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Editorial

Participative Management

Even Nicholas II, the last czar of Russia, believed in or at least practiced participative management. The validity of this statement can be defended because history reveals that Nicholas II allowed others to be involved in governance.

Academic librarians have engaged in a dialogue on the merits of participative management for twenty years. In a recent column, Herb White urges us to look beyond the "shrill tones" of those who advocate participative management as an obvious good thing. He voices a natural skepticism about "management truths that are considered too obvious to require proof" ['Participative Management Is the Answer, But What Was the Question?" Library Journal 110:62 (Aug., 1985)].

Critics of participative management have had a field day. They have blunted its progress and clouded its meaning. As a result it means everything and nothing. This was accomplished with remarkable ease. The battle was over before it even began when advocates of participative management allowed others to determine (a) its meaning—the weapons of war, (b) its context—the place of battle, and (c) its value—the rules of war.

Every statement of support for participative management can be thwarted by a clever gambit. For example, participative management has been challenged as suspect because:

• Leaders will not be able to lead.
• Groups are not innovative.
• Committees are conservative.
• It won't work in every situation.
• Some people don't want it.
• Only individuals can accept responsibility.

Obviously, something is wrong. Each statement is just as ludicrous as my loose definition that pulled in poor little Nicky.

First is the problem of definition. The issue is not participation per se but (1) the degree of participation, (2) the type of participation, and (3) the result of the participation.

Donald Nightingale lists eight degrees of participation from "employees need not be informed" to "employees have the final say in decision making" ['Participation in Decision-Making: An Examination of Style and Structure and Their Effect on Member Outcomes," Human Relations 34:1119–33 (Dec. 1981)].

In libraries, the lines of authority and responsibility create a structure that governs (1) who sets the goals, (2) how resources are allocated, (3) who makes decisions about what, (4) who evaluates, (5) who is to do what, and (6) what means are to be used. The type of participation relates to the involvement of staff in each of the six governance areas at the unit, department, division, and librarywide levels.

If the participation is meaningful to the employees, if the library benefits its users, and if the library maintains or enhances its legitimacy, then the result of the participation can be deemed successful. The advocates of participative management need to articulate clearly and concisely what they mean, what context they are using, and what the values of participation are to the library, the host institution, and society.
It is my personal opinion that participative management is a limiting concept and that work democracy is a stronger vehicle for advancing the interests of library employees. An emphasis on work democracy would tie in directly to the foundations upon which this nation was founded and would tend to be consistent with them. By emphasizing this approach it might be possible to establish a set of employee rights and to shift the burden of proof onto those who want to restrict the "rights" of employees. Indeed, several European nations have established laws that give formal decision-making rights to employees.

Whether through formal rights, participative management, or a continuance of other modes of governance, each institution should strive to achieve a balance of interests and to perform effectively. However, there is little evidence that all forms of governance show an equal regard for the protection of human rights, respect for the individual or group, and effective use of the employee’s talents.

Many academic librarians would cite the decision-making process within the institutions of higher education as models of effective governance. Others would not. "In its formal arrangements, however, the contemporary American academic institution is basically authoritarian, whatever the varying practices—practices which often include the informal granting of rights and authority as a result of mutual agreement, of the institution’s functional needs or, in some cases, of professors’ perceived status" [William Spinrad, "Pathway to Shared Authority: Collective Bargaining and Academic Governance," *Academe* 70:29 (May-June 1984)].

Certainly we can all agree that the governance issue is a constant factor in the management of our libraries. Some of you may also agree that equity, fairness, and democracy have a role in the workplace and should not be merely words in a grade-school reader.

CHARLES MARTELL

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**IN FORTHCOMING ISSUES OF COLLEGE & RESEARCH LIBRARIES**

*Ashurbanipal’s Enduring Archetype: Thoughts on the Library’s Role in the Future*  
by Peter Briscoe, Alice Bodtke-Roberts, Nancy Douglas, and others

*Library Anxiety*  
by Constance A. Mellon

*Rx for Library Management*  
By Alvin C. Cage

*Performance Appraisal*  
by Charles A. Schwartz

*The University Library in the Twenty-first Century*  
by Clyde Hendrick

"'T' Is for Temporary"  
by Donna Zufan Pontau and M. Cecilia Rothschild

*A New Perspective on Faculty Status*  
By Fred E. Hill and Robert Hauptman
Involvement in Curriculum Change

Catherine E. Pasterczyk

Many sources of information exist for selectors and bibliographers in academic libraries to learn about curriculum change. A survey of the heads of collection development in 104 ARL libraries was conducted to determine the usefulness of these sources and the extent of library involvement in planning for curriculum change. Some factors having an influence on this involvement, such as library representation on curriculum committees and informal contacts with faculty, are examined in detail. The role of the General Library in the establishment of new courses and programs at the University of New Mexico is discussed, as are methods used at other universities.

The mission of a university library to support the teaching, research, and service goals of its parent institution is largely fulfilled through the selection of appropriate library materials. A collection development policy statement (where one exists) serves as an exceedingly useful guide to what the collections are and what they should be. This document, partly because of its mode of production, is always somewhat out-of-date. Selectors must have a means of keeping up with changes in the university that should be reflected in the collections. This study of Association for Research Libraries (ARL) members represents a beginning effort to quantify the extent and nature of ARL selector involvement in planning for curriculum change and to identify methods effective in this process.

The library's responsibility to support the university's teaching functions through appropriate selection of materials is an old and enduring idea. The "Standards for University Libraries" document clearly states, "A university library's collections shall be of sufficient size and scope to support the university's total instructional needs and to facilitate the university's research programs." Quantitative studies to determine if this is actually occurring are rare.

Sources of information mentioned in the literature as being useful for librarians learning about the curriculum include the course catalog, faculty contacts, course syllabi, and the card catalog. The relative usefulness of these and other methods and the extent to which they are used are not discussed. Many authors emphasize informal means for learning of such change. David Kaser mentions that "significant inputs to the library plan are gleaned, almost through an underground intelligence network, from such circumstantial sources as hearsay, as things said rather than unsaid." Edward Holley...
freely acknowledges, "despite his protestations that the librarian should be a valued member of every curriculum committee and informed of every move into a new research area . . . he will probably be one of the last to learn of these new developments unless he has informal contacts among the faculty."12 Numerous authors emphasize the need for learning of proposed changes and then planning support for the projected curriculum.13,14,15,16,17

This study seeks to address the following questions: (1) What sources of information are available to selectors/bibliographers for learning of existing and proposed curriculum? (2) How useful is each of these sources? (3) To what extent are librarians learning of proposed curriculum changes before they are implemented? (4) What are the characteristics of techniques used by librarians who always have prior knowledge of proposed curriculum change?

**METHODOLOGY**

A survey was mailed to the heads of collection development in ARL's 104 member libraries in the United States and Canada. The results reported here (see appendix A) are based on a 77 percent response rate. The data were analyzed using SPSS-X Release 2.0 as implemented on an IBM 3081D. Frequencies and cross-tabulations including chi-square were run on certain variables. In cases where there was a high number of responses in an unanticipated category, such as "academic status" rather than a clear-cut "yes" or "no" for faculty status, another category was formed so as not to create an unintentional bias in the interpretation of the results. Data analyses were performed by both using and not using the other categories. Even though the data were analyzed quantitatively, they should probably be examined qualitatively: the sample size was small, and there was a possibility for varying interpretations of the questions.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Despite the fact that liaison with academic departments is widely viewed as a top priority in collection development activities18 and that a myriad of methods for learning of curriculum changes are poten-

tially available,19,20 60.5 percent of the respondents indicated that selectors/bibliographers "rarely" or "sometimes" have knowledge of proposed course changes in their areas of responsibility before they are implemented. Only 7.9 percent "always" had that knowledge, and 31.6 percent "often" did. This implies that, despite the clear and budgetarily significant link between curriculum and library materials acquisitions, few libraries are involved to any significant degree in curriculum planning.

One potential method for learning of curriculum change is through the faculty committee responsible for reviewing it. Approximately one-third (34.6 percent) of the respondents indicated that the library had a representative on the committee or otherwise knew what transpired at meetings by having an observer there or by receiving the minutes or the agenda. One-third (34.6 percent) of respondents never had a representative on the committee; another third (31.9 percent) fell somewhere in between.

A summary of the other methods mentioned by respondents for learning of change is presented (tables 1 and 2). Not all the methods may be applicable to a particular situation, but it must be noted that the methods considered most useful are ones where direct communication between librarians and departmental faculty members occurs.

A positive, significant correlation was found between having an awareness of what transpires during curricula committee meetings and (1) having prior knowledge of curriculum change and (2) selectors being allowed an opportunity to comment on the change (see table 3). The curriculum committee or its equivalent was mentioned by a number of respondents as an appropriate, effective channel of communication. Seeking active involvement with this committee would be beneficial to many libraries.

The argument that faculty status in and of itself will improve selector awareness of curriculum change does not appear to be valid: 74.3 percent of respondents saw no change in selector awareness due to librarians having obtained faculty status. Only 20.0 percent felt that it contributed to
TABLE 1
USEFULNESS OF SOURCES USED BY SELECTORS/BIBLIOGRAPHERS FOR LEARNING ABOUT COURSES/PROGRAMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of information</th>
<th>Usefulness*</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informal contacts with individual faculty†</td>
<td>5.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Meetings with department liaisons</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memberships on faculty curriculum committeest†</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course catalogs</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance at departmental faculty meetings</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserve booklists</td>
<td>3.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Department-produced lists of classes</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course schedules</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance at general faculty meetings</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus/faculty newspaper</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus/student newspaper</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookstore textbook lists</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Departmental bulletin boards</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*6 = most; 1 = least
†Signifies responses not specifically included on questionnaire but mentioned by N > 2 respondents

Note: Other mentioned sources include membership on senate committees, lists of approved new courses, and employment interviews.

TABLE 2
USEFULNESS OF SOURCES USED BY SELECTORS/BIBLIOGRAPHERS FOR LEARNING ABOUT CHANGES IN COURSES/PROGRAMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of information</th>
<th>Usefulness*</th>
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<tr>
<td>Informal contacts with individual faculty†</td>
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<tr>
<td>Memberships on faculty curriculum committeest†</td>
<td>5.7</td>
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<td>Meetings with department liaisons</td>
<td>5.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attendance at departmental faculty meetings</td>
<td>4.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lists of proposed course changes routed specifically to library</td>
<td>4.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Course catalogs</td>
<td>3.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attendance at general faculty meetings</td>
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<td>Reserve booklists</td>
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<td>Course schedules</td>
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<td>Department-produced lists of classes</td>
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<td>Campus/faculty newspaper</td>
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<td>Campus/student newspaper</td>
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<td>Departmental bulletin boards</td>
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<td>Bookstore textbook lists</td>
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*6 = most; 1 = least
†Signifies responses not specifically included on questionnaire but mentioned by N > 2 respondents

Note: Other sources mentioned include membership on senate committees, selector survey used for budget allocation, and information about new faculty appointments.

greater awareness, and 2.9 percent said it contributed to less awareness. One respondent remarked, "Faculty status does not assure bibliographer acceptance." In fact, no significant correlation was found between faculty status and whether (1) librarians are aware of curriculum change prior to the fact, (2) librarians have the opportunity to comment officially on how proposed curriculum changes will affect materials selected, or (3) libraries have an up-to-date collection development policy (see table 3). Apparently the methods for improving communication are more subtle than simply possessing faculty status.

One-half (49.3 percent) of the respondents indicated that selectors are not allowed to comment on how proposed course/program changes will affect materials selected. For the remaining half (50.7 percent), the opportunity to comment might occur only occasionally and applied only to program changes. Commentary was made through somewhat informal means or through various Faculty Senate committees. There is almost unanimous
TABLE 3
CHI-SQUARE TEST: INDEPENDENCE OF SOME FACTORS POTENTIALLY ASSOCIATED WITH SELECTOR/BIBLIOGRAPHER AWARENESS OF CURRICULUM CHANGE

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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α &lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>α &lt; .050</td>
<td>NS</td>
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<tr>
<td>Update</td>
<td></td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rep.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>α &lt; .100</td>
<td>α &lt; .050</td>
<td>α &lt; .100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fac. Stat.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>α &lt; .005</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Current = library has a current (revised within last five years) collection development policy.
Update = collection development policy is updated on a regular basis (at least every five years).
Rep. = library has representation on the university curriculum committee, i.e., committee charged with discussing curriculum concerns such as degree requirements, course changes, etc.
Fac. stat. = librarians have faculty status.
Prior = selector/bibliographers have knowledge of proposed course changes in their area(s) of responsibility before they are implemented.
Comment = selectors are given an opportunity to officially comment on how proposed course/program changes will affect materials selected.

Figures given show the significance level at which the null hypothesis of independence can be rejected or, in other words, the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis of independence when the null hypothesis is true (Type I error). Statisticians often use α < .05 as a cutoff point at which the alternative hypotheses of dependence can safely (i.e., with a probability α < .05% that a Type I error will occur) be accepted. Values α > .05 are generally considered nonsignificant. The table shows values α > .100 as being nonsignificant (NS).

Agreement that both librarians and the university would benefit from librarians having this opportunity to comment, at least on major changes. There was a positive relationship between librarians having prior awareness of curriculum change and their being allowed to comment officially upon it. This may imply that once an official avenue for comment is put into effect it is easier for selectors to learn of changes, since automatic notification occurs, or that once selectors express an interest in curriculum change, they are more likely to be allowed to comment.

ONE SOLUTION

The procedure developed at the University of New Mexico (UNM) General Library for selector involvement in planning for curriculum change results from the belief that a combination of formal and informal communications between teaching faculty and library faculty is optimal.

Library faculty are voting members of the three standing committees of the Faculty Senate that are concerned with curriculum changes, the Curricula Committee, the Senate Graduate Committee, and the Undergraduate Committee. Additionally, the assistant dean for Collection Development is an ex officio member of the Curricula Committee.

New course requests and major or minor curriculum change requests are first sent to the dean of Library Services for assessment of library impact. These requests are referred to the appropriate selector for comment, which provides selectors with an official notification that a new course is being proposed and the requesting department with an evaluation of anticipated library support. Often, the earlier, informal dialogue between librarians and teaching faculty is the first way librarians learn of new course proposals, and it is not unusual for consultation to take place during the selectors’ evaluation. The new course requests are subsequently forwarded to the Curricula Committee, the college or school dean, and the Office of Graduate Studies. Faculty Senate minutes notify the selector of the requests’ final disposition. It is possible, however, for a course to be offered as a special topic for several years without going through this process. Still, many respondents to the survey mentioned that they would like such a system; only six indicated that they have a comparable system in place.

The desirability of keeping the Library
informed as plans are made for new programs was discussed by the Library Faculty Committee as early as the 1930s.\textsuperscript{22} The present communications system was achieved over a period of eight years and is based on a "concept of quality" for library service established partly through good selector/departmental liaison communications that helped build credibility and partly from the expectation of the library's high-quality response (within financial constraints) to the university's needs. The fact that university and state policies mandate an examination of the budgetary implications of a new course legitimized the impact statements prepared by library faculty. It was also argued that librarians, because they are faculty, should actively participate in planning the curriculum change rather than merely reacting to it.\textsuperscript{23}

Some survey respondents commented that individual course changes should not affect library materials selection: a well-developed collection development policy would take care of such things, and library comment would only be valuable for major, i.e., program or degree changes. First, the achievement of library integration into the curriculum planning process at UNM was, of necessity, a gradual one. Library impact statements were first required for courses and then for programs and degrees. Second, the UNM General Library does not have a complete, up-to-date collection development policy and every little bit of information helps. Kaser noted "All librarians . . . serve as unique antennae, through which units of information can be received, some of great importance, some of small importance, but all of some importance. A well-run library will assure that all such information is fed, on a structured basis, into a central intelligence system where it can be noted, winnowed, evaluated against other input, and acted upon as appropriate on a continuing basis."\textsuperscript{24}

**SOLUTIONS AT OTHER LIBRARIES**

These solutions are not unique to UNM: they are also used by the five other libraries where librarians "always" have knowledge of proposed course changes. Many of these libraries are provided a space on university curriculum forms for selector comment on both graduate and undergraduate, new, modified, or deleted courses and programs. These forms sometimes include a bibliography of materials deemed important by the department. Course requests can be held up in committee for want of a library statement. Extensive resource evaluations are conducted by some selectors in the case of proposed degree programs. Several librarians mentioned that having the head of Collection Development or some other selector sit on the curriculum committee was very valuable. Where this is not feasible, receiving the minutes or agenda of the meetings is sometimes arranged. Membership on other senate committees is useful for some libraries. Besides being effective for those libraries that use them, the above solutions were frequently mentioned by other librarians as being desirable.

**CONCLUSIONS**

The problem of facilitating exchange between teaching faculty and librarians, particularly regarding curriculum change, is an old one, and the fundamental solution, informal face-to-face communication, is equally old. The present study confirms the benefits of this solution and shows that it is not used to its fullest potential. Selectors, the librarians with the most bibliographic knowledge of particular subject areas and influence on how collections are built, are rarely consulted automatically when curriculum changes are proposed.

A great deal has been written in the last few years about faculty status for librarians. Its attainment is viewed as a victory by librarians and with confusion by some teaching faculty. Faculty status by itself does not necessarily increase the efficacy of some collection development activities; faculty status does not affect how selectors maintain an awareness of what is happening within the university milieu. Rather, it is largely personal contacts with teaching faculty (not just departmental chairs or liaisons), graduate students, and departmental secretaries that is believed to be at the heart of effective communication. These informal contacts can provide the
foundation for the development of formal channels of communication. Selectors and bibliographers must therefore be given the opportunity to interact on an informal basis with faculty. They must be permitted to attend—at no charge and during work hours—classes, seminars, workshops, and field trips in the teaching departments. Attending faculty committee meetings should become a part of the selectors’ normal workload. They should also be able to do online computer searches and library instruction in their areas of subject responsibility. Professional leave for attending subject-oriented professional meetings of groups such as Modern Language Association, Geological Society of America, and American Chemical Society—not just ALA and SLA—should be given freely. Educating the faculty about the library can be accomplished partly by hiring selectors with a knowledge of, or a genuine interest in, their selection areas. Librarians should be regarded as equals or partners in the overall educational process. With informal channels of communication firmly in place, the library, down to the selector level, can be formally and rightfully involved in planning for curriculum change.

REFERENCES

APPENDIX A: SURVEY ON SOURCES OF INFORMATION FOR BIBLIOGRAPHER/SELECTOR AWARENESS OF CURRICULUM CHANGE

Question 1: Does your library have a current (revised within the last five years) collection development policy?
- Yes (38.0%) 30
- No (27.8%) 22
- Yes, for some parts of the collection (34.2%) 27
If yes, is it updated on a regular basis (at least every five years)?
- Yes (44.3%) 27
- No (21.3%) 13
- Yes, for some parts of the collection (34.4%) 21

Question 2: Does the library have representation on the university curriculum committee, i.e., committee charged with discussing curriculum concerns such as degree requirements, course changes, etc.?
- Yes, always (29.5%) 23
- Occasionally (16.7%) 13
- Seldom (7.7%) 6
- Never (34.6%) 27
- Not applicable. Please explain: [9 (11.5%)]

Question 3: Do librarians at your institution have faculty status?
- Yes (49.4%) 39
- Academic Status (7.6%) 6
- No (43.0%) 34
If yes, do you feel that there has been a change in bibliographer/selector awareness of course changes (additions/deletions/modifications) due to obtaining faculty status?
- Yes, greater awareness (20.6%) 7
- Yes, less awareness (2.9%) 1
- No change due to faculty status (76.5%) 26

Question 4: Do bibliographers/selectors have knowledge of proposed course changes in their area(s) of responsibility before they are implemented?
- Yes, always (7.9%) 6
- Yes, often (31.6%) 24
- Sometimes (48.7%) 37
- Rarely (11.8%) 9
- Never (0.0%) 0

Question 5: Are selectors at your institution allowed an opportunity to officially comment on how proposed course/program changes will affect materials selected?
- Yes (44.0%) 33
- No (49.3%) 37
- Seldom (6.7%) 5
If yes, what form does this take?
If no, do you think they would benefit from this opportunity?
23 (52.3%) Yes
1 (2.2%) No
19 (43.2%) Only for major program changes
1 (2.2%) Other. Please explain:

Also, if no, do you think the university would benefit from the librarians having this opportunity?
24 (60.0%) Yes
1 (2.5%) No
14 (35.0%) Only for major program changes
1 (2.5%) Other. Please explain:

Question 6: Potentially how useful to the bibliographers/selectors are each of the following methods for learning about courses/programs offered at your university?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Most</th>
<th>Least</th>
<th>Not applicable/ Not available</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Course catalogs</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course schedules</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td>Department-produced lists of classes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookstore textbook lists</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserve booklists</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Departmental bulletin boards</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus/student newspaper</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus/faculty newspaper</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting with department liaison</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance at general faculty meetings</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance at departmental faculty meetings</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question 7: What methods not currently available to your selectors would you like to see available for their use?

Question 8: Potentially how useful to the bibliographers/selectors are each of the following methods for learning about changes (additions/deletions/modifications) in courses/programs offered at your university?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
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<th>Least</th>
<th>Not applicable/ Not available</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Course catalogs</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course schedules</td>
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<tr>
<td>Department-produced lists of classes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookstore textbook lists</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserve booklists</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Departmental bulletin boards</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus/student newspaper</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Involvement in Curriculum Change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Most</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>Not available</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Campus/faculty newspaper</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting with department liaison</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance at general faculty meetings</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attendance at departmental faculty meetings</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lists of proposed course changes routed specifically to library</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Other

Question 9: What methods not currently available to your selectors would you like to see available for their use in learning about changes?

Question 10: Your title: ________________________________

Optional: To update my name/address file, could you also give the following.

Your name: ________________________________
Address: ________________________________

Feel free to comment on the topic of this questionnaire in the space below.

Please mail survey by November 15, 1984 to:
Catherine E. Pasterczyk
Science Reference/Collection Development Librarian
Zimmerman Library
The University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, NM 87131 USA

Thank you very much!
Knowledge Bases and Library Education

Ronald R. Powell and Sheila D. Creth

A continuing topic of debate among research library administrators and library educators is whether graduate library education adequately prepares librarians for the research library environment. Unfortunately, there has been little research to identify specific knowledge needs of academic research librarians or how these needs change over the librarian's career. There also has been insufficient attention paid to what training library administrators must provide to supplement the graduate program as the librarian moves through a career that will span many years and countless changes. Therefore, randomly sampled ARL librarians were asked to rate fifty-six knowledge bases according to how important they were and the degree to which they possessed each knowledge.

While there is no shortage of views and opinions in the profession regarding what is lacking in the educational preparation of librarians for research libraries, there is little research on which to base judgments about what knowledge and skills are required. Nor has adequate research been conducted to assess the specific knowledge and skills needed by librarians as they progress through their careers assuming new and different responsibilities.

What are the "baseline" skills and knowledge that each and every academic research librarian will be required to exercise throughout a twenty- or thirty-year career? To what extent will these requirements change depending on the positions that the librarian holds and in what organizational unit or division he or she functions?

Are the complaints about the educational preparation for research librarians focusing on the recent graduates, or are frustrated administrators also including librarians who may be five, ten, or even twenty years away from formal classroom instruction? Is there agreement on whether the graduate library science program should be theoretical or practical in its focus?

There is no question that the educational preparation process is and should be a critical concern for library administrators, but so should the need to provide ongoing education and training because the environment within which librarians perform will change at an accelerated rate in the next decade. Millicent Abell notes that to "stay in the same place is to lose ground in a changing world." This suggests that library educators and administrators should work together to reassess the content of library education and to strengthen library staff development programs in order to help librarians acquire new knowledge and skills throughout their careers.

What knowledge and skills have been identified as "baseline"? Abell indicates that research librarians urgently need skills for "intelligently analyzing our envi-
ronment; for conducting research, including the manipulation of numerical data; for interpreting various clientele needs; for applying new technology; and for interacting effectively with other members of the team that provides academic library service." She goes on to say that librarians also need to be able to demonstrate an "appreciation of the sociology, politics and economics of higher education" and that "a librarian's needs for continual updating are intense."2

Toni Carbo Bearman suggests that librarians will need to "harness technology and management tools" and thus be prepared to conduct strategic planning, budget analysis and to learn how to use the various tools effectively and efficiently.3 Bearman also addresses the new needs implied by the changing role of the professional that will require a new look at library education and increased attention to continuing education for practitioners and library educators.

Patricia Battin believes that research libraries need people "who have been trained to question assumptions, collect data, resolve conflicts, make informed judgments, and take decisive actions... We will need people who can speak and write well—and with precision—and who can interact effectively with a broad range of scholarly experts."4

There is little research on the knowledge and skills needed by academic librarians. In 1979 Sheila Creth and Faith Harders surveyed personnel administrators in thirty research libraries to identify requirements for beginning librarians. They concluded that librarians in research libraries will need to strengthen their knowledge of management and automation and their skills in research and writing.5 In 1980 the Association of Research Libraries surveyed library directors to ascertain the educational needs of entry-level librarians.6 The directors were also asked to predict competencies that would be needed in the next five years. The questionnaire provided for three sets of skills in the following categories:

Knowledge/skills considered traditional

General bibliography

General reference materials
Specialized reference materials
Theories of organizing information
Library automation
Collection development theories and practices
Library history
Library issues
People skills/managerial skills
Human relations
Supervisory skills
Managerial skills
Analytical skills
Nontraditional knowledge/skills
Research skills
Foreign language
In-depth knowledge of academic subject
Statistical skills
System analysis
Computer programming
Online retrieval skills

The survey found that traditional knowledge and skills, with the exception of library history and library issues, were either required or highly desirable. The managerial skills were "seen to be either required (human relations and analytical skills) or highly desirable (supervisory and managerial skills). One-third to one-half of the responses indicated that supervisory skills and managerial skills are not needed by entry-level librarians."7 Of the knowledge/skills identified as nontraditional, the directors identified these as "highly desirable, except that an equal number... considered systems analysis and programming skills as specialist skills or not important at the entry level. Statistical skills were seen to be highly desirable by more than half of the respondents as well as not as important at the entry level by one-third of the respondents."7 The survey did not uncover any major shift between desirable or required knowledge/skills for the entry-level librarian and what the directors predicted would be needed after five years.

Because the issue of preparation for research librarians is a critical one, more specific data are required on knowledge and skills needed at particular points in a li-
The basic objective of this study was to gather data that would provide answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent do university librarians consider themselves knowledgeable in relevant areas?
2. To what extent are these areas of knowledge considered important for effective job performance?
3. Where do university librarians tend to acquire their relevant knowledge?
4. Where do university librarians think such knowledge is best acquired?

This paper provides a summary of the analysis to date on the first two questions. In addition to answering these questions, the researchers were interested in exploring the possible relationships between the level of importance for certain areas of knowledge and the university librarians' years of experience and current position.

For purposes of this study, librarians were defined as individuals who were employed in ARL university libraries, who held a master's degree in library science, and who had nine years or less of professional-level experience. Librarians with ten or more years of experience were excluded from the study because of a concern that the education of those with relatively long tenure would differ significantly from the education of newer librarians. Also, the more experienced librarians would probably have more difficulty in recalling information about their M.L.S. education.

The population for the study consisted of 2,460 ARL librarians with nine or less years of professional experience. In order to generate a sample, twenty libraries were systematically selected, using a random start, from a list of all ninety-two ARL academic libraries. The list was stratified by geographical area and rank—ordered by relevant staff size within each stratum. This procedure resulted in a sample of 539 librarians representing 22 percent of the total population.

A mail questionnaire was designed to gather the information needed to answer the research questions. The first section of the questionnaire consisted of twelve questions requesting information about present position, professional and preprofessional work experience, education, age, sex, and the respondents' assessment of their educational activities.

The second part was in a matrix format, and the participants were asked to provide information about fifty-six different knowledge bases drawn from a review of checklists used in related research, including the ARL survey, the survey conducted by Creth and Harders, and the King Research project, and from selected library school course syllabi. It was anticipated that it would not be an easy task for participants to react to fifty-six knowledge bases, but it was concluded that this level of specificity was needed to generate meaningful, useful results. For each knowledge base, the participants were asked to indicate how much of the knowledge they possessed, where they had acquired it, how important they considered it to be for their own effective job performance, and where they thought the knowledge would best be acquired.

Following a pretest, copies of the questionnaire were mailed to the personnel administrators of the twenty sample libraries for distribution to the appropriate librarians. During this process, it was learned that the population consisted of no more than 508 librarians. Three hundred and forty-nine usable questionnaires, representing at least 69 percent of the population, were eventually returned.

FINDINGS

Profile of Respondents

Of the 323 respondents answering the question about current position, 161 (49.8 percent) indicated they held nonadministrative positions, 122 (37.8 percent) were "department heads," and 11 (3.4 percent), assistant department heads. There were 6 assistant directors (1.9 percent) and 1 director (0.3 percent). Twenty-two respondents indicated they held positions

\[ \text{librarian's career according to the type of position. It will then be necessary to assess how best to deliver this education or training throughout the professional's career.} \]
categorized as "other," including library systems analyst and curator of archives. One hundred and five respondents (32.4 percent) indicated they currently work in public services units, 110 (34 percent) in technical services, 6 (1.9 percent) in administrative services, 9 (2.8 percent) in systems, 66 (20.4 percent) in divisional libraries, and 28 (8.6 percent) in "other" units.

Approximately 70 percent of the respondents had preprofessional library experience ranging from 1 to 17 years; and the mean number of years was 4.37; years of professional experience ranged from less than 1 to 9, with a mean of 4.73.

Other than the bachelor's degree and the master's in library science, the subject master's was the only other degree held by a significant percentage (35 percent) of the respondents. Of the subject master's degrees, 53 percent were in the humanities, 43 percent in the social sciences, and 3 percent in the pure sciences.

Sixty-nine percent of the respondents were female, and 31 percent were male; their ages ranged from 23 to 63 with a mean age of 35.5 years.

Respondents were asked to evaluate their formal library education, as well as their postgraduate training and education for professional assignments, using a scale of 1 to 4 where: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = disagree, and 4 = strongly disagree. The four education-related statements and the mean responses were as follows:

1. In general my library science master's program was more theoretical than practical (mean response = 2.15).
2. My formal library education was effective in preparing me for my current position (mean response = 2.41).
3. My on-the-job training and staff development have been effective in preparing me for my current position (mean response = 1.59).
4. My continuing education activities have been effective in preparing me for my new position (mean = 1.89).

Responses to the first question indicate the respondents' tendency to agree that their formal master's program was more theoretical than practical. A comparison of the next three questions suggests that participants considered their on-the-job training to be the most effective, continuing education the next most effective, and formal library education the least effective preparation for their current positions. It should be kept in mind, however, that the respondents were asked to evaluate education and post-M.L.S. training and education in relation to their current positions only, not to initial or previous positions. It is possible that questions about other positions held during the nine-year period under study would have elicited different response patterns.

It was thought that there might be a relationship between perceptions of how theoretical formal library education was and perceptions of how effective it was. This was the case, as the two variables were found to be significantly related at the .05 level \( (X^2 = 17.25, \text{Cramer's V} = .13) \).* As can be seen in table 1, and as the relatively low Cramer's V indicates, this was not a particularly strong relationship.

For example, 8.8 percent of those who "strongly agreed" and 4.5 percent of those who "agreed" that their library education was more theoretical than practical strongly agreed that their education was effective, but 14.1 percent of those who "disagreed" and 6.7 percent of those who "strongly disagreed" that their education was more theoretical also strongly agreed that their education was effective. In other words, respondents tended to

*Chi-square values \( (X^2) \) were calculated to identify statistically significant bivariate relationships; Cramer's V's were determined in order to indicate the strength of the relationships. Chi-square analysis was deemed appropriate because the data represented a mixture of ordinal and categorical scales. Computer statistical packages routinely generate Cramer's V's along with chi-square values. Cramer's V can be interpreted much like a correlation coefficient: it can range from zero to plus one, and the higher the value the higher the degree of association. Cramer's V does not indicate the manner or direction in which the variables are associated, however. In this paper V's are reported for those bivariate relationships considered to be statistically significant as determined by the chi-square analysis.
view their graduate library education as effective independently of whether they perceived it as more or less theoretical.

It was speculated that the respondents’ years of professional experience would be significantly related to how they rated their formal library education in terms of effectiveness in preparing them for their current positions. This expected relationship was not supported by the data, however ($X^2 = 8.08, p = .23, Cramer’s V = .11$).

The last question in the first section of the questionnaire was open-ended and asked for any comments or questions regarding education and training for university librarianship. One hundred and thirty-five participants responded, and some answers were over a page in length. The responses tended to fall into three broad categories: (1) the relative value of theoretical and practical education, (2) evaluations of formal library education, and (3) recommended content areas for university library education.

Respondents obviously had strong feelings as to whether formal library education should be primarily practical or theoretical. Twenty librarians indicated that library education should be more theoretical than practical; only 11 suggested that it should be primarily practical, but 27 stressed the importance of field experience and internships. Eleven individuals stated that students should get library work experience during their educational program, and 6 emphasized the desirability of having preprofessional experience before entering a formal program.

Eighteen participants noted that the best education would balance practice and theory. It is quite possible, however, that others who stressed one method over the other actually favored a mix of theory and practice but not in equal amounts.

Regarding evaluative comments about library education, reactions ranged from full satisfaction with formal education to considering it to be a waste of time. Three people stated that some of their courses had not been rigorous enough; others were of the opinion that the formal educational program could not possibly cover all relevant areas and should only be considered a beginning; 5 said that the two-year program should become the norm.

Several participants stressed the importance of specific content areas. The area mentioned most frequently (by 16 respondents) was management. Knowledge of a subject field was not far behind: 10 emphasized the importance of expertise in a subject discipline, and 11 called for a second master’s degree. Other areas mentioned were computer technology, foreign languages, communication skills, and research methods. If these respondents are representative of research librarians, then there is no unanimity on the specifics of library education—content, approach, length.

### Areas of Knowledge

For each of the fifty-six knowledge bases, the participants were asked to indicate how important each was for effective performance in their current positions and how much of the knowledge they cur-
rently possessed. The importance of each knowledge base was measured on a five-point scale with 1 representing essential; 2, very important; 3, important; 4, of little importance; and 5, of no importance. The amount of each knowledge base possessed by respondents was measured on a four-point scale: 1, extensive; 2, moderate; 3, slight; and 4, none. Table 2 provides a list of all fifty-six knowledge bases.

The first column shows the mean scores for the importance of the knowledge bases; the second gives the ranking for the mean importance scores, ranging from one (most important) to fifty-six (least important). The third column shows the mean scores for the amount of knowledge possessed; the fourth gives the corresponding ranks for the knowledge bases according to the mean scores for the amount of knowledge possessed.

As an examination of the listing in table 2 reveals, relatively traditional knowledge areas tended to be ranked relatively high in importance. The top twenty most important knowledge bases included bibliographic tools, reference sources, the reference interview, selection of materials, cataloging, classification, subject literature, bibliographic instruction, search strategy and online searching. interspersed with these traditional core areas of librarianship are knowledge bases relating to management: communication skills, decision making, planning, personnel management, and staff development. The only knowledge bases in the top twenty that do not fit neatly into either of these two broad categories are library automation and knowledge of a subject field. Seven of the top twenty can be considered related to the provision of reference services, while five focused on management.

Examination of the remaining rankings indicates no obvious pattern or categorization. Some interesting, and sometimes surprising, observations are that knowledge of research methods is ranked relatively high (22d) while a related skill, inferential statistics, is ranked near the bottom (54th), and computer hardware (40th) is ranked considerably lower than computer software (28th) and library automation (16th). The history of books and printing and the history of libraries are ranked 53d and 55th respectively, and knowledge of preservation/conservation was ranked rather low at 43d.

A comparison of the ranking of the knowledge bases by current importance with the ranking according to the amount of knowledge possessed by respondents suggested a fairly strong association between the two. To check this observation, a rank-order correlation (Spearman’s $r$) was calculated for the two rankings. The computations produced a .91 correlation coefficient, which is significant at the .00 level and suggests a strong, positive correlation between the two rankings. In other words, the participants tended to rank the knowledge bases in roughly the same order, whether they were considering current importance or amount of knowledge possessed. The exceptions to this pattern are in the management area, e.g., decision making, planning, personnel management, staff training, and program evaluation techniques, where importance of knowledge is ranked high but amount of knowledge possessed is ranked low.

**Importance of Knowledge and Experience**

As noted earlier, one speculation was that the importance of current knowledge bases would vary with the number of years that the participants had been professional librarians. In order to determine which, if any, knowledge bases were significantly related to years of professional experience, the two variables were cross-tabulated.

The current "importance" ratings for several of the knowledge bases were found to be significantly related to years of professional experience. (Current importance was measured on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 denoting "essential" and 5 representing "of no importance." The years of professional experience were grouped into three categories: less than one year to three, four to six, and seven to nine.) Table 3 lists all of the knowledge bases whose current importance ratings were related to years of professional experience at the .10, or higher, level of significance. The table provides the level of significance and Cramer’s V value for each significant relation-
### TABLE 2

**"IMPORTANCE" OF KNOWLEDGE BASE AND "AMOUNT" OF KNOWLEDGE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge Base</th>
<th>Importance of Knowledge</th>
<th>Amount of Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean Score (1-5)</td>
<td>Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliographic Tools</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Communication Skills</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing Skills</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialized Reference Sources</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Making</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2.03</td>
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<td>Search Strategy</td>
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<td>Subject Field</td>
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<tr>
<td>General Reference Sources</td>
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<td>Planning</td>
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<td>Reference Interview</td>
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<tr>
<td>Selection of Materials</td>
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<td>Catalog Codes/Rules</td>
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<td>Personnel Management</td>
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<td>Subject Cataloging</td>
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<td>Library Automation</td>
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<td>Subject Classification</td>
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<tr>
<td>Structure of Subject Literature</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bibliographic/Library Instruction</td>
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<td>Staff Training and Development</td>
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<td>Teaching Methods</td>
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<td>Higher Education</td>
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<td>Program Evaluation Techniques</td>
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<td>Networks</td>
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<td>Space/Work Environment</td>
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<td>Cataloging of Special Materials</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>2.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>Computer Hardware</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>2.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indexing</td>
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<td>2.35</td>
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<td>Serials Control</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Computer Programming</td>
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<td>Inferential Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collective Bargaining</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>3.35</td>
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</table>
The knowledge bases are sequenced from the highest to the lowest Cramer's V.

As shown in table 3, there are sixteen knowledge bases whose current importance was significantly related to years of professional experience. Their Cramer's V values ranged from .24 to .15 and would have to be considered relatively low. With a few exceptions, these sixteen knowledge bases tend to fall into two broad areas—management and computer technology.

In order to probe the nature of the relationship between these sixteen knowledge bases and experience, they were cross-tabulated with each of the three experience groupings. This analysis revealed nine knowledge bases that seemed to be important to respondents with less than four years of professional experience. Those knowledge bases considered essential, very important, and important in more than 50 percent of the responses were planning, writing skills, decision making, personnel management, non-book formats, computer hardware, staff training and development, teaching methods, and computer software. Of those nine areas, planning, writing skills, and decision making appeared to be especially important to the librarians with the least amount of experience. (To be selected as the most important, at least 75 percent of the respondents had to rate the knowledge base as essential, very important, or important.)

A similar analysis found that all but three of the sixteen knowledge bases were considered relatively important by the participants with four to six years of professional experience. The three exceptions were computer programming, collective bargaining, and approval plans. Once again, the knowledge bases considered particularly important were planning, writing skills, and decision making, as well as personnel management and staff training and development.

Thirteen knowledge bases were considered relatively important by the most experienced librarians in the study, and they are the same thirteen areas identified by the middle group, with one exception—system analysis was replaced by approval plans. The knowledge bases with the highest ratings in terms of importance were planning, writing skills, decision making, personnel management, staff training and development, and teaching methods.

The management areas were most likely to be identified as being the most important for effective job performance. Also, the number of management areas perceived as being the most important tended to increase as the number of years of experience increased.

**TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge Base</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
<th>Cramer's V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Programming</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing Skills</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Making</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Theory</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budgeting</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Analysis</td>
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<td>.18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Personnel Management</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonbook Formats</td>
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<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Hardware</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Evaluation Techniques</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Training/Development</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Methods</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collective Bargaining</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Software</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval Plans</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Importance of Knowledge and Library Position

Twenty-seven of the knowledge bases, as represented by their importance rankings, related significantly (at the .10 level) to the current library positions held by the participants in the study. (The categories of library positions were nonadministrative, department or unit head, assistant department head, assistant director, associate director, director, and other.) A complete listing of the knowledge bases significantly related to current position can be found in table 4.

An examination of table 4 does not suggest the small number of logical groupings found when the knowledge bases were related to years of professional experience (table 3). It is interesting, however, that at least eight of the knowledge bases most strongly related to current library position are closely involved with management. The bivariate relationships were about as would be expected, in that the higher the administrative level, the more importance generally attached to knowledge of management-related skills. For example, budgeting knowledge was considered essential by only 9.6 percent of the nonadministrative librarians, but 32.8 percent of the department heads and 66.7 percent of the assistant directors rated it essential. The range of Cramer's V values was similar to those for the previous group, though the high value was .30 as opposed to .24.

Importance of Knowledge and Library Unit

All but eight of the fifty-six knowledge bases, when rated according to current importance, were significantly related to the participants' current library units. (The departments or units were categorized as public services, technical services, administrative services, systems, subject or divisional library, and other.) A contrary finding would have been surprising, as one would expect a librarian's current work assignment generally to influence his or her perceptions of importance in ar-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge Base</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
<th>Cramer's V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Management</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Staff Training/Development</td>
<td>.00</td>
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<td>Management Theory</td>
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<td>Planning</td>
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<td>Budgeting</td>
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<td>Decision Making</td>
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<td>.21</td>
</tr>
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<td>Space/Work Environment</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Security Systems</td>
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<td>Preservation/Conservation</td>
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<td>System Analysis</td>
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<td>.19</td>
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<td>Circulation Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acquisitions Procedures</td>
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<td>Writing Skills</td>
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<td>Circulation Systems</td>
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<td>.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Copyright</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Resource Sharing</td>
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<td>.15</td>
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<td>Inferential Statistics</td>
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<td>Search Strategy</td>
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<td>Program Evaluation Techniques</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching Methods</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indexing</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Programming</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
eas of professional expertise. The eight knowledge bases not significantly related to library unit were as follows:
1. collective bargaining
2. planning
3. decision making
4. personnel management
5. staff training and development
6. management theory
7. approval plans
8. nonbook formats

Obviously all but the last two of these knowledge bases are closely related to management and supervision. This occurrence might be explained by the fact that management skills and techniques are somewhat generic, or their importance is independent of library unit. The same might be suggested for approval plans and nonbook formats, since librarians in various positions and departments participate in selection activities.

The range of Cramer's $V$ values for the forty-eight knowledge bases significantly related to current library unit was somewhat greater than for the preceding two groups. The lowest Cramer's $V$ was .16, and the highest was .43.

**Amount of Knowledge and Library Unit**

When rated according to the amount possessed, most of the knowledge bases were significantly related to current library unit. (Amount of knowledge was rated on a scale of 1 for "extensive" to 4 for "none.") In fact, all but seven of the knowledge bases were found to be significantly related to library unit; the exceptions were
1. acquisitions procedures
2. approval plans
3. cooperative acquisitions
4. higher education
5. research methods
6. oral communication skills
7. writing skills

Among these seven knowledge bases, the final four would tend to be more or less important regardless of the librarian's current department or unit, so it is not surprising that they were not significantly related to unit. It is surprising that the first three, all of which deal with acquisitions, were not related to current library unit. An examination of the bivariate frequencies for the three relationships reveals that librarians in administrative services and other units claimed considerable knowledge of these areas. This phenomenon tended to smooth out the distributions, minimizing the impact of the technical services librarians' high level of knowledge. Hence, the chi-square values were not significant.

The Cramer's $V$ values for this group of bivariate relationships ranged from .16 to .40 with a mean of .24. The mean values for the first three groups were .18, .20, and .25, respectively. A comparison of these means indicates that there may be a stronger association between knowledge bases and current unit than between knowledge bases and both current position and years of professional experience.

**CONCLUSIONS**

A primary focus in this study of academic research librarians was to identify the amount and importance of their professional knowledge as influenced by or related to their years of professional experience, their current position, and the division of the library organization in which they work.

The fifty-six knowledge bases were identified on the basis of an understanding of traditional assignments held by librarians as well as a recognition of new positions/assignments occurring in the profession. In addition, a review of the literature that focused on librarian competencies was conducted to determine what had been investigated previously.

The preliminary assessment of the study results indicates patterns in several areas that should have significance for library education, training, and development. For example, the findings suggest that while a traditional core library knowledge is still highly valued, knowledge of management and automation are also highly valued by this group of librarians.

However, it is in these categories—management and automation—that the librarians indicated a corresponding lower level of actual knowledge. In other words, the respondents indicated that certain management and automation knowledge
was highly important but that they lacked a substantial amount of it. For example, planning, personnel management, and staff training/development were ranked high in importance but low in knowledge; this was also true for oral communication.

The relationship of years of professional experience to knowledge bases was significant for sixteen of the categories, and seven of these could be viewed as management-related; two, automation-related; and five (writing, system analysis, program evaluation techniques, teaching methods, and approval plans), applicable to any professional position. While the relationship between years of professional experience and knowledge bases was not as strong as expected, it did indicate that as librarians move through their careers, assuming new and different assignments, they will need to acquire new knowledge and skill or acquire a different depth of knowledge and proficiency.

The relationship of current position to knowledge bases indicated a stronger relationship, particularly for management-related knowledge. Again, some knowledge bases that were significantly related to a librarian’s position raise troubling questions. For example, competency in writing, system analysis, inferential statistics, and program evaluation techniques should be viewed by librarians as basic professional skills that are not strongly tied to a particular position.

It is clear that a number of nontraditional knowledge bases are viewed as important by librarians within this sample of university libraries. While the relationship of years of experience to these bases is not strong, the results still suggest that these areas of knowledge will be increasingly important as librarians progress through their careers.

The librarians also indicated that their education was more theoretical than practical. Their assessment of the effectiveness of their formal library education in preparing them for their current positions was not conclusive. The mean score was near the midpoint between agreement and disagreement, but librarians were slightly closer to agreeing that their education had been effective. They indicated a more strongly positive view toward their experience with continuing education and staff development. These responses suggest that post-master’s educational activities were more effective in preparing them for their current positions.

The results indicate that while educators should review curricula needed by librarians in both the traditional core areas and the developing knowledge areas, they also should continue to address the provision of continuing education courses for practitioners. The results also suggest a need for library administrators to strengthen staff development programs. Once librarians are in the profession, they will need ongoing support from their organizations in providing opportunities for continued learning; currently continuing education/training is needed most in management and automation.

It is possible that the complaints about knowledge and education may not be grounded so much in what librarians learn and know but how they implement their knowledge once they are in a library setting. If this is the case, the situation would need to be addressed through means other than strengthening the curriculum and would require giving greater attention to the recruitment of students into the master’s program and into academic research libraries.

The data provided by this study suggest additional areas for review and analysis of library education and the performance of professional activities in academic research libraries. Specifically, a closer examination could be made of the relationship between the value of a specific knowledge base and where it could be acquired most effectively. In addition, a careful scrutiny of demographic data (sex and age of respondents) could determine if any relationship exists between these factors and perceived need for specific knowledge, and a further review of the relationship between type of position and knowledge needed for effective performance would also be desirable.
REFERENCES

Copyright and Fee-Based Copying Services

James S. Heller

Many libraries meet the informational needs of their patrons through in-house photocopying services. Financial considerations, however, are requiring more and more of them to recover the costs of operating such services. The Copyright Act of 1976 governs the scope of permissible reproduction and distribution of copyrighted works. The rights of a copyright owner, which include the right to reproduce and distribute copyrighted works, are subject to other provisions of the act that permit copying by libraries. This article discusses the effect of that law upon fee-based library copying services.

Technological developments that permit rapid and inexpensive document reproduction have allowed many libraries to meet their patrons' informational needs through photocopy services. While many libraries still provide photocopies to persons or organizations outside the library's parent institution at a nominal charge, an increasing number realize the need to recover a greater portion of the actual copying cost. The Copyright Act of 1976 governs the scope of permissible reproduction and distribution of copyrighted works. This article examines the impact of the copyright law on fee-based copying services.

The rights of a copyright owner, including the right to reproduce and distribute copyrighted works, are set forth in Section 106 of the Copyright Act. These rights, however, are subject to the limitations of Sections 107-118 of the act. Under most circumstances, the extent to which a library may provide copies through an in-house fee-based photocopying service to persons or organizations outside the parent institution will have to be justified under either Section 107 or 108 or the activity will be considered infringing.

The judicially established right of fair use was codified at Section 107 of the act. Section 108 permits, under certain circumstances, copying by libraries and their employees. If copying and distributing copyrighted materials are permitted under Section 107, 108, or another provision of the Copyright Act, the copyright owner need not be contacted for permission, and royalties need not be paid.

An analysis of whether copying is permitted without first having to request permission or pay royalties depends upon the answers to the following questions:

1. For whom is the material being copied?
2. How is the copy going to be used?
3. What is being copied?
4. How much is being copied?
5. Who is making the copy?
6. How much is the library charging for this service?
7. How are the revenues being used?

As will be seen, some of the questions listed above are identical to those that must be analyzed in determining whether a use is fair under Section 107. First, however, the ability of a library photocopying service to copy and distribute copies under Section 108 will be considered.

James S. Heller is director of the law library and associate professor of law at the University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho 83843.
SECTION 108—COPYING BY LIBRARIES

Section 108 (a)(1)—No Commercial Advantage

In order to qualify for the Section 108 exemption a library must first meet the threshold requirements of subsection (a) of Section 108. Section 108(a)(1) requires that copying must be done without a purpose of direct or indirect commercial advantage. The legislative history of Section 108 states that the "advantage" referred to must attach to the copying itself, and that libraries in for-profit organizations, as well as those in public or private nonprofit institutions, may qualify for the Section 108 exemption.

The legislative history infers that a library will not charge more for copies than is necessary to recoup the cost of making those copies. A commercial enterprise cannot call itself a library and engage in for-profit copying and distribution without running afoul of the act. Neither may a library in a nonprofit institution contract with a commercial copying enterprise and authorize it to carry out copying and distribution functions that would be exempt if the library itself did the copying and distribution. It is therefore proper to examine how much the library charges for its services, and how the money received is used.

A library should be able to recoup the direct and indirect costs of making and distributing copies without removing it from Section 108 protection. Such costs include equipment, utilities, supplies, labor, and postage. Labor costs may be quite substantial, as they include taking the message, identifying, locating and retrieving the material to be copied, making and mailing the copy, billing and record keeping, and reshelving the material copied.

Libraries may find that providing fee-based services for outside patrons increases the demand for its services. Charging such sums that permit a library to hire additional staff to meet increased demand should not remove it from Section 108 protection. The labor cost is inherent in providing the service itself, and recouping that cost should not be interpreted to mean that the library has received a "commercial advantage" from the copying.

One may reasonably ask whether there is a commercial advantage if the revenue received from the copying allows the library to add materials to its collection that it otherwise could not afford. If money received from the copying is used to supplement existing resources, the library may actually be profiting from the copying. All costs of operating the copying service should be identified, however, before concluding that revenue is genuinely being used to add materials to the collection.

Section 108 (a)(2)—Open Collection

Section 108(a)(2) requires that the library's collection must be open to the public or to persons doing research in a specialized field. While there is debate as to whether libraries in for-profit institutions meet this requirement, this is not likely to be of concern to libraries providing fee-based copying services to patrons outside the parent institution. Libraries providing these services are invariably associated with nonprofit organizations such as academic institutions or large public libraries, and have no problem meeting the openness requirement.

Section 108 (a)(3)—A Notice of Copyright

Section 108(a)(3) requires that "a notice of copyright" be included with the reproduction. There is disagreement as to whether this provision means the formal notice of copyright prescribed by Section 401 or some type of alternative notice. In any event, library photocopying services should comply with this provision.

Assuming that the threshold requirements of Section 108(a) have been met, there are other relevant considerations as to whether specific copying activities are permitted under Section 108. A more detailed analysis of Section 108, particularly subsections (d) and (g), is therefore necessary.

Section 108(d)—Articles and Small Excerpts

Nearly all copying done by a library photocopying service will be of the nature
specified in Section 108(d). This provision allows a library to make a single copy of an article or small excerpt from a copyrighted work if (1) the copy becomes the property of the user; (2) the library has no notice that the copy will be used for any purpose other than private study, scholarship, or research; and (3) the library displays warning signs as specified by the Register of Copyrights.9

Generally, compliance with Section 108(d) should not be difficult. First, while a library may provide only a single copy under Section 108(d), rarely will it be asked to provide multiple copies of an article or excerpt when there is a charge for the service. Second, a copy sent to a requester generally becomes his or her property. Finally, in few instances will a library providing copies to noninstitutional clients for a fee know that the use of the copy is for a purpose other than "private study, scholarship, or research." Should the copy actually be used for an invalid purpose, the library is not prohibited from providing the copy unless it knows of that purpose prior to the copying or distribution of the materials.11

Section 108 (g)(1)-Multiple or Systematic Copying

A library's right to copy and distribute copyrighted material under Section 108 is subject to the limitations of subsection (g). Section 108(g)(1) prohibits related or concerted reproduction of multiple copies of the same material, on one occasion or over a period of time, either for aggregate use by one or more individuals or for separate use by individual members of a group. This provision, however, does not prohibit repeated reproduction and distribution of single copies of the same material on separate occasions to a variety of independent users if each act of copying and distribution is isolated and unrelated, and if the users are not members of a "group." Although the word "group" is not defined in either the Copyright Act or its legislative history, the purpose of the subsection (g)(1) limitation is to prohibit a library from providing multiple copies of the same material to members of the same organization. In practice, any such activity is generally confined to members or employees of the library's parent institution. The prohibition against related or concerted reproduction of multiple copies of the same material would rarely present a problem for libraries providing copies for a fee to individuals or organizations outside the library's parent institution. In any event, libraries should take precautions to insure that they are not copying beyond that permitted by subsection (g)(1).

Section 108 (g)(2)-Systematic Copying

Section 108(g)(2) prohibits the systematic reproduction or distribution of single or multiple copies of the type of materials described in subsection (d), namely, articles or short excerpts.12 Copying pursuant to interlibrary arrangements, however, is expressly permitted so long as the purpose or effect is not to substitute for a subscription to or purchase of a work. According to Professor Melville Nimmer, subsection (g)(2) prevents a requester from asking for single copies of different articles from the same issue of a journal on separate occasions, thus eventually getting an entire issue, or substantial part thereof, without purchasing it.13 A library filling such requests has likely infringed the copyright on a protected work.

The prohibitions created by Section 108(g)(2) appear to be even broader than that suggested by Nimmer if the Guidelines for the Provision of Subsection 108(g)(2) are considered.14 The guidelines were drafted by the National Commission on New Technological Uses of Copyrighted Works (CONTU) to provide guidance regarding permissible copying for interlibrary loan purposes notwithstanding the prohibition against systematic copying. The guidelines specifically refer to repeated copying from the same journal title, rather than the less restrictive copying from the same issue of a journal.15

The purpose of subsection (g)(2) is to prevent copying in such quantities as to reduce the market for a work. This applies whether the market lost is for a specific article from a journal, a single issue of a journal, or a subscription to a journal. The words "same material" in Section 108(g), as applied to subsection (d) materials, pre-
vent the systematic copying of the same article or different articles from a journal. This is not necessarily true with regard to subsection (g)(1), which appears to prohibit related or concerted copying of identical works.

Multiple copies of the same article will be infrequently requested by a client of a fee-based copying service. Requests are generally coordinated through one department of the client institution, most likely the library, if one exists. Subsequent requests for the same article generally will be filled in-house from the copy previously acquired. It is nonetheless quite possible that over a period of time the client of a fee-based photocopying service will request a variety of articles from the same journal.

The CONTU Guidelines provide guidance to a borrowing library as to whether making a request for a photocopy is permissible, but they also require that the borrowing library maintain records of requests made. There is no parallel requirement that supplying libraries keep records of materials copied. However, the Guidelines state that the supplying library may fill a request for a photocopy only after the requesting library has verified that the request complies with the Guidelines. It may be difficult for a library copying service to meet this requirement, especially when the institution making the request is not a library. Similarly, technological developments now permit the transmission of requests by means other than the traditional interlibrary loan form. Copying services should consider methods by which they may verify that the required assurance has been made for requests communicated orally, electronically, or by written means, and whether from a library or other type of institution.

The Register of Copyrights has stated that “the extent to which library photocopying services are large-scale operations with full-time photocopying staff, advertisements soliciting patronage, and consistently substantial output bear directly on the extent to which such services are systematic.” This is not to say, however, that libraries that advertise their services and fill large numbers of requests for photocopies of copyrighted materials will be prohibited from justifying their activities under Section 108. An assessment as to whether a highly organized and widely publicized fee-based copying service violates the subsection (g)(2) prohibition against systematic reproduction or distribution requires an analysis of the entire operation. A determination of the extent to which copyright owners have been harmed by the service’s activities will also be appropriate.

SECTION 107—FAIR USE

Section 107 of the act states that the fair use of a copyrighted work is not an infringement of copyright. The express language of the act and its legislative history state that libraries may reproduce and distribute copyrighted works under the fair use exemption. Still, there is disagreement as to the extent to which a library may legally reproduce or distribute copies under Section 107.

In most circumstances a library, acting as the agent for the requester, should be able to do what the requester legally could have done. Indeed, this is the reasoning behind Section 108, which expressly permits libraries to make copies for users. In addition to the express language of Section 107, guidance may be provided by Section 108(g) as to what copying might be considered fair.

The Purpose of the Use

The preamble to Section 107 lists certain purposes that are most appropriate for a finding of fair use. Reproduction for the purpose of “scholarship” or “research” is expressly included. However, copying pursuant to one of the enumerated purposes will not always result in a finding of fair use. The section also lists four factors that a court must consider in determining whether a use is fair, although factors other than those enumerated may also be considered. The first factor is “the purpose and character of the use, including whether the use is of a commercial nature or, rather, for nonprofit educational purposes.” It is therefore appropriate to examine how the reproduced material will be used.
Outside of requests by educators and students, academic libraries are most frequently requested to reproduce materials for persons who require the materials for their research. Special libraries commonly receive requests from individuals researching the subject areas that comprise the core of the library's collection. For example, most of the requests received by law libraries from noninstitutional users are from attorneys. The fact that an attorney's research is done with a profit-making motive should not negate a finding of fair use. An attorney's reading of a photocopied article or chapter of a book for background research or for preparation of a client's case should not be deemed a predominant purpose of commercial gain and, therefore, an impermissible use.

Some courts have held that in order to find fair use there must be a productive use of the copied work. Under the productive use test, the user must add to the work being copied; simply using the work for the purpose for which it was created is not enough. However, the United States Supreme Court recently stated that a nonproductive use may be a fair use.

In addition to examining the purpose and character of the requester's use of the material copied, the purpose of the copying service in making and distributing the photocopy also must be considered. That purpose, generally, is to assist in the dissemination of information, and is, at the worst, neutral. The fact that a fee-based copying service charges for the copies should not negate a finding of fair use unless the service receives monies in excess of expenses.

The Nature of the Work Copied

The second factor to be considered in a fair use analysis is the nature of the copyrighted work. Generally, there is greater latitude to copy factual, educational, scientific, or informational works than there is to copy creative, fictional, or entertainment works. Certain libraries, such as law libraries, may do a substantial amount of copying from materials that are not protected by copyright at all, including works of the United States government, court decisions, statutes, administrative codes, legislative histories, and records and briefs of cases. Works not protected by copyright may be reproduced without limitation.

The Amount Copied

The third factor listed in Section 107 is the amount and substantiality of the portion of the work used in relation to the copyrighted work as a whole. Generally, the more that is copied, the less likely it is that there will be a finding of fair use.

Harm to the Copyright Owner

The final factor, the effect of the use upon the potential market for or value of the copyrighted work, is generally considered the most important of the four factors. If the market or potential market for a work is harmed by the copying, there is a greater tendency for a court to find that the use was not fair.

Actually, there are two kinds of possible harm to the copyright owner. The first is that rather than relying on the photocopy provided by the library, the user should have purchased a copy of the original work, or at least have paid royalties for the photocopy. The second type of harm requires an analysis of how the original work is used in a succeeding work, or the purpose of the subsequently created work. If the latter work supplants the market of the original, there is a lesser likelihood that there will be a finding of fair use. As the agent of the ultimate user and as the actual copier, the copying service must consider whether its copying harms the market for or value of the work copied, and whether the ultimate use of the copied work has adversely affected the market for the original.

THE WILLIAMS & WILKINS CASE

Only one decision by an American court has examined the limits of fair use for libraries. In Williams & Wilkins Co. v. United States the United States Court of Claims held that the National Library of Medi-
cine's copying of entire articles was a fair use because NLM was a nonprofit institution, copying was normally restricted to a single copy of articles less than fifty pages, medical research would be harmed if the copying was disallowed, and the plaintiff-publisher failed to prove that it was harmed by the copying. Affirmed by the United States Supreme Court in a four-to-four decision, *Williams & Wilkins* has limited precedent effect.

One may speculate how *Williams & Wilkins* would be decided if litigated once again. At the 1975 copyright revision hearings, then Register of Copyrights Barbara Ringer testified that it was unclear whether the National Library of Medicine's activities would be permitted under proposed Section 108. At that time Section 108(g)(2) did not include the proviso expressly allowing libraries to participate in interlibrary arrangements. The late Professor Alan Latman, however, stated that the proviso is concerned only with arrangements among libraries, and not for situations in which a library reproduces materials directly for its patrons.

In the 1983 Section 108(i) report, the Register of Copyrights commented that in enacting subsection (g)(2) Congress attempted to limit NLM-type operations. Professor Nimmer, however, while believing the *Williams & Wilkins* decision to be erroneous, also states that "the library reproduction in *Williams & Wilkins* was largely within the permissible area of photocopying under Section 108."

**LARGE-SCALE COPYING OPERATIONS**

Copyright owners may view libraries as potentially more threatening than commercial photocopy services. While both may have the staff and equipment to engage in large-scale copying, a library also has the documents. Some of these concerns were addressed in Section 108(g), which prohibits a library from engaging in multiple or systematic copying and distribution.

It is possible, of course, that some library fee-based photocopying services may be engaging in activities that cannot be justified under either Section 107 or 108. As discussed earlier, the purpose of Section 108(g)(2) is to prevent copying that reduces the market for a work. This is essentially identical to the crucial fourth factor that must be considered in a fair-use analysis under Section 107.

A library that advertises its services may have a more difficult time justifying its copying under Section 107. A fair-use analysis would likely consider whether the advertisements were aimed at local patrons only or, instead, to a broader range of patrons who would not normally use the library. The frequency of those advertisements might also be important. The fact that potential users might have paid royalties for the use of an article, purchased a single issue, or subscribed to the journal rather than rely on the photocopy service might convince a court that the library's activities exceeded fair use.

**CONCLUSION**

The extent to which a library may reproduce and distribute copies through a fee-based photocopy service under either Section 107 or 108 of the Copyright Act requires an examination of the entire operation. What and how much is copied, for whom the copy is made, and how the copy is used must all be considered. So, of course, would the amount charged for the copies and how the revenue is used. The number of clients served by the photocopying service would be considered, as would the extent to which the library solicits patronage through advertisements or other means. Ultimately, the analysis may focus on quantity, as the amount of copying done by the library will likely play a significant role in determining whether copyright owners are actually or potentially being harmed.

The right to reproduce and distribute copyrighted materials under the Copyright Act is not limitless. While the presence of fee-based photocopying services in libraries permits broad dissemination of resources, the continued existence of such services will depend upon compliance with Section 107 and Section 108, judicial interpretation of those sections, and possible legislative changes to the Copyright Act itself.
REFERENCES AND NOTES

2. Title 17, U.S. Code, Section 106(1), (3) (1982)
4. Ibid., p.74.
5. Ibid.
6. The Interlibrary Loan Study Committee of the Association of Research Libraries initiated a study in 1971 of the interlibrary activities of several academic libraries. The average cost to a lending library providing the original work or a photocopy, per completed request, was $4.67. Approximately 43 percent of all materials supplied were photocopies. Vernon Palmour and others, A Study of the Characteristics, Costs, and Magnitude of Interlibrary Loans in Academic Libraries (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1972). A 1977/78 study at the University of Oklahoma Libraries calculated the cost of a completed lending transaction, including both originals and photocopies, to be $5.45. Jo Ellen Herstand, "Interlibrary Loan Cost Study and Comparison," RQ 20:249 (Spring 1981).
   'The copyright law of the United States (Title 17, United States Code) governs the making of photocopies or other reproduction of copyrighted material."
   "Under certain conditions specified in the law, libraries and archives are authorized to furnish a photocopy or reproduction. One of these specified conditions is that the photocopy or reproduction is not to be 'used for any purpose other than private study, scholarship, or research.' If a user makes a request for, or later uses, a photocopy of reproduction for purposes in excess of 'fair use,' that user may be liable for copyright infringement.
   'This institution reserves the right to refuse to accept a copying order if, in its judgment, fulfillment of the order would involve violation of copyright law.'" 37 C.F.R. §201.14 (1984)
10. Melville Nimmer, a noted expert on copyright law, has difficulty construing this phrase. While Nimmer states that the word private might be contrasted with commercial, he notes that such a construction would effectively exclude copying by libraries in for-profit institutions, which would conflict with Congress' expressed intent not to exclude for-profit libraries from inclusion under §108. "Perhaps the only manner in which this apparent conflict between the statutory text and the stated legislative intent could be resolved would be by a somewhat strained construction whereby the word private is held to modify only study and not also scholarship, or researcher. Otherwise, it would seem that the statutory text might prevail over any contrary expression of legislative intent." Melville Nimmer, Nimmer on Copyright (New York, N.Y.: Matthew Bender, 1984), §8.03 (E)(2)(c) (hereinafter cited as Nimmer).
   The Register of Copyrights apparently believes that copying for job-related purposes should not be permitted under §108. See Register's §108(i) Report, supra note 7, p.225. The Register also warns that a library may not reproduce articles or small excerpts for for-profit information brokers. Id. p.120. Copying for recreational purposes, apparently, cannot be justified under subsection (d)(1).
11. One commentator has written: 'The condition that the library have no notice of a user's improper purpose in seeking a copy does not require the library affirmatively to seek any information about his identity, status, or affiliation, or to make any judgments as to a user's intended purpose.' James Treece, "Library Photocopying," UCLA Law Review 24:1025,1050 (1977).
   The Register states that notice "could be found in a variety of facts and circumstances, meaning that a library, to be safe, should take whatever steps necessary to ensure that it is not performing photocopying services for commercial 'information brokers' unless they have clear permission from the owner of copyright." Register's §108(i) Report, supra note 7, p.121.
12. The specific reference in §108(g)(2) to subsection (d) materials means that a library need not postpone copying an article or small excerpt from a work until it has determined that a copy is not available commercially. The subsection (g)(i) prohibition against related or concerted reproduction, however, applies to a broader range of materials, including those specified in subsections (c) and (e) (an entire work or a substantial part of a work). In such cases a library must be satisfied that
a copy cannot be obtained at a fair price before it can reproduce the material or request that another library provide the copy.


15. Guidelines for the Proviso of Subsection 108(g)(2)

   1. As used in the proviso of subsection 108(g)(2), the words, "... such aggregate quantities as to substitute for a subscription to or purchase of such work" shall mean: "(a) with respect to any given periodical (as opposed to any given issue of a periodical), filled requests of a library or archives (a 'requesting entity') within any calendar year for a total of six or more copies of an article or articles published in such periodical within five years prior to the date of the request. These guidelines specifically shall not apply, directly or indirectly, to any request of a requesting entity for a copy or copies of an article or articles published in any issue of a periodical, the publication date of which is more than five years prior to the date when the request is made. These guidelines do not define the meaning, with respect to such a request, of "... such aggregate quantities as to substitute for a subscription to [such periodical]."

16. A client of a library copying service may infringe copyright by further reproducing a copy received from the service. The library cannot be responsible for subsequent copying done by its client.

17. Guideline number four states: "The requesting entity shall maintain records of all requests made by it for copies or phonorecords of any materials to which these guidelines apply and shall maintain records of the fulfillment of such requests, which records shall be retained until the end of the third complete calendar year after the end of the calendar year in which the respective request shall have been made."

18. Guideline number three states: "No request for a copy or phonorecord of any material to which these guidelines apply may be filled by the supplying entity unless such request it accompanied by a representation by the requesting entity that the request was made in conformity with these guidelines."

19. Register's § 108(i) Report, supra note 7, p.140. The Register also stated "it is arguable that the permanent assignment of staff members to make photocopies for patrons makes the photocopying done by those employees look rather systematic." Id. p.190. Discussing document delivery by means of telefacsimile transmission, the Register wrote: "In copyright terms the use of telefacsimile can be analyzed to the mailing of photocopies. However, because of the high cost of telefacsimile a significant number of copies must be transmitted in order for the technology to be cost effective. Transmission of copies on such a large scale would increase the likelihood that the copying would be found to be 'systematic' under § 108(g)(2)." Ibid., p.262.

20. Section 107 states: "Notwithstanding the provisions of section 106, the fair use of a copyrighted work, including such use by reproduction in copies or phonorecords or by any other means specified by that section, for purposes such as criticism, comment, news reporting, teaching (including multiple copies for classroom use), scholarship, or research, is not an infringement of copyright. In determining whether the use made of a work in any particular case is a fair use the factors to be considered shall include—(1) the purpose and character of the use, including whether such use is of a commercial nature or is for nonprofit educational purposes; (2) the nature of the copyrighted work; (3) the amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyrighted work as a whole; and (4) the effect of the use upon the potential market for or value of the copyrighted work."

21. Section 108(f)(4) states: "Nothing is this section . . . in any way affects the right of fair use as provided by section 107."


23. The Register of Copyrights has stated that "fair use privileges are not available on a broad and recurring basis once the copying permitted by §108 has occurred." Register's § 108(i) Report, supra note 7, p.96. He also commented that "just as commercial copiers may not avail themselves of their library customers' copying privileges, it may be that libraries cannot avail themselves of their patrons' copying privileges." Id. p.101. The Register discusses the relationship between §107 and §108 in depth at pages 95-104 of the Report.

The Authors League of America and the Association of American Publishers believe that libraries may reproduce copyrighted works only under §108. Association of American Publishers and the Authors League of America, Photocopying by Academic, Public, and Nonprofit Research Libraries (1978), p.4,16. Professor James Treece, however, maintains that: "What a user may do for himself, he may have another do for him. Thus 'copyshops,' "other" libraries and subsection (a)
libraries may, in a particular transaction, reproduce single or multiple copies or phonorecords of a copyrighted work, not as a library or archive exercising a privilege under § 108, but as the agent of a user possessing a fair use privilege.” James Treece, “Library Photocopying,” UCLA Law Review 24:1025, 1039 (1977).

24. The Register of Copyrights, discussing the relationship of § 107 and § 108, wrote: “In the 108(i) review process, so much emphasis was placed by the participants on ILL transactions, which are governed by (g)(2), that there is little comment on the record about what subsection (g)(1) is perceived to mean or how it is applied in practice. Many librarians do state, however, that there should be no library liability if a patron has fair use privileges (footnote omitted).

The Copyright Office does not agree and, as explained above, believes that related and concerted copying of which the library is aware or has substantial reason to believe it is doing is prohibited, without regard to whether the user could successfully invoke a fair use defense to an action for copyright infringement.” Register’s § 108(i) Report, supra note 7, p.128–129.

25. However, copying for a nonprofit educational purpose is not always fair. See, e.g., Marcus v. Rowley, 695 F.2d 1171 (9th Cir. 1983) (substantial copying by a public school teacher was held not to be a fair use, notwithstanding the nonprofit educational nature of the use, because the copy was used for the same intrinsic purpose for which the copyright owner intended it to be used); Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corp. v. Crooks, 542 F.Supp. 1156 (W.D.N.Y. 1982) (extensive and systematic copying by a nonprofit educational organization was held not to be a fair use).

26. The 1982 King Research report included data on library staff photocopying of library materials. Academic libraries reported that 22.1 percent of the photocopies provided by library staff were made for students, 32.6 percent were for teachers, 17.2 percent were for employees of the institution other than teachers (these copies possibly could have been made by library staff for other users), and 28 percent were for requesters whose status was unknown or who did not fall into the student, teacher, or employee category. In public libraries, 10.2 percent of the photocopies made by library staff were for students, 1 percent were for teachers, 57.1 percent were for library employees, and 31.7 percent were “other” or “unknown.” King Research, Inc., Libraries, Publishers, and Photocopying: Final Report of Surveys Conducted for the United States Copyright Office (Rockville, MD: King Research, 1982), table 3.9.


The Register of Copyright’s apparent belief that copying for job-related purposes is impermissible under § 108 would likely be no different under a fair use analysis. He stated: “Congress may need to consider the extent to which copyright owners should be obliged to contribute, without compensation, to the money-making activities of those library patrons whose photocopying is job related.” Register’s § 108(i) Report, supra note 7, p.225.

28. The United States Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit used this rationale in finding that home copying of television programs for personal use was not fair use. In the Betamax case the court wrote: “[F]air use ... has always had to do with the use by a second author of a first author’s work. Fair use has not heretofore had to do with the mere reproduction of a work in order to use it for its intrinsic purpose—to make what might be called ‘ordinary’ use of it.” Universal City Studios v. Sony Corp. of America, 659 F.2d 963, 970 (9th Cir. 1981), citing, with approval Leon Seltzer, Exemptions and Fair Use in Copyright, (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press, 1978), p.24.

29. “The distinction between ‘productive’ and ‘unproductive’ uses may be helpful in calibrating the balance, but it cannot be wholly determinative. . . . Copying for commercial gain has a much weaker claim to fair use than copying for personal enrichment. But the notion of social ‘productivity’ cannot be a complete answer to this analysis. A teacher who copies to prepare lecture notes is clearly productive. But so is the teacher who copies for the sake of broadening his personal understanding of his specialty, or a legislator who copies for the sake of broadening her understanding of what her constituents are watching; or a constituent who copies a news program to help make a decision on how to vote.” Sony Corp. of America v. Universal City Studios, 464 U.S. 417, 455 n.40 (1984).


35. Both the majority and dissenting opinions in The Nation decision focus on harm to the copyright owner as the most crucial of the four factors. Justice O'Connor, writing for the majority, stated: "This last factor is undoubtedly the single most important element of fair use." 105 S.Ct. at 2234.

In his dissent, Justice Brennan wrote: "The Court correctly notes that the effect on the market 'is undoubtedly the single most important element of fair use.'" 105 S.Ct. at 2252 (Brennan, J., dissenting).


36. The House Committee on the Judiciary warned that the scope of the fair use doctrine be very narrow in the case of profit-making users of newsletters, which are generally of modest length and have limited circulation. House Report, supra note 3, p.73-74.


39. "Suppose, for example, that the bill were enacted in its present form and Williams & Wilkins reestablished suit under the new law. The Court of Claims has held that what the National Library of Medicine was doing constituted fair use under the 1909 law. Would section 108 change that result? And the Senate report, the 1974 Senate report, doesn't give you a clue as to the answer." Copyright Law Revision: Hearings on H.R. 2223 Before the Subcommittee on Courts, Civil Liberties, and the Administration of Justice of the House Committee on the Judiciary, 94th Cong., 1st Sess. 1799 (1975) (hereinafter cited as Hearings).


41. "Its [subsection (g)(2)']s first appearance in the revision process was apparently in response to the Court of Claims' holding that the large-scale, routine photocopying done by NIH/NLM did not infringe Williams & Wilkins' copyrights. Looking at the language in the Commissioner's and Court's opinions, it is reasonable to infer that Congress' action in introducing g) [sic] the [sic] legislation, coming on the heels of that decision, reflected a judgment that the copying there was 'systematic' and that thus Congress was attempting to render it infringing." Register's § 108(i) Report, supra note 7, p.130.

42. 3 M. Nimmer, supra note 10, § 13.05 [E][4][c].

43. Ibid., § 13.05 [E][4][d].

The CONTU Commission warned that operations established for the exclusive purpose of providing photocopies would not be protected by § 108. "[T]he Commission believes that non-profit centers established for the specific purpose of providing copies would be required to secure authorization from copyright owners to make and distribute full scale copies of periodical articles from the original issues as well as to make microforms." National Commission on New Technological Uses of Copyrighted Material, Final Report (Washington, DC, 1978), p.163.

At the 1975 Copyright revision hearings, Register Ringer stated: "A line must be drawn between legitimate interlibrary loans using photocopies instead of bound books, and prearranged understandings that result in a particular library agreeing to become the source of an indeterminate number of photocopies." Hearings, supra note 39, p.1,801.


See also, Conference Report, supra note 14, p.72.

44. The Register's § 108(i) Report suggested that a highly organized large-scale operation might be considered systematic, and thus prohibited under § 108 (g)(2). See text, p.14-15, supra.
The self-study documents of four academic libraries whose experiences with the regional accreditation self-study process ranged from unsuccessful to successful were analyzed. All four reports were predominantly descriptive and focused on processes. The successful sites employed user or expert opinion as types of assessments in their reports. No relationships were found between success and the resources, capabilities, products, services, and classes of evaluation addressed, the number of assessment measures included, or the extent to which association standards were addressed. The libraries' annual reports were found to contain more quantitative assessments of processes and outputs than the self-study reports.

The vast majority of academic libraries are regularly involved, albeit to varying degrees, in the voluntary, nongovernmental process known as regional accreditation. Unfortunately, library administrators preparing for an impending accreditation review must rely almost exclusively on previous experience for guidance. There has been little research on the library's role in, or response to, either the self-study or the peer review aspects of the accreditation process.

The purpose of this article is to: (1) describe the contents of the regional accreditation self-study reports prepared by four academic libraries that experienced different degrees of self-study success; (2) characterize these reports by comparing them to each other, to the libraries' annual reports, and to their regional accrediting association guidelines; and (3) suggest some implications for academic libraries and their regional accrediting associations.

BACKGROUND

The process of qualifying for association membership, i.e., of being accredited, is identical for all six regional accrediting associations. All prospective member institutions are required to conduct an institutional self-study. This phase of the accrediting process is then followed by review by a peer evaluation team consisting of faculty and educational administrators and other specialists from outside the institution. Members of the peer evaluation team examine the document prepared as a result of the self-study process, visit the institution, and report their findings to the accrediting association. The decision to accept an institution for membership is then made by the association on the basis of the self-study document, the peer evaluation team's report, and the institution's response to that report.

The self-study process is intended by all six associations to serve as a means of fostering improvement and change. More specifically, its purposes are to: (1) help improve the institution and its programs; (2) incorporate ongoing, useful institutional research and self-analysis into programs and the institution; and (3) serve as the foundation for planning efforts. Although the design of the self-study process is not mandated (and numerous patterns and forms of self-study used by institutions undergoing regional accredi-
tation have been identified by Paul Dressel, Herbert Kells, and Grover Andrews), all of the associations require that the process be described and documented in a self-study report. 2,3,4 This report is then used by the peer evaluation team in its review of the institution and is intended for further use by the institution as part of its planning process.

Critics of the regional accreditation process abound. They have been quick to point out that the process as a whole is expensive and time-consuming 5 and that in most institutions the self-study process does not become part of an ongoing, increasingly sophisticated planning process. 6 The self-study reports have been characterized as primarily descriptions of process 7 and as mere public relations documents. 8 Further, it has been charged that the criteria included in these guidelines do not insure institutional quality and that they are not grounded in research or theory. 9

Examinations of the six regional accreditation associations' literature indicate that the quality of the academic library is regarded as an important element in the overall excellence of the educational institution. 10 However, few researchers have chosen to explore the library's involvement in the process by which such institutions demonstrate the quality of their programs. Early studies of the accreditation process by Alan Covey and Morris Gelfand, as well as those more recently conducted by Dudley Yates and Ronald Leach, have focused on the process by which the peer review team evaluates the library. 11,12,13,14 With the exception, then, of Toni Kania's efforts to develop a model set of regional accreditation standards for academic libraries, 15 the academic library's involvement in the institution's preparation for regional accreditation has been virtually unexplored.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

The data reported in this article were collected as part of doctoral research completed in 1983. 16 The purpose of this research was to investigate planned change processes in academic libraries and to identify factors associated with the success of one type of planned change process, the self-study. Employing a case-study methodology, this study compared and contrasted the self-study experiences (including the resulting reports) of two relatively successful and two relatively unsuccessful regional library self-study processes related to regional accreditation. The study relied heavily on interview data and required on-site visits by the researcher. For this reason the case-study sites were selected from those institutions in the Middle States and Northeastern accrediting associations, located in the regions most accessible to the researcher.

The selection of the case-study sites began with the examination of the recently completed institutional self-study documents from institutions of higher education in two regional accrediting associations. The directors of those libraries that, judging from the contents of these reports, had played active roles in their institutions' self-study processes were subsequently interviewed, and a brief profile of each library's self-study process was then constructed. Using these profiles, the libraries were then classified into groups ranging from "good" to "poor," according to the level of librarian involvement in the self-study process, the number and magnitude of changes or improvements that were reported as resulting from the process, the sophistication of the performance and other measures included in the self-study report, and the availability of the data needed for the proposed study. Every effort was made to select sites that represented a wide variety of experience and differing levels of satisfaction with the self-study process.

The four medium-sized libraries that were eventually selected had 221,000 to 357,000 volumes in their collections and between ten and sixteen professional staff members. The enrollments of the institutions they served ranged from forty-five hundred to eighty-six hundred full-time and part-time students. Three of the institutions were accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and one was a member of the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; three were pub-
licly supported, and one was a private institution. At all of the institutions the master’s was the highest degree offered.

The data were collected for this study using document analysis, and questionnaires and interviews that incorporated the factors included in Kells’ desired attributes of self-study and Jack Lindquist’s adaptive development model of planned change.17 18 The questionnaire and interview responses enabled the researcher to compare the case-study sites on the basis of the outcomes of the process: organizational changes and improvements, advice and recommendations for future actions, and benefits accruing to the libraries and librarians.

The comparisons of the outcomes of the four self-study processes confirmed the fact that the sites had indeed experienced differing degrees of self-study success. While librarians at two of the sites could associate few, if any, outcomes or benefits with the accreditation-related self-study process, librarians at the other two sites identified such outcomes as increased internal communications, better long-term planning, useful advice and recommendations, and a variety of improvements in specific areas of library performance. The librarians at these two sites also realized organizational and personal linkage and ownership benefits.

The difference in the extent to which the four sites realized outcomes and benefits from their self-study processes led to designating them as sites A, B, C, and D, with A being the site where the fewest number of outcomes was realized and D, where the greatest number was realized. This continuum provides the frame of reference for comparing the reports of the four sites.

The reports generated at the sites were analyzed for the purpose of identifying the designs and procedures used during these self-study processes. To this end the following research questions were posed:

a. What types of performance measures were employed for the library segment of the institutional self-study?

b. Were these measures typical of the types of performance measures used by the libraries on an ongoing basis?

c. How do the performance measures used in the library self-study relate to the standards or guidelines provided by their regional accrediting association?

The library self-study documents and annual reports were analyzed and then compared on the basis of the classes of evaluation, types of measurement assessments, and the specific resources, capabilities, products, services, and benefits that these documents addressed. In addition, each self-study document analysis was compared with an analysis of the statements on library standards issued by the appropriate regional accrediting association. Since neither the Middle States Association nor the New England Association recommends specific methods of measuring or assessing library performance, these statements on library standards could not be analyzed and compared with the libraries’ self-study documents in terms of the types of measurement assessments employed.

The four classes of evaluation employed by John Knightly in his study of library annual reports (see table 1) did not have to be modified in order to employ them in this study.19 However, it was necessary to clarify the distinction between two of Knightly’s types of assessments: assessment on the basis of “costs” and assessment on the basis of “quantifiable measures.” These types proved difficult to apply during the document analysis because cost is a type of quantifiable measure. Therefore, as the measurement criteria listed in table 1 indicate, the seventh type of assessment in this study was called “other quantifiable measures,” a category that included all quantifiable assessment measures with the exception of those expressed in monetary terms.

RESULTS

Types of Performance Measures Employed in the Self-Study Documents

The self-study documents pertaining to the case-study sites are presented in table 2 in terms of the classes of evaluation, the specific resources, capabilities, products, services, or benefits addressed, the type of assessments employed, and the amount of text devoted to each of these.
### TABLE 1

#### FOUR CLASSES OF EVALUATION AND SEVEN TYPES OF MEASUREMENT CRITERIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes of Evaluation</th>
<th>Examples of Resources, Capabilities, Products, Services, and/or Benefits Belonging to Each Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inputs (Resources)</td>
<td>Budget, Space, Salaries, Gifts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processes (Capability)</td>
<td>Methods, Collections, Security, Catalog, Cooperative Arrangements, Staff Training, User Education, Policies, Planning/Organizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outputs (Utilization)</td>
<td>Uses of Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impacts (Benefits)</td>
<td>Impact on objectives of parent organization—learning, company performance, cost savings compared to use of alternate sources of information, stimulation of invention or productivity, improved decisions, improved level of education, better use of leisure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Types of Measurement Criteria: Basis for Assessment

- User opinion
- Expert opinion
- Ideal standards
- Comparison with other organizations
- Costs
- Cost-effectiveness or cost-benefit relationships
- Other quantifiable measures

### TABLE 2

#### ANALYSIS OF SELF-STUDY REPORTS BY CLASS OF EVALUATION AND TYPE AND NUMBER OF ASSESSMENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of Site Evaluation</th>
<th>Resources, Capabilities, Products, Services, Benefits Addressed</th>
<th>Description or Type (#) of Assessments Employed</th>
<th># Lines of Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A</strong> Input</td>
<td>Space, Staff</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Space</td>
<td>Other quantitative measures (2)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>Comparison with standards (2)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Budget</td>
<td>Costs (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Facilities and services, planning, allocation of library funds, user education, cooperative arrangements, selection of materials, collection, collection appropriateness</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilities and use, collection adequacy</td>
<td>User opinion (2)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collection size</td>
<td>Comparison with standards (1)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shelf capacity, seating capacity, availability of facility, collection size</td>
<td>Other quantitative measures (4)</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output</td>
<td>Collection and facility use</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>19</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of materials</td>
<td>Other quantitative measures (3)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B</strong> Input</td>
<td>Staff, budget</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Budget</td>
<td>Other quantitative measures (1)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Decision making, planning, staff development, renovation of facility, typing facilities, hardware collection, user instruction, cooperative arrangements, collection development, cataloging, collection</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collection size, circulation process, accessibility of faculty, audiovisual facilities, photocopying facilities, student training</td>
<td>Other quantitative measures (6)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service to handicapped, security</td>
<td>Expert opinion (2)</td>
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### TABLE 2 Continued

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Class of Site Evaluation</th>
<th>Resources, Capabilities, Products, Services, Benefits Addressed</th>
<th>Description or Type (#) of Assessments Employed</th>
<th># Lines of Text</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>C Input: Budget, staff Budget Staff Space</td>
<td>Description 13 Costs (1) 18 User opinion (1) 5 Other quantitative measures (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Process: Cataloging, collection development policy formulation, selection of materials, cooperative arrangements, organization of library, security, multimedia facilities, renovation of facility Collection size Collection, adequacy, cooperative arrangements, user education</td>
<td>Description Other quantitative measures (1) User opinion (4)</td>
<td>3 18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D Input: Budget, staff, gifts, space Budget Budget, staff, gifts Budget, staff Budget, staff</td>
<td>Description Costs (1) 1 Budget Other quantitative measures (4) Comparison with standards (2) User opinion (2) Expert opinion (3)</td>
<td>79 3 14 16 5 8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process: Organization of library, user education, computerized bibliographic services, cooperative arrangements, fund-raising efforts, hardware collection, cataloging, collection accessibility, selection of materials, government documents collection, archives and special collections, audiovisual facilities, staff responsibility, and status Library services, user education, collection quality Collection quality and balance, planning, user education, communication with academic departments Seating capacity, curriculum collection, archives and special collections, periodicals collection</td>
<td>Description User opinion (5) Expert opinion (4) Other qualitative measures (4)</td>
<td>133 21 14 12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outputs: Use of materials, use of curriculum center Use of curriculum center materials, use of library materials</td>
<td>Description Other quantitative measures (2)</td>
<td>10 5</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The self-study documents prepared at all sites included input and process classes of evaluation. Between two and four inputs were assessed and described in each report, and the process class of evaluation was given the greatest amount of attention in terms of both description and assessment. In all reports the capabilities and products assessed and described outnumbered the inputs plus outputs (if any) that were included.

Several processes were addressed by all of the sites: user education, cooperative arrangements (including interlibrary loans), and the collection (in terms of size). Three of the four documents included information on library planning activities (sites A, B, and D); cataloging processes (sites B, C, and D); selection of materials (sites A, C, and D); and either the circulating collection or the library collection in general (sites A, B, and D). A substantial number of processes were addressed by only one report.

The report prepared by sites A and D, the least and most successful sites, were the only self-study documents to include outputs. At site A the outputs addressed were the use of both the collection and the library building, while those at site D were
the use of the materials in the library collection and the use of the curriculum center and its collection. None of the self-study reports addressed any aspects of the impact class of evaluation, i.e., the extent to which the library’s accomplished objectives actually meet the needs of the institution.

An examination of the “classes of evaluation” column reveals that although a statement in the text of the document may have addressed a particular class of evaluation, it did not necessarily include a corresponding “type of assessment.” In quantitative terms, these descriptive statements accounted for 78 percent of the total text of the library self-study document prepared at site A, 89 percent at site B, 61 percent at site C, and 68 percent at site D.

The number of assessments included in the documents ranged from a low of eight at site C to a high of twenty-eight at site D. The only assessments employed by all of the sites were cost and other quantitative measures. Two of the sites, one relatively successful and one relatively unsuccessful, used standards to assess aspects of their organization. In both cases the standards used were those formulated by the American Library Association. It should be noted that at sites B and D, where expert opinion was employed as a type of assessment, the experts consulted were the librarians. None of the library reports included assessments of any aspects of their organization based on the opinions of outside experts, nor did they include comparisons with other libraries, a type of assessment that Knightly found in the annual reports he studied.

More than 70 percent of the assessments used at the relatively unsuccessful sites A and B took the form of costs or other types of quantitative measures. However, these types accounted for less than 40 percent of the assessments included in the self-study documents prepared at the more successful sites C and D, which relied heavily on user and expert opinion. User opinion accounted for 62.5 percent of the assessment measures were employed at site C and 50 percent of those included in the self-study document prepared at site D.

**Comparisons of the Assessment Measures Used in the Self-Study and Annual Reports**

The annual reports generated at sites A, B, and C for several years prior to the accreditation-related self-study were examined in order to help determine whether the assessments included in the self-study reports were typical of those used by the libraries on an ongoing basis. It was not possible to examine the reports from site D because, prior to the recent accreditation-related self-study, it did not issue annual reports.

The self-study reports prepared by sites A and C contained a number of assessments of inputs that could not be found in their annual reports. At site C these included user assessments of the need for more money to buy materials in specific subject areas and of staff professionalism, as well as a measurement of space. The self-study document presented at site A contained a comparison of the level of staffing with that recommended in the American Library Association standards and a description of staff qualifications. Neither of these appeared in any of its annual reports.

The annual reports generated at all three sites contained more detailed and numerous assessments of library processes than were addressed in the self-study documents. Most of the process assessments included in the annual reports and excluded from the self-study documents were quantitative assessments of such processes as cataloging, acquisitions of books and periodicals, binding, conversion to microforms, and interlibrary loan activities.

At each site, however, there were some assessments of processes that appeared in the self-study document but were not found in the annual reports. Examples include quantifications of shelf and seating capacities, number of volumes added to the collection since the last regional accreditation review, expert opinions of the director and/or librarians on the improvement in security and services to the handi-
capped, and user opinions on collection adequacy, cooperative arrangements, and user education. All three of the self-study documents also contained many descriptions of processes not described in their annual reports. Among these were overviews of the various services and facilities available in the library and descriptions of methods used to select and classify materials and of organization and management structures.

In contrast to their self-study documents, the annual reports prepared at site B and the more successful site C did address outputs and contained quantitative assessments of them, including the number of uses for the facility and the number of materials circulated. Unlike sites B and C, outputs were included in the self-study document prepared at site A, the least successful site. However, a larger number and more detailed presentation of outputs were found in this site’s annual reports.

The Regional Accreditation Standards and the Self-Study Documents

Although the library guidelines formulated by the New England Association and the Middle States Association differ greatly in length and in the number and range of library resources, capabilities, products, services, and benefits they address, they are similar in several important ways. First, both sets of guidelines are qualitative rather than quantitative. Second, to a great extent both documents consist of general and often vague statements which, in order to infer the intent of the agency, require close analysis and extensive interpretation. Finally, neither agency’s statements address the question of which methods or performance measures should be used by the library in order to determine the extent of its compliance with the guidelines. The classes of evaluation implied in these documents, as well as the resources, capabilities, products, services, and benefits they address, are summarized in table 3.

Comparisons of tables 2 and 3 indicate that there was little difference between the way in which the New England Association standards were addressed by site B, and the ways in which sites A, C and D addressed the Middle States Association standards. Therefore, these comparisons can be summarized in terms of several generalizations. First, although the report prepared at site D, the most successful site, was the most comprehensive—in that it addressed at least one aspect of all the standards set by its regional accrediting association—the self-study reports prepared at the other sites included some aspects of all of the input standards and most of the process standards included in the guidelines set by their regional accrediting associations. Second, most of these input and process standards were addressed descriptively in the self-study reports. Third, only the reports prepared at sites A and D, which are at opposite ends of the self-study success spectrum, addressed the outputs included in the stan-

| TABLE 3 |
| CLASSES OF EVALUATION AND SPECIFIC RESOURCES, CAPABILITIES, PRODUCTS, SERVICES, AND BENEFITS ADDRESSED BY ACCREDITATION GUIDELINES |
|---|---|---|
| Accrediting Association | Class of Evaluation | Resource, Capability, Product, Service, or Benefit Addressed |
| New England Input | Staff qualifications; staff size |
| Process | Collection availability, appropriateness, accessibility and arrangement; study space availability; cooperation arrangements. |
| Middle States Input | Staff experience, training and competence; budget adequacy; space; staff philosophy of service. |
| Process | Collection appropriateness, quality, balance and adequacy; cooperation with faculty; staff responsibility and status; utilization of computerized services; cooperative arrangements; organization of facility; facility conditions and availability. |
| Output | Effectiveness of general library operations; collection use; use of facility for instructional purposes; general use of facility. |
dards. And finally, the self-study documents prepared at all sites included some descriptions and assessments of processes that did not seem to pertain to any of the standards developed by their regional accrediting agencies. The most obvious of these are the descriptions and/or assessments of user education programs that appear in each of these reports.

**OBSERVATIONS**

The data from the analysis of the two regional accrediting associations' guidelines and the self-study and annual reports prepared at the case study sites suggest the following observations.

- The analysis of the classes of evaluation and the specific resources, capabilities, products, and services addressed in the self-study report seems to indicate that there is no relationship between the apparent success level of the self-study process conducted at the case study sites and these characteristics of their reports. Specifically, sites A and D, on opposite ends of the self-study success spectrum, addressed the widest variety of evaluation classes, i.e., inputs, processes and outputs. In addition, there do not seem to be any striking differences between those resources, capabilities, products and services included in the successful self-study process sites' reports and those addressed by the unsuccessful self-study process sites.

- It would seem that the reports of the more successful self-study processes, sites C and D, were less descriptive than the reports of the relatively unsuccessful sites. However, it should also be noted that all four of these reports were more than 60 percent descriptive.

- The finding that site C employed the smallest number of assessments and site D the largest indicates that among these sites there was no relationship between success of the self-study process and the number of assessments included in the reports.

- The analysis of the self-study reports indicates that the types of assessments employed during the self-study are related to the success of the self-study process. Specifically, the analysis revealed that the more successful sites included a higher percentage of user and expert opinions in their reports. The less successful sites relied more heavily on arbitrarily established criteria or standards from the profession, costs, and other quantitative measures as means of assessment. The experiences at these sites therefore suggest that assessments of various aspects of the library by experts, and especially users, can be a valuable technique for facilitating changes and improvements and for realizing other benefits from the self-study process.

- At each of the sites the annual reports were much richer sources of information than the self-study documents. This seems to be especially true with respect to quantitative assessments of library processes and outputs. This finding certainly seems contrary to what would logically be expected: the self-study document, which is intended to be a report of a concentrated period of self-evaluation, should have been more far-reaching and evaluative than the annual reports.

- The self-study documents generated at all of the sites contain descriptions of processes, many of them overviews of library services and functions that did not appear in the annual reports. This finding certainly seems contrary to what would logically be expected: the self-study document, which is intended to be a report of a concentrated period of self-evaluation, should have been more far-reaching and evaluative than the annual reports.

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**CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE**

In summary, it can be said that despite the fact that the self-study processes conducted at these four sites varied in terms of the improvements, changes, and bene-
fits accrued, their self-study reports were not very different. All were predominantly descriptive, focused on library processes and contained fewer and less detailed quantitative assessments of the libraries’ processes and outputs than did their annual reports. Further, with the exception of their inclusion of user or expert opinion as types of assessments, the reports prepared at the relatively successful sites did not differ from those prepared at the relatively unsuccessful sites in terms of: classes of evaluation addressed; specific resources, capabilities, products, and services addressed; number of assessment measures included; or extent to which accrediting association standards were addressed.

As the description of the methodology of this study indicates, the libraries that served as case-study sites did not constitute a scientifically selected sample of academic library self-study processes. However, to the extent that these sites represent a cross section of self-study experiences, the findings of this study can be generalized to similar academic libraries and have implications for librarians and regional accrediting associations.

It is likely that supporters of the regional accreditation process will find the results of this study disturbing and discouraging. The public relations nature of these documents and their lack of candid assessments (relative to the annual reports) underscore the librarians’ failure to report useful data on the effectiveness of the library to the accrediting associations. Whether this is the result of unwillingness, oversight, or failure on the part of the library and/or the institutional administration to understand or embrace the philosophy behind the regional accreditation process (and specifically the intention that the self-study process be a tool for improvement and planning) remains to be determined.

The experiences at the four sites suggest that self-study reports typically do not address library outputs. Therefore, members of evaluation teams who rely heavily on them are in effect trying to evaluate the academic library’s effectiveness and its achievement of goals largely on the basis of descriptions of its inputs and processes. This finding points out a need for informed evaluators who have been trained by the regional accrediting associations they represent to recognize the limitations of library self-study documents and to augment the information included in them. The findings study also suggest that user opinions of library performance and data from annual reports would be helpful to evaluators.

At the same time, the results underscore the academic library’s need for more direction and support as it undertakes accreditation-related self-study. Because there appears to be no relationship between self-study success and the extent to which association guidelines or standards were addressed, it is incumbent upon these associations to develop guidelines or standards that provide more guidance to libraries willing to use the accreditation-related self-study process as an opportunity for assessing effectiveness. This guidance would seem to be most beneficial if it were built on the preliminary work conducted by Kania and assisted practitioners in identifying and then actually applying appropriate performance measures. Additional sources of self-study assistance could be continuing education programs offered by library schools (such as those recently conducted by Kells and Kania at Rutgers University) and programs sponsored by various professional associations serving academic librarians and other educators.

REFERENCES


20. Ibid.


The Reliability Factor in Subject Access

Constance McCarthy

For truly effective subject access, it is essential that books on any given topic be brought together consistently under the same subject heading. With the advent of online catalogs, this goal has assumed new importance but has also become easier to achieve.

As the library community has gained experience with online catalogs, subject access has assumed new importance as a topic of discussion. Experts from several constituencies within librarianship are bringing their skills and experiences to bear on an old problem in a new setting.

The old problem is that of creating the best subject indexing for a large collection of items that is never static. New considerations arising with online capabilities include the possibility of overcoming some of the limitations formerly imposed by the presentation of the catalog on cards as well as the desire to take advantage of any other improvements to subject access that computers might make possible. The recent series of articles in American Libraries by Pauline Cochrane, to which many others contributed, served well to delineate the present range of opinions within the profession. Carol Mandel and Judith Herschman, in an article on possible ways of improving subject access in online catalogs, provide a review of the literature up to February 1983.

For the most part, the issues being debated thus far concern the online catalog itself and the features it has or might have; the adequacy of the Library of Congress Subject Headings as a thesaurus for the online catalog; and the possible enhancement of the catalog record by adding more subject headings or key words from tables of contents or elsewhere. An issue that has not been addressed in this context, as far as I can discover, is that of uniformity or consistency in the application of subject headings (as distinct from consistency among headings, the lack of which produces such often-noted pitfalls as French Literature, but Philosophy, French). To avoid confusion, I have given the name "reliability" (a less-than-ideal term) to this particular kind of consistency.

Before discussing this matter further, it may be useful to consider briefly the purpose of subject headings or descriptors and the ways in which a search based on their use differs from one using free text or key words. The purpose of subject headings is to make it possible to find all documents about the same subject by consulting the same term. The key concept in this oversimplified definition is of course all. Enthusiasts describing free-text searching invariably give examples of the many useful documents retrieved; they seem not to realize that—for all they know—the most useful documents may have eluded them.

Controlled subject heading structure serves the same purpose as its counterpart, name authority control; they each make possible a comprehensive search.

As another prefatory note, I want to explain that I am a reference librarian. My viewpoint on subject headings is that of a consumer, not a producer; my ideas have been arrived at through my experience in

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assisting library users in their subject searches as well as through my own individual experience.

The aspect of subject access I wish to discuss is the reliability of the choices made by catalogers when assigning subject headings. Regardless of the merits of the subject term itself, can we find grouped under it all the books on the subject it identifies? Or will some catalogers have chosen other headings? Trade-unions may not be an idiomatic term for contemporary Americans, but reliability will be served if all the books on labor unions are given that subject heading and not dispersed under, say, Labor and Laboring Classes or Industrial Relations. I have chosen to use the term “reliability” for this concept, because the other terms used by catalogers who discuss it have become so identified with other topics that they might be misleading.

It has, of course, nothing to do with the form of the catalog; however, I believe that in the online environment it has an even greater importance than in the card catalog. Further, online catalogs have certain features that should make reliability easier to achieve.

By reliability then, I mean simply the basic goal of bringing all books on the same topic together under the same subject heading. A. C. Foskett, speaking of “consistency,” says it means that once the user “has found out how a subject has been indexed, he will find all similar documents, which will presumably also be relevant, indexed in the same way.” Lois Chan, who refers to “uniform heading,” says “a true subject entry lists all works on the same subject together regardless of the authors’ choice of terminology.” David Haykin, using the term “unity,” says “a subject catalog must bring together under one heading all the books which deal principally or exclusively with the subject, whatever the terms applied to it by the authors of the books and whatever the varying terms applied to it at different times.”

In the present context, the problem is not, usually, that the authors’ terminology has misled the subject cataloger. Rather, it may be a national cataloging policy that places undue emphasis on specificity and on finding an exact match for the scope of the entire book, whatever the cost in dispersal of books among many headings. Or, it may be the presumably constant increase in the complexity of topics that appear in the literature. Certainly the problem has been exacerbated by a policy of restricting the number of subject headings used. This restriction was presumably necessary because of problems related to the amount of space in the card catalogs. Another factor is undoubtedly that subject catalogers at the Library of Congress, although they are working with an online catalog, do not have easy and immediate access to a consolidated list of all established subject headings, including those most recently formulated.

Whatever the reasons, books in many subject areas are simply not reliably brought together by our present catalogs. If the subject of a book can be encompassed in a proper name, then that book will be handsomely treated by the subject catalogers at the Library of Congress, and it is almost certain to find its place with other books on the same person, place, or corporate entity. If it is about a chemical compound, a single identifiable literary genre, a historical period, or any of many other definite and discrete concepts, it will fare nearly as well. But books devoted to less indisputably definable topics, or to subjects too new to be familiar, seem to stand a poor chance of ending up together with others on the same topic under the same subject heading.

One of the very few places where this situation has been discussed is in John M. Christ’s book on the lack of correspondence between the terminology of the social sciences and library subject headings. In describing the large number of different subject headings assigned to books on the sociological topics “role” and “culture,” he points out that “there appears to be a high degree of dispersion in the variety of subject headings assigned by the Library of Congress.” For 109 bibliographical entries in his study, on six different subjects, 188 subject headings (fewer than two per title) were assigned, of which 121 were different!

But it’s not that the problem concepts are all as arguably amorphous as those
studied by Christ. Last year, for example, the reference collection at Northwestern University Library had five different directories of online databases. Among them they had eight different subject headings, but no subject heading was common to all five. This would have been less of a problem if they had not used, among them, five different Dewey classification numbers. Imagine the reference librarian who is looking for any one of them without being able to remember the title or the author's name. And then imagine a library user hoping to find information from such a directory, and trying to select the best one from the library's holdings!

There was nothing wrong with any of these subject headings and, to some extent, they reflected differences in content. But any library user would have expected to find all five directories under the same subject heading. I use the past tense because the Catalog Department at Northwestern, freed from the burden of card filing and maintenance, has been willing to provide us with additional headings for some titles when we call serious inadequacies to their attention. This was an instance where we requested, and got, the same two subject headings applied to each of the directories. As grateful as we are for these interventions on our behalf, it is too time-consuming a procedure in both departments for us to resort to it often. And if every reference department trying to keep track of its directories of online databases were to follow the same path, the expenditure of time would be truly monumental.

What catalogers and others having infrequent contact with the public may not fully realize is the extent to which users depend on the catalog to use the same heading consistently for books on the same subject. Users may find some of our terminology to be peculiar, but once they have found a subject heading that produces some books on their topic they normally assume that all the books in the library on that topic will have that same subject heading. I talk to users every day who are having problems with subject searching. I would not attempt to generalize about their problems (terms too broad, too narrow, unfiltered through LCSH), but one thing they all have in common is their complete faith in the total reliability of the library's subject headings.

My concern about reliability arises primarily from my experience as a reference librarian using subject headings both to locate reference books and to assist users in their subject searches. The examples I use here all concern reference books, but subject access to the general collection is not, I think, dissimilar in any significant respect. It seems to me that the experience of reference librarians has value at a time when we are considering changes in the way our subject catalogs are created. We are sometimes referred to as "sophisticated" or "skilled" catalog users, but we could also be called "stubborn" catalog users. I believe that one of the chief differences between a librarian and a naive catalog user is that the librarian is likely to be looking for something that he or she knows, or is nearly certain, must be in the catalog, whereas the user is far more likely to give up a search, assuming that there is nothing available on the topic or that everything available has been found—thus the most relevant or most basic titles may remain undiscovered. I believe it is now the responsibility of reference librarians to become articulate, as well as stubborn, catalog users, and to participate in the discussion of online subject catalogs more actively than they have. It is to this end, and not with any wish to carp about the generally good subject cataloging provided by the Library of Congress, that I record these instances of professional user frustration.

Take, for example, *The Book of American City Rankings*, by John Tepper Marlin (New York: Facts On File, 1983). Where would you expect to find this book, which ranks cities on everything from books loaned per capita by public libraries to homicides as a percentage of all deaths? Certainly not an easy book to categorize, and perhaps the single subject heading Cities and Towns—United States—Handbooks, Manuals, etc. is not too bad. At least, it wouldn't be too bad if you hadn't become accustomed to finding *Places Rated Almanac* by Richard Boyer and David Savageau (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1981) under a subject heading that well de-
scribes the content of both books: Quality of life—United States—Statistics or under one of its other subject headings: Social Indicators—United States or Cities and Towns—United States—Statistics. However, the Book of American Rankings by Clark S. Judge (New York: Facts On File, 1979), which ranks the states in the same way that the Marlin book ranks cities, has only United States—Statistics as a subject heading, which might have led you to rely on Statistics as a subdivision of place when looking for similar books in the future. The first edition of the Book of World Rankings by George T. Kurian (New York: Facts On File, 1979), on the other hand, had only Social Indicators as a heading. The new edition, The New Book of World Rankings (1984), however, has Statistics, Economic Indicators, and (hurrah!) Quality of Life—Statistics as well. But wait! A new edition (1985) of Places Rated Almanac has appeared, and this time it has four subject headings instead of three! But, alas, Quality of Life is no longer among them, although the other two headings from the 1981 edition have been retained, and two new headings, United States—Statistics and Almanacs, American have been added.

Presumably the subject catalogers of these books didn't search for other works on the same topic before choosing a subject heading. But then, it is also unlikely that they will ever be trying to find any of them in the future to answer a reference question or to satisfy a client who knows of the existence of these books and expects to find them, if not under the same headings, at least under headings that are consistent with one another. Users of many online catalogs get subject tracings with each catalog entry they see. It should at least be possible for them, knowing of the existence of any one of these books on rankings of places, to enter its author or title into the online catalog and get a display of subject tracings that would produce all of the others. And when they have located a book through the use of a subject heading, their reasonable assumption that all other editions of that book have been found also, having been given the same subject heading, should not prove wrong.

An example of a different kind of problem is America's Working-class Women: A Historical Bibliography by Susan Estabrook Kennedy (New York: Garland, 1981). The only subject heading assigned to this book by the Library of Congress was Working-class women—United States—History—Bibliography. This was the first time Working-class Women, a newly established heading, had appeared in our reference department subject catalog. If we were looking for bibliographical information about the history of women at work, which is the predominant element in this book, our experience and instincts would tell us to look under Women—Employment or a similar heading (for a secondary element, the heading Labor and Laboring Classes might come to mind); we would not think of Working-class Women. The correctness of the heading assigned, which is without doubt the best single heading for the book, is not in question here—and of course we could have found the heading. To do so we could have gone to the 1981 supplement of LSCH and found a see also reference under Women (not, of course, Women—Employment). How likely would we be to do that? The answer is simple: we would never do that—first, because it would take too much time, given that we would be searching without any real conviction of need (isn't Women—Employment, a heading under which we would already have found other, related, titles, good enough?), and secondly, because we would have many other avenues of approach to the topic, through indexes, bibliographies, and sometimes, proximity of classification number. Being unaware of the existence of the ideal bibliography for our needs, we would not feel deprived by its absence.

One of the very few advantages of a card catalog over an online catalog is that headings and guide cards that are several inches away and even more distant labels of drawers are all within the field of vision of a user looking at a single heading. With a computer catalog, even if there is an index or thesaurus of terms, only a single screen of data can be seen at once. This means that there may be less awareness of the extent of the subdivisions in a file or even of headings that vary only slightly from those being viewed. This limited
view imposed by the terminal screen bestows added importance on each heading, as alphabetically related terms are less likely to be seen.

LUIS, our online computer catalog at Northwestern, has as yet no subject cross-references. But let us assume for a moment that we do have up-to-date online subject authority records incorporated into the online catalog. Would reference librarians and users, having once found Women—Employment in our subject guide screen, go back several screens to look at the cross-references under Women? Probably not. What we may need is a more generous allotment of see also from or broader term headings referring to Working-class Women. In addition to Women, Labor and Laboring Classes, and Social Classes, the xx references in LCSH, we might do well to have Women—Employment, Women—Social Conditions, and perhaps others. It has been suggested that cross-references—including broader, narrower, and related terms—be displayed on the screen automatically whenever the user requests a subject term. Another solution in this case would be simply the more generous assignment of subject headings. The bibliography under consideration contains more information on Women—Employment than do some others devoted entirely to that topic; why may it not have a subject heading bringing out that aspect of its contents?

Another instance in which the cataloger has presumably tried to choose the best single heading for a book is the World Press Encyclopedia edited by George T. Kurian (New York: Facts On File, 1982). The only subject heading given to this two-volume work was Government and the Press—Handbooks, Manuals, etc. Certainly much of the information contained in this comprehensive nation-by-nation survey of the press in 180 countries relates to the relationship between news media and governments. However, it is also the best available single source on the characteristics and history of the world’s press. Why should we hide it away from library users hoping to find this kind of information under such a heading as Press, Journalism or even Newspapers? Why is there a tendency to ration subject headings for large, important books useful to many, while squandering them on tiny or special-interest works?

Some other instances of subject heading inconsistency that have caused problems for Northwestern reference librarians concern certain frequently used directories. We have found that we cannot rely on finding consistent subject headings for directories of colleges and universities, of graduate programs, of academic scholars and university faculty members, or of authors’ guides to publishing in various fields. These instances come readily to mind because they are the titles of handlists we have produced for our own use and to give to students looking for this kind of information; we could probably use many more such lists if we had the time to compile them. In the case of directories of graduate education, for example, many directories have a subject heading following this pattern: Sociology—Study and Teaching (Higher)—United States. Others, however, omit (Higher) or add Directories or omit United States, until there is no way of predicting just what the subject heading will be. The problems with the other directories mentioned are similar.

To summarize the difficulties discussed in the preceding examples:
1. Different terms may be chosen by subject catalogers for books dealing with the same topic, as with the online directories and the books about ranking of places. Presumably this is particularly a danger with new topics.
2. The level of specificity may be such as to divide a book from others on closely related topics, as exemplified by our bibliography on working-class women. Presumably this is also a hazard especially characteristic of areas of expanding scholarship.
3. Not enough headings are assigned to bring out the contents of the book. This was the case with The World Press Encyclopedia and also with America’s Working-class Women.
4. As with the directories for graduate education, subdivisions may have been applied to different levels of specificity.
5. Cross-references, as with Working-class Women, are made too sparingly, and at too high a subdivision level.

Now let us consider possible solutions to the difficulties—ways of insuring to the best of our limited ability that materials on the same subjects may be located under the same subject headings. Many would immediately mention keyword access, free-text searching, and Boolean logic as the best hope for overcoming some of the limitations of our catalogs. For the bibliography on working-class women, we need only have entered the word women, the word work, truncated, and the word bibliography. True, we would have retrieved that bibliography, but we would have missed others in our reference collection whose titles do not include work or women.

To get all of them, we would need considerable skill in searching and—the greatest flaw—we could never be sure that we had all of them, or (what we really want) all the best of them. This situation would be alleviated somewhat by enrichment of the records with phrases from the table of contents or index, but it could never completely be overcome by such means. Perhaps the most important function of subject cataloging, with the human intelligence and forethought it entails, is to try to make possible a true comprehensive search of the database to which it provides an index. A glance at the other examples will show that even greater difficulties would attend an attempt to retrieve them with certainty through free-text searching. Keyword searching, although of the greatest usefulness for narrowing a search when too many books have been retrieved or in locating materials for which existing subject headings are inadequate or insufficiently current, will never solve the reliability problem for us; in fact, it is very nearly the antithesis of reliability! In any case, before counting too much on our users’ abilities as online searchers, we need to do more study of transaction tapes from online catalogs and of reports from librarians working with end users.

Other, more pedestrian approaches show more promise. The simplest—and perhaps the best—would be to encourage subject catalogers to provide more subject headings for most books. (The average number at present has been calculated by different studies at between 1.4 and 1.9 headings per book.) This approach, which has been advocated by many, would greatly improve a user’s chances of finding materials. Surely libraries using card catalogs and worrying about space limitations could simply refrain from using all the headings? If necessary, perhaps LC could designate an optional break-off point, as they do with Dewey numbers.

In the same vein, a loosening of the prohibition against assigning headings that represent less than the entire book would be helpful. Not that the catalog should try—at least not at this point in its history—to take on the functions of indexes and bibliographies, but when a substantial component of a book can be bought out by additional subject headings, it should be done.

Other promising approaches involve the cross-reference structure. First, we should make it a top priority to start using the cross-references we already have. “To paraphrase a famous quotation, except in the LC Public Catalog, the Library of Congress subject heading system has not been tried and found wanting; it has never been tried.”

Most large libraries long ago gave up maintaining an adequate structure in their card catalogs, at what expense to users it is painful to imagine. The experience at Northwestern, unlike that reported by some other libraries, was that the advent of the online subject catalog caused users to turn to LCSH with astonishing diligence. We have bought several additional sets, many of which have had to be rebound. But compared to having the cross-references in the catalog where they belong, and recorded in an easily understood format, this is a mere makeshift.

Next, we can improve the entry vocabulary. There is no need to use synonymous subject headings, as some have suggested, to try to match our users’ vocabularies; but in the computer catalog we could increase the number of see references almost without limit and greatly improve the usefulness of the catalog to the public.

To achieve reliability, however, it is the
see also references directing users to broader, narrower, and related terms that are of greater significance. The new cataloging rules for see also references recently implemented by the Library of Congress should, in time, make LCSH equivalent to a thesaurus, with better logic and a greatly improved system for assisting users to move up and down the ladder of specificity. This encourages us to speculate about the possibility of manipulating the subject authority files in ways that would be predictable and easy. One of the worst enemies of reliability is the tendency of the user to approach the catalog on a different level of specificity from that of the subject cataloger or the existing literature. What if LC's new rules eventually enabled us to approach their subject headings as we do the tree structures in MESH (the National Library of Medicine's Medical Subject Headings), exploding the online search into a more general subject heading or an array of related terms when too little is found under a narrow heading? If that is too visionary, we should at least be able to override subject subdivisions at will, producing a broader result. In years past, as a matter of policy, some types of subject heading files were subdivided only when they reached unmanageable proportions. However, it was not normally considered possible to go back and add subdivisions, where appropriate, to the previously cataloged titles. This policy itself thus produced a great deal of "unreliability" and confusion. In recognition of this problem, each term is now more likely to be subdivided as minutely as possible to allow for infinite expansion, a policy that often results in the separation of titles users would hope to find together. At this juncture, it should be possible for the user to elect the use of a broader heading. In any case, now that it is possible to use Boolean logic and other searching techniques in online catalogs, the terror of the long file should soon be alleviated. The user who does not want everything on a particular topic can limit by date or combine the heavily used term with one or more free-text words.

But what can be done about the most serious of the impediments to reliability—

the catalogers' choice of different terms for books on the same topic? Manipulation of cross-references alone will not solve this problem. The only solution, it seems to me, would be for catalogers to examine the literature on the topic under consideration to see what subject headings have been used in the past. This would involve not only checking to see how a particular subject heading has been used but would also sometimes necessitate the use of bibliographies, indexes, or online searches to locate books on the topic by means other than the Library of Congress subject headings. (Perhaps this is sometimes done now, but I assume that it is not common practice.) The books so located could then be examined for similarity of subject matter and the subject headings brought into alignment either by matching the new book to the old or by adding headings to the old books. This would, of course, be time-consuming and expensive, but the improvement in the quality of subject cataloging would be invaluable. Also, or at least so Robert Holley and Robert Killheffer maintain, such efforts are fully justifiable if one considers the attention expended on name authority work, despite the fact that the chances of the same name being used more than once are only one in four. The other suggestion I have is that subject catalogers try to think more of the catalog as a whole—how its headings interact together—and somewhat less, perhaps, about finding the ideal subject heading for each book. According to Janet Swan Hill, head of cataloging at Northwestern, this is easier to do when the catalog is online. "You are better able to consult it," she says, "and to consult it creatively; and you begin to think more in terms of the catalog as your creation, rather than just the individual records. This rather monstrous shift in attitude has certainly happened here, and is almost totally attributable to the switch from the card catalog to the online one."

The Reference Department at Northwestern meets almost every week on Friday mornings. As the last item of business, new reference books of interest are introduced and briefly described. Two im-
important questions will be asked about many of these books: "What subject headings have they given it?" and "Where is it classified?" We need to know because, in our reference collection of nearly fifty thousand volumes, the call number and subject headings are essential if we hope to find the books again. For many new reference books, such questions are not necessary: as mentioned earlier, subject access for proper names and easily identifiable concepts are excellent. For others, we nod our heads approvingly when we hear the subject headings—"that's just where I'd look for it." But in all too many cases, everyone simply groans—"they've done it to us again."

Can we, as a profession, consider the distress catalog users would feel if they knew how many books they may never find because of inadequacies in the application of subject headings? Can we summon up the commitment and the resources necessary to produce really adequate subject access? Such a task would require a greatly increased application of human time and intelligence in an era when we turn all too readily to computers for solutions. But for catalog users, the results would be of inestimable value.

REFERENCES AND NOTES


5. Lois Mai Chan, Library of Congress Subject Headings: Principles and Application (Littleton, Colo.: Libraries Unlimited, 1978), p. 24. Chan points out here that consistency does not necessarily imply uniform entry—bringing together all the books under a single heading. Theoretically, it would be possible to use several synonyms for a topic and still maintain consistency, as long as all the books were given all the headings. Economy, however, has so far required that we instead make see references from the unused synonyms.


8. The headings are Information Storage and Retrieval Systems—Directories; Machine-readable Bibliographic Data—Directories; Information Networks—Directories; On-line Bibliographic Searching—Directories; On-line Data Processing—Directories; Computer Industry—Directories; Electronic Data Processing; and Business—Data Processing.


10. The Frankenstein Catalog, by Donald F. Glut (Jefferson, N.C.: McFarland, 1984), for example, has the following subject headings: Shelley, Mary Wollstonecroft, 1797-1851; Frankenstein—Bibliography; Shelley, Mary Wollstonecroft, 1797-1851—Adaptations—Bibliography; Frankenstein Films—Catalogs; Monsters in Literature—Bibliography; Monsters in Mass Media—Catalogs.

11. The fact that in the case of professional schools, the formula is different, producing Medical Colleges—United States, Law Schools—United States, but Schools of Architecture—United States; although a parallel inconsistency, this is an example of inconsistency among subject headings—far less damaging, it seems to me, than the inconsistency in the application of subject headings I have been describing, as it can more easily be mitigated by cross-references.

12. For the skeptical reference librarian's point of view on some of these matters, see Anne G. Lipow,


15. Mandel and Herschman, p.149.


The Influence of Reference Practices on the Client-Librarian Relationship

Joan C. Durrance

This paper raises questions about the influence of present reference practice on library user perceptions of the librarian as an information intermediary and on user ability to distinguish between librarians and other library staff. It discusses these questions within the context of the client-professional relationship, using data from a study of the users of three university libraries in the Midwest. The author concludes that present reference practice hinders the development of a true client-professional relationship.

In a recent editorial in College & Research Libraries, writing in the context of evaluation of reference performance, Charles Martell raised a number of important questions; one of them was "How does the environment in which we work discourage...[the] assessment [of reference performance]?"1 Questions like this, which call for an examination of the basic reference model, have seldom been asked by librarians and researchers and certainly have not been answered by them.2 One study that raises a similar question, "What effect does the environment of reference service have on the reference interview?" was done by Mary Jo Lynch. She sketched the differences between our professional model and other models: Other professionals do not usually operate in such an atmosphere. Clients commonly make appointments to see them and even when appointments are not made the professional works in a private or semiprivate place and admits clients one at a time. Reference librarians, by contrast, wait in a public place for any client that may come along... . The implications of this situation must be taken into account in any consideration of the reference interview.3

Although her study found that library users are not well served by the public practice of reference she suggested that it "may be necessary because...of the way that people use libraries."4 I would argue that people use libraries the way they do because they are encouraged to do so by the environment created by librarians.

This paper attempts to apply empirical data to the concerns that Martell, Lynch, and others have raised.5 It addresses these concerns by breaking them into several component questions: (1) Does present practice limit the ability of library users to distinguish between librarians and other staff members? (2) Does it make it difficult for library users to see librarians as information intermediaries? (3) Does present practice discourage library users from becoming clients of librarians? (4) Does it make it difficult for librarians to function as professionals?

This paper addresses these questions within the framework of two concerns that have reappeared with disturbing regularity in the literature of librarianship. The first is the problem of librarianship as a profession, in particular the image that

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the public has of librarianship as a profession. The second concern is a component of the first: librarianships’s inability to develop an adequate theoretical framework. In a recent paper on professional issues, Michael Winter noted that “the lack of an adequate theoretical body of knowledge is . . . a serious obstacle to the professional development of an occupation.” Winter goes on to say:

The various dimensions of professionalization are interdependent. Thus problems in the knowledge base, combined as they are with low public recognition and complicated by structural constraint, are probably more serious in librarianship than the same problems are in other disciplines.

A better understanding of the effect of the reference environment on the user will add to the theoretical base required for optimum practice of reference. In addition, it will make it easier for librarians to communicate more clearly their role to the public and should permit the field to evaluate reference performance more effectively. The literature devoted to the evaluation of reference service is both extensive and inadequate, perhaps because it does not adequately analyze the limitations of present practice.

In 1983 a review article on reference theory Richard Danner found that “despite continuing interest in the problem of reference theory . . . librarians have been unable to reach a consensus on a definition of library service or on a characterization of the activity.” Thelma Friedes reached a similar conclusion in her review of trends in academic libraries. Danner posits that the articulation of a theory of reference service is “of crucial importance to the future of the profession” in light of current trends in the development of information technology. Although for more than a decade researchers have examined the interaction that occurs between the librarian and the library user in the reference transaction, the affect of present identification practices on the professional-client relationship, per se, has not been adequately examined. Communication concepts such as the reference interview have been defined and explained within the context of present professional practice, but without discussion of the effect that present practice might have on the library user.

Librarians have assumed that the distinctions necessary to distinguish between them and other staff can be made by library users. Yet, a quarter of a century ago, William Goode reported that the public’s perception of librarians as clerks posed a serious problem for librarianship as it sought professional status. In 1977, Peter Hernon and Maureen Pastine found that “students perceive the role of librarians, clericals, and student assistants as being the same.” They also found that although 87 percent of the university students in their study thought that librarians and other library staff members differed in their backgrounds, most students believed that librarians sat behind desks, and were older, more knowledgeable and competent than other staff.

The present study examines the perceptions that library users have about library practitioners and the effect these perceptions have on their behavior both as library users and as clients.

THE CLIENT PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIP IN REFERENCE

The perceptions library users have about the library practitioner will influence the nature of the professional-client relationship that they develop. If a norm for the professional-client relationship has been developed and transmitted to library users, it is that the user should approach an anonymous staff member of unknown credentials who is behind one of several public desks and who is often simultaneously engaged in some other activity. Since these unidentified, uncredentialed staff members rotate days and times, the library user is required to initiate contact with any one of several desk staff. If the user is referred to another source of information, the referral is likely to be to another location and not to a staff member. Most academic libraries adhere to this pattern.

Certain conditions must be present before a client engages a practitioner in a professional relationship. It is the argument of this paper that the traditional practice of reference may transmit indistinct messages to library users about the role and practice of librarianship, making
it difficult for library users to become clients of librarians. The paper asks the question "Does this practice produce a set of conditions conducive to the development of a true client-professional relationship?"

**Method**

Major variables in this study include: (1) user knowledge of staff differentiation, (2) user ability to recognize specific staff members, (3) the inclination of users to look for and return to particular staff members, (4) the inclination to avoid specific staff members, and (5) the criteria that are used as the basis for a decision to return to or avoid a staff member.

This study was conducted with users of three academic libraries that are similar in size and user composition: The Eastern Michigan University (18,880), Bowling Green State University (16,866), and the University of Toledo (21,489). Since there were no major differences in responses among the three universities, the data from all sites were combined. Interviews were conducted with 429 library users as they left each library during morning, afternoon, evening, and weekend hours for the months of May and June 1984.

Interviewers were stationed inside near the exit gates. With the exception of the principal investigator, interviewers were University of Michigan graduate students in library science and political science; both male and female interviewers were used. Eight two-hour blocks were spent interviewing at each site by a rotating team of two; an average of thirty-two hours was spent on interviews at each institution. Based on use data provided by staff at these institutions, interview hours were weighted toward more heavily used afternoon and evening hours. Each interview took between two and seven minutes.

The interview elicited detailed information from the user about a recently asked reference question. This question was used as a critical incident around which the interview was structured. To distinguish between a reference and a directional question, and to establish a reasonably time frame, the interviewer inquired if the user had asked a library staff member for assistance in getting information about a topic or help in locating library materials within the six past months. Each library user was placed into one of three categories by type of assistance sought: reference question, (including title-author questions), directional-equipment request, or no question.

**USER KNOWLEDGE OF STAFF DIFFERENTIATION**

Does present practice make it difficult for library users to identify librarians? This question was tested by analyzing three related factors: (a) the extent to which library users were aware of staff differentiation; (b) the categories assigned to library staff members by interviewees, coupled with the degree of uncertainty expressed; and (c) the reasons given for indicating that a staff member was a librarian, a library assistant, or a student assistant. Although nearly 84 percent of the users were aware that several categories of library staff work in academic libraries (a finding similar to Hernon and Pastine), they were not always able to identify professional staff.

When all library users who knew that different categories of staff worked in libraries and who had requested assistance were asked to indicate the category to which they would assign the staff member who had assisted them, the certainty dropped from 84 percent who knew that different categories of staff work in libraries to 62 percent who were sure of the category of the person who had assisted them. Over one-third were uncertain about the category.

**The Ability to Identify Library Staff Members by Name**

In most professions, those who interact directly with the client are known by name. Seventeen percent of the users who asked questions knew the staff members by name. Those who recognized or knew the name were likely to be more intensive library users than those who did not. They were more likely to report that they typically used several types of materials. They were twice as likely to report regularly seeking assistance than those who didn’t know the name of the staff member (19.2 percent to 10.1 percent). Finally, they
were far more likely to return to the staff member they consulted (74 percent) than those who didn’t recognize or know the name of a staff member (47.9 percent).

A 1980 study of citizen-group leaders showed that if they knew the name of a library staff member, they were likely to have a higher library success rate. However, the present study showed that recognition of a staff member or knowledge of the name did not assure that the library user knew the category to which the staff member belonged. Nearly a third of the respondents who could recognize or name a staff member were not sure to which category he or she should be assigned (see table 1).

**Rationale for Selecting Specific Staff Categories**

The reasons given by the 256 library users who were sure of the staff member’s status fell into five categories: (1) appearance and environmental clues, (2) expertise, (3) bibliographic instruction or some other practice that facilitated identification, (4) personal knowledge and, (5) “no reason” or “don’t know” (see table 2).

The reasons are strong indicators that users are unsure how to differentiate between librarians and other staff members. The evidence suggests that the knowledge users have about how to identify the different categories of staff is based not on information, instruction, or other assistance, but on appearance and supposition.

**Appearance and Environmental Clues**

Over half of the users who asked a reference question relied on clues provided either by the environment or by the staff member’s appearance to make a decision on staff category. Librarians were identified primarily as older and as behind

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**TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Librarian</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarian, not sure*</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library assistant</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library assistant, not sure*</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student assistant</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student assistant, not sure*</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other/Don’t know</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Respondent indicated the category with hesitation, i.e., “I think she must have been a librarian,” or, “I’m pretty sure he’s a student.”

**TABLE 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason Given</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Librarian</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Category Selected Assistant</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>58.8%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>89.7%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ID Practice</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bib. Inst.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knew Before</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39.1%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>43.4%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Reason</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All reasons given by respondents were recorded. Some respondents gave more than one reason for assigning a staff member to a particular category. This table is a combination of six cross-tabulations (one for each reason given).
desks. Most younger staff were assigned to the student category. Users generally relied on appearance and location rather than on any other method for determining the categories to which a staff member was assigned.

Expertise

Expertise was associated almost exclusively with the librarian category. However, it is interesting to note that although sixty-eight (27 percent) of the respondents recognized expertise as a reason for assigning a staff member to a category, library users cited appearance twice as often (168 responses). Although appearance and environmental clues are only circumstantial evidence, they are the most common means used to determine professional status.

Personal Knowledge

Twenty-three users said that they were sure of the category of the staff member who assisted them because they knew the person outside of the library. Nearly half were fellow students; the others were known in another context. The categories assigned to staff by those who are acquainted with one another are more likely to be accurate than the categories assigned based on appearance or expertise.

Bibliographic Instruction and Other Practices That May Result in Staff Identification

Only thirty-five users based their rationale on what appears to be a fairly accurate method to identify library staff categories—previous contact through bibliographic instruction (BI) or other practices used by librarians, which may result in more accurate identification of credentials and/or status. The other identification practices include self-identification by or referral to another staff member by name. These factors were mostly used to place the staff in the librarian category. All ten users who noted that the staff member had spoken to a class placed the staff member in the librarian category.

No Reason

Finally, thirty-one library users said that they did not know and/or had no reason to think that the staff member belonged to the specific category to which they had been assigned.

The first part of this paper has shown that present practice makes it difficult for library users to distinguish librarians from other library employees. It must be recalled that users were asked these questions not about any staff, but about library staff who had answered reference questions. Overall, these data show that although library users may be aware that there is staff differentiation in libraries, they are not able to distinguish with any certainty between librarians and other library employees when asking for assistance in obtaining information or materials.

The final portion of this paper returns to the questions and concerns raised in its opening paragraphs. Does present practice make it difficult for library users to perceive librarians as information intermediaries? Does it discourage most library users from becoming "clients" of these information intermediaries? Does it make it difficult for librarians to function as professionals? The final portion will discuss different modes of client behavior that result from the present anonymous practice of reference. It will examine the differences among four types of library users—those who do not seek assistance, those who ask only directional questions, those who seek assistance from library staff members, and those who not only seek assistance but also look for particular staff members when they need help.

INCLINATION OF THE USER TO SEEK ASSISTANCE

Given the anonymous practice of reference at an open desk, any relationship developed by the user and the practitioner is likely to be shaped by the user. Several variables may lead the user to recognize that a staff member may function as an information intermediary, e.g., the inclination of the user to seek assistance. Figure 1 outlines possible client-professional relationships; table 3 shows the number of users who asked a question in each category and the recency of these questions.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>Asks No Questions</th>
<th>Asks Only Directional Questions</th>
<th>TYPES OF QUESTIONS ASKED (Includes both reference and title/author requests)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Library Use (Building/Materials) Patterns</td>
<td>Building use only; Building use and materials use</td>
<td>Building use only; Materials use</td>
<td>Building use; Materials use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition Factor</td>
<td>Not known</td>
<td>No indication of staff recognition</td>
<td>No indication of staff recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediary Use Pattern</td>
<td>No questions</td>
<td>Asks directional questions</td>
<td>Asks directional questions; Asks reference questions of any staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference Factor</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>Goes to anyone</td>
<td>Goes to anyone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclination to Return</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>Either return or no preference</td>
<td>May return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client-determined Relationship</td>
<td>No contact</td>
<td>Relationship limited to single inquiry; Not professional in nature</td>
<td>Relationship limited to single question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Relationship</td>
<td>No relationship</td>
<td>Relationship not professional</td>
<td>Aware of intervention capability of library staff</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 1**

TYPOLOGY OF CLIENT-DETERMINED RELATIONSHIPS WITH LIBRARY PRACTITIONERS
BASED ON TYPE OF ASSISTANCE SOUGHT
1. Users Who Do Not Seek Assistance

Seventeen percent of the users in the sample made no contact with a library staff member within the six months prior to the study. Yet over half of them used the library several times a week. Half reported using the library as a place to study and three-fourths reported using library materials regularly. The fact that these users had made no contact with library staff but reported heavy building and materials use is an indicator that they perceive the library as a useful building. But either they do not recognize that staff may function as information intermediaries or they have no need to interact with the staff.

2. Users Who Ask Only Directional or Equipment Related Questions

Nearly one in five users had asked only directional questions. Sixty-five percent reported that their typical library use included facility use e.g., computer terminals and study tables. The majority were frequent users; nearly 58 percent reported using the library several times a week. Sixty-six percent reported using the library as a place to study on the day of the interview and about half reported using library materials regularly. These users expressed greater uncertainty about the different categories of staff in libraries than other users; 22 percent were not aware of staff differentiation in libraries. When users who asked directional questions are combined with those who asked no questions, the study shows that one-third of the users had not asked any questions that required the assistance of a librarian.

Users who asked directional questions differed from users who asked no questions in that they were inclined to seek, but had not made use of the professional skills of librarians. A number of studies have raised questions about those who use libraries but do not call on the professional capabilities of librarians. This study compares the behavior of those who are inclined to see librarians as intermediaries with those who do not.

3. Users Who See Library Staff as Intermediaries

The inclination to view the library staff member as an intermediary is a prerequisite for the development of a professional relationship. Nearly two-thirds of the users questioned, or 275 persons, had sought assistance. These users can be divided further into two distinct but disproportionately sized groups. The vast majority of those who asked questions (85 percent) said that they would go to any staff member when they had a question. The remaining 15 percent preferred to look for particular staff members. The principal differences between these two groups will be discussed below.

a. Users Who Go To Any Staff Member

Those who ask questions but who do not look for particular library staff members represent the largest category of library users. These individuals conform to the client norm expected by present reference practice. Nearly 62 percent reported using the library several times a week. Their library materials and building use was similar to those who asked no questions or who asked only directional questions. About two-thirds had used the library as a place to read or study on the day of the interview. Only 13 percent reported seeking assistance regularly. These users

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recency of Question</th>
<th>None %</th>
<th>Directional %</th>
<th>Title/Au. %</th>
<th>Reference %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Day of the Interview</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 2 Weeks</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Weeks to 1 Mo.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 Months</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 Months</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 6 Months or None</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total N = 426 N =</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 3

TYPES OF QUESTIONS ASKED IN THE PAST SIX MONTHS
ask questions but do not seek out particular staff. Although they did not customarily look for particular staff members, 55 percent said they would return to the person who had assisted them if help was needed at another time. Findings show that this large group does not engage in a true client relationship. Their contact with librarians as information intermediaries is likely to be limited to single, isolated encounters.

b. Users Who Act as Clients—Those Who Seek Out Particular Staff Members

All library users were asked, "When you use this library do you usually look for particular people when you need assistance?" Only 10 percent of all users look for particular staff. The library-use patterns of this minority follow: their frequency of use and library building and materials use patterns are not substantially different from the patterns shown by other users; less than 19 percent reported seeking assistance during their typical use patterns. It is not surprising to find that these and all other library users in this study report heavy materials and building use and minimal assistance seeking; library users spend far less time as clients than as library users. However, those who have recognized the value of the intermediary role do use the professional expertise of librarians. The next section of this paper examines the client behavior of these individuals.

The Client Mode—the Inclination to Look for Particular Staff

The 15 percent of users who looked for particular staff members were far less likely to say they were unsure of the category of the staff member (16.3 percent) than those who did not look for particular staff (33.7 percent). In addition, they were more likely to say that they selected a staff member on the basis of expertise (26.8 percent) than those who did not look for a particular staff member (20.9 percent). They were much less likely to say that they would go to whomever was at the desk (14.6 percent) than those with no preference (27.4 percent). Library users who looked for particular staff members were also much more likely to say that they avoided certain staff members (22 percent) than those who did not (8.6 percent).

Individuals who look for particular staff when they seek assistance act like the clients of other professionals. They select the professional and return to him or her when they need assistance. They do not prefer to go to just anyone. In the process of selecting, they may also make a conscious decision to avoid a particular practitioner. They may learn the name of the staff member with whom they have developed a relationship, but if not, they will return to the staff member through recognition alone. Users who have learned the name of a practitioner benefit by having the ability to reestablish communication with a professional at a later time.\[21\]

Criteria Used to Select the Library/Information Professional

Only those users who have engaged in client behavior develop criteria to select staff. They constitute a small minority of library users; in this study only forty-one qualified. In librarianship the absence of obvious credentials or specialties known to the client—such as family practice or obstetrics in medicine, or divorce or taxation in law—requires the clients to develop their own criteria.

These criteria allow the client to develop the qualities later sought in the practitioner. Expertise was the criterion most often used by the respondents in this study; half of those who looked for a particular staff member said that the staff member was selected for expertise or knowledge exhibited in a past encounter. Thirty-nine percent of those who looked for a particular staff member said that they selected the staff member because they recognized that person. Finally, sixteen did so because the staff member seemed friendly or approachable.

The Inclination to Return

The inclination to return is a strong indicator that the user has established a client relationship with a staff member. In this study, the 360 users who asked questions, and would return to the staff member who had assisted them, were more likely to know that different categories of staff
worked in the library (89 percent) than those who didn't care if they returned to the staff member (79 percent). They are more than twice as likely to recognize or know the name of the staff member (26 percent) than those who didn't care (13 percent). None of those who said they would prefer to go to someone else the next time knew the name of the staff member who had assisted them. Those who return are twice as likely to say that a library staff member had spoken to their class (12 percent) than those who had no preference (6 percent). Finally, they are twice as likely to cite expertise as a criterion for selection than those who had no preference (25 percent to 12 percent).

Criteria Used to Avoid Staff

Library users who avoid particular staff members have client behavior in common with those who seek out staff. They distinguish among staff members and they exhibit preferences. Fourteen percent of those who asked questions reported that they avoided specific staff members. Library users who sought specific staff members were more likely to avoid particular staff (22 percent) than those who did not (9 percent).

The reasons for avoidance were grouped into two main categories: (1) negative style of the staff member, based on past experience or perception; and (2) past experience unrelated to expertise. About half of the users avoided particular staff members because they were unpleasant to approach. Although some users avoided a particular staff member because they thought that person was a student or a nonprofessional, 56 percent of the staff members avoided were thought to be librarians. Forty-four percent avoided certain staff members because in a past experience the staff member had appeared to be too busy to deal with their inquiry, had given no help, or had given more help than the user needed.

Summary and Implications

The introductory section of this paper raised questions about how present reference practices keep users from recognizing the professionalism inherent in this activity. The data show that library users: (1) do not easily distinguish between librarians and other staff members; (2) have only a vague notion of staff differentiation; (3) are unaware of the credentials of librarians; and (4) environmental clues or other circumstantial evidence are used to identify staff by category.

Without doubt, misperceptions influence the ability of librarians to practice their profession, because librarians cannot serve effectively those who understand neither their purpose nor their expertise. If users cannot distinguish between professionals and other staff, they may respond inappropriately to the profession. Inappropriate responses may include (1) a misunderstanding of the role of the librarians as an information intermediary, (2) assuming all staff have the same credentials and provide the same level of service, (3) developing invalid criteria about whom to consult when assistance is needed, or (4) thinking of staff as merely custodians of material. Professional practice that places anonymous staff members behind the reference desk not only lacks a theoretical basis but also is dysfunctional.

Present practice produces users who have little contact with librarians, usually ask only directional questions, and show little preference for who answers their questions. Most users are not true clients: their relationship is limited by present reference practice to an isolated encounter. A few users have overcome the constraints of the environment and developed a true client relationship with willing professionals or other staff.

In recent years libraries have made greater use of information desks to respond to the directional questions that make up such a large percentage of the reference work load. These desks have been staffed by nonprofessionals or students trained to answer directional questions, to provide simple bibliographic information, and to filter questions. It does not appear that those who have created these desks have taken into account the limited knowledge that library users have of staff differentiation in libraries. (This statement is equally true of the presently configured reference desk.)
The information desk has great potential as a cost-effective method for providing directional information and for referring true reference inquiries to the professional staff member with the appropriate credentials at a time that is convenient for both the user and the librarian. Libraries need to experiment with models that underscore the professional functions of librarians and staff differentiation in libraries.

Altering the present reference configuration to make it more client-centered or user friendly is not a task to be undertaken lightly. Charles Martell, who recommends a total restructuring of the academic library from its traditional functional design—acquisitions, cataloging, circulation, and reference—to a number of client-centered functional work groups, believes that a new client-centered approach would require two to five years in the prototype development stage before the model could be evaluated. However, prior to implementing a reformed model of client-centered reference practice, planners should consider research findings that will promote the development of a true client-professional relationship. Librarians who devise client-centered models need to examine the messages currently sent to library users by existing reference and other public service desk policies and practices.

A reconfigured reference service should exploit the benefits brought to the client-professional relationship by well-designed bibliographic instruction, online searching, faculty liaison, and other practices that highlight the expertise of librarians. It should eliminate aspects of present reference practice that confuse the public. In all likelihood, a client-centered reference model will effectively use nonprofessionals just as other professions effectively use auxiliary staff. A reconfiguration may include the provision of various physical changes in the library building and in services, e.g., clearly visible private or semiprivate offices for professional staff, methods for identifying information intermediaries by name and general area of expertise. It might also include methods that will help the user become a client and facilitate the client’s ability to find the right intermediary. Such a reconfiguration should provide the basis for more accurate assessment of reference performance.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

4. Ibid.
5. A number of questions about the professional aspects of reference are raised in Mary Biggs and others, “Replacing the Fast Fact Drop-In with Gourmet Information Service: A Symposium,” Journal of Academic Librarianship 2:68-78 (May 1985).
7. Ibid., p.36.
8. Ibid., p.37.

14. Social psychologist Erving Goffman has examined a number of social interactions from the perspective of their affect on the individual. In particular, see chapter 4 of Relations in Public (New York: Harper, 1971).


17. Ibid.


19. Paul Kantor’s studies show that, normally, only 20 to 25 percent of academic library users are reading library materials at any given time. (Interview with Paul Kantor, President of Tanatalus, Oct. 10, 1985.)


21. Several authors have called attention to the dysfunctional nature of presently configured reference from the perspective of the user; see Lynch, Swope and Katzer, Hernon and Pastine, and Friedes. The findings of Haack and others suggest that the reference environment contributes to burnout. Mary Haack and others, "Occupational Burnout Among Librarians," Drexel Library Quarterly 20:46-72 (Spring 1984).


Selected Reference Books of 1984–85

Eugene P. Sheehy

his article continues the semiannual series initiated by the late Constance M. Winchell more than thirty years ago. Although it appears under a byline, the list is a project of the reference departments of Columbia University’s Butler and Lehman 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 is provided at the end of the article. Code numbers (such as AE213, CJ34) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide to Reference Books and its supplements.

DICTIONARIES


Contents: V.1, Introduction; A–C (clvii., 903p.) $60.

Not only is this a work of linguistic scholarship and the fruit of dedicated cooperative effort, it promises to be a treasure trove for browsers and lovers of words. Concentrating on colloquialisms, regional usages, dialect and ethnic terms, and out-of-the-way meanings, "DARE does not treat technical, scientific, or other learned words or phrases—or anything else that could be considered standard" (introduction). Vocabulary is derived mainly from responses to 1,847 questions in a carefully constructed questionnaire (reprinted in the introduction) administered by field workers in 1,002 communities throughout the United States. "The aim was to choose relatively stable communities distributed according to the states' composition, and communities of various types [i.e., urban, large city, small city, village, rural], so that the aggregate would reflect the makeup of each state's population." Additional terms were drawn from older works (published and unpublished) and from the files of the American Dialect Society, a long-time sponsor of the dictionary.

Entries (mainly under single words, but with many compounds and phrases) indicate parts of speech, variant spellings, etymologies for words not treated in standard dictionaries, geographical labels, usage labels, quotations with dates, and cross-references to related terms; treatment of pronunciation varies, and there is a lengthy "Guide to Pronunciation" (p.x1–1xi). Computer-generated maps (questionnaire responses were entered into a DARE database) accompany many entries; these maps indicate geographical distribution of usages and are "populational" rather than "areal," so that state shape and size are distorted to reflect pop-

ulation density. This first volume constitutes about one-quarter of the projected set.—E.S.

PERIODICALS


This bibliography is only nominally international in coverage; of its 189 entries, 122 are for American periodicals, 41 are for British, and only 26 are for publications from other countries. These twenty-six, including only four from France, hardly justify considering this an international bibliography, and the work must be recognized for what it is: a selective list of major, and some of the not-so-major, English-language periodicals, primarily in the field of film.

For each journal, a historical/critical essay provides an overview of its genesis, development, orientation, and purpose, along with brief evaluative remarks; typical articles and authors are frequently cited. The essay is followed by a list of information sources indicating where the journal is indexed, where reprint or microform editions are available, and which libraries own the journal (holdings are not indicated); the information provided is selective and not comprehensive. A quite detailed publication history, showing title changes, volume and issue data, publisher and place of publication, and editor for the entire history of the journal completes each entry. Citations to secondary literature are included for some of the better-known publications. Each entry is signed. Appendixes 1 through 4 consist of short bibliographic essays on fan-club journals, fan magazines, in-house journals, and national film journals. There are lists by country of publication, and by type and subject matter in appendixes 5 and 6. A general bibliography and an index of names and titles also are included.—A.L.


This finding aid is "based on the list of periodicals included in volume 3 of the New Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature, with about one-hundred titles added in science and technology"—Introduction. Approximately eighteen hundred serials and cross-references are listed in alphabetical order, with numerical references to The Waterloo Directory of Victorian Periodicals (Suppl. AE24) and the NCBEL (Suppl. BD83), bibliographic description and notes, and often shelf-checked holdings for each library surveyed. The list intends to include libraries with "major Victorian serials collections, and those that are the major scholarly resource for a given geographical area." But coverage is uneven. Fifty-nine Florida libraries, including several community colleges, are listed, yet major research libraries such as the Newberry Library, Boston Public Library, Dartmouth College, Princeton University, and the universities of Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin are not. Meant to "clear up bibliographic questions on many items ... such as beginning dates, titles, and subtitle changes, inclusive series dates, and concluding dates," the work provides little information not already contained in the standard reference books, and occasionally, as for The Edinburgh Philosophical Journal, provides incorrect information.

Although accuracy seems to vary with the skills of the volunteer surveying each library, the Union List of Victorian Serials contains much useful information about the holdings of selected libraries, particularly those that are not represented in the Union List of Serials. It can be used to supplement, but will not replace, the standard reference tools.—S.S.

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

Useful both to librarians and researchers, this is a handy guide to the publications of the central and local governments of nine western European countries. A second volume is planned to include Austria, Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom; thus, the set will cover the whole of western Europe.

Each chapter deals with one country and in most instances is written by a specialist librarian from that country. A chapter typically begins with an overview of official publications in the country, giving an explanation of the governmental structure and a description of principal publications. The government agencies responsible for publication and distribution of documents are described in the second part of the chapter; a third section is devoted to the means of bibliographic control such as the national bibliography, sales catalogs, and library catalogs. Then follows a directory of relevant national, and special-library collections and archives. Local government publications are dealt with in a separate section. Each chapter concludes with a bibliography for further study of public documents, listing items ranging from a government manual to historical studies of government publishing; computerized databases and data retrieval services are listed whenever available. Volume 1 includes indexes by organizations, titles, and subjects. An introductory essay provides a theoretical framework and offers practical advice to acquisitions librarians.

While the Pergamon Press' Guides to Official Publications series offers volumes on certain Western European countries (and includes Vladimir M. Palic's comprehensive but dated Government Publications), this two-volume set with its recent and concise information should be a valuable addition to the library reference collection.—J.S.
fter 1870, and this book is recommended to those libraries unwilling to wait for publication of the next volumes of the Radicals compilation.—S.S.


Contents: V.1, A-E. $72.50.

Conceived as a companion to the new edition of the Collected Works of Erasmus (Toronto, 1974— ), this dictionary provides information about "the more than 1900 people mentioned in the correspondence and works of Erasmus who died after 1450 and were thus approximately his contemporaries, if it proved possible to trace and identify them" (preface). Because of Erasmus' prominence and extensive contacts throughout the world of the European Renaissance, the nineteen hundred people included the major political, religious, and learned figures of the day; also among them were many less well known, even obscure, individuals, including friends, relatives, and acquaintances of Erasmus.

Given the wide range of people covered, it is necessary that the amount and type of information provided here varies from entry to entry and is, in some cases, clearly indicated as speculative. For some figures, research uncovered little additional information beyond that gleaned from the references in Erasmus' writings. For others, information drawn from contemporary sources, from diverse historical and biographical sources, and from more recent research, is brought together here. And for yet others—the major rulers, churchmen, and thinkers—who are amply documented elsewhere, the entries in the dictionary concentrate on their connections with Erasmus. Entries are signed and include bibliographical references (when available), notes about existing portraits, and references to appearances in Erasmus' correspondence or works.

This dictionary will be particularly valuable to the student of Erasmus, who will turn to it for information supplementing the annotations in the editions of his works. Moreover, in the absence of a standard biographical work for the period, it is also a unique biographical source for the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.—A.L.

LITERATURE


Contents: V.1, American, British, Irish, German, Austrian, and Swiss dramatists. 570p. $75.

Constituting an addition to the publisher's Library of Literary Criticism series, this volume reprints substantial excerpts from reviews, articles, and books discussing the works of thirty-five European and American late-nineteenth and twentieth-century playwrights from Oscar Wilde and Arthur Schnitzler to Tom Stoppard and Edward Bond. Other European playwrights will be covered in a second volume; Asian and African dramatists will not be included.

Arrangement is by country (or countries, in the case of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland) and playwrights are listed alphabetically within geographic area. The compilers tried "to give an overview of the critical reception of the dramatist from the beginning of his career up to the present time" (introduction), by presenting the excerpts chronologically. There is an index of critics, and a list of the plays mentioned in the excerpts. No biographical or bibliographical sources, other than citations to the original articles, are provided. The compilation is intended for undergraduate and graduate students in modern-drama courses and is a useful summary of major critical opinion.—M.C.
the present volume from material collected for his dictionary. German-American literature is defined as "that body of creative writing composed in the German language by persons of any nationality who reside or have resided in the U.S.A." (introduction). The book offers brief biographical entries of more than three-thousand authors, arranged alphabetically. Each entry includes the titles and dates of "as many literary works by the writer as could be uncovered" (preface), references to anthologies containing an author's works, and "references to important works about the writers and their writings." A bibliography of books and articles discussing German literature is an added feature of the work. The volume should be extremely useful to anyone working in this field, but unfortunately the high price may discourage purchase by libraries without strong collections of the relevant literature.—M.C.

PERFORMING ARTS


Ostensibly a continuation of Gale's Who's Who in the Theatre (whose entries are cited in the index of the current volume), this work is, according to its subtitle, "a biographical guide featuring performers, directors, writers, producers, designers, managers, choreographers, technicians, composers, executives, dancers, and critics in the United States and Great Britain." That is a tall order, which this first annual volume does not fulfill. Biographical information is brief, usually only a few lines, and incomplete; some entries have education and personal data, which may or may not include dates. Major film and/or television appearances are listed, often without dates, and almost always without an indication of the part portrayed. Photographs are included, seemingly at random. Addresses, usually of agents, are the only items consistently listed. The emphasis is on current performers, but again inconsistency seems to be the guiding principle. Although the subtitle says that British performers are listed, not even actors familiar to American audiences through "Masterpiece Theater" are included.

This volume may be useful in libraries with a large number of readers wishing to write fan letters to current television personalities; libraries needing a thorough, accurate, and reliable biographical directory for the theater will have to look elsewhere.—M.C.


Bryan, an assistant professor of theater at the University of Vermont, intends this guide to supplement American and British Theatrical Biography (Suppl. 2BG22), Performing Arts Biography Master Index (1982), and Theatre, Film and Television Biographies Master Index (Suppl. 2BG20), and therefore has, with a few exceptions, excluded works already indexed in those volumes.

The work is concerned with collective and individual biographies (including dissertations) in English, of people associated with the stage from the fourth century B.C. to the present day. Approximately twenty-five hundred works are listed. The 154 collective biographies are comprehensively indexed, but unfortunately, individual biographies, which make up the majority of the entries, are indexed only under the main subject. Looking under Gypsy Rose Lee, for instance, the reader finds a reference to Lee's autobiography but not to the autobiographies of her sister, June Havoc, which also have a great deal of information about Lee. Of course, it would be a monumental job to index, even selectively, more than two thousand biographies, but how useful it would have been!—M.C.

SOCIOLOGY

August, Eugene R. Men's Studies: A Selected and Annotated Interdisciplinary Bibliography. Littleton, Colo., Libraries Un-
Hasn't all of history really been "men's studies"? Not according to August, who believes that ordinary men's social conditions and issues have been underrepresented in past scholarship—that in fact the very concept of masculinity has been limited, distorted, and traditionally applied only to the politically and socially powerful male minority. Furthermore, "men's studies are the logical complement to women's studies and a necessary component of any balanced gender-related scholarship" (introduction). This compilation attempts to provide the balance by listing English-language books in many disciplines that explore the masculine-gender role, from the treatment of fathers in divorce and custody cases to male-only service in the military.

A classified arrangement covers areas such as single men, men and women, homosexuality, male midlife transition, literature, minorities, religion, psychology, biology, history, and humor. Entries are numbered and arranged alphabetically by author within sections. The annotations are descriptive, often lengthy, and sometimes evaluative. Cross-references to entries appearing in other sections are included as a reminder of the interdisciplinary nature of many topics (e.g., works on homosexuality appear not only in the section so named but also in the literature, religion, and men's-rights sections). There are author and subject indexes.

While the inclusion of Puerto Ricans might be questioned initially, the compiler notes that "although not all of these immigrants are regarded, or regard themselves, as 'Blacks,' a significant proportion of them share varying degrees of African ancestry and have come from areas with significant proportions of Blacks in their population" (introduction). Despite irritating grammatical and typographical errors, this is a useful bibliography.—D.G.
and race relations, as well as the social conflict that stems therefrom. An introductory essay by Colin Holmes gives a brief summary of immigration in Britain and provides a social context for the work that follows. The bibliography is divided into two sections: "General and Theoretical Studies" and "Regional Studies," both further subdivided by subject and/or country. Each entry includes author, title, degree awarded, the university or college, and the date of the degree. There are no annotations. Studies relating to smaller or tribal communities, Christian minorities in Europe, and studies of social minorities are excluded. There is a detailed subject index and an author index. The compilers indicate that additions and corrections will appear in issues of the journal Immigrants and Minorities.—L.S.


The authors of this volume plunge bravely into the morass of East European ethnic and national relations to provide an overview and introduction to the literature of these relations, which in the twentieth century have had ramifications far beyond national boundaries. Modeled on Horak's Guide to the Study of the Soviet Nationalities: Non-Russian Peoples of the USSR (1982), this handbook consists of an introductory chapter on Eastern European national minorities, chapters on the minorities of each East European country (including one on the Slovene and Croat minorities in Italy since World War II), and a final chapter surveying nationality research centers in eastern European countries, which brings together information not readily available elsewhere. Each chapter is written by a specialist in the field and begins with a historical summary. These essays emphasize statistics (with indications of their fallibilities), political and economic developments, key events, etc., in telling the complex stories of minority-national relations, for which substantial documentation is provided in the footnotes; the copious statistics are drawn from primary as well as secondary sources and are an especially valuable feature of the handbook. Following each essay, except the one on research centers, is a selected, annotated bibliography of books (an occasional article) in both English and foreign languages; the annotations are useful in indicating the particular orientation and value of each source. There is an author and short-title index.

Students and scholars looking for a broad and even-handed survey of the issues and literature or for an identification of major statistics and statistical sources will find this handbook a good place to begin their research.—A.L.


After just a brief examination of this bibliography, one is struck by the widespread, multidisciplinary and voluminous nature of the research on the mental-health problem of suicide. In the compiler's own estimation, the guide is a selected list of basic, useful, English-language materials published between 1970 and 1983, with strongest coverage in the area of suicide survivors. Culled from diverse disciplines—medicine, psychology, sociology, social work, anthropology, law, philosophy, and religion—writings on suicide demographics, prevention, education, ethics, survivors and "gatekeepers" are well represented. Initial chapters cover bibliographies, definition, theories, and historical background. More esoteric topics include meteorological conditions, mass suicides, suicide notes, psychological autopsies, and suicide in art and literature. Books, book chapters, journal articles, U.S. government documents, and association publications make up the majority of twenty-three hundred citations. Annotations are included for important items or for titles that are not self-explanatory; available summaries in other abstracting sources are noted. Recommended items are starred. The table of contents is often unnecessarily detailed and inconsistent, and
the subject index could use some enrichment, but considering the variety and wealth of the material here, these are minor criticisms.

This librarian has already recommended the bibliography to several researchers interested in suicide among the young, a current and popular interest. The speed with which a new reference book is integrated into the mainstream is an overriding factor in any evaluation of usefulness, and this bibliography promises to pass that test admirably.—L.B.

HISTORY & AREA STUDIES


For libraries in which purchase of the twelve-volume Australian Encyclopedia (4th ed. Sydney, Grolier Soc. of Australia, 1983) does not seem justified, this volume offers an attractive alternative. It presents "broad, yet representative coverage of topics in almost every field of knowledge" (preface) as they relate to Australia, and it is particularly strong in natural history. Articles are unsigned, but a list of contributing authors is included; suggestions for further reading are appended to many articles. Sources of statistical tables are noted; population figures are from the 1981 census. The many biographical entries include living persons, and there are entries for urban centers with populations of more than two thousand; some smaller places of unusual interest also are included. Black-and-white illustrations appear on nearly every page, and there are numerous color plates. Words in small capitals within articles signal see also references; there are cross-references at the end of some articles; see references from unused headings appear throughout the text. In addition, there is a subject index that groups the encyclopedia entries under fairly broad headings; additional cross-references would have been useful in this index. A number of useful appendices complete this interesting volume.—E.S.

Selected Reference Books


In order to cover "the chief events, personalities, institutions, systems, problems of Italy from the eighteenth century" (preface), Coppa and his contributors present short articles (one hundred to nine hundred words) on "the major Italian political, economic, cultural, social, and religious issues...[with] special focus on the issues of industrialization, banking, regionalism, and political theory," and include entries for newspapers, education, and the Enlightenment, among other topics. Each article is signed with the initials of the contributor and many of the longer entries include at least one bibliographical reference. The articles seem well written and the topics carefully chosen. Of course one could always quibble about selection and treatment, but there does appear to be a judicious mix of novelists, composers, political leaders, parties, historical periods, etc. There is a useful appendix with chronological lists of ministers, kings, presidents, and popes, and a very good subject index enhances the dictionary.—E.M.


The first in the publisher's planned series of presidential encyclopedias, this publication is similar in presentation to Mark E. Neely's Abraham Lincoln Encyclopedia (N.Y., McGraw-Hill, 1982). The Roosevelt volume is, however, a collaborative work by a number of scholars and graduate students. According to the editors the aim was "to create for the reader a sense of Roosevelt's era, his political thought, and the problems that faced him as both a national and an international leader" (introduction). Signed articles on 321 topics, covering "ideologies and issues, legislation, federal agencies, political parties, interest groups, aspects of Franklin D. Roosevelt's personal life, and people of importance to him" are the prin-
cipal content of the encyclopedia. Bibliographies, which follow the articles, include archival and unpublished material, together with brief commentaries on published works. A number of quotations from Roosevelt’s speeches and writings are incorporated in the articles, and there is a generous number of photographs (which are fully indexed). Cross-references to related topics are often given at the end of an article.

In view of the vast amount of material available on F. D. R., this work should serve as a starting point for many research topics, but the editors’ aim of giving the reader a feel for the Roosevelt era would probably be met better by a well-written biography. (Alternatively, a classified subject or chronological arrangement rather than this alphabetical sequence of topics might have conveyed better the drama of the era.) This is an agreeable work to browse, and it offers good bibliographies, but the reader should not expect incisive comments on controversial issues or penetrating analyses of Roosevelt’s life and times.—J.S.


Everything that could be found on Samoa is cited in this bibliography: books, chapters, and page references in books, periodical articles, newspaper articles (most from the New York Times and the Samoan Reporter), theses (both master’s and Ph.D., mainly American), films, manuscripts and archives, government documents, and international-organization publications. Items are listed alphabetically within forty-four subject divisions, some as broad as socio-cultural anthropology, others as narrow as cruising or philately. Works of all periods are included, as are all applicable languages, though most are English-language materials. There are some curiosities: why list only the 1968 U.N. Demographic Yearbook or the 1969 U.N. Statistical Yearbook with no indication that these are continuing series? Under “Politics, Government and Administration” all U.S. government documents, whether published or in the National Archives, are listed chronologically regardless of issuing agency. Wouldn’t researchers find it easier to have all congressional publications or all State Department items grouped together rather than scattered through a list covering thirteen pages?

The sorrow, however, is that there is no index—neither author nor subject. So much care and effort evidently went into compiling this bibliography that it’s a shame a little more energy wasn’t expended to make a superb reference source. Since the information is on computer tape, perhaps a program could be developed for producing an index volume. As it now stands, a researcher with
patience will find this an exhaustive bibliography. The price, of course, is unfortunate.—E.M.


A bibliography with an unusual twist, this is a useful resource for locating materials and sources of information "related to learning about or teaching the Holocaust" (preface). The work grew out of the many information requests received by organizations such as ZACHOR, the Holocaust Resource Center. Section 1 comprises the bibliography and is divided into three sections: "Scholarship, Memoirs, and Other Nonfiction of the Holocaust," "Literature of the Holocaust: A Selected Bibliography," and "Bibliographies on the Holocaust for Young People." Each section is further subdivided by topic (e.g., "Roots of the Holocaust" or "Fiction"). The entries include complete bibliographic citation and a brief (usually one or two lines) annotation for the book or article cited. Emphasis is on recently published (primarily 1960 and later) items in English, although earlier works are included when particularly useful. The remaining twelve sections make up the resource guide. It is this part of the work that may prove to be the most valuable, as it is the resource materials that are most difficult to find. Each section is devoted to a specific type of resource, with annotations and addresses for further information. Some of the sections of particular interest are those on Holocaust-education centers, traveling exhibits, the development of curricula for teaching about the Holocaust, and a list of Holocaust-survivor support groups. A subject and name index would have improved the usefulness of this volume.—L.S.


More than a series of biographical sketches of the presidents, this volume offers a chronological history of the presidency presented in the form of interpretive essays on the individual men who held the office, the events and developments of each administration, and their significance in the course of American history. Thirty-five professional historians and political scientists, "each a specialist on the president of whom he writes" (introduction), have contributed essays on chief executives from Washington through Carter (Harrison and Tyler, Taylor and Fillmore, and Garfield and Arthur are treated in pairs). Essays follow no rigid pattern, but typically provide an account of early life and pre presidency years before concentrating on the time in office. Boldface headings in most of the essays highlight major issues and events of a career—a boon to the reference librarian in search of a specific fact. A bibliography is appended to each essay, and evaluative statements are incorporated therein; some give references to manuscript sources or to editions of writings of the president. An index adds to the reference value of the work.—E.S.


Intended as a companion to the similarly titled bibliography of periodical articles from the same period (Suppl. DB11), this set is meant to close the gap between the 1902–1961 series of Writings on American History (Guide DB31) and the new series of that title, which began in 1974 (Suppl. DB12). This is a bibliography of more than fifty thousand books and monographs "on the history, the geography, and the political, social, and economic aspects of the United States, its people, its government, and its institutions" (introduction). Citations are derived from Library of Congress catalog cards and include classification numbers and descriptive or contents notes as applicable. Entries are arranged in five main categories: (1) History and historians.
(which includes subdivisions for bibliography, historiography, libraries and archives, etc.); (2) Chronological classification (a general, multiperiod listing followed by twelve historical periods); (3) Subject classification (with subdivisions for cultural and intellectual history, history of science and technology, transportation history, etc.); (4) Geographical classification (New England through Pacific, subdivided by state, plus a section for territories and dependencies); (5) Biography. An index of authors, editors and compilers, and one of personal names as subjects complete the set.

Admirable as the intent of this publication may be, the result is disappointing. As in the companion set for periodical articles, the topical categories are too broad for effective subject searching, and there is no detailed subject index beyond that for personal names. Serendipity aside, the researcher might more profitably consult the three relevant cumulations of the Library of Congress subject catalog (Guide AA99) under a precise heading such as "U.S.—History—Civil War—Causes", rather than scan the forty-three pages of "Civil War and Reconstruction" entries in this compilation.—E.S.

**HISTORY OF MEDICINE**


McGrew intends his dictionary of more than one hundred essays on medical history to be both for students of the history of medicine and for the general reader. A historian himself, he writes clearly and without jargon, covering a wide range of topics from abortion and acupuncture to vitamins and yellow fever. For each entry the author gives a definition, then a chronological account of the history of the topic—including symptoms, characteristics, effects, attitudes, developments in treatment, alternate names—and ends with a short list of suggested readings. A topic must have a history in order to be included: thus, no AIDS, and for some of the more recent innovations there is no coverage (e.g., the Lamaze method of childbirth). There are no separate biographical entries; however, some biographical notes appear in the articles when appropriate. The detailed subject index is very workable; for the more important people whose work is discussed dates are given in the index entry.

While this compendium is particularly well suited to the needs of the generalist, it will also be useful to the medical student and the scholar because of the way the major facts pertinent to each topic are assembled and presented, and for the brief bibliographies for further reading.—E.M.

**NEW EDITIONS, SUPPLEMENTS, ETC.**

For the second edition of the *Harper Dictionary of Contemporary Usage*, by William and Mary Morris (N.Y., Harper & Row, 1985. 641p. $22.50), the panel of "distinguished consultants on usage" was increased from 136 to 166 persons, mainly authors and editors. As in the 1975 edition (Suppl. AD14), panel members' opinions on many controversial usages are expressed in percentages of the total response, with individual comments frequently appended.

*British Literary Magazines: The Victorian and Edwardian Age, 1837–1913* (Westport, Conn., Greenwood, 1984. 560p. $75) is the third volume in the series of reference guides to literary journals, edited by Alvin Sullivan. It offers essay profiles on ninety magazines of the period (including titles such as *The Cornhill*, *The Granta*, and *The Nineteenth Century*), and lists more than two hundred other titles in the appendices.

First published in 1981, *Stephen Richard's Directory of British Official Publications: A Guide to Sources* is now available in an enlarged second edition (London and N.Y., Mansell, 1984. 431p. $60). Because an increased number of publications "are being issued by government departments and other official organisations not publishing through HMSO," the guide serves as a useful tool for "identifying publications sources, publications listings, and
giving contact addresses, and guiding the user around British official publishing” (introduction). There are nearly thirteen hundred entries in this edition.


Subtitled “A Biographical Encyclopedia of 5,000 Leading Personalities in the Soviet Union,” Borys Lewytzkyj’s Who’s Who in the Soviet Union (Munchen, Saur, 1985. 428p. DM298) serves to update information on Soviet figures included in the editor’s Who’s Who in the Socialist Countries (1978; Suppl. AJ8). Following the alphabetical arrangement of biographies, there is an extensive index section that lists, by individual republic and area of activity, the names of party, state, trade-union leaders, and office holders, together with lists of authors, artists, and scientists.

Although Margaret Drabble’s revision of The Oxford Companion to English Literature (5th ed. Oxford and N.Y., Oxford Univ. Pr., 1985. 1155p. $35) has received widespread attention elsewhere, it merits mention here. While it retains many of the characteristics of Sir Paul Harvey’s original compilation (Guide BD412), there has been considerable reworking of existing articles (virtually all show at least some slight revision) and much pruning of tangential matter, in order to accommodate new articles; new entries for many writers born before 1940 have been added. The appendices, on “Censorship and the Law of the Press,” “Notes on the History of English Copyright,” and “The Calendar,” have been retained.

With the appearance of the index volume (1985. 288p. $220), the sixteen-volume set of Variety Film Reviews, 1907–1980 (N.Y., Garland, 1983–85) is now complete. Arranged by date of publication, the set reproduces all film reviews printed in Variety through June 1927 and all reviews of feature-length films appearing after that date. Indexing is by film title only, with cross-references from English titles of foreign films.

Gail Ann Schlachter’s Directory of Financial Aids for Women, 1985–86 (Santa Barbara, Calif., ABC-Clio, 1985. 380p. $35) represents the third edition of that title (see Suppl. CC196), with an increase of about 30 percent in the size of the volume. Programs no longer in existence or that have broadened their scope to include men have been dropped, and descriptions of continuing programs have been updated to reflect current policies and operations.

Paul G. Partington has published a supplement (Whittier, Calif., Author, 1985. 20p. $5) to his W. E. B. DuBois: A Bibliography of His Published Writings (1977; Suppl. CC135). It lists numerous manuscript articles as well as additions to the bibliography of published works.

First published in 1962, The American Political Dictionary by Jack C. Plano and Milton Greenberg (Guide CJ48) has now appeared in a seventh edition (N.Y., Holt, 1985. 606p. $15.95). Numerous articles have been revised and updated; entries for new terms have been added; and the text of the United States Constitution is now included as an appendix.

Bill Wedertz’s Dictionary of Naval Abbreviations is now available in a third edition (Annapolis, Md., Naval Inst. Pr., 1984. 329p. $15.95). An attempt has been made to eliminate obsolete abbreviations found in the earlier editions (Guide CJ275; Suppl. CJ155) and make the work as up-to-date as possible.

Following the precedent of earlier revisions (Guide DA5), the fourth edition of The Modern Researcher by Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff (San Diego, Calif., HBJ, 1985. 450p. $24.95) “presents new examples from recent events, titles of new reference books, new uses of old methods, and old uses of new devices such as computers, word processors, and data banks” (p.xi). Once again the work is available in paperback ($13.95) as well as hardcover.

The long-awaited third volume of Warren F. Kuehl’s Dissertations in History
(Santa Barbara, Calif., ABC-Clio, 1985. 466p. $58.50) is a supplement covering the period from 1970 to June 1980. Instead of the alphabetical author listing of the previous volumes (Guide DA26), a classified arrangement by country and period, similar to that used in the American Historical Association's *Recently Published Articles*, is employed. There are author and detailed subject indexes for the 9,905 entries.


The tenth edition of the Dahlmann-Waitz *Quellenkunde der deutschen Geschichte; Bibliographie der Quellen und der Literatur zur deutschen Geschichte* (Guide DC121) has been appearing in parts since 1965. Now that the first two volumes are complete, a "Register zu Band 1 und 2" has been issued (Stuttgart, Hiersemann, 1985. 496p.). It offers indexes of authors, editors, and corporate authors, of personal names in titles, and of place names in titles.—E.S.
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Letters

To the Editor:

Vikki Ford’s excellent article “PR: The State of Public Relations in Academic Libraries” (Sept. 1985 C&RL) will surely stimulate administrators to allocate more funds for this neglected area. Ms. Ford’s well designed survey, which is the basis for the article, supplies us both with facts about academic library public relations and also with attitudes toward this function.

My congratulations to Ms. Ford for her splendid work, however, carry a note of regret at the information in your author’s note. This reveals that while doing the research for the article Ms. Ford was the public relations officer at the University of Nevada Library but she is now the account executive for a Reno public relations firm. We need her and many more like her on the staff of our academic libraries.

ALICE NORTON
Alice Norton Public Relations, Ridgefield, Conn.

To the Editor:

In response to Arnold Hirshon’s letter (C&RL September 1985) concerning “Inventory Costs: A Case Study,” the following comments seem in order. First, the basic intent of the article, which should be clear from the title, is to provide managers with some idea of the cost/benefit ratio for an inventory and not to tell people “what led to this decision at our library.” The comprehensive inventory undertaken at University of Kansas was prompted by a rather unique set of circumstances including a total renovation program that necessitated shifting most of the main collection of approximately 1,000,000 volumes two and sometimes three times in an extremely rushed manner due to the construction timetable. In short, the stacks ended up a jumbled mess that at least required a massive shelfreading program. Instead of just doing that we opted for a complete inventory, the main benefit of which was discovering thousands of mishelved materials. That may or may not have been the right decision, but that is completely irrelevant to the article, which made no attempt to describe the situation or process leading up to that decision.

What the article did provide was an estimate of what it costs to discover catalog and/or shelf errors that would prohibit a user from a successful retrieval. This cost is much more relevant than the percentage loss rate that Hirshon mentions. For example, suppose one collection has a loss rate of 25 percent, but it costs $100 to discover each missing item, while another collection has a loss rate of 2 percent, but it only costs $1 to discover each missing item. Where would an inventory make the most cost/benefit sense? Hirshon’s analysis would indicate the former.

Hirshon goes on to contend that “a slow and cumbersome inventory indicates poor planning or poor supervision.” Not every process in the world can be accomplished expeditiously, regardless of how well planned and supervised. Taking this out of the world of libraries it is clear that reputable accounting firms certainly know how to plan and supervise an audit. Yet some audits take months to complete because the company’s records are a mess. The records of some libraries are a mess as well and to make a blanket contention that an expedient procedure can always be carried out is simply naive. Any inventory of a high-circulation, high-loss area will always be a “slow and cumbersome” process.

Finally, we are admonished that inventories “should be to locate materials that library
users are likely to seek out, not to find materials for which no one was looking." One can only conclude from this that some libraries have large identifiable sections of their collections that no one ever uses. We are pleased that we do not work in such institutions.

NANCY STEVENS Texas Education Agency
CLIFFORD H. HAKA Michigan State University

Editor’s Note: Reference 10 in "PR: The State of Public Relations" by Vikki Ford (C&RL Sept. 1985, p.401) should be corrected to read as follows:


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Recent Publications

BOOK REVIEWS


A dearth of basic research tools seems to beset the freshly established field of study of African literatures. Also lacking is a universally accepted, paradigmatic definition of the extent and limits of the field. Should African literatures be studied as a composite subject or as national literatures? If the former, what holds them together as a continental whole? And for that matter, why did European scholars of literature fail to produce a field of European literatures but instead produced a field of comparative literatures with its own specific methodology? If African literatures are to be studied, as for the most part is accepted today, as national literatures, what is to be done with the multiethnic and multilingual character of these nation states whose formation was an artificial legacy of colonial domination? So far the majority of African literary works studied outside Africa have fallen into categories of Anglophone, Francophone, and Lusophone African literatures, but the production of works in African literatures is becoming increasingly hard to ignore. African writers on their part are greatly concerned with the need to shift from a non-African readership and a theoretical approach to a direct involvement with a local readership and the consequent necessity to address directly the problems, needs, and aspirations of the people with whom they share their language and culture and from whom they draw their inspiration. After a period in which they seemed to take stock of their historical roots and proclaim to the world the rising of a powerful new consciousness, the writers of Africa are turning inwards to serve the contemporary cultural needs of their communities, to lay open the intricate but familiar cultural paths that led them to their present state. Hence the re-discovery and recuperation, the scholarly use of the rich inventive traditions of oral literature spanning a wide range of genres and techniques.

In order to aid and study such an extensive literary production, a whole array of critical and methodological scholarship has arisen inside and outside Africa. Its reach and usefulness, however, have encountered difficulties of financial, organizational, and sociopolitical nature: difficulties in obtaining funds, particularly by African libraries; the low priority of meeting literary needs on the part of budgetary officials; the lack of systematic bibliographic coverage; the lack of translations and linguistic instructional tools; the lack of a centralized information-gathering and -retrieving facility. All of these and a persistently obscure vision on the part of non-Africans of the specific contexts of which literary works arise impede the progress of a scholarly treatment of such works. Mindful of these obstacles, the African literatures scholars have devoted their energies to the organization of existing bibliographic aids and production of new ones. They have also gathered in an association (African Literature Association—ALA) for the purpose of pooling strengths, sharing information, and laying the basis of future research.

With these goals in mind a group of these scholars met at the Africa Centre in London on May 30–31, 1983. The result of
the conference is aptly summarized in the book under review by one of the eminent scholars in the field, Bernth Lindfors. His slim volume provides many services at once. It is a statement of research priorities on the part of a representative mix of African literatures specialists. It is a succinct compendium of bibliographic data embedded in a meaningful text. It is also somehow a harbinger of future developments in African literatures that can be culled out of the strong feelings expressed by the few African participants in favor of an Afro-centric, historical and social use of African literary works on their own terms, as opposed to the aesthetic and abstractly "universal" epistemological approach to which these works have been subjected by non-African idealist critics. Finally, the book is a multiple approach manual for beginners, for the budding student of African literatures who is able to glance at the vast subject under the guidance of experts themselves struggling to produce the tools by which analysis, interpretation, and comparison are possible. By almost unanimous agreement, the 1983 London conference participants designated the following to be top research priorities; (1) achievement of bibliographic control now scattered and incomplete; (2) desirability of centralizing the growing body of bibliographic and biographic data; (3) provisions for instruction in new research methodologies in the same center, such as computer assisted techniques; (4) instruction and linguistic research in African languages and systematic translation programs of works produced by African writers. Just as unanimous was the realization that the funds necessary to implement these programs would not become easily available. Considering that this volume is a collection of merely sixteen papers, it goes a long way to give the reader a guide for a better understanding of the cultural realities teeming within the fifty states of contemporary Africa. Indeed, even the seasoned researcher will find considerable insights in the section devoted to literature in Hausa, Somali, Portuguese, and Southern African languages. Those who want to go further can turn to the excellent quarterly journal, Research in African Literatures published by the University of Texas Press since 1970. While it may not be practical here to name the titles of general and specialized bibliographies, one must cite the African Book Publishing Record, published quarterly since 1975 by Hans Zell, which is restricted to books published in Africa. The Africana Index, edited by Colin Darch, lists journals published in Africa. Of the specialized bibliographies, the only one with a global focus is Bibliographies for African Studies 1980-83 compiled by Yvette Scheven. Hans Zell and others have compiled the most useful A New Reader's Guide to African Literature published by Africana in New York in 1983. Finally one may recommend the work of the African Literature Association and its ALA Bulletin, a quarterly edited by Stephen Arnold, the University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada T6G E6.—Hans E. Panofsky, Northwestern University Library, Evanston, Illinois.


Library Space Planning touches on many of the planning details encountered during planning for reorganization, expansion, and addition of library space, including budgeting for the party at completion of the project, pizza and all. It is based on the librarian authors' direct experiences, made the more poignant by citing mistakes, perhaps theirs, and/or those of others.

The library space planner in this book is the library director or a staff member assigned the job of space planner for the duration of the project, putting aside other responsibilities temporarily. These technically inexperienced individuals check floor loading, electrical power, and even rent cranes, activities normally delegated to professionals for reasons of safety, if nothing else. Occasional references are made to the use of the services of an architect or an electrician, none to those of a professional library planner, an engineer, nor a construction contractor. A more de-
tailed description is provided for the services of a moving contractor, and a sample bid document for moving services is included in the appendix.

For the uninitiated, the greatest difficulties this book poses are in determining when to retain a professional and when to do a task in-house, when a fact is in error or is only partially correct, how much detail is actually required for a particular task, and how reliable planning information can be gathered.

On page 31 the statement is made that "The floor should be able to handle at least 300 pounds per square foot" for compact shelving. The floor-loading capacity required for compact shelving depends on many factors, primarily the specific layout of the compact shelving, which is influenced by the building column spacing. The capacity required may be two hundred pounds per square foot, sometimes lower; three hundred pounds is the higher limit and may be required if material heavier than books is being stored or if shelving is higher than standard.

Often a floor constructed on grade will carry compact shelving if it is constructed with adequate reinforcing steel and if soil and other site characteristics are not unusual. However, before embarking on any program to install compact shelving, a structural engineer should be retained to check the proposed shelving layout against the actual structural characteristics of the building.

"Decreasing the aisle widths by moving the ranges closer together is another way to recoup floor space and maximize collection-housing." This statement appearing on page 36 may be contrary to building code regulations for providing access to the disabled if the aisles between ranges are reduced below thirty-six inches and the cross-aisles below forty-four inches. These dimensions vary from state to state, and the building codes should be checked before changing aisle widths. Planners also must not forget that access must be provided for disabled staff as well as disabled patrons.

The alternative to extend shelving uprights as a way to add stack capacity without having to shift the collection does not appear to be an economically feasible alternative. In California, a cost analysis was made to strengthen existing shelving seismically, a process that appears to be no more complicated than extending the shelving. The engineer found that it would be substantially cheaper to buy new frames rather than modify the old ones. In earthquake country, this alternative would also require redesign of the shelving for seismic safety. If you do decide to pursue this alternative, do not rely on the shelving, vendor; retain a structural engineer to confirm or determine the appropriate design.

An extensive description of electrical wiring and power is located on pages 50-52. Inexperienced staff should take no chances with electrical use and requirements. If possible, eliminate all extension cords. It is difficult to monitor staff use of these cords and, therefore, the fire danger is substantial. If extension cords appear to be needed, then additional outlets should be considered instead and installed by a qualified electrician. An electrician or electrical engineer should be retained if there is any question about adequate power supply and distribution. On page 70, on determining costs, Task Method is discussed. Be certain that the method will work. Some card catalog cases will break apart if they are moved with fully loaded drawers.

Two topics that are particularly interesting and not usually touched upon in library planning publications are cost-benefit analysis on pages 71-74 and the timetables in chapter 7. The cost-benefit discussion is described as "the costs of inactivity," the costs associated with operating with space deficiencies. The most compelling reason to invest in a space change or addition is the cost of not doing so, yet few librarians want to take the trouble or the time to think through and gather the statistics for this most valuable justification for a major capital expenditure, the largest single expenditure a librarian may ever make or recommend. A cost-benefit analysis is not easy to prepare, especially when many of the costs cannot be easily quantified. Librarians need help in this area. This book provides some good tech-
A repertoire of over 600 information databases in 36 UN affiliated organizations. It enables one to see what information and services are available in the United Nations family as a whole and how to obtain detailed information from particular organizations. GV.E.84.0.5

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UNBIS (United Nations Bibliographic Information System) Thesaurus

Trilingual list of terms in English, French and Spanish used in indexing and cataloguing of documents and other materials relevant to United Nations programmes and activities for the UNBIS system. 2nd edition.

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by Sir Rupert John

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Annual since 1974. This yearbook provides international statistics on dwelling construction which permits an outlook on the relevant industries.

Industrial Statistics Yearbook


Yearbook of International Commodity Statistics


Yearbook of Commodity Trade

Annual since 1950.

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niques in a few pages, but the professional literature has not yet adequately met this need.

Chapter 7, "The Last Planning Steps" contains PERT and Grantt charts and an "Operations Research Time Study," all of which can aid the staff in reducing the complexities of moving to manageable details. Upon reading through this useful, compact volume of 132 pages of text, it sometimes seemed as though it were intended for the librarian who would be faced with doing everything entirely alone and at other times as though one might just be able to get a little outside help. For the novices who read this book, they may not realize just how much help is available nor how possible it might be for them to ask for help. This book is filled with many how-to details that help the read to understand the planning process, but not always fully nor absolutely correctly. It is important for the librarians who read this book to recognize their own limitations in time and experience and to understand when they can do parts of the planning themselves and when they should seek outside professional help. -Gloria Novak, University Library, University of California, Berkeley.


This is a difficult book to review because it addresses a significant gap in the literature on research for librarians but does not, in my opinion, fill the most important part of that gap. The authors identify "action research" as research for decision making. This fits well into the more general trilogy: research for the sake of better understanding, research for action, and research for no good reason at all. In each category it is possible to do good research or bad research. In fact, research that is good for one category may be fair or even poor in another.

The trouble with this book is that it does not tell us enough about how to do good action research, or even how to recognize (and thus avoid) bad action research. I am left somewhat ill at ease by a book that tells me something is doable, and worth doing, but doesn't show me, through either good or bad examples, how to do it well.

On some subtle questions, such as the meaning of confidence intervals, the authors do a very nice job. On other issues, dealing with logical relations, they have more trouble.

An example is the use of flowcharts to illustrate the interrelation of concepts, processes, signals, or other entities. Flowcharts can be powerful aids to thought, or abominable. The worst are diagrams with eight or ten circles, all linked by lines, to suggest that all the parts have something to do with each other. At the other extreme we have the feedback diagrams of systems engineering, which can be so precise that the diagram itself specifies a differential equation, up to a few undetermined constants.

The flowcharts on pages 5, 7, and 9 are poor because they mix concepts, products and processes in a confusing fashion. The authors do not use the powerful analysis of the relation to environment presented in Churchman in "The Systems Approach." He stresses the distinction between resources, which may be used by the system, and constraints, which must be obeyed or satisfied. Churchman's book is accessible to a bright high school senior, and is worth reading.

Again, the flowchart selected on page 36 to illustrate the use of flowcharts is not a good example, because it does not make clear where items enter the system, how they come out, and how many of them follow each path. The basic structure of the process is simpler than it appears here.

Confusion about functional relationships is shown in the pair of graphs on page 15 that ought, by the labeling of their axes, to be symmetric to each other. Nonetheless, the dotted lines droop down in both graphs. This kind of carelessness is reflected throughout the text. Properties, concepts, and objects are loosely interchanged even within a single sentence. In longer discussions an implied equivalence is set up (for example, between research competency and research literacy, on page 15) among different concepts, mak-
...ing one feel the unseen presence of Humpty Dumpty. The discussion on page 6 adduces the properties of stable closed-loop systems to open library systems. On page 8 we are asked to believe that the inputs to a library system are its goals. Elsewhere we are told that a library sets its goals, and given a flowchart implying that the setting of goals is a part of action research.

Although Swisher and McClure don't make common mistakes in their discussion of statistical inference, there is still something to be desired. Most library researchers today will be presented with SPSS output or something like it. The authors could have shown us what that looks like, and have illustrated it with a reasonable set of ample data (perhaps fifty or one hundred data elements.) If their mission is to overcome the fright librarians may feel upon seeing this stuff, the book should display one or two tame examples, to ease that fright.

Rather earlier, on page 16 they cite a hypothetical case in which a study establishes "a statistically significant relationship . . . between women undergraduates and skills taught." I have no idea how the rows and columns of the cross tabulation would be labeled, and I submit that the reader won't either. If the authors do, they should have told us. If they don't, then how can we be confident of their seriousness?

Furthermore, a key point about the "use of statistics" is not brought out. The whole idea of confidence intervals is designed to prevent premature rejection of some natural hypothesis (usually called the null hypothesis, H₀) in favor of an alternative that may appear better through the action of chance alone. In very rough language, the 95 percent confidence interval is designed to make the odds against this particular mistake 19:1. HOWEVER! In action research we are usually not "testing a new fertilizer" (perhaps that is more the domain of the reader of type III research)—we are trying to "learn something new." Most statistical packages build in the null hypothesis that variables are unrelated. That is absurd. What we usually want to know is: "How much are they related?" Is the relation of managerial or economic significance?

If I am trying to estimate whether a particular library is circulating as many books as it ought to, I have some idea that this is related to the number of students enrolled in the departments that it serves. To see whether it is "off the line" I assemble the relevant data and draw some kind of plot. If I hand the problem to a statistician she may do a regression analysis, and may tell me that the R-squared value is large, and that I can have high confidence in the regression. What that means is that the (absurd!!) null hypothesis built into computer program (namely that the two variables have nothing to do with each other) can be rejected. It does not mean that every branch ought to lie on the curve. (This can be dealt with by calculating the band of error, which some programs do, but my point is that we are not interested in preserving the null hypothesis here—it is a straw woman.)

To sum up, the authors know a great deal about research, and about statistics, but they have not shared the most important parts of that knowledge with their readers. The project planning chart (page 29) is a useful example for someone who has not done project research before. Chapter 4, on surveys and questionnaires, contains some good tips and pointers. Taken together, the book cannot be recommended. It is not informed by a single critical intelligence, and in places it looks as if the authors shared a single sentence (many run to sixty and seventy words) making the same point twice. The imprecision in the treatment of ideas will disturb experienced managers and experienced researchers alike. It would make a poor introduction to either subject for those without experience. In spite of some bright spots, this is rather more a book about the literature than about research. The important gap is still unfilled.—Paul B. Kantor, Tantalus Inc., Cleveland, Ohio.

has also been published as The Reference Librarian, no. 11, Fall/Winter 1984).

"At present, it is still a rare library that has an accurate statistical description of its reference department's quantitative input, throughput, or output, let alone its qualitative output." "Unfortunately, librarians frequently have little knowledge as to the overall quality of reference services provided, nor do they engage in an ongoing program of assessment, training, and program development vis a vis reference services." "... almost all studies of reference service (as of other areas of library service), have refrained from dealing with the benefits of reference service." These three representative statements from the introductory sections of three of the twenty-five articles in this collection focusing on the why and how of evaluating reference service show that, while much has been written, relatively little has been achieved in this area.

Editor Katz introduces the topic by stating the case for evaluating reference services. Collectively the rest of the essays present a very fragmented view; at least some of these fragments could have been pieced together had Katz attempted a synthetic concluding essay. As it is, various authors propose various techniques, some for evaluating reference services, some for evaluating reference librarians, some for evaluating reference tools. Most are mired in the tradition of the relatively young literature evaluation (traced here in Alvin Schrader's citation study of Terrence Crowley's and Thomas Childers' unobtrusive studies of the accuracy of reference service in public libraries in the late 1960s) and discuss only traditional reference service based on the use of print reference tools. Only one article seriously considers online references services; however it also honors the tradition by discussing online services as something wholly apart from traditional services.

Several of the articles describe the way reference service is evaluated in their authors' reference departments—examples of the notorious "how-I-run-my-library-good" genre. This is not to say that these articles are bad; however, they ask the reader to accept their authors' assumptions about what constitutes good reference service or good management. For example, Margaret A. Joseph's "Analyzing Success in Meeting Reference Department Management Objectives Using a Computerized Statistical Package" simply assumes the value of an MBO system in an academic library reference department. The same is true of Mignon S. Adams and Blanche Judd's "Evaluating Reference Librarians: Using Goal Analysis as a First Step." Unless one accepts MBO as a valid measure of performance, these articles have very limited value.

A lack of clarity about values lies at the root of the evaluation problems. It seems that every librarian intuitively knows what constitutes good reference service or a good reference librarian, but none of these authors has been able to articulate that in a meaningful statement with which even a slim majority of the other authors (as well of their colleagues in the field throughout the profession) can agree. Some equate quality to speed of service. Others tout accuracy of factual information and others the amount of searching the librarian performs for the patrons as the measures of quality. A number of the articles mention, but none attempts to apply, the ALA Reference and Adult Services Division's "A Commitment to Information Services: Developmental Guidelines." As the name implies, these are guidelines, many hortatory in nature, not definitive standards by which to measure and evaluate reference service.

Evaluation implies measurement as a first step. However one cannot discern in these papers any consensus on what ought to be measured, much less on how to measure. There is also disagreement about who should judge a library's reference service—that library's reference staff, reference staff from another library, or the patrons who receive the service. Because it is the most "real," the last choice has the greatest appeal, but it is flawed by the consideration that few patrons operate from a firm enough bibliographic knowledge base to judge reference services well.

A concluding essay could not possibly have drawn together and synthesized all of the divergent approaches to a very
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broad topic. Nevertheless, it could have outlined the agenda the profession must follow to evaluate reference services in public and academic libraries. The profession must define what it means by reference services (including online services); it must establish standards for these services; it must devise techniques for measuring services against these standards. It must integrate into a cumulative judgment the individual judgments of the various factors F. W. Lancaster identifies in his article as things that can affect the quality of reference service. These factors include the conduciveness of the environment for information seeking, library policies, the reference collection, library staff, question complexity, the abilities of the user, and the existence of referral agencies.

Thus far attempts to evaluate reference service fall well short of this ambitious mark. The best hope is offered by efforts such as the one Marjorie Murfin and Charles Bunge describe in which both librarians and patrons in a number of libraries complete questionnaires describing and evaluating particular reference encounters. All of this data is then analyzed by computer. Although they caution that their results are preliminary and subject to revision after further analysis, one can conclude that good reference service is labor intensive in that it takes time and that it is more likely to be judged effective if the librarian searches for the information requested rather than suggests a strategy through which it might be found. Work must continue on this and other techniques until collectively they reach a point at which someone can synthesize them into the best possible way to measure and evaluate reference.

Several articles explain how to evaluate databases and reference works and one article discusses reference collection policies. Because these articles fail to consider the impact on library patrons, they are peripheral to the volume’s central concern of evaluating reference service.

Collectively these articles capture the state of the art of evaluating reference—not only the techniques but also the beliefs the profession holds about evaluation. Thus far, belief in evaluation’s value far outweighs the results derived from evaluation experiments. This volume states the problems; it does not offer solutions. However, because methods of evaluating reference service must be found and because this overview comes at a time of renewed interest in the evaluation issue, it ought to encourage both theoreticians and practitioners to work on the agenda outlined above.—James R. Rettig, University Library, University of Illinois at Chicago.


Although this book has a Canadian focus, it deals with an important issue of higher education that should be of equal interest in the United States. Campbell, a professor of continuing education and higher education at the University of Alberta, argues the importance of institutions coming to terms with the educational needs of working adults beyond traditional college age. Programs serving this group have frequently been outside the mainstream of normal University priorities in both Canada and the United States; but with changing demographic and social patterns, a group once seen as peripheral to the central mission and goals of higher education is now an increasingly important segment of its population. Campbell believes that universities must face this fact and act upon it if they are to remain dominant in the education field. The points raised in this short book are good ones, but one wonders if this was the best means for transmitting them. There is a good deal of repetition between sections and maybe a long, well-written article in a prominent journal would have presented the message more concisely to a broader audience.

The first section provides an historical retrospective on continuing education in Canada with reference to other countries, especially the U.S. and the United Kingdom. Later sections deal with the rhetoric,
types, design, and delivery of continuing education programs. Only in the next-to-last chapter does Campbell begin to present his ideas for change in the organization and policies of continuing education. Since many readers will be relatively familiar with the current status of continuing education much of the material in this area could be condensed with greater attention then devoted to the future.

Libraries are specifically mentioned only a few times in this book, but Campbell does note the tension between libraries who want to keep holdings intact and the continuing education student's need for resources in locations remote from the central university campus.

The issue of education, including adequate library services and collections for the older adult, is an important one; and academic librarians need to be especially conscious of activities and trends in their own states, provinces, or regions. Those wanting a broader overview will probably find that this book does nicely, providing a readable, jargon-free approach with chapter summaries and a fairly extensive, if a little dated, international bibliography.—Elizabeth M. Salzer, Michel Orradre Library, Santa Clara University, California.


This is a textbook for an upper undergraduate or graduate course in communication. As such it bears all the marks of the textbook and would be barred from college libraries, which reduce theft by excluding the textbooks from courses locally taught. For other libraries all the way from high school to research, the book has a definite use, but not as something to curl up with on a rainy evening. It is a textbook and suffers from the characteristics of all such works, while as a reference book it

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The writing is clear, factual, grammatical, and words are used with care. The result is a style that conveys the message the author intended without any charm, interest, or enjoyment. Equally, the mechanics necessary for classroom use of this book show through, like the bones of a skeleton in costume. Each chapter begins and ends with a summary, usually reduced to a table with accompanying text. A full bibliography follows advice to the teacher under the heading "Exercises."

The book is interesting given the patience and the time to read it and a willingness not to expect grace or provocation in its craftsmanship. The story progresses from the classical heritage and England to colonial America, exploding myths along the way, even to the point of quoting Whittier's poem on the expulsion of a Quaker from the Massachusetts colony and showing in a ruled box the main features of the Sedition Act of 1798.

The five chapters of Part II deal with controls on the content of speech, it being assumed that printed messages are as much recorded speech as telegraphic codes and sound recordings. Freedom of speech means intellectual freedom, a term not used, evidently in communication courses.

The chapter on political heresy, sedition since 1917, is especially interesting in describing how the "clear and present danger" rule was established and chewed into its present form in several cases. Each of the cases is summarized in a highly useful form, readily referred to, and capable of being expanded to the full case based on the bibliographic information provided. Those that establish or refine a rule of law are called "Landmark Cases." Clearly, the book is an excellent reference source, and doubtlessly, a thorough textbook that would make a good teacher of an indifferent one offering the course.

The reviewer's interest in "religio-moral heresy," to use the language of the book, perhaps colored his opinions, because while the information conveyed is highly appropriate for a classroom text, it leaves a specialist frustrated and at times annoyed. For instance, a discussion of why the various courts become dithery over "prurient interest" is lacking. The term is not in the index. No one has ever thought to poke around in it and find out why it became a standard reason to forbid works on one side of the river and permit them on the other, as in the banning of works in St. Paul while wicked old Minneapolis permitted them.

Nevertheless, the book is an excellent summary, superior in all respects to others in the field. The landmark cases alone make it valuable. The indexes of cases and of subjects following highly useful and informative appendixes containing, among other things a description of legal citations and how they may be used and a glossary, tables depicting the court systems of the United States and the way decisions are reached in them, make this a valuable reference book that will greatly aid any student pursuing a topic covered, from technological controls to the concept of privacy. It would be useful in library school courses in communication as resource material, and it is not so complex as it may appear. Bright students would find its neutrality appealing. The closest the book comes to taking sides is in the quotation of a seminal article by William E. Bailey. This is advanced communications research, which must be a dull subject indeed if the article is its brightest moment.—Jay E. Daily, School of Library and Information Science, University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.


This is one of two volumes of papers presented at an international conference entitled "Contemporary Issues in Academic and Research Libraries," held in Boulder, Colorado, on February 28-29 and March 1, 1984. According to the introduction to this volume, the issues raised by the contributors can best be summarized by these two basic questions: Can academic and research libraries cope with the
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current technological, economic, and organizational issues that are bringing about rapid changes in information technology and information services? Will libraries require fundamental changes in order to remain operationally effective and economically viable? The subsequent volume, *Issues in Academic Librarianship: Views and Case Studies for the 1980s and 1990s*, will also share how these issues have been handled, both hypothetically and in reality, with ideas on how they can be better addressed in the coming years.

This volume concentrates on the bread-and-butter issues of academic librarianship. How to isolate problems, issues, deal with the process of change while creating long-term solutions, which will allow for information to be retrieved, preserved, and the academic library to serve many functions due to technological enhancements and advancements.

Sigmund Ginsburg defines the economic reality of higher education as austere. He calls for better understanding in how to cope with the formidable challenge of not having sufficient financial resources, by emphasizing effectiveness, efficiency, and sound management in higher education administration and notes that the library, which has tried to serve many functions, must, like other academic units, evaluate its role and plan for better economies of scale. His focus is optimistic, for it stresses that there are five positive elements to examine: the role of government officials, trustees or regents, as well as the academic administration, faculty, and the "customer" input. These groups have responsibilities and need to understand how best to live with austerity. Ginsburg suggests leaders must be concerned with the following: cost effectiveness; a marketing, public relations and service orientation; creativity, innovation, and a concern for competition; careful evaluation of existing philosophies, policies, programs; and practices corresponding to both present and future needs and a changing environment. At the same time they must protect and advance the academic core and future of the institution. These may be accomplished by increasing income and decreasing expenses, and this chapter identifies numerous methods for practicing that. Ginsburg notes the importance of sound, long-term planning, in order for institutions to continue to offer high quality in lifelong education, research, and public service to various constituencies, and he is confident that austerity can be overcome. This chapter is a good introduction to other issues in this volume.

The United States is not the only country in which resources have become less plentiful. Samuel Saul describes the situation for libraries and higher education in Great Britain and charges that the University Grants Committee (UGC) must evaluate its allocation to institutions. Libraries in the U.K. generate their budget based on enrollment, and British institutions are smaller than many in the U.S. The UGC determines and directs the use of the money available for each institution. Libraries describe libraries' most severe problems as caused by a shift in the publishing emphasis to more serials titles, where the long-term costs are higher, and commitments greater. Inflation also contributed to the budget dilemmas. In order to meet service and collection needs, Saul asks that librarians rethink their role and contemplate whether they can in good sense justify acquiring materials that may only satisfy specialized research needs. With the end of austerity not in sight, Saul asks for cooperation and learning from other institutions' experiences while trying to make the wisest choices in staffing, and acquisitions, the two most major allocations of resources.

Edward Johnson argues that if the library is the heart of the university, those administrators must demonstrate that vitality by making wise use of the resources allocated to them and that improved support of the library benefits the entire university community. In order for that to occur, Johnson suggests that library administrators implement strategic planning and be visible and involved in all aspects of university planning, so that the library is not overlooked and misallocated. Librarians must be accountable for their resources so as to guarantee their ongoing support, and the more involved they are...
in the total decision making of the campus, the stronger communication will likely evolve.

One of the distinguished pieces in the book is by Maurice Glicksman, who calls for better resource sharing and centralization for research libraries by making more effective use of consortia, such as Center for Research Libraries (CRL), or utilities, like Research Libraries Group (RLG). He also identifies three major challenges for libraries that he hopes will be met in the near future: (1) how to best deal with the proliferation of scholarly material; (2) how to respond to the need to implement preservation and conservation guidelines; (3) how to guide the introduction of new technology to maximize utility and minimize costs. These challenges require insights and participation by everyone in the profession, working together with computer developers and manufacturers to accomplish many of the tasks ahead, in order that research libraries may continue to serve the academic community.

Paul Kantor’s paper is a comparison of library costs and services. This relationship is best understood with the premise that the “academic library is a nonprofit center operating within a nonprofit institution.” Kantor says that the most important tool for obtaining a rational understanding of the relations between costs and services is the determination of unit costs. Developing a budget and living within it is one of the toughest challenges for academic libraries. University administrators will have more insight into the process of determining these costs after reading this paper.

Daniel Lester reviews twenty years of using the Clapp-Jordan Formula, which was adopted to assist librarians and state higher-education commissions in assessing the adequacy of library collections and services. If anything, after reviewing the data it can be concluded that Clapp-Jordan may not be sophisticated enough to deal with current library demands.

Library finance is addressed by Murray Martin in a very objective chapter in which he calls for libraries to reexamine the services they provide in terms of inputs and outputs. His plan is to create new budgetary concepts, to include cost-of-user access. This plan has roots in the reality that libraries cannot be all things to all users, and also identifies one of the largest financial drains on a library: service to unaffiliated users. Martin makes some very important suggestions for librarians to consider as they reassess how far their budgets will stretch, with the most significant one being that goals must be stated and current programs evaluated.

The total resource budget planning guide is defined and illustrated by Sherman Hayes. He mentions a number of techniques he finds useful to increase operating budgets, and depending on institutional specifics, can offer potential growth in library resources.

The section of papers on New Opportunities concentrates on automation and networks. Richard McCoy and David Weber address issues related to technical change and related economic challenges. They cover many ideas, including coordinated collection development or conspectus projects, planning and technological
support, while sharing many of the experiences at Stanford.

Joan Segal provides a very informative chapter on networking and networks. The specific considerations of networks vary, and Segal discusses the variety of definitions, methods of cooperation and operation, levels of networking, program development, marketing and user services, and finally, the financing of networks. This is a very good and clear explanation of how most networks function and what their capabilities are within certain governance parameters.

Nina Cohen offers an explanation of what external contracting for library services consists of and means in different environments. How viable this practice is for academic libraries or how common I am not sure, however, it is an alternative. Theodore Welch shares information about how to attract donor dollars and external contributions. Again, what may be successful at one institution may not work at another, and practices vary widely. Strategies should contain common practices in the fund-raising world and will reflect working with other development personnel on campus.

The entire volume reflects many different ideas, and unfortunately a common thread is missing. Each article contains useful information, descriptive and prescriptive, for making planning more effective in the context of academic libraries. How much influence this volume will have collectively is uncertain, but individual articles are distinguished and merit reading and discussion. The conference must have generated ample discussion, and it is too bad that the book does not include those sentiments and viewpoints. The bibliography is not, by any means, comprehensive nor complete but does include a few basic and common entries in each subject area. It is difficult to make a book of such readings more important, but this one will be useful, because the individual articles are very worthwhile and credible.—Julia Gelfand, University Library, University of California, Irvine.

ABSTRACTS

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

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This report examines the potential impact of optical media—videodiscs, compact audio discs, and optical discs, tapes, and cards—in library-related applications. A detailed consideration of the technology includes discussion of the underlying principles, the various forms in which the technology is marketed, production methods and costs, and the capabilities of each different medium. An introductory chapter outlines the different forms of optical media and their potential applications in libraries. Each of the remaining eleven chapters then addresses the details of one of the following technologies: videodiscs; interactive videodiscs; recording digital data on videodisc; videodisc production; compact audio discs and CD ROM (compact disc read-only memory); videodiscs and CD ROM as digital publishing media; optical digital discs; optical digital products; and erasable optical media. A number of video and compact audio disc projects currently being developed or investigated in library settings are examined in the appropriate chapters, including audio and video applications at Video Patsearch, the National Library of Medicine, and the Library of Congress; digital data publishing projects at MinIMARC, Information Access Corporation, Carrollton Press, the Library Corporation, and other companies; and library applications of optical digital disk technology at
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This document records testimony before the U.S. Senate on the reauthorization of Public Law 84-597, the Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA). The original purpose of the LSCA was to bring library services to rural areas and to those citizens who had previously been deprived of access (the handicapped, disadvantaged, and those who speak English as a second language); library services are currently available to 96 percent of Americans and the number of libraries nationwide has grown to 100,000. The focus of the LSCA in the 1980s is statewide sharing of existing resources; keeping pace with the information-technology revolution; and preserving the history that libraries have been asked to keep. The prepared statements that constitute the major portion of the document were presented by experienced practitioners, state librarians, urban library directors, and interested people who have devoted countless hours of volunteer time to maximizing the potential of libraries throughout the nation.

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