well. For librarians holding academic status, one-half were eligible and one-half were not.

At the opposite end of the spectrum were those libraries that had noted an "other" status. A single library out of that entire group of sixteen reported that librarians were eligible for tenure.

These findings reveal a clear breakdown on the question of tenure for librarians. Faculty status is the single most important factor in determining tenure eligibility, while those librarians holding academic or "other" status experienced a descending probability of eligibility for tenure.

**Publishing Activity**

The most important question raised by the questionnaire related to publication activity. Unfortunately, previous studies on this issue of vital significance to academic librarians, particularly in the realm of mandatory research and publication, are nonexistent. This precludes comparative analysis with earlier findings, but it is hoped that the present study will provide a needed benchmark for future investigations and analyses.

Faculty status and tenure eligibility were key elements in establishing publication as a requirement for librarians. Of the entire group of responding libraries, only ten replied that librarians were required to publish, all of which were institutions where librarians held faculty status and were eligible for tenure. Librarians were encouraged
Research and Publication Requirements / 45

#### TABLE 1
**Publication Requirements in ARL Libraries**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Professional Classification:</th>
<th>Tenure Granted:</th>
<th>Publication Requirements:</th>
<th>Publication Required for:</th>
<th>Required Publication in:</th>
<th>Publication Released Time:</th>
<th>Funding for Research:</th>
<th>Library Research Committee:</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Number</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
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<td><strong>Professional Classification:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td><strong>Tenure Granted:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Yes</strong></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>No</strong></td>
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<td>50</td>
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<td>94</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Required</strong></td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>60</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>54</td>
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<td>71</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Not encouraged</strong></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td><strong>Publication Required for:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion only</strong></td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion and tenure</strong></td>
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<td>90</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90</td>
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<td><strong>Required Publication in:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Librarianship only</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All disciplines</strong></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Publication Released Time:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Specific released time</strong></td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Apply for released time</strong></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>37</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>No release time</strong></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>63</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Within library</strong></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>From university</strong></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Not available</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
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<td><strong>Library Research Committee:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Yes</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No</strong></td>
<td>45</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

to publish, but not required to do so, at forty-one institutions.

Librarians were not required to publish, and publication received no special emphasis at seventeen libraries, eight each at academic and "other" status libraries, and surprisingly at one library with both faculty status and tenure eligibility.

These responses indicated that, for the most part, academic librarians are still not required to publish, although taken in the aggregate, fifty-one libraries either require or encourage publication. Again, the lack of comparative data is a keenly felt deficiency here. A similar study five years hence might produce significantly different results as publication becomes more commonplace for academic librarians.

Several other interesting facets of the publication issue were noted. Of the ten libraries reporting that publication was mandatory, nine stated that it was necessary for tenure and promotion, while one library noted that publication was necessary for promotion only. At least four libraries that encouraged but did not require publication affirmed that publication was a definite asset in securing favorable tenure and/or promotion decisions. Only two of the ten libraries requiring publication responded that publication had to be related to the field of librarianship; the other eight stated that publication could relate to any accepted academic discipline.  

**Released Time**

These basic questions pertained to research and publication as a requirement and not to basic support provided to promote that same activity. The specific question of released time drew nearly identical responses as thirty-five libraries responded that some form of released time was available, while thirty-three indicated that no released time whatsoever was provided.

For those indicating that released time was available, three noted that no record was maintained of hours worked or devoted to research, one indicated a thirty-hour workweek, two responded that four hours of
a forty-hour workweek could be devoted to research, and one library reported that four weeks of research time were granted annually to librarians. Allotments of specific released time were thinly distributed over the three status designations (four faculty status, three academic status, and none for “other”).

Much more prevalent was released time that one applied for on an individual basis, normally to the library director. Twenty-eight libraries (41 percent of the entire responding group) indicated that librarians could apply for and receive varying amounts of released time to pursue research activities. This category was more evenly distributed over the three status designations than were the majority of the findings of this study. Thirteen libraries with faculty status fell into this group, as did nine from the academic group and six from the other group.

Unfortunately for the field of academic librarianship, thirty-three libraries reported that no released time was provided under any circumstances, either set aside time or on an application basis. It hardly came as a surprise then that where librarians were only encouraged to publish only four allotted specific released time, sixteen allowed applied-for released time, and twenty-one permitted no released time.

It was a revelation to discover, however, that of those ten libraries at which librarians were required to publish all reported that some type of funding was available: in three-fourths of the group, librarians could seek financial support from both the library and the parent institution. For those encouraged but not required to publish, funding sources were more limited, but still significant (seven within the library, twenty-eight from the institution, and ten reporting no funding available). Only one-half of the “other” group received any funding.

Research Committees

Beyond the fundamental issues of released time and funding, a question was asked to determine to what extent the libraries surveyed organized and maintained specific library committees to promote and facilitate research and publication. In response to this question, only twenty libraries noted the existence of such a committee. Almost two-thirds of the respondents stated that no such committee existed at their library, and three libraries did not respond to the question. Those libraries with faculty status were the most likely to have a research committee, with sixteen reporting such a committee.

Those groups in the academic and “other” status groups lagged far behind in this category as less than 10 percent of this combined group supported a research committee. Two-thirds of those required to publish had a committee (six out of the nine respondents), while only twelve out of forty-one libraries in the group encouraged to publish and a mere two libraries in the group not encouraged to publish supported a research committee.

Acceptable Publications

Finally, libraries that required librarians to publish were asked to identify acceptable
publications. All ten libraries in this category indicated that books, journal articles, and chapters in a book or festschriften were legitimate publication outlets. The other major forms of publication indicated were conference papers (nine), book reviews (six), and in-house publications (three). In this same vein, the libraries were asked if quantified standards had been established to measure publication activity, and all ten gave a negative response.

CONCLUSIONS

This study shows that, regardless of status, 15 percent of all librarians in the Association of Research Libraries are required to publish. All in this required group have faculty status and are eligible for tenure. Since the cited studies of Jesse and Mitchell and also Kellam and Barker from the late 1960s made no mention that research and publication were mandatory at any of the libraries surveyed or were crucial factors in tenure decisions, by implication, then, the impetus for required research and publication is a phenomenon of the past decade.

This shift is clearly on the increase. Several questionnaire respondents provided additional comments that indicated that research and publication had recently become, or shortly would become, mandatory at their institutions, thus marking an even more distinct break from past practice whereby academic librarians were under no compulsion to engage in scholarly research and publication activities.

Unfortunately, research and publication by academic librarians are not well supported, even where mandatory. Structured workweeks, combined with relatively stringent opportunities for released time, foster a climate where the pursuit of scholarly research and publication is extremely difficult, a circumstance compounded to a lesser, but still significant, degree by inadequate funding.

Librarians at institutions with either academic or "other" status have not yet been required to perform scholarly research and publish, and this is not likely to change. Those librarians holding faculty status and those who may acquire faculty status at some future date are unquestionably the group most likely to be affected by increased standards and requirements. For all academic librarians required to perform scholarly research and publication, or those not required but with the creative and scholarly urge to do so, the task will continue to be a difficult one.

REFERENCES

8. By comparison, a study completed in 1977 showed that for non-ARL, four-year institutions with graduate programs, 60 percent of all librarians surveyed were eligible for ten-


10. This finding was corroborated by that of a study which reported that the granting of released time normally fell "directly within the province of the director of libraries." Virgil F. Massman, *Faculty Status for Librarians* (Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow, 1972), p.178. Jesse and Mitchell ("Professional Staff Opportunities," p.100) also emphasized the director's role. See also Miller, "To Be or Not to Be," p.20-24.

Authorship in Five Library Periodicals

Authorship data for five major library science journals covering a ten-year period were reviewed. Information was tabulated to determine if publication trends suggest a bias on the basis of sex, occupation, or geographic location of the author. Results indicate that a higher than expected number of male authors were published and that a higher than average number of authors were located in the Northeast and Midwest regions of the United States. Occupational trends were also investigated, and recommendations for future research are discussed.

The stock in trade of librarianship is communication and the transfer of information; yet little is known about the communication of ideas within our own profession. Librarianship is sadly behind the disciplines of economics, psychology, and the sciences in determining the bibliometric nature of the professional literature. This field of inquiry has become a topic of interest beginning with studies by Masse Bloomfield and Paula De Simone Watson concerning the characteristics of publishing librarians. More recently O'Connor and Van Orden undertook a survey of publishing policies of major library journals, and Kim and Kim followed with a study of methodological changes in the literature.

The purpose of this study is to explore further the foundations of professional communication in the field of librarianship, by examining several aspects of authorship from selected library science journals. Specific areas of inquiry include possible publication bias on the basis of sex, occupation, and geographic location of the author.

Method

Five major journals were selected for this study: College & Research Libraries (C&RL) volumes 29-38, Library Journal (LJ) volumes 93-102; Library Quarterly (LQ) volumes 38-47; Library Trends (LT) volumes 16-25; and RQ volumes 7-16. To be selected for inclusion in the study, the journal must have been in existence for at least ten years, use an article format, and be recognized as a nationally known journal of library science. The five journals cited above met these qualifications. These journals were also considered to have a major impact on librarianship and exhibit common trends in publishing.

All authored articles in these journals during the past ten years were used as data entries. Book reviews and letters were excluded. Each author was equivalent to one data entry; thus, multiple authorship articles were given multiple data entries. Each data entry consisted of the sex of the author, geographic location, and occupation. For the data entry, only the current information listed in the article byline was used; no additional or contrary information was added.

To determine the sex of an author, an analysis of first names was undertaken in conjunction with the following rules: (1) First names that could be of either gender or that were not recognizable as being attributable to either gender were listed as indeterminable; and (2) first names of authors represented only by initials were listed as indeterminable.

In analyzing the occupation of an author, the following guidelines were used: (1) If two occupations were listed as current, both
positions received full data value; and (2) for an author to be listed as a professional librarian, the individual must be a working professional with a specific title in an area of specialization. (For example, if an author was represented as "working at a library," the author was not listed as a librarian since the specific status could not be determined.)

Geographic location was entered by individual state and then subgrouped into the following regions:


4. Southwest: Arizona, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas.


These regional delineations are based on the designations made by the 1978 ALA Committee on Accreditation of graduate library school programs and are used in order to make the resulting data compatible with other research.

Distributions on the basis of sex and occupation were derived using the formula

\[ X = a/(N - d) \]

where \( X \) equals the representative percentage of specific data entries, \( a \) equals the number of specific data entries in a journal, \( N \) equals the total number of entries in the journal, and \( d \) equals the number of entries for which data could not be determined. The formula was slightly altered in the case of geographic distribution by including entries that were not from the United States in \( d \).

**Publication on the Basis of Sex**

Several levels of quantitative analysis were employed to derive an accurate distribution. The first level of consideration dealt with the distribution by gender for data entries in a given journal (see table 1). A norm was generated for all librarians in the United States with regard to gender and data then gathered by gender for each of the five journals. The normative distribution for all women publishing should be 84 percent to match their share of the general library population. All five journals failed to achieve the percentage, with \( RQ \) having the highest women publishing percentage with 41.3 percent and \( LQ \) having the lowest with 21.2 percent.

The second level of analysis was distribution of publishing women academic librarians (see table 2). The normal level for women among the total population of academic librarians was 61.5 percent. A similar study seems to verify this value by obtaining a distribution ratio of 61.9 percent for women librarians in colleges and universities. Women academic librarians failed to publish up to the normal level in all five journals. \( C&RL \) published the highest percent with 39.6 percent. \( LT \) (24.7 percent) had the lowest percentage.

For the third level of inquiry into publication on the basis of sex, only the data entries for faculty in schools of library science were used (see table 3). Again the trend for all five journals showed that women library

### Table 1

**Gender for All Entries**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Women (Percent)</th>
<th>Men (Percent)</th>
<th>N=</th>
<th>d=</th>
<th>N-d=</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C&amp;RL</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LJ</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>937</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LQ</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Average†</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

\*d is the number of entries for which data could not be determined.
TABLE 2
GENDER OF PUBLISHING ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Women (Percent)</th>
<th>Men (Percent)</th>
<th>N=</th>
<th>d=</th>
<th>N-d=</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C&amp;RL</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LJ</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>74.9</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LQ</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Average†</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>38.5</td>
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</table>

*d is the number of entries for which data could not be determined.

TABLE 3
GENDER OF PUBLISHING LIBRARY SCIENCE FACULTY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Women (Percent)</th>
<th>Men (Percent)</th>
<th>N=</th>
<th>d=</th>
<th>N-d=</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C&amp;RL</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>72</td>
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<tr>
<td>LJ</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>67.7</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LQ</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Average†</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*d is the number of entries for which data could not be determined.

Science faculty did not publish up to their normal level of the population (40.8 percent). The leader among the journals for publishing articles by women library science faculty was RQ with 33.9 percent.

PUBLICATION BY OCCUPATION

An objective of this study was to learn the occupation of the contributors to the five journals (see table 4). Although each journal has a unique makeup, several trends can be discerned by comparison. All of the journals, with the exception of LQ, had a substantial number of articles by practicing librarians. The most notable example was RQ where 62.9 percent of all authors were professional librarians.

Also of importance was the strength of the distribution of library science faculty, which ranged from 16.6 percent in C&RL to 30.4 percent in LQ. The prolific publishing rate of library science faculty is more significant when examined in light of various numeric relationships. A study by Russell E. Bidlack found 609 library science professors in ALA-accredited United States library schools,7 while the ACRL 1976 salary study recorded more than 13,000 academic librarians.8 Although the numeric ratio of academic librarians to library science faculty

TABLE 4
OCCUPATIONS OF AUTHORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Academic Librarian (Percent)</th>
<th>Public Librarian (Percent)</th>
<th>Other Librarian (Percent)</th>
<th>Library Science Faculty (Percent)</th>
<th>Library Science Student (Percent)</th>
<th>Other Faculty (Percent)</th>
<th>Nonlibrarian Nonacademic (Percent)</th>
<th>N=</th>
<th>d=</th>
<th>N-d=</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C&amp;RL</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LJ</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>937</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LQ</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*d is the number of entries for which data could not be determined.
is approximately twenty-one to one, the publication rates for both groups are at the highest with four to one in C&RL and at the lowest with a ratio of one to two favoring library science faculty in LQ. In all cases, library science faculty carried a much higher percentage of publication than their population would indicate.

A third area of importance deals with a significantly large number of authors who do not work in academia or any type of library setting. LJ published the highest percentage of these authors with 28.9 percent and C&RL the lowest with 16.6 percent.

PUBLICATION BY GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION

To put the geographic data into proper perspective, a three-level approach was again used. The first level of consideration was to plot the geographic distribution for all data entries (see table 5). The trend in publication seemed to show the Northeast and Midwest regions of the country with a positive ratio of contributors in relation to their national norm. The Southeast and Southwest regions showed a negative ratio, while the West approximately matched the national average of publication for that region.

The second level of analysis, the geographic distribution for academic librarians, again showed a positive ratio of contributors in the Northeast and Midwest regions (see table 6). The West showed a positive ratio of contributors for three of the journals and almost a matching ratio for the other two. The Southeast had a negative ratio for all five journals. The Southwest matched for one journal, RQ, and had a very negative ratio for the other four journals.

The same ratio correlation holds true for the geographic distribution of library science faculty as it did for academic librarians (see table 7).

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Journal literature makes up 71 percent of the intradisciplinary communication in librarianship according to Nicholas and Ritchie.9 The ability to publish in them is one criterion for professional advancement, and so a study of publishing patterns in library science journals is merited.

While this study attempted to describe

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**TABLE 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Northeast (Percent)</th>
<th>Southeast (Percent)</th>
<th>Midwest (Percent)</th>
<th>Southwest (Percent)</th>
<th>West (Percent)</th>
<th>N=</th>
<th>N-d=</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C&amp;RL</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LJ</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>937</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LQ</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>59</td>
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<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Average†</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*d is the number of entries for which data could not be determined.

**TABLE 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Northeast (Percent)</th>
<th>Southeast (Percent)</th>
<th>Midwest (Percent)</th>
<th>Southwest (Percent)</th>
<th>West (Percent)</th>
<th>N=</th>
<th>N-d=</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C&amp;RL</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LJ</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>LQ</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Average†</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*d is the number of entries for which data could not be determined.
### TABLE 7
**GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION: LIBRARY SCIENCE FACULTY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Northeast (Percent)</th>
<th>Southeast (Percent)</th>
<th>Midwest (Percent)</th>
<th>Southwest (Percent)</th>
<th>West (Percent)</th>
<th>N=</th>
<th>d=*</th>
<th>N−d=</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C&amp;RL</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LI</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LQ</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Average†</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*d* is the number of entries for which data could not be determined.

the pattern of authorship in five journals, it is beyond its scope to speculate on the reasons why these patterns exist. Future researchers may wish to go to the journals and determine if the distribution ratios hold true for the collective body of submitted manuscripts, although, as O'Connor and Van Orden describe it, precious little information is currently available in this area. If we accept the truism that knowledge of the communication process itself will partially constitute the value we place on the information being conveyed, then research in bibliometrics is indispensable.

### REFERENCES

5. It should be noted that Library Quarterly conference issues consist of commissioned articles only.
EUGENE P. SHEEHY

Selected Reference Books of 1978–79

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

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


Prefatory matter in English and French; subject headings in French.

Even so, some 4,500 items (books, periodical articles, government publications, etc.) are listed in classed arrangement with author/subject and title indexes. Library locations in Rwanda are indicated.—E.S.


The first section of this two-part work is a sixty-page essay designed “to trace briefly the development of Soviet national bibliography from its beginnings under tsarism to the present time, and . . . to describe the current activities of the All-Union Book Chamber, the Soviet national bibliographic center” (Pref.), bringing up to date the work that forms the second part of the book. The latter is an English translation of the 1967 publication Gosudarstvennaia bibliografia SSSR, edited by I. B. Gracheva and V. I. Frantskevich (Guide AA870), which describes in detail the various publications of the Soviet national bibliography. Librarians with a limited knowledge of Russian will appreciate the descriptions and explanations of the different Russian and provincial bibliographic publications included. It is a complete translation of the original text, although the illustrations of the covers of the various publications that appear in the Russian edition are not reproduced here.—R.K.

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

Published for the Latin American Program of the Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars.

This is the second in a series of "Scholars' Guides" to the resources of Washington, D.C., produced by the Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars. The first, which appeared in 1977, gave descriptive information on materials in Russian/Soviet studies; the new volume, compiled by a George Washington University professor, is devoted to Latin American and Caribbean materials. As in its predecessor, contents of this volume are presented in two general categories. The first consists of collections: libraries, archives, museums, and data banks. A great deal of information is given for the almost 120 collections described. In addition to addresses, hours, and conditions of access, there are sometimes lengthy descriptions and evaluations of the collections themselves: holdings, size, special subjects, and bibliographic aids.

The second half of the guide is devoted to organizations, and this is particularly useful because of Washington's importance as a center for national and international associations, agencies, embassies, and research centers. Descriptions here include programs, activities, and publications of the various groups as well as their library holdings. The appendix gives further information, such as a list of bookstores, while the bibliography and indexes provide a handy guide to the book itself.

By issuing such thorough guides to one of the most important research centers in the world, the Woodrow Wilson Center is providing a valuable service for scholars all over the world. Forthcoming volumes in the series should therefore receive warm receptions from researchers in other fields.—P.C.


In 1933 great numbers of German-speaking professionals began emigrating to the United States, including Hannah Arendt, Bertolt Brecht, Marcel Breuer, Albert Einstein, Erik Erikson, Karen Horney, Thomas Mann, Arnold Schoenberg—to cite a few of the names bespeaking the inestimable contribution to our society of this group of immigrants. Forty years after the first immigrants arrived, Spalek began to make a comprehensive survey of their archival materials. He and his collaborators, Adrienne Ash and Sandra Hawrylchak, discovered so much material that the anticipated two-year project took four years and ultimately covered a list of 700 prominent individuals selected for their achievement both from an American and from a European point of view.

Two hundred libraries and hundreds of private collections were found to contain pertinent material. (Indeed, at the outset 40 percent of it was in private hands, but this figure is diminishing as material is gradually turned over to libraries and archives.) The compilers' careful entries give a satisfying reflection of each collection. First, there is a brief summary indicating the circumstances, status, and physical location of the materials; then they are listed and described by means of thirty-seven coded categories. Appendices give "Additional Information on Individuals Not Included in the Guide," "Recent or Expected Changes in Locations of Collections Listed," and a "Bibliography of Handbooks." There are name and location indexes.—M.A.M.

PERIODICALS

Obviously a great deal of work has gone
into this compilation, but with fairly mixed results. The volume offers a subject listing of "serials and periodicals in Arabic, English, French and other European languages published in the Arab countries or in the Western hemisphere."—Intro. Subject categories (such as agriculture, art and architecture, biological sciences, business and industry, children and youth, economics, general periodicals, Middle East studies, public administration) are arranged alphabetically, with serial titles entered alphabetically thereunder. The approximately 2,700 items include both current publications and some that have ceased; daily and weekly newspapers, irregular serials and annuals, and numerous government-sponsored series are listed along with the expected monthly and quarterly magazines. Information on individual titles ranges from very full (e.g., beginning date, address, frequency, subscription price, changes of title, etc.) to minimal (frequency and city of publication). Lack of a title index seems a serious fault.—E.S.


At head of title: South-East Asia Library Group.

Originally undertaken as a union catalog of British library holdings of Southeast Asian periodicals and "a means of identifying and making good inadequacies of coverage" (Pref.), the published checklist extends to periodicals for which no holdings were reported and includes not only British resources but also those of a number of libraries in France, Germany, and the Netherlands. The catalog attempts "to include all periodicals, both current and extinct, of Asian or East Asian interest if they are considered to be of substantial value for South-East Asian studies, whether published in South-East Asia or outside these areas."—p.ix. Thus it serves as a useful complement to G. R. Nunn's Southeast Asian Periodicals (London, 1977), which emphasizes United States and Southeast Asian library holdings and concentrates on periodicals published in Southeast Asia.

Arrangement is by title (or issuing body in the case of bulletins, etc.); publications in nonroman scripts are entered in romanized form. Periodicals of all frequencies are included, but those appearing irregularly or less than annually are not comprehensively covered.—E.S.


Scholars and students of Victorian studies have in this volume yet another valuable aid to research. Joining the previously published research guides to various aspects of Victorian literature by Faverty (Guide BD483), De Laura (Guide BD402), Stevenson (Guide BD471), and Ford, this new work concentrates on resources and special problems in the study and use of Victorian periodicals. Chapters by specialists generally take the form of bibliographic essays; they discuss the rationale for work in the field, bibliographic control, finding lists, biographical sources, histories of the press (including the newspaper press), and identification of authors. There is a special chapter on circulation and the stamp tax. As in the other MLA research guides the contributors have identified areas where further research and bibliographic work are needed.—E.S.

BIOGRAPHY


Making no claim to having produced a definitive work, the compilers offer this as "a handbook for the field of sub-Saharan, or black, African history as it is generally taught in high-school and college-level courses. The material included . . . is drawn from the best available specialized sources, but as a whole it reflects the biases and omissions found in regional histories and general survey texts, that is, those books
typically read in introductory courses."—Introd. Most of the approximately 800 entries are biographical sketches, but there are some entries for lists of rulers (e.g., "Gold Coast, Governors of") and explanations of native titles.Abbreviated bibliographical citations at the end of the biographical sketches are keyed to the complete citations in the bibliography at the end of the volume (p.259–80). There is a subject index and an "Index of Supplementary Information: Variant Spellings and Forms of Names, and Names of Figures Cited under Entries."—E.S.

RELIGION


This comprehensive survey "explores the broad sweep of American religions and describes 1,200 churches" (Introd.), i.e., churches, denominations, sects, and cults known to have been established in the United States by 1976, with information on new groups formed as recently as 1978 added during the final editing. The only exclusions stated are religions of North American Indians and of gypsies. Religions treated are grouped into seventeen "families" whose member bodies are related historically, theologically, or geographically. These "families" include not only the well-known traditions (such as Lutheran, Pietist-Methodist, etc.), but also those groups less well known and often difficult to find information on: the cults of witchcraft, neopaganism, and satanism (grouped as the "Magick Family"); occult orders and flying saucer groups, etc. (grouped as the "Psychic and New Age Family"); the Jesus people, mail-order denominations, etc. (grouped as "New Unaffiliated Religious Bodies").

A general essay covering the heritage, theology, and life-style introduces each "family"; descriptions of member groups follow, and usually include history, important names, principal location, related institutions, and statistics. Bibliographical footnotes (at the end of each volume) provide good sources for more complete information. Each volume has its own index.—R.K.


Designed to "help the English reader to exercise the optimum precision and discrimination in the study of Scripture" (p.xi), this concordance relates the English of the second edition of the RSV New Testament to the underlying Greek text and can be readily used by the reader who knows little or no Greek. The work is based on the original Greek and includes every Greek word in the New Testament except the four most common ones usually translated as the, and, but, and it.

The concordance is an alphabetic arrangement of the English words and phrases of the RSV. Each entry is followed by a definition of the Greek original and the word in Greek and in transliteration. The uses of the word are then listed, in contextual lines, with identification of book, chapter, and verse. Further information often is incorporated by a system of symbols. The "Index-Lexicon," which serves as an index to the concordance, is a list of the transliterated Greek words of the original text showing all the translations used in the RSV (i.e., of the words that form the concordance itself). Thus the work can be used both from the starting point of the English translation, and of the Greek original. Good explanatory notes as well as a pleasing, legible, double-column page with headwords in boldface caps make for ease of use.—R.K.

LITERATURE


As the first English-language reference guide to Italian literature, the Bondanelas' Dictionary provides a handbook for those with little knowledge of the Italian language. It is also more up to date than any similar dictionary available only in Italian. The 362 entries include many biographical essays on major and minor writers from the
twelfth century to the present; other essays cover a range of literary subjects—genres, periods, and movements. Each entry is signed and is followed by a bibliography that includes works in both Italian and English (with English translations of books in Italian also cited when available). In addition to these bibliographies there is a useful list of “Reference Aids” to various aspects of Italian literature, and here the needs of the English-speaking reader are kept in mind as much as possible. Cross-references are employed throughout, and these, along with the index and the appendix (which consists of a “time line” and special subject and chronological groupings), make this a useful and convenient guide. The volume is comparable in size to the “Oxford Companions” to important literatures, but since there is no “Oxford Companion to Italian Literature,” the compilers have here produced a work that was much needed.—P.C.


This long bibliography (more than 3,000 items) should prove a welcome addition to the body of reference works on English literature. Listed are “editions and studies (published between 1800 and 1976) of prose fiction in English—both original works and translations—written in England from 1500 to 1660.”—Intro. All those predecessors of the English novel that can be “classified as novelle, romances, histories, anatomies, or jest books (or some combinations of these)” are included.

There is a list of bibliographies, another of anthologies of renaissance texts, and a third of general studies. A fourth section, “Authors/Translators/Titles,” constitutes the bulk of the work. Each subdivision therein for author/translator or anonymous title has up to three parts: bibliographies, editions, and studies. Books, parts of books, journal articles, and dissertations are cited. Short descriptive annotations are a useful feature.—R.K.


Huddleston and Noverr have sifted through writings from more than 350 years to compile this bibliographic record of the relationship between painting and literature in America, and it is a fascinating guide to a world we knew existed, but for lack of bibliographic direction could not easily explore. The introduction discusses the ut pictura poesis tradition in American art, explaining why it has especially flourished in this country and why poets respond so intensely to paintings and so rarely painters to poems.

Section 1, “Checklist of Analogous American Paintings and Poems,” is the major and most revealing part of the book, grouping pairs of poems and paintings according to six major periods of American intellectual development and analyzing them for closeness of relationship. The 237 items provide interesting clues “that suggest previously unexplored paths of American cultural and artistic history.”—Pref. Sections II through VI include: American poems on paintings, on painters, and on unspecified paintings, painters, and related subjects; sources on the relationship of poetry and painting; and sources on the relationship of American fiction and painting. There are indexes of authors; painters; paintings, books, poems; and first lines of poems.—M.A.M.


Librarians should find this a boon for the undergraduate inquirer—a kind of one-stop-shopping place for the student wanting critical studies of works of fiction, drama, and poetry, bringing together citations similar to those found in more specialized works such as Kuntz’s Poetry Explication (Guide BD486), Palmer’s European Drama Criticism (Guide BD182), and Adelman and Dworkin’s Contemporary Novel (Guide BD326). Arrangement is by literary author,
then by individual work, with critical studies listed alphabetically by author. A title index appears in volume 4. "There are 613 authors represented, 2,546 literary works covered, and 36,137 individual citations listed. Major novels and plays usually have about twenty-five sources listed, while minor works average about a dozen."—Pref. Works of all literary periods are included, as are foreign-language works available in English translation (thus Homer is flanked by James Hilton and Gerard Manley Hopkins). Sources were selected with the undergraduate student and general reader in mind, and the neophyte researcher's path is further smoothed by the absence of abbreviations: periodical titles are given in full, as are citations to books.—E.S.

PERFORMING ARTS


"For many years it was assumed that Afro-Americans and other black peoples of the world had little or nothing to do with the art of filmmaking. ... However, serious scholars are now giving their attention to black participation in a medium that has profoundly influenced attitudes over the years, from before The Birth of a Nation to the present time. Because of such efforts to acknowledge the contribution of Blacks to film ... it is important to have a research tool to facilitate serious study."—Intro.

Klotman has undertaken to produce just such a comprehensive and reliable research tool. Her work encompasses American and Third World films that have "black themes or subject matter—even before Blacks acted in them; films that have substantial participation by Blacks as writers, actors, producers, directors, musicians, animators, or consultants; and films in which Blacks appeared in ancillary or walk-on roles."—p.xiii. More than 3,000 feature films, shorts, documentaries, etc., made from 1900 to 1977 are listed alphabetically by title; each entry describes the film and its subject matter, identifies the black participants, and, when possible, provides a location for the film (either a distributor or archive). There are indexes of the black performers and filmmakers involved and a short bibliography.

Although this is certainly the most comprehensive black filmography yet published, it is not indexed or arranged in such a way as to enable a researcher easily to find films of a particular genre, type, time period, or national origin easily.—A.L.


It may come as something of a surprise that the reference literature of film is extensive enough to merit a guide. But there is an ever-growing body of filmographies, bibliographies, indexes to reviews, and other reference resources that provide information about film and film research. Sheahan has selected, annotated, arranged, and indexed these resources in order to facilitate their use by students, scholars, film buffs, and the librarians who help them.

The guide emphasizes English-language materials (though some major foreign-language sources are listed) and also includes a number of general reference works that have film-related information or citations. The annotations are detailed and informative, but not evaluative (and thus do not indicate the rather considerable variations in quality among film reference books). Works are grouped broadly by type, and each section is introduced by explanatory notes that briefly discuss the nature and use of the different types of sources. There is a good subject index to aid the user in finding appropriate reference resources. An author/title index completes the volume.—A.L.

As the subtitle indicates, this compilation derives from early volumes of *Who's Who in the Theatre* (Guide BG68) rather than from new research. Reproduced here is the latest biographical sketch for any person "dropped from *Who's Who in the Theatre* because of death or inactivity in the theatre."—Pref.

Death dates through 1976 have been added for individuals known to be deceased, although this aspect of the work seems not to have been thoroughly researched. The set comprises about 4,100 entries and should be particularly useful in libraries not having a full run of *Who's Who in the Theatre*.—E.S.

**WOMEN'S STUDIES**


Here is a wonderful collection of bibliographical essays that identify important source material for the study of women in various periods of British history. These evaluative essays are seen as a first step in developing new approaches and frameworks "to bring to light the relationship between the roles and experiences of the still comparatively obscure female population and the development of English society."—Pref.

For periods in which little bibliographical work has yet been done, each essay covers a broad span of years (e.g., "Women in Norman and Plantagenet England," by Kathleen Casey, and "Women under the Law in Medieval England," by Ruth Kittel). Inasmuch as Kanner compiled detailed bibliographical essays for the previously published collections, *Suffer and Be Still* (Bloomington, 1973) and *A Widening Sphere* (Bloomington, 1977), concerning British women of 1815-1914, the essays for this period here focus on specific problems and techniques, e.g., "Demographic Contributions to the History of Victorian Women," by Sheila Ryan Johansson and "Women in the Mirror: Using Novels to Study Victorian Women," by Patricia Otto Klaus. Not only are the contributors highly qualified and knowledgeable about their subjects, but the resulting essays are thorough, critical, and—best of all—a pleasure to read.—E.M.

**POLITICAL SCIENCE**


"This bibliographic guide is designed to provide students, scholars and librarians with a working checklist of books, articles, documents and dissertations that relate to the American diplomatic experience in the Middle East."—Pref. The term *American diplomatic experience* has been interpreted broadly: one not only finds entries dealing with the official U.S. foreign policy-making establishment but also items on various other interest groups (e.g., missionaries, educators, philanthropists, military personnel) that have helped shape American diplomatic relations. For the purposes of this bibliography the "Middle East" consists of the Arab-speaking states of Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt, Sudan, Lebanon, Syria, Saudi Arabia, the rest of the Arabian peninsula, as well as Turkey, Iran, and Israel.

Entries are grouped by "era," beginning with a section on the Barbary pirates and concluding with a timely chapter on the energy crisis and oil diplomacy. Within each section the arrangement of entries is alphabetical by author. The brief annotations are often critical. Doctoral dissertations completed at American universities are listed in a separate section without annotation. Unfortunately there is only an author index.

There are more than 1,300 numbered entries—an inflated figure since many of the citations are repeated from chapter to chapter in an effort to keep each section as complete as possible and to minimize the number of cross-references. The actual number of distinctive sources is closer to 800. Although the bibliography is highly selective and limited to English-language materials, it will be a useful point of departure for the researcher.—L.B.

There are 114 countries represented in this compilation. The status of a nation's economy and its cultural orientation were the main criteria for inclusion; political ideology was not a factor. Information is presented country by country in a clear, compact system that outlines the major geographical, ethnic, cultural, political, economic, military, and legal components of national life. This uniform scheme not only facilitates consultation but also provides a very useful comparative framework. In addition, there are maps, statistical tables, glossaries of terms, chronologies, and bibliographies for all 114 countries.

The encyclopedia begins with a descriptive section on international organizations particularly active in the developing world and concludes with several appendixes of various global indicators. In short, this is a valuable new reference tool for librarians and researchers seeking basic information about Third World nations.—L.B.

**History & Area Studies**


Following the publication in 1961 of the first edition of this guide (Guide DB36), lists of addenda appeared that stimulated plans for a revised version. Further impetus was generated by the increase in the "size and professionalism" of the local and county record offices and by the increase in the "movement of documents from the private to the public sphere."—*Introd.* New materials being cataloged frequently strengthened the coverage of economic, social, and immigration history, and the intent from the initial planning of the Guide was to interpret history and literature in the widest possible sense. Thus this new edition—greatly revised, with 100 new entries and an examination of each old entry—is about 65 percent longer than its predecessor.

Many changes in location have taken place since 1961, but the editors found about 95 percent of the material previously cited. Some of the entries have been updated, but in many cases the entry is repeated as it originally appeared. Unfortunately a policy decision was made not to attempt to supplement the references in the original edition to indicate the availability of reproduced material (i.e., microforms, etc.). Two of the new entries deserve special mention: the National Register of Archives in London and in Edinburgh were searched for listings of papers owned privately, and these are described in the entries for the N.R.A. Arrangement is again geographical by county, but the county structure was changed in 1974; thus Bristol is now under Avon, not Gloucestershire. As before, indexing is very detailed, with entries under personal and geographical names, subjects, and depositories. Historians and librarians should be very grateful to the editors, cooperating archivists, and the publishers for such an excellent revision.—E.M.


This bibliography can serve as a good starting point in identifying materials for the study of U.S. social history. Tingley devotes a chapter to trying to define social history and to detailing the new emphasis on quantification. This is followed by twenty-five chapters of secondary materials—books and some periodical articles. The first few chapters list bibliographies and references in "the study of social history"; the rest cover such topics as "Women and Feminism," "The Middle Class: Blue Collar—White Collar," and "Growing Old in America." Each title is briefly annotated. Fiction is excluded, as are most biographies and journal articles unless especially important; and only those works in cultural and intellectual history that overlap social history are listed. No guidance is given for the use and identification of statistical materials. There are author, title, and subject indexes.—E.M.
BIOETHICS


As the editor points out in his introduction, the rise of modern biomedical technologies since the 1950s has intensified many basic questions dealing with life, death, and health, as well as raising new problems: human experimentation, genetic intervention and reproductive technologies, behavior control, the definition of death, and the prolongation of life. In preparation since 1971, this encyclopedia coordinates the efforts of more than 285 contributors from fifteen countries "to synthesize, analyze, and compare the positions taken on the problems of bioethics, in the past as well as in the present, to indicate which issues require further examination, and to point to anticipated developments in the ethics of the life sciences and health care" (Intro.) in an interdisciplinary, intercultural, and international context.

A total of 315 signed articles considers six basic levels of the field: (1) concrete ethical and legal problems; (2) basic concepts and principles; (3) ethical theories; (4) religious traditions; (5) historical perspectives; (6) disciplines bearing on bioethics. Bibliographies accompanying the articles are lengthy and occasionally annotated. An appendix provides the texts of some thirty codes pertaining to the practice of medicine and specialty health-care associations, directives for human experimentation, and patients' bills of rights. The work concludes with a short list of bibliographies, periodicals, and educational services related to bioethics, and an index to all four volumes.

The encyclopedia is a splendid effort; no library concerned with the problems of life, death, and health should be without it.—D.G.

NEW EDITIONS, SUPPLEMENTS, ETC.

Publications of the period 1967–77 are listed in the ten-year supplement to Ralph E. McCoy's Freedom of the Press (Carbondale, Southern Illinois Univ. Pr., 1979. 557p. $42.50). "More than half as many publications relating to press freedom in the English-speaking world" (Pref.) appeared during the years covered by the supplement as are found in the original volume (Guide AA266), with the literature of law and journalism accounting for a large part of the increase.

Presented as a "dictionary catalog" (interfiling subject listings, titles of special projects, and names of persons interviewed or discussed in interviews), the fourth edition of The Oral History Collection of Columbia University, edited by Elizabeth B. Mason and Louis M. Starr (New York, Oral History Research Office, 1979. 306p. $22.50), provides "a guide to the testimony of 3,638 persons interviewed over the last thirty years" (Intro.) for this first and largest of oral history collections. As in the previous edition, availability of a memoir in the microfilm series published by Microfilming Corporation of America is indicated at the end of the descriptive note for the memoir.

Few reference works are more widely welcomed than a new edition of Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory (Guide AE10). The eighteenth edition, 1979–80 (New York, Bowker, 1979. 2,156p. $64.50) provides current information on some 62,000 periodicals (of which about 8,500 are new entries), updating and expanding the previous edition and incorporating information from Ulrich's Quarterly through V.3, no.2.

The first volume of a third edition of the Dansk biografisk Leksikon has appeared under the editorship of Sv. Cedergreen Bech (København, Gyldendal, 1979). Some names have not been carried over into this revised and expanded edition, but many new entries (representing some early figures as well as persons deceased since preparation of the previous edition [Guide A135]) have been added. Articles are signed, and bibliographies are included. Use of smaller type on a two-column page makes for a more compact edition.

Paul-Émile Langevin's Bibliographie biblique (Guide BB113) has been supplemented by a second volume (Québec, Presses de l'Université Laval, 1978. 1,586p. $85) which not only extends through 1975 the coverage of the seventy Catholic journals analysed in the earlier volume, "but also considerably enlarges the basis of inquiry by going be-
yond all denominational criterion in the selection of journals and works to be analysed."—Intro. Fifty additional journals in French, English, German, Italian, and Spanish are included for the full period 1930-75, and some 800 books are listed and analyzed.

"Of the approximately 636 numbered items" in the sixth edition of Richard D. Al­
tick and Andrew Wright’s Selective Bibli­
ography for the Study of English and American Literature (New York, Macmillan, 1979. 180p. $4.95 pa.) "seventy-two are new and seventy-six have been altered to take account of new editions, supplementary volumes, and the like."—Foreword. A few items from the previous edition (1975) of this very useful compilation were omitted as having been superseded or no longer of primary importance to the student.

Floyd Eugene Eddleman is the compiler of American Drama Criticism: Interpretations 1890-1977 (Hamden, Conn., Shoe String Pr., 1979. 488p. $27.50). This vol­
ume represents a revised and expanded edition of the work of similar title by H. H. Palmer and A. J. Dyson (1967; Guide BD312) and its two supplements (1970-76). Following the plan of those earlier volumes, Eddleman’s compilation "lists inter­
pretations of American plays published primarily between 1890 and 1977 in books, periodicals, and monographs."—Pref.

Robert A. Hartley is the editor of the new cumulative edition of Keats, Shelley, Byron, Hunt and Their Circles: A Bibli­
ography: July 1, 1962—December 31, 1974 (Lincoln, Univ. of Nebraska Pr., 1978. 487p. $14.50). As in the 1950-62 volume (Guide BD485), the annual bibliographies from the Keats-Shelley Journal (Vols. XIII–XXV) are reprinted and a cumulated index provided.

A further volume has been added to the eight-volume Kratkaia literaturnaia entsiklopediia (Guide BD991). In addition to an alphabetical sequence of supplementary articles, this ninth volume (Moskva, Sovet­skaia Entsiklopediia, 1978. 968p.) provides a subject and name index to the full set.

References to each name and title appearing in calendars of the eleven volumes of The London Stage, 1660–1800 (Guide BG50) are provided in the Index to the London Stage ..., compiled by Ben Ross Schneider, Jr. (Carbondale, Southern Illinois Univ. Pr., 1979. 936p. $50). Computer technology was employed for organizing the 506,014 references under some 25,000 entries. "References are to the date and theatre of the calendar entry containing the item, rather than to page, because it was felt that index entries would thus convey more information and that citations would be easier to locate in the volumes themselves since they are arranged chrono­
logically."—Intro.

The second edition of Print Reference Sources: A Selected Bibliography, 18th–20th Centuries, compiled by Lauris Mason and Joan Ludman (Millwood, N.Y., KTO Pr., 1979. 363p. $36) adds more than 500 artists to the list of 1,300 found in the 1975 edition. It now offers some 5,000 references to the literature on printmakers of the eighteenth through twentieth centuries.

Based on George W. Douglas’ work of the same title (2d ed., 1948; Guide CF46), Jane M. Hatch’s third edition of The American Book of Days (New York, Wilson, 1978. 1,214p. $50) follows the same day­by-day arrangement with the aim of telling “what happens or did happen on every day of the year and how, where, and by whom these events are (and have been) observed in this country.”—Pref.

A Bibliography of Latin American Bibli­
ographies: Social Sciences & Humanities, edited by Daniel Raposo Cordeiro (Metuchen, N.J., Scarecrow Pr., 1979. 272p. $12), is the first of a proposed series of supplements designed to provide periodic updating of Arthur E. Gropp’s 1968 Bibli­
ography of Latin American Bibliographies and its 1971 supplement (Guide AA60). It is a cumulation (with additional citations to periodical articles) of the annual working papers prepared for the Subcommittee on the Bibliography of Latin American Bibliog­
raphies of the Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials (SALALM) for the years 1969–74.

The Standing Conference on Library Ma­
terials on Africa has published a supplement to its 1964 list of theses on Africa (Guide DD20). Compiled by J. H. St. J. McL­
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cepted by Universities in the United King-

With publication of the "Physical and Biological Sciences" section, American Men & Women of Science (New York, Bowker, 1979. 8v. $375), enters its fourteenth edition. Engineering sciences (omitted from the thirteenth edition) are again included, bringing the number of entries in this section to about 130,500. Volume 8 offers discipline and geographic indexes. Coverage of the social and behavioral sciences will follow in a separate section, and each section is to appear hereafter in a three-year revision cycle.—E.S.
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College & Research Libraries, which is published bimonthly (January, March, May, July, September, and November), bears the ISSN 0010-0870. The January 1980 issue is number 1 of volume 41. The subscription price for College & Research Libraries is $25 per year.

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The journal follows A Manual of Style, 12th ed., rev. (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1969), in matters of bibliographical style. Authors may also consult recent issues of the journal for examples of the style.

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Readers wishing to review books for the journal are invited to write to the editor indicating their special areas of interest and qualifications.

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Recent Publications

Machlup, Fritz; Leeson, Kenneth; and associates. *Information through the Printed Word*, reviewed by Hendrik Edelman ............................................................... 71

Sertals Management and Microforms: A Reader, reviewed by Sister Alma Marie Walls . 75

Personnel in Libraries, reviewed by J. Wayne Baker ........................................ 75

McCoy, Donald R. *The National Archives: America’s Ministry of Documents, 1934–1968*, reviewed by Patrick M. Quinn ....................................................... 76

OCLC: *A National Library Network*, reviewed by Patricia Ann Sacks .................. 78


Maizell, Robert E. *How to Find Chemical Information: A Guide for Practicing Chemists, Teachers, and Students*, reviewed by David Kuhner ...................................... 81

Bibliographic Instruction Handbook, reviewed by Leonard Grundt .......................... 82

Bollier, John A. *The Literature of Theology: A Guide for Students and Pastors*, reviewed by John B. Trott ................................................................. 82


Rowley, J. E. *Mechanised In-House Information Systems*, reviewed by Sarojini Balachandran ............................................................... 84

American Women Writers: *A Critical Reference Guide from Colonial Times to the Present*, reviewed by Martha Chambers ......................................................... 86


Studies in Library Management, V.5, reviewed by Mary Scherger Bonhomme .......... 89

Casper, James W., and Dellenbach, M. Carolyn. *Guide to the Holdings of the American Jewish Archives*, reviewed by Kurt S. Maier ................................................................. 89

Stineman, Esther. *Women’s Studies: A Recommended Core Bibliography*, reviewed by Jeanette Mosey ................................................................. 90


*Proceedings of the American Studies Library Conference*, reviewed by Wayne A. Wiegand ................................................................. 91

Other Publications of Interest to Academic Librarians ........................................ 92

BOOK REVIEWS


New York University economist Fritz Machlup and his associates have worked at least four years on their statistical survey of the American scholarly and scientific book world.

The results are now available in 860 pages including 187 statistical tables, reproduced from typescript in three volumes and possibly one more to follow. The study was largely funded by the National Science Foundation and the National Endowment for the Humanities in response to the perceived crisis in scholarly publishing and library acquisitions during the early seventies. In contrast to the availability in some Western European countries, usable statistical information on this subject has
been extremely scarce in the United States. The lack of quantitative and descriptive standards for statistics of book and journal production, prices, and sales, as well as library collection development, has been the reason for much shallow and speculative writing on the subject, not to mention the rather uncertain basis for commercial and institutional planning.

Machlup's earlier work *The Production and Distribution of Knowledge in the United States* (1962) was a first major step, and in recent years the work of the Book Industry Study Group and notably that of statistician John Dessauer as well as Donald King Associates have made real contributions.

In this ambitious project, Machlup and Leeson build carefully on all earlier work, but they have made extensive surveys themselves of some seventy-five American publishers (representing 75,000 titles), an unspecified number of scholarly and scientific journals, 120 academic and research libraries, as well as some scholarly consumer groups, notably the members of the American Economic Association.

The results are interesting from many viewpoints, but I would like to single out two main areas. First of all, there is no question that this report is the most comprehensive survey produced yet and that the information will be extremely useful for further research and planning.

There are also numerous shortcomings in the data presented, but the results have been very carefully documented and qualified wherever necessary. There are some real problems with the surveys and their results, however.

For unspecified, but presumably practical, reasons the survey is limited to U.S. publications. While one could easily defend the position that the flow of information as it pertains to the U.S. is limited to the English language, there is no way that one can exclude the British and Western European book and journal production in that language. A substantial part of the commercial expansion of scholarly and scientific publishing after World War II has taken place overseas. That industry is largely based on American research and produced by American authors, and (until very recently) the market for these publications was primarily the American library market. The exclusion of such a significant segment of the market makes the title misleading and the interpretation difficult.

The general exclusion of publications issued by official agencies, such as the United Nations, the United States government, and social, economic, and political bodies, such as banks and labor unions, creates a problem on an even larger scale. In terms of quantity as well as scholarly utility, these publications appear to be the fastest growing group of primary research reports.

The authors try to refrain from making generalizations—and they succeed in most cases; but when they do, there are problems. For instance, the estimate that scholarly, scientific, and "intellectual" books account for between 28 and 62 percent of the total net dollar sales of the industry can hardly be considered a helpful figure. In some areas, such as the analysis of book prices, not much new light is shed, and the results given in the report are as unreliable
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as anything presented before. The need for specific and comparable data in this area, so essential for research library planning, remains unsatisfied.

The data produced as the result of the library questionnaires deserve special attention here. Machlup's approach to problems in data gathering from research libraries was rather abrupt, and he should have recognized the sensitivity in the library world toward outside surveyors. All too often have these "quickies" resulted in naive, sweeping, and sometimes damaging generalizations, such as the Allen Kent study of circulation and acquisitions data at Pittsburgh.

There is nothing really new, however, in the 200 pages that make up the library chapters of this report. Those familiar with the controversial questionnaires will not be surprised by that. Nevertheless, there are somewhat better data in a few areas than were available before. The librarians' perception of the relative increase or decline of buying in specific subject fields is noteworthy. Similarly, the data on foreign purchases have not been documented before in this fashion. This leads to what I would suggest as the second most important aspect of the Machlup-Leeson study.

The report is a study in frustration. Its utility lies in its painful limitations. No one will ever have to do again what the authors have done, and we should be very grateful for that. The seriousness and thoroughness with which the researchers went about their work clearly expose the real problems that face investigators and interpreters of communication through the printed word. The complete lack of standardization in the classification of knowledge and the communication channels is a barrier that seems almost impossible to overcome. Scholars, publishers, librarians, and government officials all use their own language and criteria for describing and evaluating the universe. The field of bibliometrics is still a field of micromeasurements; the longer view still eludes us. Add to this the fact that scholarly communication is an international, worldwide affair, and the complexity of the problem becomes only greater.
Machlup and Leeson have demonstrated more clearly than anyone else before what a task still lies ahead. The failure of the recently completed National Enquiry on Scholarly Communication (its report published by Johns Hopkins, 1979) to come to terms with even the basic concepts of the problem is a similarly clear illustration. According to the introduction, Machlup expects to publish a revision and update of his 1962 study in the next few years. We look forward to this with great anticipation. Meanwhile, these three volumes of primary data should be on the desk of everyone who wants to work in this field that is so essential to academic librarians.—Hendrik Edelman, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey.


Like the other readers in this series, this is a collection of articles, most of which were published in well-known journals during the seventies. A general introduction by the editor describes it as “an attempt to analyze factors that would affect the efficient functioning of the microform serials collection, both from a management point of view and from the point of view of the user.” The material she has chosen does that well.

Introductions to each section preview the factors treated under “Microforms and Serials: The User’s Point of View”; “The Economics of Microforms and Serial Conversion Priorities”; “Specific Microform Applications: Case Studies”; “The Impact of Microforms upon Journal Format”; and “Extended Applications of Microforms for Serials.” The appendix contains excerpts from A National Periodicals Center: Technical Development Plan and a statement about the CONSER File on COM.

Many of the authors quoted stress the importance of studying the usage patterns, budget, and personnel of the individual libraries before deciding to convert all or part of the collection to microform. Only then can they expect to enjoy the benefits of the change, including the replacement of back issues often at lower prices than paper copies. Purchasing the microform eliminates preparing, binding, and processing volumes while costing less than binding and saving 90 percent of the storage space needed for hard copy.

A viewing area with well-designed, easy-to-operate equipment, sufficient storage cabinets, and enthusiastic personnel are prerequisites for obtaining user acceptance, lack of which reputedly results from poor management decisions. The case studies represent libraries connected with large and small universities, junior colleges, a high school, and a hospital. Librarians wish all microform items could be in the same format in order to save equipment costs and instruction time. Additional readings listed at the beginning of each section, as well as after many articles, make evident the proliferation of writings on the topic.

Libraries receiving many inquiries about microforms and that do not want to risk the disappearance of hard copies of these informational articles will find this volume worthwhile.—Sister Alma Marie Walls, Immaculata College, Immaculata, Pennsylvania.


This group of essays offers a brief, succinct overview of some of the problems encountered by library personnel in this era of rapid change. It covers a wider range than personnel work, per se, as could be mistakenly interpreted from the title.

There are ten essays and one bibliography, most of which should be thought-provoking. No definitive answers are attempted, but several of the essays have references appended that are helpful for further investigation. Some of the areas covered include management, continuing education, performance and evaluation, associations, sexual discrimination and economic inequalities (with bibliography), and a helpful bibliography of general and library-related personnel literature.

Many changes have occurred over the years that have had an effect on libraries.
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The appearance of Donald R. McCoy's history of the National Archives is even more timely given the circumstances that led to the recent resignation of the archivist of the United States, James B. Rhoads, and the rather murky process by which Rhoads' successor will be selected. The National Archives, as McCoy so thoroughly documents, has been immersed in a swirl of politics since its inception. It appears that the present situation does not represent a substantial departure from firmly entrenched tradition, as the archives stands just five years and librarians, and the responses to those changes have never been unanimous. Perhaps an underlying theme to these essays can be stated in this way: The effective management of the human resources available should be realized in a fair and meaningful way, and individuals should grow, develop, and become contributing members of a maturing profession that fully appreciates the value of each one.

It is important that individuals, as persons and as librarians, recognize the worth and value of themselves and the tasks they are performing. Believing in one's self and one's work is necessary in order to realize the overall worth and value of the profession as a whole. Until that is accomplished, we may well remain, as one essay indicates, "a pliant and passive profession."

Another essay, by Kenneth J. LaBudde, calls for "a national voice for university libraries." It is all well and good and true that there is a need for a strong, effective voice, but perhaps it should be a voice for librarians as librarians and not just as university or school or public or special or, even, male or female librarians. As Benjamin Franklin remarked to John Hancock on July 4, 1776, "We must indeed all hang together, or, most assuredly, we shall all hang separately."

Special Report #10 should be an excellent catalyst for further thought, discussion, and research. -- J. Wayne Baker, Ohio Northern University, Ada.
short of celebrating its first half century of existence.

One might have picked up McCoy’s account of the origins and growth of the National Archives fully expecting a somnolent house history replete with tedious narrative and adulatory gloss-overs. Not so on either count. A best-seller it’s not, but McCoy somehow managed to build a sufficient momentum into his chronicle of the institution that houses the official records of the American nation to propel the reader forward at a surprisingly brisk pace. Meticulously researched, skillfully put together, McCoy’s National Archives: America’s Ministry of Documents tells a story that deserves an audience, and it’s not a bad story at that.

Given McCoy’s onetime connection with, and obvious affection for, the National Archives, he may well have been excused had he erred on the hagiographical side. Yet he carefully did not. On the whole, his treatment of the various internal and external political disputes that marked the first thirty years of the National Archives is remarkably candid and fair.

Indeed, McCoy, who is presently a member of the history faculty at the University of Kansas, was recently honored by his archival colleagues in the Society of American Archivists at their forty-third annual meeting when they bestowed upon him the society’s prestigious Waldo Gifford Leland Prize in recognition of the high standards of scholarship evidenced by his history of the archives.

McCoy is at his best when he describes the behind-the-scenes machinations that led to the appointment of the first archivist of the United States, Robert Digges Wimberly Connor, and when he discusses the demise of the National Archives as an independent governmental agency primarily concerned with a cultural mission and its enforced subordination as a distinctly subsidiary component of the General Services Administration (GSA), the bureau responsible for the mass purchasing of toilet paper and other governmental necessities.

While McCoy’s evaluation of the impact of the subordination of NARS (the National Archives and Records Service) to GSA is not nearly as critical as H. G. Jones is in his su-

One should, in fact, read McCoy and Jones in tandem. Both help to demystify the aura surrounding the National Archives.

For those librarians and archivists who are interested in following or attempting to influence the selection of the archivist of the United States (this ought to include all archivists), McCoy is a must. Indeed, if the motto adorning the approach to the National Archives building in Washington, What Is Past Is Prologue, has credence insofar as the appointment of the new archivist is concerned, then McCoy is even more pertinent. If the new appointee is not a professionally trained archivist, then his or her appointment will occasion a hue and cry similar to the one that ensued in the wake of Daniel Boorstin's appointment as Librarian of Congress. Should this occur, perhaps McCoy will have to provide us with a weighty epilogue!—Patrick M. Quinn, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.


This collection of eight original essays and a selected bibliography calls attention to the fact that OCLC has become one of our institutions. Whether it is a or the national network is the subject of a debate not covered by this typescript paperback.

The brief introduction reviews OCLC's origins and services. The essays that follow, by Glyn Evans ("OCLC: The View from Regional Networks") and Teresa Strozik ("Staff Training and Development within the Network"), describe the functions of a network and its relationship to OCLC. This information has been buried in network bylaws, annual reports, newsletters, and workshop proceedings, and both descriptions are desirable entries in *Library Literature*.

Two chapters are noteworthy for the "online" librarian. "Cataloging: Workflow and Productivity" by D. Kaye Gapen documents procedural changes in implementing the OCLC cataloging subsystem at Ohio State University. Gapen's review provides those responsible for system design and evaluation with a comparative model and useful observations.

The best contribution is the seventy-three-page annotated bibliography, a "selected list of English language materials published by or about OCLC through 1977." Its value lies in its organization, selection of 244 entries, and descriptive annotations. **OCLC: A Bibliography** issued by OCLC in May 1979, and compiled by Allison and Allan, is a somewhat abbreviated (192 entries), updated, and cost-free alternative, without benefit of the useful annotations.


In a rapidly changing technological and political environment, this publication becomes a historical overview. Its most recent textual reference is the A. D. Little report, and the succeeding twenty-four months have witnessed the delivery of the interlibrary loan sub-system, the testing of the acquisitions sub-system, planning for the implementation of AACR 2, the organization of the OCLC Users Council, issues concerning use of the OCLC-MARC subscription tapes, and recommendations for the enforcement of OCLC standards prepared by the Inter-Network Quality Control Council.

Equally significant are the growth of other utilities such as RLIN/RLG (BALLLOTS), WLN, and UTLAS (briefly mentioned in the introduction) and the effects of catalytic agents such as CLR's Bibliographic Service Development Program and a Battelle study to examine the feasibility of linking on-line data bases. The history of OCLC will not be recorded in isolation from these external (some say "competitive") forces.

Because of the limitations outlined here, this collection is not considered a top priority purchase. It can be helpful to librarians and students seeking information on
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Profile of Medical Practice, 1979 contains data from the AMA's most recent Periodic Survey of Physicians. The volume profiles physicians' work patterns, fees, expenses, and income by specialty, census division, and other characteristics. Also featured are articles on medical economics, including papers by Frank A. Sloan and Joseph P. Newhouse.

Socioeconomic Issues of Health, 1979 features articles on the health care cost containment issue. Noted authors such as Alain Enthoven and Clark Havighurst examine the structure and possible cost impact of alternative health care delivery systems. Included are 56 tables of data on socioeconomic characteristics of the U.S. health care system.

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OCLC's development. For those with a reserved seat at the terminal, Susan Martin's Library Networks 1978-79 or the 1979 edition of CLASS's comparison of on-line resource-sharing utilities is a better investment.—Patricia Ann Sacks, Cedar Crest and Muhlenberg Colleges, Allentown, Pennsylvania.


Any author who voluntarily tackles the job of writing a volume to attempt to explain the complexities of the copyright law of 1976 to educators and librarians deserves credit for a noble effort—noble because, as the author states in the introduction, "Some are sure to be displeased with the positions I have taken; some will find them too conservative, while others will find them irresponsibly radical." The author volunteers that he chose to “attempt to take

a middle ground in interpreting the disputed areas, such as placing photocopies on reserve, the question of 'spontaneity,' and videotaping television programs.”

The volume has five chapters: a brief history of copyright (informative), fair use (51 of 115 pages of text), library photocopying, obtaining permission (portions of this chapter are based on the author's dissertation), and securing copyright protection. Eight appendixes (including professional and congressional guidelines, policies, and conference reports), chapter notes, and a comprehensive index round out the volume.

The author gives a detailed explanation of the concept of fair use, using excerpts from Senate, House, and conference committee reports to document his discussion and interpretation. He has also designed a fair use checklist, a "review device to help readers apply the [four] fair use criteria." Thirty-six problems are presented in the areas of "making paper copies of printed materials" and "duplicating performance materials," after which the author gives answers based
on his application of the checklist. Drawbacks to what might otherwise be a helpful exercise are that the problems are geared almost exclusively to elementary and secondary educators and librarians and the answers are based on the author's interpretations of the fair-use section of the law, interpretations with which some will disagree.

Discussed, also, is limited application of the fair-use criteria in the areas of performance materials, display materials, reproduction of display materials, and fair use by nonclassroom educators. Off-air copying of television programs, an unresolved issue of considerable concern to librarians, educators, film producers, and the broadcast industry, is briefly addressed.

Soon after submission of the manuscript for publication, a group representing these interests was formed under the aegis of the House Subcommittee on the Courts, Civil Liberties, and the Administration of Justice and the Copyright Office to develop guidelines for off-air taping by nonprofit educational organizations. This group is still at work on its task.

The library photocopying chapter is divided into two parts: identification of ten basic elements or requirements that can be distilled from section 108, and an application of section 108 to types of materials and types of services. The author receives plaudits for stepping over the "middle ground" into justifiable liberality in the area of copying for reserves and a recognition that both sections 107 and 108 give photocopying rights and privileges to libraries. In one of his most memorable quotes, he calls the CONTU guidelines "a model of opaque legal language."

Librarians should disagree, however, with his interpretation concerning unsupervised reproducing equipment, that "until the courts provide better guidance, it may be safe to assume that a self-service copier located near and in sight of a staff work station is not truly an unsupervised machine."

For librarians who may need to seek permission after the limits of the fair-use or photocopying sections of the law have been exhausted, the chapter on obtaining permission will be helpful. Suggested request forms are provided, including those for requesting permission to duplicate copyrighted materials and those for copying out-of-print sheet music. Of particular interest is the discussion on purchase conditions set by either the purchaser or the supplier.

In general, this paperbound volume provides forms, a checklist, do-it-yourself exercises, and some useful explanations for a complex law of the land. It is regrettable, however, that the publisher did not take the opportunity to make clear that the interpretations are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect endorsement by the American Library Association.—Nancy H. Marshall, University of Wisconsin–Madison.


As chemistry and chemical engineering change, the author says, "so do the sources of information chemists and engineers use. New and improved information tools are constantly being introduced, and, concurrently, older tools become less valuable, become obsolete, or are discontinued." This is the main rationale for the current work, a reference guide in the genre of Woodburn's Using the Chemical Literature: A Practical Guide (Marcel Dekker, 1974) and Bottle's Use of Chemical Literature (Butterworths, 1971).

Maizell, who is manager of information services for a large corporation and has both chemistry and library degrees, has essentially resurveyed this familiar field. The more significant newer tools are brought in for inspection with quite a solid chapter on computer-based on-line and off-line retrieval systems. Then the enduring classical chemical information reference tools are trotted out again and their basic features and structures reviewed. To enrich the mixture still further, the author deals at some length with information flow and communication patterns in chemistry, with search strategy, and with keeping up to date with current awareness programs.

Above and beyond this standard format, a considerable amount of very practical advice is successfully incorporated into the easy-flowing and readable text. Maizell's suggestions on how quickly and efficiently to get ac-
cess to articles, books, patents and other documents strike very close to what is probably the most frustrating experience of daily librarian-scientist interchange. And his comments on the most likely future outlook of the many chemical publishers' services are valuable to the budget-conscious librarian.

The work does make a significant and authoritative advance over the older references in this field. While its individual treatment of each chemical information source is not quite so complete as say Bottle, for example, it more than makes up for this in recency of coverage and valuable supplemental material.

Maizell has succeeded in what is often very difficult for the technical writer: organize it well and make it practical and attractive and say just enough to truly inform. This should prove to be a solid item for the science reference shelf.—David Kuhner, Claremont Colleges, Claremont, California.

**Bibliographic Instruction Handbook.**

In 1971 a Bibliographic Instruction Task Force was established within ACRL to facilitate the development of instructional programs in college and university libraries. Six years later this task force was succeeded by the ACRL Bibliographic Instruction Section. Its Policy and Planning Committee, which was chaired initially by Thomas G. Kirk and later by Mary W. George, recently issued a *Bibliographic Instruction Handbook* to assist libraries in making use of an ACRL policy statement formulated by the Task Force, "Guidelines for Bibliographic Instruction in Academic Libraries" (*College & Research Libraries News* 38:92 [April 1977]).

This spiral-bound publication contains the "Guidelines," a needs assessment checklist for gathering data to be used in preparing a profile of information needs in an academic community, and a discussion of administrative matters—such as staffing, budgeting, facilities, and organization structure—to be considered in planning a library instruction program. In addition, it provides a model timetable for the implementation of a program, an ideal statement of program goals in terms of terminal objectives and enabling (behavioral) objectives, and a chart showing the pros and cons of various instructional methods. Also included are a brief glossary, a "Pathfinder" on bibliographic instruction (in lieu of the usual list of reference sources), and—to improve the next edition of the *Handbook*—an evaluation sheet to be returned by the reader to the ACRL/BIS Policy and Planning Committee.

The authors have done a fine job of clarifying and illustrating the steps involved in planning for an effective bibliographic instruction program, although they have not dealt with the question of how to "sell" library instruction to academic administrators and classroom faculty. Nor have they devoted a section of this booklet to the essential topic of program evaluation, as they readily acknowledge in their introduction. Nevertheless, until a new edition is released, this work deserves to be read and commented upon by all college and university librarians interested in bibliographic instruction.—Leonard Grundt, Nassau Community College, Garden City, New York.

**Bollier, John A. The Literature of Theology: A Guide for Students and Pastors.**

"Of making many books there is no end . . ." (Ecclesiastes 12:12). This significant work attempts to give the reader some bibliographic control of the mass of publications in the general area of theology. John Bollier writes in his preface that the volume is intended for "the theological student, the parish pastor, the layperson, or the librarian, all of whom must be generalists in this age of increasing specialization" (p.18).

John Bollier, acting divinity librarian at Yale Divinity School, is well prepared for compiling this volume, being an experienced pastor of eighteen years' service and a reference librarian for the past seven years. This book grew out of research sponsored by a grant from the Association of Theological Schools and was tested by fire in a course in theological bibliography and
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research methodology at Yale.

The guide lists and annotates 543 reference tools including bibliographies, encyclopedias, dictionaries, indexes and abstracts, guidebooks and manuals, catalogs, commentaries, and a few monographs containing extensive bibliographies. It is limited primarily to English-language works of recent vintage. Of necessity, some older works that have not been superseded have been included.

While there are some references to world religions broadly, the primary coverage is that of the Judeo-Christian tradition, including both Protestant and Catholic Christianity. The basic framework follows the classic theological divisions of biblical studies, systematic theology, historical studies, and practical theology. In addition to these, there are sections on bibliography; encyclopedias and dictionaries; and a general section on biography, almanacs, directories, yearbooks, quotation and poetry indexes, and style manuals.

Each of the 543 entries is given a terse descriptive annotation indicating the contents, purpose, scope, arrangement, depth, and perspective of the work. No attempt is made to give critical evaluations of the items. There is a comprehensive author and title index.

There are brief but helpful introductions to each of the chapters giving some definitions and guidelines as to the usefulness of the various kinds of tools listed in each section. Where there is unevenness in the coverage of a particular section, we believe that this reflects unevenness in the tools available to the researcher rather than any lack of perspective in the compilation.

The guide includes both secular and religious works of value in the field. Where an item has application in more than one subject area, a cross-reference is given. This book should be a basic piece for the study of theological bibliography and should be found in any significant reference collection as well as many a pastor’s study.—John B. Trotti, Union Theological Seminary in Virginia, Richmond.


The preface of the Conservation Policy Statement contains a sentence that sums up its major flaw: “It was personally more fun to outline a positive program (even if fictional and wildly unrealistic) than to describe the very real limitations.” This personal statement of the ideal conservation program does have unrealistic aspects, and these may deter a library from any conservation efforts.

Rather than encouraging basic preservation efforts, with a staff and budget that can be expanded as necessary, the author outlines a massive program and emphasizes how expensive conservation is. The organization chart for the conservation department shows eighteen full-time staff members (five librarians and thirteen clerical or technical workers) and fifteen student workers. Even with a staff of this size, binding is done outside the library, and departmental librarians do minor repairs for their own areas.

The Conservation Policy Statement can be helpful for conservation planning in academic libraries if the policymakers are already familiar with preservation theory and practice. The lists of “Principles of Conservation” and “Priorities of the Conservation Program” suggest areas of activity that a library could pursue. The bibliography of sixty-four readings provides some useful citations although the standard reference works by Bernard Middleton, George and Dorothy Cunha, and Howard Winger and Richard Smith are not included.

For a more practical approach to a research library policy and program see the University of Wisconsin–Madison Statement on the Conservation of Library Materials. The recently published Toward a California Document Conservation Program, by J. Michael Bruer, demonstrates how many facets of Morrow’s ideal library conservation program could be assumed by a statewide or regional center.—Catherine Asher, Indiana University, Bloomington.

Computer-based retrieval systems have had such a tremendous impact on our current practices of librarianship it is essential that everyone concerned understand the actual role mechanization plays in the process of information transfer. Many different systems are in operation today, providing up-to-date or retrospective information, often in the form of bibliographic references or statistical data. While each system has its own peculiarities and is designed to satisfy specific needs, certain features are basic to most, if not all, of the systems.

Rowley's volume, in part, identifies and explains all such common components in an effort to provide a theoretical background for understanding the factors involved in the input, processing, and output of mechanized in-house information retrieval. The author provides a lucid narrative of the current state of the art in the following areas: system design and specification, definition of objectives, feasibility studies and cost-benefit analysis, information structure and citation, abstracting, indexing and thesaurus construction, classification software, searching, and retrieval.

The first part of the book concludes with a selective bibliography on the various aspects of theoretical framework covered thus far.

Part 2 contains a description of a series of individual systems currently in operation, which include ASSASSIN, CAIRS, CAN/SDI, CAN/OLE, ENLIST, ITIRC, LABSTAT, MORPHS, SCORPIO, and TOTAL. These case studies deal variously with the type of information that is stored, storage systems, methods of search and retrieval, and the nature of output. Samples of search requests, formats, and output are thoughtfully provided. Brief references are made to factors such as costs, user education, and audience reaction. This reviewer would have liked a little more attention given to these aspects.

Admittedly, the author makes no effort to evaluate the effectiveness of the various systems. That, however, is not the purpose of the book; it is to provide an introduction to the subject for students of information sci-
ence and beginning practitioners. This purpose seems to be adequately fulfilled. The author is to be congratulated on adopting a case study approach, which is best suited to bring out the many salient features of in-house systems. The book is therefore recommended as an excellent companion volume to the many general textbooks available in this area, including the author's recent contribution entitled The Dissemination of Information (Westview, 1978).—Sarojini Balachandran, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.


"Three hundred years of women writers. Thousands of women who took pen in hand. . . . Voices coming from every town and village. From every region of America. From every social class. From every variety of religious and political belief. Women who cared passionately about civil and human rights, about their fellow human beings and their God. Women who wrote eloquently about motherhood, marriage, and home. Women who wrote to other women—to caution, to instruct, to inspire."

In these words from her brief preface to American Women Writers (V.1: A to E, on which this review is based), Lina Mainiero celebrates the subject of the four-volume dictionary. Characterizing the publication as a "pioneering reference work that would inform and illuminate," she praises contributors, consultants, publishers, and librarians, who receive special thanks for their commitment to the project. Editor Mainiero also wisely recognizes the guide's indebtedness to earlier biographical dictionaries, especially Notable American Women, 1607-1950 (incorrectly dated 1951 instead of 1971).

According to the publisher's foreword to the first volume, which provides a more detailed description of the work, American Women Writers is a critical reference guide from colonial times to the present and dif-
fers from earlier studies in its emphasis upon the critical rather than the biographical. Only *American Women Writers*, the publisher asserts, combines critical consideration with essential biographical information; only *American Women Writers* provides, for almost every author, primary bibliographies and selected secondary sources.

Who are included? The foreword enumerates five categories, beginning with "writers of reputation," like Louisa May Alcott, Willa Cather, and Joan Didion, for whom space is commensurate with fame. Popular authors appear in a representative selection, determined by such criteria as contemporary response, sales, extent of translation, scholarly interest. Nontraditional writers (authors of diaries, letters, autobiographies) also emerge as a representative group, while children's writers enjoy "substantial coverage." In the fifth category, through a very selective sampling, are those whose extraliterary achievements have won wide general readership: Anita Bryant, Rachel Carson, Adelle Davis, and others.

The remaining introductory pages of the first volume produce the expected: names and academic affiliations of the committee of consultants, names of contributors and their contributions to the volume, a list of writers to be included in all four volumes, and, finally, abbreviations of newspaper and journal references not occurring in the master list of journals and series familiar to all users of the *MLA International Bibliography*.

Each dictionary entry in this first volume—from Edith Abbott to Sarah Ann Evans—presents the writer's name in natural order set in striking twenty-four-point Goudy Bold. Vital statistics follow in small italic type. After the essays, varying in length from 400 to 5,000 words, the author bibliographies appear with works listed in chronological order. Secondary-source references complete most entries. With but few exceptions, essays and attendant data are the work of women members of the American academic community.

Despite the assertions of the publisher, a review of the essays themselves does reveal, in many, a predominant biographical element, often combined with a largely descriptive, rather than a truly evaluative, view of the author's works. Except for the studies of major writers, most essays do not exceed 500 words; consequently the space for extended critical consideration is limited. As for the bibliographies, secondary sources are indeed selective, and reliance upon predecessor dictionaries is evident in the oft-repeated "for articles in reference works, see Notable American Women, 1607-1930."

Yet, for some little-known writers, the guide makes an important first attempt at bibliographical compilation. The practice of identifying each writer by her surname initial throughout the critical essay results in a series of studies about A., followed by another series concerning B., and so on, through the E. entries. Probably adopted to conserve precious space, the use of the initial alone seems to depersonalize the subject and subtly weakens each presentation.

Few reference tools are without flaw, and *American Women Writers*, as represented by volume 1 in attractive, sturdy octavo, is a significant undertaking. Used with other complementary resources, it will serve well, not only students of literature, but also those interested in women's studies and in American studies as well. Through the inclusion of writers in many fields, the guide may reach general readers, even casual browsers, in the reference room. Since the concluding paragraph of the publisher's foreword acknowledges the need for a supplement to compensate for the inevitable omissions resulting from lack of space, a supplementary volume and, later, a revised edition seem probable. Though not inexpensive, *American Women Writers* is an important purchase for academic and large public libraries.—*Martha Chambers, State University of New York, College at Oneonta.*

**Recent Publications**


If author Brenni had any inclinations toward heavily expounding on the theories of, and problems inherent in, bibliographic control, as the title may mislead one into expecting, he has mercifully spared his
readers. Instead, he offers an intelligent survey appraising specific publication sources for American belles lettres, i.e., imaginative literature—poetry, stories, novels, and drama—not critical studies.

Opening with an extensive bibliographic essay, Brenni traces, in three chapters, the development of bibliographic control in the United States. A fourth chapter summarizes the preceding ones and lists recommendations for future bibliographers. Major and many minor and obscure tools of bibliographic control—principally bibliographies, bibliographic essays, and anthologies (those containing otherwise unavailable bibliographic data) but also several annuals and dissertations—are skillfully investigated.

Tools considered may be comprehensive or may be devoted to specific genres and eras of American literature or to geographic areas, individuals, or specific subjects. Complete bibliographic data for each title appear in footnotes. Unfortunately, Brenni's discussion, complemented by interesting tidbits, is intermittently palled by pedestrian writing.

Three lengthy appendixes, paralleling the major sections of the essay, close the volume. Each is a bibliography of works, many of which are not mentioned in the essay, listed topically under headings such as "Comprehensive National Bibliography," "Regional Literary Collections," and "Author Bibliographies." Appendixes are not covered by the otherwise adequate index.

Certain titles are inexplicably omitted, the volume's only major flaw. The recent and excellent Index of American Periodical Verse is included but two classics, Granger's Index to Poetry and Index to Little Magazines, are missing. Similarly, non-print sources, such as Hastings' Spoken Poetry on Records and Tapes and the Library of Congress' Literary Recordings, are ignored.

Despite the work's limitations, enough nuggets are apparent to ensure its value to reference collections or to library science and literature students and professors. One hopes Brenni will write a companion volume, attending to those categories purposely excluded from this one, specifically ethnic and "popular culture" literatures, and investigating the control of the belles lettres
of American gays/lesbians and women.—Jim Elledge, Columbus-Cuneo-Cabrini Medical Center, Chicago, Illinois.


A collection of essays, this work attempts to examine many different aspects of management of libraries. Since most of the authors are British, the work has a decidedly British orientation. This presents some different approaches to viewing management of libraries but does not hinder the book from being interesting and provocative.

The first article, by Louis Kaplan, looks at professionalism in libraries. Professionalism, a major concern of librarians worldwide, is seen by the author to be achieved only when the field has "expanded [its] humanistic and scientific knowledge." A profession operating in a bureaucracy, as does the field of librarianship, can achieve professional authority only through the attainment of professional status. Kaplan presents some interesting arguments to support this thesis. The article should prove to be the basis of lively discussion in libraries throughout the world.

Harrison Bryan examines various methods of organizing staff in large academic libraries. Drawing upon experiences in the United States, Britain, and Australia, he examines the advantages and disadvantages of organizing by function, subject, and committee. He also studies the impact of these organizational structures on job satisfaction, communication, and new forms of technology. His conclusion is that, no matter how the library's organization finally evolves, librarians will not fail to study how the organizational structure ultimately has an impact upon the service given to the library's patrons.

Management by objective (MBO) is the subject of K. H. Jones' study. Jones presents a history of MBO and the terminology associated with this school of management. The essay attempts to apply these concepts to libraries. Unfortunately, the presentation at times is unclear and difficult to follow. This article is the weakest in the collection.

Stephen Roberts examines the importance of communication to good management. He presents various theories of communications and how communication flows can influence the management of both human and materials resources. He concludes that communication is important to management, so that the manager can "apply the right degree of regulation in accordance with objectives and tasks." Achieving this goal is the difference between job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of the staff. The article will engender much discussion among staff in libraries everywhere.

Libraries in the Third World are the focus of the essay by Manil Silva. Silva states that, to manage these libraries, one must be able to deal with shortages of materials, equipment, and supplies as well as staff untrained to deal with these situations. The article points out that library schools in more highly developed countries should be aware of these differences when training students from the underdeveloped countries.

Liz Chapman studies the use of role playing in management. Recounting the experience of a workshop at Brunel University, Chapman demonstrates how role playing can enlighten staff members to the problems faced by colleagues. The article is an excellent presentation and can be easily applied in a variety of library settings.

Theorizing that librarians' view of the world influences how they view their roles as librarians, Adrian Mole states that these views also influence library management. Mole outlines four different views (conservative, technocratic, liberal, and radical) and examines their impact on scientific management, participatory management, and professionalism. This article, too, should evoke lively discussion throughout the profession.—Mary Scherger Bonhomme, Stellite Division, Cabot Corporation, Kokomo, Indiana.

able from: Ktav Publishing House, Inc.,
75 Varick St. [431 Canal St.], New York,
NY 10013.)
Since its inception in 1947, the American
Jewish Archives (AJA) at Hebrew
College in Cincinnati has become the focal
point for documenting the history of Ameri-
can Jews.

Jacob R. Marcus, the archives' first direc-
tor, writes in the foreword to the Guide that
the volume is to enable researchers to gain
an idea of the scope and variety of material
in the American Jewish Archives and is in-
tended especially for those who do not have
ready access to the AJA's five-volume Man-
uscript Catalog.

The Guide is divided into four sections:
manuscript collections; microfilms from
other repositories; theses, dissertations, and
essays; and, special files. Manuscript collec-
tions comprise the largest part. Among the
unusual holdings: a petition to appoint a
Jewish chaplain in the Union Army; a
genealogical record from Utah that traces a
family's ancestry "theoretically" to King
David; the papers of Sophie Tucker (no
doubt stored in asbestos-lined boxes); and,
of course, the records of now-forgotten early
immigrants (peddlers, tailors, Indian traders)
as well as prominent professionals and
merchant princes.

Researchers will value the section de-
voted to local records. Here are listed the
constitutions, minutes, and membership and
burial records from scattered congregations
in the Caribbean beginning in the early
1600s and the first congregation in New
Amsterdam (New York City) founded by
those fleeing the Inquisition in Brazil. One
is struck by the number of far-flung
synagogues established in the early United
States: Savannah, Georgia (1790); Charles-
ton, South Carolina (1800); New Orleans,
Louisiana (1829).

One-half of the Guide consists of seven
appendixes and an index; however, not all
the names in the appendixes appear in the
index. The failure to identify the people
listed in the biographies and correspon-
dence files limits their value as finding aids.
This becomes apparent when we are con-
fronted by such common Jewish names as
Charles Goldberg, Henry Mayer, Samuel
Rosenblum, Jacob Cohen. The names may
be familiar to specialists in American Jewish
history, but how is an undergraduate to
know them?

A list of abbreviations would have avoided
the necessity of spelling out with regular
monotony such long names as Hebrew
Union College-Jewish Institute of Reli-
gion. The same applies to the names of the
various states of the union.

The researcher is left wondering why the
Bernard M. Baruch file is only 0.3 inches
thin or why Sol Bloom, who served
twenty-six years in the U.S. Congress, has
only eight thin folders. In the published
Manuscript Catalog an inserted reference
informs the reader that the major Baruch
collection is at City College Library, New
York City (Bloom's is at the New York Pub-
lic Library). Such notes at critical places
would have answered questions arising in
the investigator's mind.

Most of the typographical errors occur in
German names (e.g., ei and ie). This is re-
grettable, since so many Jewish names are
of German origin.

Confronted by more than six million
pieces in the AJA, the editors have given us
a limited sampling, and while they do not
explain the basis for selecting material to be
included, it appears that the major collec-
tions are present and edited into succinct
entries. For libraries not possessing the
Manuscript Catalog, the Guide serves only
to stimulate the researcher's interest to the
entire collection.—Kurt S. Maier, Washing-
ton, D.C.

Stineman, Esther. Women's Studies: A Rec-
ommended Core Bibliography. With the
assistance of Catherine Loeb. Littleton,
$27.50 U.S. and Canada; $33 elsewhere.

Williamson, Jane. New Feminist Scholar-
ship: A Guide to Bibliographies. Old
Westbury, N.Y.: The Feminist Press,
1979. 139p. $15. LC 79-11889. ISBN
0-912670-54-1.

Women's Studies is a massive undertaking
that lists over 1,700 items to support wom-
men's studies programs. The annotations,
given for all items except periodical articles
or special issues, are critical as well as de-
scriptive and often cite other items. The in-
clusion of price, ISBN, and/or LC card
number renders this bibliography invaluable.
for those in acquisitions or collection development. Out-of-print items are included also.

Arrangement is by twenty-six broad categories such as "Autobiography, Biography, Diaries, Memoirs, Letters"; "Medicine, Health, Sexuality, Biology"; and "Women's Movement and Feminist Theory." Each section is alphabetic by author. There are author and title indexes that include items cited within the annotations; and the subject index has excellent see and see also references.

The introduction mentions nontraditional materials, but the listings are limited to the traditional print medium. The usefulness of Women's Studies would have been expanded significantly if other media were included. While no bibliography can be all-inclusive, there are some omissions that one wonders about. Three journals and three novels by May Sarton are listed, but neither her Collected Poems (1930-1973) (Norton, 1974) nor Selected Poems of May Sarton (Norton, 1978) is listed. Other missing citations are Ira B. Bryant, Barbara Charlene Jordan: From the Ghetto to the Capitol (D. Armstrong, 1977); Marie Bowes, Female Artists, Past and Present (Women's History Research Center, 1972); and all the Heritage microfilm collections, to mention only a few. Women's Studies is a most welcome tool, and the omissions do not detract greatly from its usefulness.

Williamson's New Feminist Scholarship presents almost 400 entries for English-language bibliographies, both separately published works and articles, and includes out-of-print items. Excluded are brief reading lists, nonsexist books for children and young adults, literary bibliographies of individual women writers, and bibliographies that are parts of monographs or anthologies.

Arrangement is by broad subjects: criminal justice, life cycles, sex roles and sex differences, women's movement. Introductory paragraphs outline the scope of each section, and there are cross-references to related sections. However, if one has gone first to the "Women and Development" section, one finds no reference to "see also Economics," whereas under "Economics" is a reference to "see also Women and Development." Within each of the thirty categories entries are alphabetized by author. Slightly more than half of the citations are descriptively annotated.

There are author and title indexes, and a list of publishers' addresses is given.

Williamson might have included several works that Stineman lists: Carol Hollenhead, Past Sixty: The Older Woman in Print and Film (Institute of Gerontology, University of Michigan-Wayne State University, 1977); Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University, Bombay. Research Unit on Women's Studies, A Select Bibliography on Women in India (Allied Publishers; dist. by South Asia Books, 1976); and Joann Skowronski, Women in American Music: A Bibliography.

New Feminist Scholarship offers the researcher or instructor in women's studies a fairly comprehensive accounting of the standard bibliographies. Librarians involved in collection development or acquisitions would have been better served with the addition of prices and bibliographic identification by ISBN and/or LC card number.

Together these two bibliographies provide excellent guidance for research and collection development in the increasingly popular area of women's studies.—Jeanette Mosey, OCLC Western, San Francisco, California.


In an age when most librarians must cope with budgets shrinking from the pressures of inflation and/or legislative shortsightedness, it is refreshing to read of problems caused by an unsatiated appetite for materials on a specific subject. Such was the general tenor of the American Studies Library Conference held at the U.S. Embassy in London on February 16-17, 1978.

At the conclusion of the conference participants moved to organize an American Studies Library Group in order to aid in the solution of problems connected with acquiring American studies materials from across the Atlantic. The motion was the culmina-
tion of two days of discussion that included general papers by Dennis Welland of the Department of American Studies at the University of Manchester, Alison Cowden of the Institute of United States Studies Library, D. T. Richnell and Alex Allardyce of the British Library Reference Division, and John G. Lorenz of the U.S.-based Association of Research Libraries. This was followed by a series of speakers who identified by type of library the specific obstacles encountered in the acquisition of American studies materials. I. W. Wallace highlighted problems at the John Rylands University Library of Manchester, David Horn addressed difficulties in special collections at the University of Exeter Library, Christopher Brookeman explored the experiences of the American Studies Resources Centre at Polytechnic of Central London, Alice Prochaska noted the policies at the Public Record Office, and Brian Baumfield discussed difficulties at the Birmingham City Libraries. The volume provides interesting reading.—Wayne A. Wiegand, University of Kentucky, Lexington.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS


Australian Dictionary of Biography. V.7: 1891-1939. Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne Univ. Pr., 1979. 647p. $37.50. (Dist. by ISBS, Inc., P.O. Box 555, Forest Grove, OR 97116.) First volume covering A-Chu for the period 1891-1939. Other volumes are in preparation. V.1 and 2 cover the period 1788-1850 and V.3, 4, 5, and 6 cover A-Z for the period 1851-1890.


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As relative to Colorado, the West, and the nation. Pamphlets: An Index to the Microfilm Collection. Boulder, Colo.: Western Historical Collections, 1978-52571.


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