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COLLEGE & RESEARCH LIBRARIES
JANUARY 1987
VOLUME 48
NUMBER 1
ISSN 0010-0870

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College & Research Libraries (ISSN 0010-0870) is the official journal of the Association of College and Research Libraries, a division of the American Library Association. It is published bimonthly at 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611. Second-class postage paid at Chicago and at additional mailing offices. POSTMASTER: Send address changes to College & Research Libraries, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611.

Manuscripts of articles and copies of books submitted for review should be sent to the Editor: Charles R. Martell, Editor, College & Research Libraries, The Library, 2000 Jed Smith Dr., California State University, Sacramento, CA 95819. Phone 916-454-6466.

Instructions for authors and further information on submission of manuscripts are included in a statement on p.89–90 of this volume of College & Research Libraries.

Production and circulation office: Central Production Unit, ALA, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611. Advertising office: Art Beck, Advertising Sales Manager, Choice, 100 Riverview Center, Middletown, CT 06457, 203-347-1387. Change of address and subscription orders should be addressed to College & Research Libraries, for receipt at the above address, at least two months before the publication date of the effective issue.

Subscription price: to members of ACRL, $17.50 per year, included in membership dues; to nonmembers, $35 per year in U.S., Canada, Mexico, Spain, and other PUAS countries, $45 in other foreign countries. Retrospective subscriptions not accepted. Single copies and back issues, $7.50 each.

Inclusion of an article or advertisement in College & Research Libraries does not constitute official endorsement by ACRL or ALA.

A partial list of the services indexing or abstracting the contents of C&RL includes: Current Index to Journals in Education; Information Science Abstracts; Library & Information Science Abstracts; Library Literature; and Social Sciences Citation Index. Book reviews are included in Book Review Digest, Book Review Index, and Current Book Review Citations.

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Let Us Put Up Our Bright Swords

Is there a crisis in higher education? Many say yes. At MIT a sweeping reform of undergraduate education is under way. “We’re not considering just a fine tuning of the curriculum, but a recasting of the educational mission” says President Paul E. Gray (Chronicle of Higher Education, Oct. 22, 1986, p.1). This approach is advocated by Ernest L. Boyer, the former U.S. Commissioner of Education, who believes “any college that has not thought carefully about goals should not even open the issue of college-wide assessment” (Chronicle of Higher Education, Oct. 15, 1986, p.41).

The dialogue in higher education over goals, curriculum, and the assessment of learning is both fascinating and instructive. Librarians who follow it are likely to observe interesting parallels with key issues in their own profession. In the literature of librarianship there is frequent mention of the need for strategic planning, the transformation of roles and programs, and the desire for the assessment of outcomes.

Meanwhile, October was a lively month for higher education. Just a few miles down the Charles River from MIT, another president, Derek Bok, was busy defending his university’s curriculum in a dialogue with William J. Bennett. The secretary of education, helping Harvard celebrate its 350th anniversary, critiqued the university’s curriculum reform efforts and chastised the spokesmen of higher education for invoking “the mission of the university as if they were reciting the Nicene Creed: one, holy, universal, and apostolic church” (Chronicle of Higher Education, Oct. 15, 1986, p.27).


Bok has a point. Unfortunately, he is not upbraiding an academic colleague but a public official. The standards for discourse are not the same. And he knows this. Bennett knows this. The dialogue, handled with such finesse by Bok, who was not scheduled to speak before he received an advanced copy of the secretary’s remarks, was a slugfest over turf.

Attack and counterattack will not solve the crisis. The posturings to protect intrinsic interests, or turf, will not allow us to agree on what is wrong and what needs to be done.

In his concluding statements, Bok balances the record when he notes that the real issues are not simply “what our students should learn but how well they are learning and whether they could learn better.” He suggests six specific illustrative questions:

- How well do we formulate the purposes of our educational programs and communicate them to our students?
- How carefully do we adapt our individual courses and examinations to serve our shared educational goals?
- How can we improve the quality of feedback we offer our students without overwhelming a faculty already busy with many important goals?
- How can we identify early those who are achieving below their potential and how can we...
diagnose the source of their difficulties and help them overcome it?

- How can we exploit the possibilities and avoid the pitfalls of new technology to enhance the quality of learning?
- How can we evaluate the effectiveness of our educational programs and teaching methods, recognizing that no human endeavor can progress very far without some means of assessing its results?

The answers to these questions are critical. However, neither public officials nor academic administrators are the most relevant parties in the area of educational reform. The key participants can be found in only one place: the classroom. Yet, according to two professors, little attention has been paid to the role of teacher, the act of teaching, or ineffective teaching [Toby J. Tetenbaum and Thomas A. Mulkeen, "Designer Teacher Education for the Twenty-First Century," *Journal of Higher Education* (Nov./Dec. 1986)].

Because faculty rule the classroom and are protected by academic freedom and tenure rights, meaningful reform will proceed slowly, if at all, unless there is widespread faculty support. Without this support reform is doomed, no matter what the objective merits of the case.

The self-interests of the faculty cannot be ignored. Yet what incentives or reasons can others provide that might lead faculty to set aside these interests and accept assessments as a means for determining results and making improvements?

Assessment is a difficult issue. In view of the large sums of money spent on books and other media by library selectors, it would seem reasonable to expect that they would conduct systematic and periodic collection assessments as part of their basic fiduciary responsibilities. However, no such professional norm exists. Likewise, the assessment of performance at the reference desk has been the subject of theoretical interest, but there is no professional norm in place that leads us to do this.

In concluding his remarks, President Bok urged Secretary of Education Bennett to "put up our bright swords" in order to work together to solve common problems. We also need to build the cooperative relationships that will permit us to lower the shields of professional self-interest.

CHARLES MARTELL

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

*Faculty Status for Academic Librarians: A Review of the Literature*
by Emily Werrell and Laura Sullivan

*Managing Change: Supporting Users of Integrated Library Systems*
by Gary Marchionini and Danuta Nitecki

*The Nature of Authority and Employee Participation in the Management of Academic Libraries*
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*Modeling the Selection Decision: Defining Criteria, Making Microdecisions, Establishing Priorities*
by John Rutledge and Luke Swindler

*Preservation Study at the Syracuse University Libraries*
by Randall Bond, Mary DeCarlo, Elizabeth Henes, and Eileen Snyder
The Electronic Campus: The Impact of the Scholar's Workstation Project on the Libraries at Brown

Barbara B. Moran, Thomas T. Surprenant, and Merrily E. Taylor

The academic library has traditionally served as the centralized storehouse of information for the academic community, but inevitably its functions will change as more campuses are "wired" and as students and faculty have access to information through individual computer workstations linked in a local campus network for scholarly communication. This case study describes the Scholar's Workstation project, a campuswide computerization project at Brown University, and assesses the effects, to date, of that project on the institution's libraries. Suggestions are provided to other libraries whose institutions are beginning to explore the possibility of a similar venture.

Brown University in Providence, Rhode Island, has embarked on a major project to expand and integrate its computing, communication, and information systems. As a result the school has received a great deal of publicity and has been touted in the literature of higher education as an example of a liberal arts university that is being transformed from a traditional campus into an electronic one. Obviously, a transformation of this magnitude will affect all segments of the university, including the library. The purpose of this research was to look specifically at the impact of the campuswide computerization project on the role and operation of the academic libraries at Brown.

The researchers' interest in the Brown experiment began in the summer of 1984, when the Council on Library Resources sponsored an Association of Research Libraries' Institute on Research Libraries for Library Science Faculty. At the institute there were many discussions about the role of the academic research library in a changing technological and educational environment. In particular, the group speculated about how the crucial role the academic library plays in scholarship and instruction could be maintained in an era of electronic information.

Although writers of library literature have dealt extensively with the effects of applying computer technology to library processes and services, little has been written about the effects of campuswide computer technology on the academic library. The lack of research on the topic is not surprising since it was not until the...
last two or three years that institutions began to develop campuswide networks for information sharing. There has not been sufficient time to study how this innovation is changing the lives of students and faculty, and, possibly, the very nature of higher education. The "wiring" of campuses will have a profound impact on academic libraries, and for the first time it is possible to begin to gauge that effect.

The three authors of this report felt that it was critical to assess the place and role of the academic library in the electronic campus of the future. Since Brown University was in the process of undergoing an evolution towards such a campus, it provided a rare opportunity for such a study. Brown, Carnegie Mellon University (CMU), and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) have been called the "Star Wars" universities—the high-tech innovators in a transformed world of higher education. Together, these three institutions have invested nearly $200 million in information technology for instructional purposes over the last few years. Brown provides a particularly interesting example of this technological transformation since it, unlike CMU and MIT, is not a technological institution but primarily a liberal arts college, an orientation more typical of the vast majority of institutions of higher education in the United States. Brown also has a tradition of emphasizing humanistic education and of considering the library central to the education process. Thus, Brown could provide a scenario of what may happen to many academic libraries in the near future. Studying the process that is going on at Brown would provide information about the effects of campuswide computerization of libraries, particularly information in the broad area of institutional planning and management, which should be useful to other librarians. As a result, they should be able to make more informed decisions as their own institutions move toward incorporating more information technology. A grant proposal to study the Brown experiment was submitted to the Council on Library Resources and was approved. This article summarizes the major findings of that research.

BROWN UNIVERSITY

It is not surprising that Brown University is one of the sites of the latest innovation in higher education. In the past, Brown has been a pioneer in other educational developments. In the 1800s under the leadership of Francis Wayland, Brown was one of the first universities to permit students to take elective courses. Then, in the early 1970s, the school was at the forefront of American curriculum reform again, adopting a flexible undergraduate curriculum that is still proving to be very attractive.

By the late 1970s Brown was experiencing the same problem as many other institutions: a computer capacity that was increasingly inadequate to meet student and faculty demands. Although the mainframe computer was frequently upgraded, these upgrades never permitted the school to meet or stay ahead of demand. In 1983, Brown began an ambitious, long-term undertaking called the Scholar's Workstation project. The goal was to experiment with, shape, and evaluate new types of computer and communication tools that might have a profound effect on future education and scholarship.

The keystone of the project was the development of an integrated network of campus computers that could be used for a wide variety of teaching and research purposes. Individual workstations were proposed that would be more powerful than most existing personal computers with a capacity of a million pixels of information on the screen, a million processes per second, and a million bytes of storage.

The original plan for the Scholar's Workstation project envisioned 2,000 workstations on campus by the end of 1984. By 1987, there would be 10,000 workstations including those located in faculty homes and Brown-affiliated hospitals. These powerful microcomputers would be connected into local networks that in turn would be connected into the university network, BRUNET, a broadband, coaxial cable communications system that already linked many of the campus buildings. The workstations, which were expected to affect almost all aspects
of teaching and learning at Brown, would include such functions as computation, word processing, information retrieval, data analysis, computer graphics, network communications, and library access. The result of the Scholar’s Workstation project would be a campus with decentralized computing resources, but one that would be integrated electronically with students, faculty, staff, and resources tied together in a functioning “wired university.”

The Institute for Research in Information and Scholarship (IRIS) was established at Brown in 1983 to oversee the Scholar’s Workstation project and to serve as a self-supporting, umbrella organization. Its primary purpose was to coordinate research and experimentation in the development of innovative use of information and communication technologies in education and scholarship. IRIS was also charged with the task of evaluating and analyzing the impact of the project on both individuals and the institution. The purpose of IRIS was pivotal in the Scholar’s Workstation project.

To make this project a reality, Brown had to rely heavily on outside funding. Being a pioneer is always risky, but to attract large amounts of outside money, it is advantageous to be among the first working on a project, as funding agencies are more willing to invest. The type of project that Brown envisioned was especially attractive to corporate sponsors because it held out the promise of eventual commercial viability. If a Scholar’s Workstation could be produced that fulfilled the expectations of its proponents at Brown, it should also be extremely attractive for eventual marketing at other campuses.

To gather the information needed to provide answers to these questions, the researchers decided to use a case study approach. The case study method was felt to be the only valid approach despite the limitation of not being generalizable to a
larger population. Using this method, the researchers would be able to describe what had gone on at Brown to date, assess the impact of the project, and then, by means of additional studies, be able to track future developments.

By necessity, the research was exploratory, but the researchers hoped to gather baseline information that might provide the foundation for future studies in this area. The research would be enhanced by the presence on the team of one individual who was directly associated with Brown and two who had no connections with it. The inside member would be invaluable in terms of providing access to key individuals, supplying the outsiders with basic information and documentation, verifying data, and identifying crucial elements in the environment. Finally, as an ongoing participant in the process, the insider would be able to keep the others abreast of developments and changes. On the other hand, the outsiders could supply objectivity through their lack of vested interest in the process at the university. In addition, the individuals to be interviewed would be more likely to be open with outside interviewers because there was no political liability associated with speaking frankly.

Extensive background reading was done to prepare for the interviews. A great deal of information was available from Brown about the Scholar's Workstation project, and, in addition, access to internal documents and memoranda pertaining to the project was provided. The researchers also read the published literature relating to the project, although that literature is, to date, rather scant.

Two separate interview schedules were drawn up: one to be used with the university administrators and faculty and a second to be used with librarians. The questions on the first set were broadly focused on the implementation of the Scholar's Workstation project and its likely impact on the campus in general and the library in particular, while the questions on the second set were focused more narrowly on issues relating to the Brown University libraries. After the question sets were drawn up, they were pretested and revised.

In September 1985, the researchers met on the Brown campus to plan the research and to select the sample of individuals to be interviewed. The sample consisted of two sectors: (1) individuals chosen randomly, and (2) key individuals who were included because of their importance to the project. In October 1985, the two outside researchers returned to Brown for the actual interviewing process. All interviews were done over the course of five days, and both of the outside researchers were present for most of the interviews.

Thirty people were interviewed; the interviews ranged in length from thirty minutes to two hours with most averaging about an hour. All of the individuals except one gave permission for the interviews to be tape recorded. The interviews were held with a cross-section of university administrators, faculty, library administrators, and librarians, and one student.* All were extremely open about the process of implementing the Scholar's Workstation project. No one refused to be interviewed, and the researchers were impressed by the frankness of everyone in their appraisals of both the strengths and the weaknesses of the project.

At the close of each day, the researchers met, recapitulated the day's events, and discussed plans for the next day. In between interviews, as many campus facilities as possible were visited. After the week of interviewing, the taped interviews were transcribed. The data were organized, key issues were identified, and the report was prepared.

RESULTS

General

The outside researchers arrived at Brown with some expectations of what would be found on campus. From the published reports about the project the researchers expected to find a network of

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*Due to lack of time, more interviews with students could not be scheduled as originally planned.
fully functioning workstations, a wired campus, and workstations being used individually and in classrooms by both faculty and students. What was actually found was different. As with almost all complex plans, delays and slippage had occurred, and Brown had not progressed as far as it had anticipated. The timetable for implementation had been far too ambitious. Most disappointing was the fact that the Scholar’s Workstations had not yet been installed. There was at least one prototype machine on campus at that time, but the prototype could be viewed only by individuals who had signed non-disclosure agreements with IBM. Most of the people interviewed had not yet seen the prototype and thus did not know how well it met prior expectations.

The campus was almost completely wired with plans to finish wiring the dorms by the end of summer 1986. Although the campus is considered wired, the wiring goes only to the outside of the buildings, and individual departments have to pay for the T-box connections and the wiring inside the buildings. There were still some departments, especially in the humanities, that had not brought the wiring inside their buildings.

It was quickly discovered that Brown had already scaled down its expectations about the project. No one at Brown was talking about 10,000 workstations; the expectation was that the university would begin with a small number of workstations and acquire 500 at most. The costs of the original plan had been much higher than expected, and the realization of these costs had applied a brake to the hopes of acquiring a larger number. There was also a greater acceptance of a mix of computer technologies on campus than originally planned, and the realization that the power of the Scholar’s Workstation was far more than was necessary for many users.

The interviews made it clear that Brown administrators, faculty, and librarians on all levels were divided in their opinions about the Scholar’s Workstation project. They were split in their expectations, their knowledge, and their acceptance of the project. With one major exception, all the individuals interviewed were in favor of the concept, although the degree of acceptance varied.

Where disagreement arose, it almost always centered on the overall cost of the project. The grant from IBM has covered most of the initial costs to the university, but the grant is drawing to an end, and the cost of the project soon must be assumed by the university. The costs have greatly escalated from the original estimates, and the fact that the expenses of the project will soon have to be covered as a part of the regular operating budget has caused many early proponents to worry that Brown may have undertaken more than it can afford. As in all universities, especially private universities, there are many competing demands on the budget, including demands for increased faculty salaries and more generous student aid. Although Brown is considered to be a wealthy university, the researchers were reminded often that its endowment is the smallest of any of the Ivy League schools. It has become obvious at Brown that the funds needed to support the workstation project could consume ever-larger portions of the budget to the detriment of other areas.

No one seems to have much factual information about the actual costs of the project in the future. Even people who are in charge of budgeting do not have firm figures. There are rough estimates of the percentage of the budget computerization may require, but nothing concrete. Everyone interviewed admitted that budgeting for the project in the future was going to be extremely difficult and that not enough had been done to think through the process. But this uncertainty seemed to be accepted with equanimity by the senior administrators interviewed. One of them remarked:

Brown is absolutely a tightrope act. We all walk on high wires around here. The only thing that is less comfortable than this is not having this attention, not having this activity, and not doing this at all. So you live with one set of anxieties or another and we have chosen to live with these.

There was a certain amount of impatience and disillusionment at all levels,
which was not surprising, considering the scope of the original plans and what has been realized to date. There was also a widespread awareness that the problems of developing the hardware had been much greater than expected. Many people were also concerned about the software to be used, especially the courseware that would have to be developed if the workstations were to be used as originally planned. Among the faculty there were fears expressed that the university had no way of rewarding faculty for the time and the effort that would need to be invested in production of courseware. Because Brown’s instructional budget is already so large, there was little hope of faculty receiving released time to work on such projects.

Despite the concerns of many, there is still an air of optimism on campus about the project. Although there are few who believe that the original objectives of the project will ever be met, most of the people interviewed still believe in its ultimate worth. Opposition to the workstation project certainly exists on campus, some of it quite bitter. Estimates of the opposition ranged from 5 percent to 50 percent of the faculty. The most likely estimate seems to be 10 percent to 20 percent. These opponents feel that the workstations are consuming money that could be better used for other educational purposes. Detractors say that the whole mission of the university has been skewed by this project and that the institution is being transformed from a liberal arts institution into “Brown Tech.”

Although the actual workstations are not in operation on campus, the Brown environment has changed drastically from what it was prior to the planning for this project. Computer technology is highly visible on the campus. Every departmental office and almost every faculty office that was seen had at least one computer terminal in it. People’s work habits have changed, and most of the faculty and staff are utilizing existing computer technology in their jobs. Many students are arriving on campus with computers and even more are purchasing them in the Brown “Computer Store.” Although the Scholar’s Workstations were not opera-tional in fall 1985, Brown did have a fully installed campus network with over 3,200 personal computers of various types connected to it. Brown is a “wired” campus now, even though the development of the Scholars’ Workstations is far behind the original schedule.

Ways the Implementation Could Have Been Improved

Other institutions contemplating a similar project to the one at Brown could learn a great deal from Brown’s experience. In retrospect, it is easy to point out some things that might have made the process of computerizing the campus at Brown go more smoothly. The most obvious one of these would have been greater attention paid to communication between the people in charge of the Scholar’s Workstation project and the rest of the university community. Although there was some communication about the project from its inception, among the individuals interviewed almost all felt that communication between IRIS and the rest of the campus had been inadequate.

The second major flaw in Brown’s implementation involved building up expectations that could not be met. There were gross underestimates of the time and cost involved in making the project operational. Part of this deficiency stemmed from the fact that Brown decided not to go with off-the-shelf technology but, instead, entered a partnership with a corporate entity to produce its own. Brown thus had to rely on its partner, IBM, to maintain its schedule. By October 1985, the project was at least sixteen months behind schedule because the technology had not moved as fast as most people had projected. The cost escalations also had resulted from contracting for undeveloped products. Because of the uncertainties involved and the subsequent downscaling of the plans, the process was described as one where “people’s expectations were raised to very high levels initially and then they had to be damped back.”

Another shortcoming in the process at Brown stemmed from the fact that the individuals who had the most influence in the project operated, at least in the beginning, under the assumption that everyone
at Brown would be uniformly in favor of the project. Thus, they provided inadequate preparation for readying the rest of the campus for the changes that would ensue and failed to enlist support in advance of the project. None of the downside risks involved in entering the project seem to have been adequately thought through and were certainly not publicized. As one administrator said, ‘‘We committed first and asked searching questions later.’’ This administrator believes that if the searching questions had been asked the project would still have been undertaken, but the school would have been spared some of the surprises it has had to endure in the process.

It was explained that the project was undertaken hastily because the opening opportunity with IBM did not permit more time. The university agreed to participate in the project and then announced this agreement. The project was thus a ‘‘top-down’’ decision that violated the traditional route of campus decision making, wherein the faculty have at least the perception that they have input into the decision-making process. As one faculty member said:

The whole possibility of doing this came about in a kind of entrepreneurial effort. . . . And, the senior administrative decisions had to be made quickly. There was really not the time to go through the faculty and have all the committee meetings, and all of the four, and six, and twelve hour debates that usually ensue. But what happened is that when it was brought forward to the faculty, it was brought forward in a way which I and a number of members of the faculty conceived as ‘‘This decision has already been made. Why are you asking us?’’

Many faculty still resent the fact that the university made a commitment to the project without prior faculty approval.

The other major difficulty Brown has had to deal with is a lack of coordination not only in regard to the Scholar’s Workstation project but also to computerization in general. Although the Academic Computing Center and IRIS seem to have cooperated well, there has been a general perception that the roles of each have been confused. Neither faculty nor staff is sure exactly what each unit is responsible for, and there still appears to be some overlap in the responsibilities of each.

In an attempt to provide some campuswide coordination of computing, a vice-provost of computing was appointed in the fall of 1985. It was evident that expectations about what this individual would be able to accomplish were extremely high. Many of the individuals interviewed used the term Superman in describing the attributes the vice-provost would have to possess in order to complete the tasks he would be expected to undertake. Unfortunately, the first vice-provost of computing left after only a few months in the position. Another has recently been appointed, but the task of coordinating computer resources at Brown is an immense challenge and one that has not been achieved as yet.

Brown seems to be coming slowly to the realization that the Scholar’s Workstation project will never be implemented fully in the form originally envisioned. One faculty member put it well:

There is a lot of joking around about these machines which people have which are not the machines that people are going to have which they may never have. I think at some point, someone is going to have to say that what [the project] was or turned out to be was a catalyst for a different kind of thing. And I haven’t heard anyone say that yet.

By fall 1986, there were a small number of Scholar’s Workstations on the campus with more expected for the spring semester, but the grand vision originally set out in 1983 of 10,000 workstations on campus will never be achieved. The workstation project presented a concept—a vision of the future. Brown has moved and will move still closer to that vision using a mixture of both existing technology and the workstations. Like any innovation, a group of true believers at Brown seized the initiative and began to implement change. Their efforts, although not yet successful, have changed the direction of the campus forever.

**Present and Future Impact on the Brown Library**

Although the Scholar’s Workstations are not yet operational, the libraries at
Brown have, like the rest of the institution, been affected by the attempt to computerize the campus. Here, too, the Scholar's Workstation project has served as a catalyst to promote change. The Brown libraries are already serving a highly computerized, "wired" campus, and they are preparing to serve an even more computer-oriented campus in the future. There is an air of expectancy in the library, and many of the librarians interviewed remarked that Brown was an exciting place to be working. For instance:

One of the most exciting and opportunistic things for librarians here at Brown is that expectations are very high all over campus that something different is going to happen and it is going to reach the library. . . . It is going to affect everyone because the library is a part of it. . . . I wouldn't want to be anywhere else. It is super to be a part of this.

Many of the librarians at Brown have been actively involved in planning for the Scholar's Workstation project. The university librarian, Merrily Taylor, has had a major role in the project since her arrival on campus in 1982. Other librarians have also been involved. For instance, the systems librarian serves on the executive board of IRIS. The librarians reported that before they became involved in the planning there were many unrealistic assumptions and misconceptions about the library. For instance, one person remembered a statement in one of the first planning documents that said the whole library could be put on a disk for the cost of a B1 bomber. Various members of the staff, under the guidance of Merrily Taylor, have been able to correct major misconceptions. The library's online catalog committee has worked closely with the Academic Computing Center (ACC) in developing plans for implementing the online catalog. And finally, there have been good contacts between the head of IRIS and the library.

Cooperation between the library, IRIS, and the ACC appear to be strong, with individuals in each unit showing respect for their colleagues. The Scholar's Workstation project has helped bring about the realization that all elements in a wired university are interconnected. As one librarian stated:

The Library first started looking at the idea of an online system in '76, and at that time, we had no relationship with the computer center at all, and they weren't doing much on the rest of campus. . . . It would be our computer and our system. We went ahead and did something that just existed in the library. Now there's not only the computer center but a number of computer related groups on campus and they are interested in plugging the library into what they are doing. They recognize that if you are going to connect up the whole campus, everyone does want to plug into the library.

Ideally, in a "wired" university, where technological innovation is affecting instruction and research, the library would be at the center of this activity. Happily, this appears to be so at Brown. Surveys of the faculty and students show that access to library holdings through the workstations is a top priority.

The library has taken measures to ensure this access. It sought and was awarded a $1.5 million grant from the Pew Memorial Trust to cover the cost of implementing the online catalog. Brown has purchased the BLIS system from Bibliotechniques and hopes the online catalog will be operational by fall 1987.* One of the most attractive features of the online catalog is its ability to integrate with the network of workstations. Any terminal or workstation connected to BRUNET would have dial access into the catalog. Planning is also under way to link the catalog to the Research Libraries Information Network (RLIN).

With the start-up of the online catalog, the library will have the first operational system on the network. All the academic administrators we spoke to recognized the importance of the library to the project. There is no doubt that the Pew Grant increased the importance and visibility of

*Although Bibliotechniques has encountered financial difficulties in the past few months, it is not expected that this will cause the schedule for the online catalog to be delayed greatly.
the library to many at Brown.

The library is also central to the workstation concept because it provides a use for the workstation that is extremely attractive to many who otherwise might not see its applicability to themselves and their research. As one senior administrator said, "We saw the library as a key to the humanistic use of the workstations. That was always in the back of our mind."

The library was described by several of the senior administrators as being one of the driving forces behind the workstation project. They see the library as an organization in the process of being changed into a much more important source of information, both in traditional and electronic forms. The administrators who have worked most closely on the workstation project envision the library becoming more and more dependent on computer technology:

The librarians, whether they know it or not, are going to be running, probably in a very short time, a computer system larger than what the university had two years ago. I was joking with them last night. I showed a picture of the entire Brown central computing facilities two years ago, and I said, this is what the library is going to have to look like in terms of their part [of the workstation project].

The online catalog is going to be just the first of a number of library services that faculty and student will want on their workstations. The library is starting to explore the direction it might go in providing access to online databases through the workstations. At an earlier stage of planning, there had been the expectation that the library might purchase and locally mount databases such as ERIC and Chemical Abstracts. The realization of the costs and the complexities of locally mounting such databases has put that notion on hold. However, laser disks or CD-ROM may ultimately provide a method of providing local access to commercial databases.

The library has begun to experiment with acquiring some databases. For instance, it recently purchased a crystallography database. The library, at the request of the provost, is developing a database policy for the university that will deal with items such as security, access, and acquisition of databases. There is also the expectation that scholars will soon want to download portions of larger databases and construct their own. What unit on campus will act as a consultant in helping create such databases and who will coordinate them? How will copyright be protected? None of these questions has been answered, but they are all being raised. It is expected that the library will play a key role in these discussions.

The librarians are concerned about more mundane changes that will likely occur as a result of the opening of the online catalog. For instance, the librarians who work in the government documents department and the rare book libraries expect more use of their materials once records are entered in the online catalog and more people are made aware of their holdings. There is also concern that patrons may have expectations about the online catalog that cannot be met. For instance, one special collections librarian stated:

If it works out as it is visualized, they [patrons] will have greater access... it is going to create a delivery problem. There should be a great deal more activity, possibly more than we can handle, initially... an expectation to say since we search it electronically, and probably reserve it and check it out electronically, that eventually they are going to want us to transmit it to them electronically so that they may never leave their terminals... We’d never be able to transmit. Rare books is not going into electronic publishing.

It is to the library administrators’ credit that they have consistently sought not to raise the expectations about the online catalog. The library has not, for example, wanted to “fill the newsletter with articles about the online catalog because we don’t want people expecting it around the corner.” The information provided has been understated and has stressed only the elements of the catalog that will be available immediately. But many fear that what has been done with the online catalog is similar to what has been done with the workstations; people’s expectations have been raised, and some will expect all the enhancements from the very beginning.

It is clear that the online catalog will lead
to changes in the staffing of the library. It is foreseen that the library will need to extend its hours or, at least, have some help available to users in hours the library is closed.

If your online catalog is up at 2 or 3 o’clock in the morning and you have a student in a dorm or a faculty member who is up at that hour trying to do something and they need help, who are they going to call?... Who’s going to do the night duty? Whose phone number are we going to give to people who want help in the middle of the night?

There is also an awareness that the staff will need to devote more time to instruction of patrons, initially in the use of the online catalog and, later, in various databases.

The majority of librarians interviewed agreed that the technical services/public services lines at Brown were becoming more blurred. The technical services division will assume an increasing educational role with the implementation of the online catalog. Most, however, felt that the traditional division would remain in place, at least in the near future.

It is also recognized that the next logical step after the online catalog becomes a reality is the creation of a document delivery system. The faculty were uniformly enthusiastic about the possibility of having the items located on the online catalog delivered to them. The librarians recognize the need for a document delivery system, but the logistics of such a system have not yet been worked out.

Another intriguing possibility that arises in connection with the institution of a document delivery system is that the social role of the library might change on an electronic campus. At this time, the Rockefeller Library (central library) is a social gathering place. Students congregate there to study because it provides access to needed library materials and to other students. Some have speculated that the electronic campus may allow libraries to relinquish the study-hall role they play on so many campuses. Both faculty and librarians doubt that this will happen at Brown. It is expected that for those faculty who are “comfortable and skilled at using the catalog from a remote location and have somebody to pick up the material or a delivery service, there may be less physical use of the library.” But for many faculty and most students, the library will still be the place to go not only to mingle with others but also to receive personalized help in using the information available. There seems to be agreement with Naisbitt’s ideas on the need for a “high tech–high touch” combination.

There is much concern about what may happen to the library’s budget in the coming years. Librarians see a threat arising not only from the diversion of funds from the library to pay for overall campus computerization but also an internal threat as more of the library’s funds have to be devoted to electronic information sources at the expense of traditional acquisitions.

The Brown libraries went through two lean decades, the 1960s and 1970s. The librarians still feel that a great deal of catching up has to be done, and the prospect of a less-than-adequate book budget is especially upsetting to those librarians working in the collection development area:

I feel that we already have spread so many resources, so thin, that I hope it is not a house of cards, and it will all come falling down, because I see the library as a strong supporter of the computer, and it would be more than upsetting to me, if the support didn’t come back. I’m not sure the jury is in.

and:

For the next 10 or 12 years, the electronic costs are going to continue to escalate. It may be, since all budgets are reasonably finite in universities, that the proportions that are devoted to the more traditional acquisitions may suffer... If there is separate outside money as there has been, and, hopefully, continues to be, the impact will not be as great, but it is still going to be there.

It seems likely that the library will, in the absence of a large increase in its budget, have to devote a greater percentage of the budget to electronic information sources. Given the general problems with financing computerization at Brown, it would also appear highly unlikely that the library’s budget will increase significantly.

One senior university administrator assured the interviewers that the library budget had not been affected by the Scholar’s Workstation project. “The question is where it (money for computeriza-
tion) comes from, and we have not attacked the library. It has come from other discretionary sources." But there is definitely a sense that the library and the computerization project may soon be competing for the same funds. As another senior administrator remarked:

We haven't had a situation here where there is a concrete next step to move the faculty workstations program ahead, and there is a concrete next step to do in the library, and they both cost half a million dollars, and you can't do both together. I think that sometime in the future, before the decade is out, that we will probably have it.

The librarians are aware of the possible threats to their budgets and realize the need for creative funding (i.e., more outside money) and more productive networking with other systems. Considerable thought is also being devoted to whether it will be possible to go on providing all library services without charging patrons. Currently, Brown charges students and faculty for online computer database searching, but at a subsidized rate. There is a great resistance on the part of most librarians to charging students directly for other library services, especially since it already costs approximately $15,000 a year to attend Brown. Their strong preference is to insure that all students have access to the information they need without regard to their ability to pay. Whether this resolve can be maintained at Brown has yet to be decided.

Clearly, the changing role of the library raises the question of whether a merger of the library and the computer center might be expected, and individuals in both have begun to perceive common areas of interest. Curiously, there was a greater inclination for those who worked outside the library to see such a merger as likely than for those who worked in the library itself. One individual who works in the computer center stated:

I see them as merging. I suppose if I wanted to play prophet, I could pick a year, but that doesn't seem useful... I am going to make two assumptions. The first is that over the next few years a higher and higher percentage of what people are looking for is going to be found in electronic indices. And, if they do retrospec-

tive conversion, eventually nearly everything people are looking for is going to be found electronically. Secondly, I think that more primary sources are going to be found electronically on videodiscs, over national or international networks or some might be mounted locally. As these two things happen, we are going to merge.

This individual went on to sketch a lengthy scenario of the role of the "compu-librarian" in the campus of the future.

The university administrators recognize the difficulties inherent in merging the two functions. One stated:

The problem is librarians are not trained... very much in terms of understanding and using electronic forms although they are open to them. Computing people, information services people have no real appreciation of libraries. So bringing the two together, even with two people with good will and controllable tempers... it's going to be a long time.

The implication was that it would be a lengthy process. The merger of the ACC and the library is likely, but probably not in the near future. The outside researchers feel that the strength of the library staff and administration at Brown bode well for the library in case of such a consolidation.

In summary, the library at Brown sees itself as caught up in the process of innovation. It is clear that the technological innovation related to the network of scholar's workstations (regardless of their ultimate configuration) will have a profound impact upon the library. The effects are beginning to be felt now. The new information technologies are requiring the university and the library to rethink how scholarly information should be provided and accessed on campus. The process is still in its beginning stages, but the Brown experiment gives us the opportunity to watch an institution invent the appropriate structure for the provision of information in a "wired" university.

Lessons to be Learned from Brown

For all those libraries whose institutions are just beginning to explore extensive computerization of the campus, there are some lessons that can be learned from the Brown experiment. Needless to say, the experiences of one institution cannot be
transferred to another, and each institution will have a distinctive pattern in its acquisition of electronic technology. Nonetheless, some of the things that have been learned by the librarians at Brown can be used by other institutions. All individuals interviewed were asked what they would tell people at another institution contemplating a venture similar to Brown’s. There was some uniformity in their responses. None of the responses were very original, but, to the individuals interviewed at Brown, it was still advice worth repeating.

One common element that was stressed over and over again was the necessity of adequate planning. Many others spoke about the need to create and nurture a healthy climate of change within the institution and to realize that change, especially technological change, is extremely threatening to staff members.

Everyone mentioned the critical role of communication: “You can’t overcommunicate.” Be sure that it is regular and consistent throughout the process and that all members of the staff are included.

Don’t raise expectations too high. The Scholar’s Workstation project at Brown has brought home that lesson. The voices were loud and clear: “Don’t promise what you can’t provide” and “Don’t oversell in hopes of convincing people.” Remember to put heavy emphasis on a transition period; not everything is going to work immediately, and not everything will be included from the beginning.

Finally, many individuals said to remember “that Murphy will get you, every time.” You cannot plan for all problems, but they should be expected at every turn. Remember too, that when you work with outside vendors, they will have a plan or cycle of their own that may not coincide with yours. Therefore, it is necessary to be as flexible as possible. There is always a need for contingency plans. They tend to sharpen the main plan and allow for shifts without undue upset.

Every institution is not going to be an innovator, and, indeed, most should not be. The few that have the institutional resources, expertise, and freedom to experiment perform a useful service for the rest. The non-innovating majority can learn both from the successes and the failures of the pioneers. The verdict is still out on the Scholar’s Workstation project, and it will be several years before an accurate assessment can be made on its real impact. At this time, it appears that the project itself may not be the success that was expected, but that, paradoxically, the side effects generated may have succeeded in transforming Brown along the same lines envisioned by the project’s planners.

Ultimately, it seems the critical elements in the process were the emerging concepts about the educational uses of computers in higher education, not the specific technology itself. The Brown experiment exists as an exciting opportunity for other institutions to study and to adapt variations of it to their own needs, as quietly and with less publicity, they too become “Star Wars” universities.

REFERENCES

3. Tucker, p.16.
5. Glicksman, “Memorandum to Members of the Faculty” July 12, 1983, photocopy.
Library Skills, Critical Thinking, and the Teacher-training Curriculum

Nancyanne O’Hanlon

Elementary schoolteachers play an important part in the development of both bibliographic skills and the critical-thinking skills that are necessary to complete research tasks successfully. This paper describes the results of a survey of elementary-education faculty at teacher-training institutions in Ohio designed to explore attitudes toward the elementary schoolteacher’s role in research skills instruction and toward library instruction in teacher-training programs. Results indicated strong support for teaching of library skills to future teachers, but also some ambiguity concerning the relationship of critical-thinking skills to the library research process.

n many college campuses, the careful listener can hear the muted but plaintive cry of the user-instruction librarian: “Why, oh why, didn’t they learn these simple things in high school?” Journal articles covering academic library instructional issues frequently decry the entering college student’s lack of bibliographic skills and stress the importance of their introduction at the elementary-school level. Certainly concerns about minimal competency are not the province of academic librarians alone.

In recent years, the popular media, the academic press, and government panels have labored over questions of school reform in general and the revision of teacher-training programs in particular. Are these two issues—library skills on the one hand and curricular needs of pupils and future teachers on the other—related in any meaningful way? This article explores that link through a survey of faculty at teacher-training institutions in Ohio. The study was designed to investigate the role of library skills training in teacher preparatory programs, and the results, detailed below, suggest potential areas for improvement in students’ information-finding and critical-thinking skills.

Recent reports on educational reform by state agencies and federal panels indicate that the development of critical-thinking skills is central to the improvement of educational outcomes at all levels. An Ohio report states

Higher order skills such as identifying, analyzing, and solving problems; anticipating and planning outcomes; evaluating consequences of decisions; determining interrelationships; and locating needed information are increasingly being identified as skills that will be needed by students if they are going to be prepared to adapt to changes in the future. 1

The report further recommends that teaching these skills become an integral part of the school curriculum. And yet this report, and others like it, fail to recognize the direct connection between the library research process and acquisition of those “higher order skills.” 2

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Nancyanne O’Hanlon is Reference Librarian in the Undergraduate Library at Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210.
Solving research problems successfully, or "information literacy," involves identifying and analyzing the research question, planning a library search strategy, evaluating information sources found, and determining relationships among different types of information. In short, the process is much like putting together a complex puzzle. These library skills are, in the words of one commentator, not only important for the development of higher level intellectual skills and knowledge, but also intimately relate to many of the curriculum content areas, for example, set theory in mathematics and classification concepts in science.3

The belief that "teachers must be information literate if kids are to be information literate"4 motivated the study described in this report. Neither school librarians nor teachers can hope to teach library skills in a vacuum; they must be partners in this venture, relating library assignments to the instructional content of the curriculum. For a real partnership to succeed, teachers themselves must be well versed in research techniques and must view the teaching of bibliographic skills as important. In other words, the development of research skills should be an integral part of the teacher-training program.

A logical beginning for an exploration of the information literacy issue is an examination of the attitudes of college faculty at teacher-training institutions. Teacher-education faculty are important participants in the ongoing examination and reform of teacher-training curricula. Awareness of their views on the role of library training in the curriculum is essential to understanding the interrelatedness of library skills instruction and the development of higher-level thinking skills.5

SCOPE OF STUDY

The present study focuses on faculty in elementary-education teacher-training programs in Ohio for several reasons. The state of Ohio hosts a great variety of public and private institutions that can be viewed as representative of teacher-education programs nationally. The curriculum for elementary-education majors includes primarily education courses, where students have contact with education department faculty; in contrast, secondary education students are more likely to encounter library skills in their subject-related coursework. In addition, since library skills instruction in the schools begins at the elementary-school level, those teachers and the teacher-training faculty play an important role in the successful development of these skills.

METHODOLOGY

The following questions form the basis of the study:

1. How do faculty perceive library instruction and its proper role in the teacher-training curriculum?
2. Who should be primarily responsible for library instruction in the teacher-training curriculum?
3. What library skills are needed by graduates of teacher-training programs?
4. What library skills are needed by elementary-school pupils? Who should be responsible for library instruction in the elementary schools?

Additional data were gathered on the availability of library instruction programs, the types of research projects normally assigned to undergraduate students, and faculty assessment of the adequacy of their students' library research skills.

Responses to each question were cross-tabulated by a number of variables related to faculty and institutional characteristics to reveal significant differences in attitude. The faculty variables included academic rank, years of college-teaching experience, years of elementary school-teaching experience, and approximate number of elementary-education students taught per year (all self-reported). Institutional characteristics examined were type of sponsorship (private or state-supported institution), size (number of full-time students during the 1983–84 academic year), type of education programs available (undergraduate only and/or graduate), and approximate number of students graduating from the teacher-training program during the 1983–84 academic year (reported by fac-
ulty returning survey forms). In the following discussion, relevant differences in attitude by variable are described.

In an attempt to elicit responses from as many different kinds of teacher-training programs in Ohio as possible, the chair of the education department at each school was contacted by mail and asked to verify a list of current, full-time permanent faculty active in teaching elementary-education courses. Of the 45 colleges and universities contacted initially, 43 had at least one faculty member who fit the criteria.

During January 1985, survey forms were mailed to each of the 328 faculty identified. At least one faculty member at 38 of the 43 schools completed the questionaire, making the institutional response rate 84%. A profile of the colleges and universities represented in this study and of the individual faculty responding is presented in table 1.

The survey form was designed to elicit demographic information from respondents. All faculty receiving a form were asked to complete at least the first three questions so that information on the characteristics of nonrespondents could be assessed for differences from the group completing the survey. The initial mailing of 328 surveys was followed by a second one to a random sample of those not responding to the first request. In the first round, 196 of 328 forms were returned, and 151 of these were completed fully. In the second mailing of 75 questionnaires, 30 were returned, 24 of which were fully answered. Results of these two mailings were analyzed separately, but no significant differences between the two groups were noted.

Those who returned survey forms as requested, but chose not to participate, were asked to indicate reasons for their choice. Of the 51 individuals in this category, 76% did not complete the questionnaire because they did not fit the criteria stated in the cover letter. The remaining 24% chose not to participate for other reasons. Analysis of demographic characteristics of nonrespondents, as self-reported, reveal a group with significantly fewer years of elementary school-and college-teaching experience than the respondents.

A total of 175 forms out of 328 sent were fully completed, for an individual response rate of 53.4%. However, the adjusted response rate (the response rate recalculated to account for the 39 individuals who did not meet the initial criteria) was 60.6%. Five of the 175 forms completed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State-supported schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrollment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 1,000 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000-10,000 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10,000 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program type:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate/graduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of elementary-education students graduating 1983-84*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 or fewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 or more</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Faculty characteristics and number of elementary-education students graduating are self-reported.
could not be analyzed because of errors. The survey results were presented in frequency tables and chi-square analyses of cross-tabulations using the SAS statistical analysis program.

RESULTS

I. The Role of Library Instruction

A number of questions in the survey addressed aspects of the usefulness of library instruction and its proper role in the teacher-training curriculum. Four questions concerning the need for elementary-education students to learn library research skills and the possible effects of such instruction were presented in Likert scale format. Table 2 shows the frequency distribution of responses to these questions.

Respondents clearly agreed that instruction in library skills should be a part of the teacher-training program and that such instruction would enhance the future teacher’s ability to foster elementary-school pupils’ research skill development. No significant differences in response to questions 4, 12, and 24 were noted for any of the variables tested.

Respondents were divided nearly evenly, however, in their attitudes toward the importance of utilizing instructor-presented information as opposed to relying on the ability of the student to generate information independently through research (question 5). When responses to this question were analyzed by selected variables relating to faculty characteristics and institutional size, significant variations became apparent. Table 3 presents these results.

Almost one-fifth of all respondents were undecided on the options presented in question 5. Not surprisingly, those with the fewest years of college- or elementary school-teaching experience and those ranking below full professor were less likely than others either to agree or to disagree with the statement presented in this question. When analysis controlled for years of elementary school-teaching experience was summarized, almost half of those with substantial elementary-school classroom field experience (11 or more years) strongly supported the view that teacher trainees should possess independent research abilities. Responses from those teaching at Ohio’s largest institutions, which are generally state-supported, tended to agree with the notion that the ability to digest and use information presented by the instructor is more important than the ability to locate information. In contrast, those teaching in smaller, generally private institutions recognized research ability as more important.

What should be the ideal first priority or goal of teacher-training programs? This is-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ROLE OF LIBRARY RESEARCH SKILLS INSTRUCTION IN THE CURRICULUM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respondents asked to indicate degree of agreement with statements below. [n = 170]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.4 Undergraduate students in elementary-education programs should learn to do research in their field using library resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.5 Utilizing information presented in classroom lectures, readings, and discussions in projects is more important than the ability to do library research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.12 The elementary-school teacher-training curriculum should include formal instruction in research skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.24 Elementary schoolteachers will be better prepared to help students learn library research skills if they have received formal instruction themselves during the teacher-training program.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**TABLE 3**

**IMPORTANCE OF LIBRARY RESEARCH SKILLS**

**BY SELECTED FACULTY AND INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS**

Respondents asked to indicate degree of agreement with the statement: "Utilizing information presented in classroom lectures, readings, and discussions in projects is more important than the ability to perform library research." (Row percentages are listed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>No Response</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic Rank</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[n = 165]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asst. professor</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assoc. professor</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full professor</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined*</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of College Teaching Experience [n = 170]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 or fewer</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-17</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 or more</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Elementary-School Teaching Experience [n = 170]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 or fewer</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 or more</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Size† [n = 170]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Fewer than 1,000 students</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000-10,000 students</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10,000</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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*Percentages differ from combined figures for other variables since fewer individuals answering this question also indicated their academic rank.
†Differences by years of elementary-school teaching experience and by institutional size are statistically significant.

Respondents were also asked to rank a list of statements on ways in which library research ability could benefit future teachers. Two-thirds, or 66.2% of respondents, ranked as most important that teachers with these skills will be better able to solve job-related problems and devise effective programs. One-fourth, or 25.4%, chose as most significant the statement that teachers will be better prepared to teach research skills to their students. A small number, 7.7%, saw research ability as an aid to further graduate study in their field. Only 1 individual indicated that no significant benefits result from improved library skills. While respondents to question 24 (see table 2) clearly agreed that formal instruction in library skills would enhance teachers’ abilities to foster these same skills in their students, the majority of respondents saw this benefit as less significant than enhancement of the teacher’s
ability to solve job-related problems.

II. Responsibility for Development of Library Skills

Respondents clearly agreed that library skills instruction benefits teacher trainees and should be provided in the elementary-education program. The question of how education students should develop these skills was the focus of several survey items.

Faculty were asked, in one question, to indicate whether library skills instruction is a part of the elementary-school teacher-training curriculum at their institutions. Almost 9% indicated that they did not know whether this type of instruction was offered. Faculty at the largest, state-supported schools most frequently responded in this way (17.1%). While 25.9% of those answering indicated that their institutions had a library research skills instruction program for all elementary-education students, 33.3% of those from the smallest, privately supported schools indicated presence of an instruction program for all education students. Over half of all respondents, 54.7%, indicated that library skills instruction was up to the individual instructors at their institutions.

Faculty were also asked for their opinions on who should be responsible for helping education students acquire library skills. A small number responded that students should acquire these skills on their own (7.1%) or should have such skills on entering college (8.5%). Almost half of all respondents, 49.6%, indicated that librarians should be primarily responsible for research skill development, while 34.8% of respondents indicated that the classroom instructor should assume this responsibility. When results were examined for variation by faculty or institutional characteristics, assistant professors and those teaching larger numbers of students were found to favor librarian responsibility for instruction more frequently than the average. Those professors with substantial college-teaching experience (18 or more years) viewed research skills instruction as primarily the instructor's responsibility.

Finally, faculty were asked to indicate preferences for type of library skills instruction. Of those responding to this question, only a small number (3.4%) indicated that formal instruction was not needed. The remaining response was divided among three options: 30.9% indicated that instruction should be provided within each individual course, by the instructor; 29.5% favored classroom presentations, done by librarians; and 25.5% preferred a separate skills course, taught by a librarian. Only 10.7% of respondents indicated preference for a separate course taught by an instructor. Thus, the majority favored some type of librarian-presented instruction. No significant variations in response by faculty or institutional characteristics were apparent.

III. Research Skills of Education Students

Responses to questions concerning types of research projects assigned, assessment of students' research abilities, and opinions about types of research skills needed by teacher trainees are summarized in this section.

Table 4 describes the types of research projects frequently assigned by faculty. Only those who assign projects requiring library use were asked to respond to this item. One-third, or 33.6% of all survey re-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TYPES OF UNDERGRADUATE RESEARCH PROJECTS FREQUENTLY ASSIGNED</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project</th>
<th>Lower Division</th>
<th>Upper Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[n = 90]</td>
<td>[n = 113]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short term paper (to ten pages)</td>
<td>64.5%</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research paper (more than ten pages)</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature review</td>
<td>47.1%</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annotated bibliography</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book or journal article review</td>
<td>70.0%</td>
<td>74.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report using statistical data</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>24.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
spondents, did not answer this question. It appears that a large number of elementary-education faculty surveyed either do not require independent research projects or do so very infrequently. Those who do assign research projects favor assignment of book or journal article reviews, short term papers, and literature reviews. Much less frequently assigned are analytical or interpretive projects, e.g., annotated bibliographies, lengthy research papers, and statistical reports.

Respondents to the question above were asked several other questions relating to their students' library skills. Faculty who assign research projects were asked whether they assume that their students know how to use library resources. Over half (52.3%) indicated that they did not assume this prior knowledge among lower-division students, while 45.9% indicated that they did. For upper-division students, most faculty (75.4%) assumed that students can use library resources effectively, while 23.9% did not make this assumption. Respondents apparently believe that entering students have low knowledge of techniques of library use, but that at some point in their training, they acquire the necessary skills.

Faculty were also asked to indicate whether, based on evaluation of their research assignments, they would say that students in their classes have adequate library skills. For lower-division students, 64.5% of those responding answered no to this question and 28.2% answered yes. For upper-division students, the faculty satisfaction level increased, with 49.3% of respondents reporting adequate student abilities and 44.2% indicating inadequate skills. Apparently the assumption by almost half of the respondents that their lower-division students can handle library research projects is not borne out by examination of the students' research projects. Similarly, for upper-level students, expectation exceeds the reality of results, though more upper-division students apparently conduct satisfactory research.

Finally, respondents' attitudes about the specific types of research skills needed by teacher trainees are reported in Table 5. The 'research skills' enumerated here reflect a broad definition of this concept. The individual skills listed in Table 5 include those most commonly associated with library instructional efforts (skills 2,3,5,6) as well as several 'critical-thinking' skills (skills 1,4), which may be seen as a necessary part of the research process but are often not addressed directly in library skills instruction. In the author's view, the information-finding process cannot reach a successful conclusion and will not result in a satisfactory research product unless the information seeker can clearly conceptualize the research question and see patterns or relationships among types of information found.

As Table 5 demonstrates, respondents recognized the importance of the ability to conceptualize the research process by ranking it first in a forced ranking of skills. Yet in a later question, which asked faculty to select from all of the listed skills
those that are essential for future teachers to possess, this skill was the one least frequently chosen. Respondents also chose the conceptualization process least often when ranking the skills that should be formally taught in the teacher-training program.

There are several possible explanations for these apparently contradictory attitudes. Some respondents might view the ability to conceptualize well as important for those conducting scholarly research but less critical for elementary schoolteachers, who are not essentially "researchers" in the traditional academic context but rather "practitioners" for whom sophisticated research skills are less relevant than other attributes. The results indicated in table 5 might also reflect a rather different view on the interrelatedness of the skills listed than that presented by this writer. The following discussion of research skills instruction in the elementary-school setting provides additional data related to the issue of analytical or conceptual research skills instruction.

IV. Research Skills for Elementary-School Students

The survey also included some questions asking respondents to indicate attitudes about the types of research skills needed by elementary-school pupils, the role of the classroom teacher in the research skills instruction process, and the ability of current teacher trainees to provide instruction. Table 6 shows the response to two questions that asked faculty to indicate, first, the research skills that, in their opinion, are most frequently taught to elementary-school pupils by teachers or by school librarians, and second, the skills that should ideally be taught to the pupils. There was little variation in response to these questions by faculty or institutional variables. Respondents indicated that conceptual/analytical skills (item D) and search strategy skills (item E) are, in their view, least frequently taught to elementary-school pupils. These same skills were clearly considered by respondents to be an important part of the library skills instruction process, although the ability to conceptualize well was indicated somewhat less frequently than the others listed.

Several other questions were designed to assess faculty attitudes toward the issue of responsibility for library skills instruction in the elementary-school setting. Faculty were asked who should be primarily responsible for teaching library skills to elementary-school pupils. One-fifth of the respondents indicated that the classroom teacher should have primary responsibility for this instruction, and almost one-fifth (18.8%) chose the school librarian/media specialist. Approximately three-fifths, or 61.2%, favored sharing the responsibility between teacher and librarian. More than 80% of respondents indicated that the classroom teacher should be involved in some way in the instruction process.

If classroom teachers should be involved in fostering library skills development in pupils, how well prepared are they for this task? Respondents were asked if they agreed with the statement that after graduating from an Ohio teacher-training program, certified elementary schoolteachers are adequately prepared to teach their students library re-

| TABLE 6 |
| RESEARCH SKILLS FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PUPILS |
| [Percentages indicate the positive responses to each item] |
| Taught to Elementary-school Pupils (n = 165) | Ideally Taught to Elementary-school Pupils (n = 166) |
| Research Skills | | |
| A. How to use the card catalog | 90.3% | 99.4% |
| B. How to use encyclopedias and indexes | 88.4% | 99.4% |
| C. How to find books in the library | 92.1% | 99.4% |
| D. How to analyze information needs, frame questions to be answered. | 19.1% | 95.0% |
| E. How to search systematically different kinds of sources to answer questions. | 24.2% | 98.2% |
search skills. Nearly one-third, or 29.6% of respondents, were undecided. Almost half, or 48.2%, disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. The remaining 22.2% of respondents indicated agreement or strong agreement.

**DISCUSSION**

The survey results described here provide some early insights into attitudes of teacher-training faculty regarding library skills development. These results also serve as signposts, pointing the way to issues deserving further study. While development of future teachers' research skills is clearly seen as a worthwhile enterprise, some ambivalence over the role of that development is apparent. Respondents strongly indicated that teaching of independent-learning skills should be the first priority of the teacher-training curriculum, but split on the question of whether the ability to utilize information presented by instructors is more important than the ability to find information independently through library work. Those faculty with the most elementary-school teaching experience strongly favored development of education students' research abilities. While many librarians assume that information-finding skills are an important aspect of lifelong learning skills, it appears that some faculty do not recognize this relationship. Further study of the elements of independent-learning skills as viewed by elementary schoolteachers and teacher-education faculty would provide a basis for dialogue between educators and librarians on this important issue.

Respondents indicated that grasp of library research skills enhances both the teacher's ability to solve job-related problems and to teach these skills to pupils effectively. Yet half of all respondents also view current graduates of Ohio teacher-training programs as inadequately prepared to teach these skills to their students. Most favored teacher involvement in the learning process. Problem analysis was viewed as the most important of the specific research skills listed, but was selected least frequently as a skill essential for future elementary schoolteachers, or one that should be formally taught in the teacher-training program. Do the attitudes expressed here reflect a double standard regarding skills needed by practitioners in the elementary-school classroom and those conducting scholarly research? A closer look at the activities of classroom teachers as researchers and as consumers of research is needed to clarify this question.

At the college level, almost half of the respondents favored librarian involvement in teaching research skills to elementary-education students. Faculty at larger institutions and those beginning their academic careers indicated the strongest preference for the librarian as teacher of library research skills. At the elementary-school level, respondents strongly favored teacher involvement in the research skills learning process. Respondents also indicated that analytical or conceptualization skills and search strategy or planning skills should be taught to elementary-school pupils as a part of the research process. These same skills were described earlier in this report as some of the higher order, critical-thinking skills that educational reform strategists believe are crucial to the improvement of schooling. If the development of analytical and planning skills is essential for elementary-school pupils, and if elementary schoolteachers should be involved in this process, then why do teacher-education faculty view development of these research skills as peripheral to the teacher-education process? These apparently contradictory attitudes merit further study for clarification.

Insuring the development of critical-thinking skills in elementary-school pupils requires the involvement of classroom teachers at each step of the learning process. In order to play such a vital role in fostering analytical skills, the elementary schoolteacher must have acquired these same abilities. The skills involved in performing library research are the critical-thinking skills cited in current educational reports: identifying, analyzing, planning, locating, evaluating, and interrelating information. Teaching this process to future teachers can, ultimately, improve the critical-thinking abilities of elementary-school students.
This study demonstrates that teacher-education faculty support teaching of the library research process, but apparently do not view the development of library skills as necessarily related to the development of critical-thinking skills. Further study of faculty and teacher attitudes toward the research process and toward the relationship of library skills to critical-thinking skills would contribute in an important way to effective reform of the teacher-training curriculum. If teacher-education reform incorporates effective research skills training, then students in elementary and secondary schools in turn will develop more effective library skills, and the plaintive cry of the college instruction librarian will no longer echo across the campus.

REFERENCES

2. For one discussion of library research as a problem-solving task that involves the skills identified as higher-order skills, see Cerise Oberman, “Guided Design: Teaching Library Research as Problem-Solving,” in Theories of Bibliographic Education, ed. Cerise Oberman and Katina Strauch (New York: Bowker, 1982), p.111-13.
4. Ibid., p.89.
5. No published studies relating to this topic were found in a survey of the educational and library literature. There is an unpublished doctoral dissertation on the subject. See Camilla Ann Alire, “A Nationwide Survey of Education Doctoral Students’ Attitudes Regarding the Importance of the Library and the Need for Bibliographic Instruction” (Ed.D. diss., Univ. of Northern Colorado, 1984).
In early 1985, the faculty at the University of Manitoba were asked to complete a questionnaire exploring their perceptions of the academic librarians on campus. The responses were analyzed according to faculties grouped in five large disciplines and professorial ranks. The analysis of the data focused on faculty-librarian contacts, the usefulness of librarians, the importance of librarians’ academic subject background, and their status. Overwhelmingly, librarians were seen as ‘professionals’ with a ‘service’ function. Activities such as research, teaching, and management received low ratings. The results therefore indicate a low acceptance of librarians as full-fledged academic colleagues in the University of Manitoba setting.

n 1974, librarians at the University of Manitoba (UofM) were included in the newly constituted Faculty Association. In 1980, all fifty-five librarians were ranked according to the traditional requirements of performance, research, service, and where applicable, teaching. The collective agreement, in conjunction with the librarians’ promotion guidelines, regulates the advancement of all librarians through the ranks of general, assistant, associate, and librarian. Even though considered academic staff, librarians differ from their faculty colleagues in that they hold continuing appointments rather than tenured positions.

The authors wanted to see how, after eleven years in the faculty bargaining unit and five years in an equivalent rank and promotion system, the academic librarians are regarded by their faculty colleagues, and if they are accepted as useful partners in the academic community.

In the extensive literature on academic status for university librarians, there are very few articles dealing with faculty perception of librarians. The most important one to date is Kathy Cook’s “Rank, Status and Contribution of Academic Librarians.” It explores the situation at Southern Illinois University–Carbondale (SIU-C), where librarians also hold academic status. John Budd and Patricia Coutant report on the results of a survey closely modeled on Cook’s study, examining faculty perceptions of librarians in the somewhat smaller institution of Southeastern Louisiana University (SLU). Cook invites “a replication of [her] study . . . on many campuses” in order to gain a better understanding “of faculty attitudes toward librarians.” As this appeal paralleled our interests, a similar research project was undertaken at the University of Manitoba.
U of M is one of the largest universities in Canada. It has thirteen libraries with collections totaling 1.4 million volumes and a full-time equivalent staff of about 250 employees, including 55 librarians. The libraries serve a community of approximately 25,000 students, faculty, and citizen borrowers.

METHODOLOGY AND PROFILE

A questionnaire was designed with the following objectives:

- to determine the extent and nature of faculty-librarian interaction
- to discover the faculty members’ perceptions of librarians at the University of Manitoba

In January 1985 the questionnaire was sent to the 1,095 faculty members holding full-time academic appointments. They were coded to facilitate two follow-up mailings to nonrespondents. Faculty members were reassured about the confidentiality of their replies. The final number of usable responses was 633, or 59% of the population surveyed. The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) was used to determine the percentages for the analysis of the results.

Faculty were asked to indicate their affiliation with one of twenty faculties/schools, including an “other” category. Four unlisted units were derived from this last category. Since there were few respondents in some of the faculties/schools, all the units were regrouped into the following five disciplines for statistical analysis:

- Humanities and social sciences (administrative studies, arts, human ecology, law, social work, St. John’s and St. Paul’s Colleges)
- Pure and applied sciences (agriculture, engineering, science)
- Health sciences (dental hygiene, dentistry, medical rehabilitation, medicine, nursing, pharmacy)
- Education (education, continuing education, counseling, physical education)
- Fine arts (architecture, art, music)

Thirty-five percent of the respondents were from the humanities and social sciences, 30% from the pure and applied sciences, 15% from the health sciences, 12% from education, and 8% from the fine arts.

The distribution by rank showed that 38% of the respondents were professors, 36% associate professors, 20% assistant professors, 3% lecturers, and 3% instructors.

Twenty percent of respondents used their primary library almost daily, 57% several times a month, 12% about once a month, and 10% several times a year or almost never. Intensive library use, evident for all disciplines, increases with advancement in rank.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Having studied the profile of the respondents, the authors analyzed the following aspects of the data:

- type of faculty-librarian contact (inside and outside of the library setting)
- perceived usefulness of librarians
- perceived importance of librarians’ academic subject background
- perceived status of librarians at the university

Each of these aspects was linked with the grouped disciplines and faculty rank.

CONTACTS

By far the most common faculty-librarian contact in the library setting was reference assistance (90%). The next highest was computerized literature searching (51%). This percentage is noteworthy considering the relatively recent introduction of this service to the libraries. The health sciences and education groups reported the highest degree of contact with 79% and 69% respectively. This no doubt reflects the early availability of computerized databases in those fields and the subsidization of these services by the respective faculties at the university. In the pure and applied sciences, 52% indicated contact with regard to computerized literature searching as compared to only 36% in the humanities and social sciences and 27% in the fine arts. The higher percentage in the pure and applied sciences might be related to the more extensive and more precise coverage of the subject area in terms of available databases. In the humanities and social sciences, databases became available considerably later, and searching is hampered by the absence of controlled vocabulary due to conceptual difficulties inherent in the subject manner (see table 1).
Faculty Perceptions

TABLE 1
CONTACT IN THE LIBRARY BY FACULTY DISCIPLINE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reference Assistance (%)</th>
<th>Collection Development (%)</th>
<th>Computerized Literature Searching (%)</th>
<th>Library Instruction (%)</th>
<th>Library Policy (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure and Applied Sciences</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Faculty-librarian contacts in the area of collection development were more frequent in the humanities and social sciences than in the sciences. This might be attributed to different collection development practices in the various libraries. In some libraries, bibliographers have a higher degree of autonomy than in others where the selection function is to a large extent reduced to purchasing materials requested by the faculty.

Only 27% reported contact for library instruction with the respondents in the pure and applied sciences claiming the least contact (18%). Involvement in library policy was low overall (15%).

The majority of the respondents who commented on other types of interaction specified that they had contact with "librarians" in interlibrary loan, reserve, and circulation, areas not presently staffed by librarians. This indicates that faculty members have difficulty differentiating between professional and nonprofessional staff.

When the responses to the question regarding contacts in the library were related to professorial rank, it does not appear that faculty members in one academic rank are interacting more than those at other levels.

Most contacts outside the library setting occurred in faculty/departmental committees (51%) and university social functions (47%).

For the latter, a sharp contrast was observed in the pure and applied sciences, where roughly half of the 47% average indicated faculty-librarian interaction. The least interaction took place on search/promotion committees (7%). The low response could be explained by the fact that librarians and faculty seldom serve on each other's search committees (see table 2).

When these results were linked with professorial rank, the three upper levels consistently reported the highest rate of faculty-librarian contacts. Since active involvement in committees seems almost a prerogative of the higher ranks, librarians should consider their own participation as an excellent opportunity to gain the recognition of their faculty colleagues.

USEFULNESS

Several questions were posed to determine how faculty perceive the usefulness of library services.

TABLE 2
CONTACT OUTSIDE THE LIBRARY BY FACULTY DISCIPLINE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty/ Departmental Committees (%)</th>
<th>University-wide Committees (%)</th>
<th>Search/ Promotion Committees (%)</th>
<th>University Social Functions (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure and Applied Sciences</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of librarians.

When asked how useful librarians were in keeping faculty members informed of changes in the library, 62% of the respondents claimed that librarians were useful or very useful. Only 38% had a favorable opinion about being informed of new publications in their discipline. For these two questions, there were no marked differences between the disciplines. As academic ranking went up, so did the positive perceptions (see table 3).

Sixty-four percent of the faculty who rated librarians' assistance in their research found it useful or very useful. Education led with 77% compared with only 49% from the pure and applied sciences. When this question was related to rank, the lecturers and the instructors showed that they value this service much more highly than the other functions surveyed.

To the question exploring the usefulness of librarians in assisting faculty in their teaching, 51% of the respondents indicated that the librarians' assistance was valued. There were no remarkable differences between the ranks, with the exception of the instructors who scored the lowest; their results were only half as positive as those of the other groups.

To recapitulate, assistance in research is the function most appreciated by faculty, followed by information about changes in the library, and assistance in teaching. Information about new publications is far less valued.

To the question "How often do you refer your students to a librarian?", 30% of the respondents refer students to a librarian almost daily to several times a month, 42% refer students once a month to several times a year, and the remaining 28% almost never refer them to a librarian. The responses of the five disciplines showed very different referral patterns among them. The highest ratings came from education and the fine arts. Far behind were the pure and applied sciences and the health sciences. The low referral rate in these disciplines might be related to the nature of scientific research and study, the sciences being less library-dependent than the humanities (see table 4).

When the responses to this question were grouped by faculty rank, no significant differences were observed. The au-

### TABLE 3
USEFULNESS BY FACULTY DISCIPLINE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>Changes in Library (%)</th>
<th>Publications in Discipline (%)</th>
<th>Assistance in Research (%)</th>
<th>Assistance in Teaching (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure and Applied Sciences</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average U+ VU*</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages represent sum of responses in useful and very useful categories.

### TABLE 4
REFERRAL OF STUDENTS BY FACULTY DISCIPLINE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>Almost Daily to Several Times a Month (%)</th>
<th>Once a Month to Several Times a Year (%)</th>
<th>Almost Never (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure and Applied Sciences</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
thors recognize that the results to this question could be skewed because some respondents might have answered this question with the library rather than the librarian in mind.

The faculty's perception of the librarians' involvement in the education of their students provided another perspective on the role and usefulness of the librarians in the university setting. While a total of 63% thought that librarians had some to very substantial involvement in the educational process, 42% of these respondents felt that librarians had only some involvement. Education valued librarians the highest (81%), the pure and applied sciences the lowest (50%). For many, librarians had no involvement at all in their students' education.

A comparison of the results by discipline with those of faculty at SLU and SIU-C showed noticeable differences. Whereas 58% of the SLU faculty and 51% of the SIU-C faculty thought that librarians' contributions were substantial, only a disappointing 21% of the University of Manitoba faculty believed that librarians had more than some involvement in the education of students.

This lack of recognition is incongruous with the positive response obtained in other areas. It is startling that the value faculty members themselves place on librarians' assistance in their teaching, and the frequency at which they claim to refer students to librarians are not reflected in their view of librarians as contributors to the educational process. How are librarians being rated as useful if it is not for skills that influence the education of students? Why are students being referred to them at a high rate if they are not regarded as special resource people who have a role to play in shaping the future graduates of the university? This contradiction can be explained only by the low expectations faculty have of librarians and/or the misunderstanding of their abilities and responsibilities.

**SUBJECT BACKGROUND**

In addition to their degree in library and information science, more and more academic librarians are expected to have or to acquire a subject specialization at the graduate level. Reflecting this trend, many librarians at the University of Manitoba are obtaining additional graduate degrees in subject areas related to their responsibilities. In order to determine how the faculty view the importance of such qualifications, questions relating to the usefulness of a subject background were evaluated.

Overall, a fairly high percentage of the respondents value the subject backgrounds librarians have acquired or are developing. The results indicated that subject specialization was considered most important for collection development, which received an overall rating of 75%, followed by reference assistance with 73%, computerized literature searching and cataloging both with 71%, and library instruction with a comparatively low 57%. It is interesting to note that a specialization is deemed more important by faculty members in those disciplines where librarians have traditionally obtained their education, i.e. the humanities, the social sciences, and education. The sciences do not seem to value a subject background to the same extent. In fact, few librarians working in these fields tend to have a formal science education, but have gained their expertise through experience (see table 5).

When the questions related to the usefulness of a subject specialization were linked with the academic rank of the respondents, the higher ranks generally valued a subject specialization for collection development. These results demonstrate considerable concern for the collection development function. The three highest academic ranks also concurred in their assessment of a subject specialization for cataloging. Like collection development, cataloging is a necessary function in making library materials available. The importance of adequate subject analysis seems to be clearly recognized by the higher ranking academics.

A comparison between faculty members reporting actual contact with librarians and faculty members reporting no contact revealed that the value of a subject specialization was rated considerably higher by
TABLE 5
VALUE OF SUBJECT BACKGROUND BY FACULTY DISCIPLINE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Background</th>
<th>Reference Assistance (%)</th>
<th>Computerized Literature Searching (%)</th>
<th>Library Instruction (%)</th>
<th>Collection Development (%)</th>
<th>Cataloging (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure and Applied Sciences</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average U + VU*</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages represent sum of responses in useful and very useful categories.
+Percentages on the left represent responses of faculty who reported contact in those areas. Percentages on the right represent responses of faculty who reported no contact in those areas.

the former group. The ratings improved by at least 15%. The most notable difference was in library instruction, where a 27% increase was observed. These results strongly suggest that faculty members who have interacted with librarians have a better understanding of their functions and the usefulness of their expertise.

The relatively high value placed on subject specialization for nearly all functions surveyed is particularly interesting. Although this issue of education beyond the library science degree has fueled discussion among librarians for many years, it is clear that faculty recognize the importance of advanced degrees for academic librarians. It is most encouraging for librarians who have obtained or are working toward a graduate or postgraduate degree to see that their advanced qualifications are considered valuable. The faculty's favorable response indicates that librarians should be given support to undertake further studies and to develop their expertise in a specific field. Subject specialization may indeed be a positive step toward a greater acceptance of librarians by faculty as their academic peers.

When the question of the librarians' status was raised, the respondents could choose between academics, professionals, nonprofessionals, and other. Overall, 85% of the respondents viewed librarians as professionals, and only 15% classed them as academics. The lowest result was recorded from the pure and applied sciences, where only 7% considered librarians to be academics. In agreement with this poor opinion, 12% from the pure and applied sciences classified librarians as nonprofessionals, a rating twice as high as the average of 6% (see table 6).

It was particularly disheartening to compare the results of the status questions with those of SLU and SIU-C. Whereas 41% of the faculty at SLU and 28% of the faculty at SIU-C viewed librarians as academics, only 15% of the faculty did so at the UofM. Conversely, 65% of the faculty at SIU-C, 57% at SLU, and a very high 85% at the UofM saw librarians as professionals. The answers to this question, more than any other, indicate that though the teaching faculty at the UofM acknowledge the value of librarians, they do not consider them their academic peers. It was expected that the perceptions of faculty at the UofM would be as good as or better than those previously reported, but unfortunately, this was not the case.

Linking this question with academic rank revealed that the lecturers' perception of librarians' status was atypical, based on their comparatively high ratings of librarians as academics and nonprofessionals.
TABLE 6
STATUS BY FACULTY DISCIPLINE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Academic (%)</th>
<th>Professional (%)</th>
<th>Nonprofessional (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure and Applied Sciences</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average*</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Because multiple answers were accepted, the total result exceeds 100%.

Only nineteen respondents chose the "other" category, but their observations were quite revealing. Some felt that "librarian" should have been included in the options, considering that title expressive enough. While one termed librarians as researchers, other opinions were less favorable. Semiprofessionals, support staff, and trained service personnel figured among the suggestions. Certain remarks indicated that the respondents had no idea of a librarian’s functions, an impression well confirmed in the invited comments.

COMMENTS

Almost one quarter of the respondents welcomed the opportunity to express themselves freely about the questionnaire, the issues raised in it, or other areas of concern. While 59% of these directed their comments to the library services and collections, 41% chose to voice their opinions more specifically about librarians. It was remarkable that many respondents seem to consider the library simply as an institution, with little regard for the people who are instrumental in its functioning.

Several respondents recognized their lack of knowledge or experience to which they attributed some of their negative responses. It was noted that many faculty members make no distinction between librarians and other library staff. Although a statement at the beginning of the questionnaire attempted to define the librarians and their function, it was clear that misconceptions about the role of the different staff components remain common even in the academic community.

Some respondents questioned the high number of librarians employed by the university and objected to their salaries. These comments echoed the numerous complaints concerning the lack of funds to develop the collections. Benefits such as research/study leaves were criticized not only for financial reasons, but also on philosophical grounds. The importance of advanced degrees was also reduced to a monetary level. Some felt that it was ill-advised to spend money to employ librarians with higher degrees when librarians were destined to service and the collections were inadequate. There appears to be little recognition of the fact that collections, no matter how large, lose their value if they are not properly organized or fully exploited.

While some supported subject specialization in certain areas like law or music, others thought that it was unrealistic to expect librarians to be educated in the diverse fields of study offered at the university. Subject specialization was judged particularly valuable for collection development. However, some expressed little respect for librarians’ competence in this area, and others even suggested a more active involvement of faculty in collection development.

The research role of librarians is not regarded highly by all. One respondent saw it as a possibility only if the institution offered a degree in library science. It was not clear if he or she meant that all academic librarians could then pursue research interests or that only faculty members affiliated with such a school should have that responsibility. Certainly, this would preclude all research in subject areas other than library science.

In summary, the faculty members’ per-
ceptions of librarians were colored by their lack of knowledge. Many declared openly that they did not know enough about librarians’ educational background and training. The librarian’s role in an academic institution was often questioned or misunderstood. Respondents noted the need for more contact between faculty and librarians. A higher profile and increased academic involvement seem implicit in this demand, as is a better understanding of the librarian’s role. A closer association between the two groups was deemed desirable to fulfill the educational and research functions of the university.

CONCLUSION

The survey revealed that faculty at the University of Manitoba perceive librarians mainly in terms of their service role. The results confirmed a relatively high rate of interaction between faculty and librarians, a positive outlook on the usefulness of librarians, and the value of their present and future subject expertise. It is therefore disconcerting that in spite of these findings, librarians are not commonly viewed as contributing greatly to the overall educational process. The support function is further emphasized by the general opinion that University of Manitoba librarians are professionals rather than academics. This seems to imply that faculty members do not recognize the academic role that librarians are contractually obliged to fulfill. In particular, the pure and applied sciences consistently gave evidence of their poor opinion of librarians.

As many of the comments and hesitations in the answers to the “usefulness” and “subject background” questions indicate, faculty in all disciplines are often not aware of what the librarians actually do and what specific benefits could be derived from the various services offered. There exists widespread confusion as to who among the library personnel are actually the professionally trained and educated colleagues. This reflects the blurred picture offered by a large academic library, where many important functions are performed by nonprofessional personnel. With increasing budget restraints, this problem is not likely to disappear. In many ways, it is not surprising that the supervisory employee behind the circulation desk or in charge of interlibrary loan should impress both faculty and students as being a librarian. It seems that anyone “in charge” of a particular area emanates this impression more readily than someone who fulfills less noticeable activities such as collection development or cataloging. These tasks involve commendable but not as easily recognized abilities for the acquisition, organization, or retrieval of library materials. The difference between the professional and the nonprofessional often lies precisely in a wider scope of knowledge and a sounder understanding of the library’s goals. As long as the faculty are themselves ill-informed about the latter, they cannot be expected to appreciate the librarians’ contribution as fully as would be desirable.

To correct these misconceptions, efforts should be made to inform the faculty more adequately of the librarian’s potential. Faculty should be made aware that librarians will respond to their immediate information needs, but also have a responsibility to fulfill the long-term goals of the institution. More awareness would promote a deeper understanding of what faculty and librarians can achieve together in their efforts to provide high-quality education at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Increased interaction through consultation, committees, and workshops might well result in a different perception of the librarian’s research, teaching, and management responsibilities.

Faculty might come to recognize that the librarian’s research is not a futile activity, but rather a legitimate contribution to an academic field of knowledge. Furthermore, the research process allows firsthand experience of library services, and thus may lead to valuable suggestions as to how to improve them.

Library instruction most closely parallels the teaching component of faculty duties. One could therefore expect that bibliographic instruction would be recognized by faculty as kindred to their activities. However, few are aware of this function, or view it as an area where librarians demonstrate their special information
skills. In order to develop it further, librarians should lobby to teach bibliography courses presently on the curriculum. This would result in a closer working relationship with faculty and might increase the acceptance of librarians as academics.

Since research and teaching are not widely accepted by faculty as academic responsibilities of librarians, it is surprising to see that the management role, which is related to librarians’ professionalism, is even less acknowledged. Many librarians have administrative responsibilities, and with the general trend toward automation, management is likely to become increasingly more important. While research and teaching foster dialogue with faculty, management is less conducive to such interaction. Therefore, librarians must strive to impress through their effectiveness in this area.

The study clearly demonstrates that the functions of research, teaching, and management play a negligible role in the University of Manitoba faculty’s perceptions of librarians. While the service function will always remain important, librarians must take an active role in promoting their image through sound research, formal teaching, and effective management. This will improve the librarians’ chances to become fully accepted by their faculty peers.

REFERENCES


Jean Meyer Ray and Angela Battaglia Rubin

In recent years pay equity has become an important employment issue in librarianship, as in other service fields where women predominate. Analysis of Association of Research Libraries Annual Salary Survey data from 1976/77 to 1983/84 reveals that a majority of women university librarians are still clustered at lower levels of status and pay. However, the percentage of women among all administrators has risen from 27.6 percent to 45 percent, and the proportion of all women who are in middle management now approaches one-third. With a 1983/84 sex salary differential of 13 percent, progress towards equity is nevertheless very slow.

Pay equity has been hailed as the employment issue of the 1980s. To achieve this goal requires overcoming formidable barriers to equality. It pits women, awakened to their financial plight, against tradition, custom, and the entrenched power of the institutions that have profited from the general low level of women's compensation. The bottom line in equal rights is salary. To what extent has sex equality been achieved in university library pay scales?

Pay equity and its synonym, comparable worth, are both treated in this paper as abbreviated terms for the longer phrase, equal pay for work of comparable value. This concept calls for compensation to be determined by objective job evaluation techniques that analyze duties in terms of required knowledge, skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions. It must be applied across all job families (not within just one closely related group) in a bias-free manner and without reliance on prevailing compensation levels. It is thus a broadening of the earlier principle of equal pay for equal work, which could be enforced only when jobs could be proven exactly or substantially equal. Pay equity operates to protect women and minority persons from being compensated by a lower pay scale than that used for white males.

WOMEN'S COMPENSATION—THEN AND NOW

Pay equity is, of course, not a new issue. It came into prominence during World War I, when women entered the labor market because of the shortage of male workers. For example, an article appearing in Economic Journal in 1922 entitled “Equal Pay to Men and Women for Equal Work,” discusses the problem in Britain.
It contains two basic, but now archaic, assumptions: (1) all working men are married, with families to support, but all working women are single, with no dependents; and (2) women are inevitably less productive and are less useful in emergencies. Sixty years ago, with these convictions, even a liberal thinker could not come out more than slightly in favor of equal pay for women.

Although there were efforts to achieve equal pay for women through the National War Labor Board and during the era of Rosie the Riveter in World War II, the old problem of differing pay scales for men and women surfaced in the United States as something remediable with the Equal Pay Act of 1963. This law required that an employer must provide the same compensation to both sexes for positions that are substantially similar with regard to skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions, unless the pay differential is based on a factor other than sex. Other actions have followed: Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 again forbade discrimination in employment, as did two presidential executive orders (11246 and 11478), the 1978 Civil Service Reform Act and several court decisions (notably County of Washington, Oregon, v. Gunther). Yet, twenty years after the Equal Pay Act, the average woman who works full time year-round is paid only 59 cents for every dollar earned by a male worker. How can this be?

Great strides have been made in achieving equal pay for equal work, and in achieving an acceptance of this principle as fair. However, the major cause for the continuing wage gap between the pay of men and women is the concentration of women workers in a few low-paying occupations that are sex-segregated and where positions are dead-end. Approximately 80 percent of working females are in clerical, sales, service, and factory jobs. Of the remaining 20 percent who are professional and technical workers, a large share are found in lower-paid, female-dominated service ("helping") fields of nursing, school teaching, social work, and of course, librarianship. Even within these professions, moreover, although almost all salaries are low compared to those in male-dominated fields, there is frequently further sex segregation in that the female majority remains in lower-paying positions, while men tend to rise to the top.

Major forces in opposition to pay equity are firms that employ many women in low-paid slots. It would not be expedient nor even permissible to lower men's pay, so employers fear the cost of raising women's pay, as would be necessary to achieve an across-the-board application of comparable worth. In times of economic stress this is a particularly strong argument. However, a voluntary plan to inaugurate pay equity after appropriate job evaluation might be less expensive than years of back pay awarded as a result of litigation.

FEMINIZATION OF LIBRARIANSHIP

As in most professional fields, librarians of a century ago were mostly male. However, according to the 1870 U.S. Census, 20 percent of the 213 librarians polled were female. The next two censuses lumped librarians with authors and other literary persons, but by 1900, when they were again a separate category, the number of librarians had become twenty times greater (4,184), and women constituted 75 percent of those listed!

It was during this period that Melvil Dewey launched his library school at Columbia University. The program attracted mostly female students and was therefore rejected by the board of trustees (although the president approved). Dewey took the school with him when he moved to Albany.

The feminization of librarianship proceeded apace. Important causative factors were limited budgets for hiring staff and the paucity of other vocations for educated women. Working in the genteel atmosphere of the library was a respectable occupation for the young woman college graduate, but she was too "ladylike" and had too few other options to demand more than a pittance as compensation for this exposure to culture and the opportunity to be of service. The 1930 census recorded 29,613 librarians, with women's participation climbing to a peak of 91 percent. From there it slowly receded to 82
percent by 1970, but has risen again slightly, to 83 percent in 1980.9

This drop in the female proportion coincides, of course, with the increased entrance of men into the profession, beginning slowly about the time of World War II and mounting faster in the 1950s and 1960s. It was hoped that this trend would improve the status of librarianship and raise depressed salaries. However, there is little evidence that it has assisted the disadvantaged female majority, because men were hired for most high-level positions and the salary gap between the sexes has widened.

It is now clear that the increased entrance of men has actually reinforced and expanded a dual career pattern in librarianship according to gender. Academic librarianship has the highest percentage of men and is the most prestigious. Library work with children, and in primary and secondary schools, attracts few men and is less valued.10 Moreover, men in whatever field are expected to climb quickly to administrative roles and high salaries—and a substantial number of them do. The self-fulfilling prophecy for women is that they will be content with subsidiary roles and low salaries, and any upward mobility for them will usually be painfully slow and reach only middle management.

Two outstanding women have conducted extensive research on the status of women librarians. Anita Schiller’s pioneering study, Characteristics of Professional Personnel in College and University Libraries (1969) was the first published report on comparative attributes, status, and compensation of male and female academic librarians.11 This work showed irrefutably that the wide gap between average salaries of men and women, which increased with added experience, could not be entirely explained by greater educational attainments, more research and publication, more professional activity, or greater mobility on the part of men but included a strong component of sex discrimination.

This has been followed by other important contributions on the issue of the disadvantaged majority.12 Kathleen Heim has been the author or editor of equally significant works issued recently. Especially noteworthy is her part in the comprehensive study on women librarians’ roles, sponsored by the American Library Association Committee on the Status of Women in Librarianship, that resulted in Career Profiles and Sex Discrimination in the Library Profession.13

**SALARY POLICY**

Following decades in which there was a general reluctance to face the twin issues of sex equality in the library and a widely disparate pay scale, the American Library Association began to address some aspects of the pay equity problem in the 1970s.14 After years of committee activity, the February 1979 issue of American Libraries, in a summary of activities at the Midwinter Meeting, reported that ALA Council

Adopted as ALA policy an OLPR (Office for Library Personnel Resources) statement on comparable rewards. . . . ALA supports salary administration which gives reasonable and comparable recognition to positions having administrative, technical, subject, and linguistic requirements. Whenever possible there should be as many at the top rank with less than 30 percent administrative load as there are at the highest rank carrying over 70 percent administrative load.15

Although some of the wording is ambiguous, this statement appears to be a call from a high policy-making body for the application of pay equity within individual libraries. Was it heeded? The absence of response in the library press suggests that it was not even heard in the furor of the debate over maintaining the ERA boycott of Chicago.

Nevertheless, in academic libraries personnel administration has usually attempted to steer a middle course between the industrial model of a rigid hierarchy of positions and the academic model of recognizing individual merit. To what extent is the professional librarian to be rewarded for excellence in the performance of the daily requirements of the position description, and how much consideration should be given to professional development and merit? Especially where librarians have achieved faculty status, it becomes necessary to reduce the emphasis
on administrative responsibilities and to examine scholarship, research, and publication in making promotion and tenure decisions as well as in recommendations for salary increases.

An examination of the salary policies of ten representative libraries in the ARL, as detailed in a 1981 report, reveals great diversity in systems and procedures but little specific recognition of the need to improve financial rewards for the deserving nonadministrators beyond those small amounts normally accruing from longevity and acceptable performance. An earlier ARL study of classification schemes revised in 1978 includes material from four university libraries (Cornell, Duke, Stanford, and Yale). The study indicates clearly that promotion in status and salary may result not only from advancement in administration but equally through excellence in performance, scholarship, and professional achievement.

Probably the best-known effort to improve the role of academic librarians is the two-track matrix structure of position categories and professional ranks inaugurated at Columbia University a decade ago. Each librarian holds not only a position, e.g., cataloger, bibliographer, or reference librarian, whose level is determined by administrative responsibility, but also a rank as Librarian I-IV based on peer evaluation of individual development and contribution to the profession. This plan provides a means to raise status even when no upward mobility position-wise is possible, but there is only brief allusion to financial rewards.

STUDIES OF ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS’ SALARIES

Between 1970 and 1974 the Council on Library Resources demonstrated its concern with librarians’ compensation by the publication of a series of three reports on salaries of academic librarians as compared with the teaching faculty. It is clear that there is a pronounced pyramidal structure in academic libraries, with a handful of more or less well-paid librarians at the top and a wide base of very low-paid positions at the bottom. Academic librarianship has seemed to be a profession in which there are too few well-paying positions to attract and retain highly competent young people in sufficient number.

Unfortunately, the data were not analyzed by sex. The only allusion to a sex problem is a statement in the 1969-70 report that the predominance of women in the profession has “facilitated retention of salary structures which would be unacceptable to a largely male profession.” The 1972-73 report concludes that:

Fewer than 10 percent of the professional librarians are in positions in which the average compensation exceeds that of assistant professor in similar institutions.

In 1975/76, after a hiatus of three years, the CLR and the Association of College and Research Libraries conducted a joint survey. Coverage was expanded to include two-year colleges, and breakdowns by sex and race were incorporated at last. Of 13,057 librarians surveyed, 61.5 percent were female; women constituted a majority at almost every level (except administrative positions) and earned less in every capacity, from 3 percent less for entering librarians to 23 percent less for directors. One table compares librarians with the four ranks of teaching faculty in three types of institutions. The conclusion is inescapable. Average salaries for librarians in the nondirector levels are equivalent to the average for assistant professor and never as high as the average for associate professor.

In addition, the Special Libraries Association has been conducting salary surveys at three-year intervals since 1967. Data compiled in 1979, for example, show median salaries for academic librarians among the lowest when members are grouped by type of institution. Women earn less than men at every salary level. This occurs even when the number of persons supervised and the years of experience are equal.

The most important series of data on internal pay equity in university libraries began to appear in 1976/77 when the ARL expanded its Annual Salary Survey to include breakdowns by sex and position similar to those in the ACRL study previously discussed. Eight years of statistics are now
available as a source for average salaries paid to librarians in 90 large university libraries in 1976/77. This was enlarged to 105 by 1984/85. Although the survey also gives information on (1) nonuniversity ARL member libraries; (2) minority librarians; (3) entry-level salaries; (4) relations between median salaries and the Consumer Price Index; and (5) regional variations in salaries, this paper will be concerned only with issues related to the gender gap. It will focus mostly on changes between two extreme years, 1976/77 and 1983/84, with occasional mention of the intervening years.

Each Annual Salary Survey from 1976/77 to 1982/83 contains a table entitled "Number and Average Salaries of ARL Librarians." It divides librarians into nineteen categories: director, associate director, assistant director, medical/law head, branch head, subject specialist, functional specialist (involved with media, personnel management, fiscal matters, or automation and systems), eight types of department heads, and "other." "Other" is divided by years of experience into over 15, 10-15, 5-10, and under 5. Beginning in 1983/84, "other" has been split into reference, catalog, and a further other. All are divided by years of experience.

In 1984/85, data for law and medical librarians were moved into separate tables. Figures for these librarians are incomplete. This change in the target population has made exact comparisons with earlier years impossible; thus, figures for 1984/85 generally will be omitted.

There are some omissions from the published tabulations. A few universities did not supply detailed salary data in the early years. Moreover, some universities did not include salaries of directors in their salary rosters, and between 1976/77 and 1983/84 the number of directors appeared to be from 5 to 19 fewer than the number of institutions tabulated. However, after a special appeal, more figures were made available, and the number of directors whose salaries were included rose from 81 in 1982/83 to 95 in 1983/84.

Furthermore in some large systems there may be someone, such as a dean, at a higher level who has the ultimate library authority, is probably male, and is omitted from the survey. These factors indicate that the real average salary for male librarians is higher than ARL statistics reveal. Finally, the ARL surveys make no attempt to compare librarians' salaries with those of the teaching faculty.

What significant trends can be derived from the ARL data? First, the proportion of women was 61.6 percent in 1976/77, fell to 61.4 percent in 1978/79, and grew to 63.9 percent by 1983/84. Women's average salaries were lower than men's every year in almost every category. Overall they gained only 2.5 percentage points during the seven-year period. Figure 1 shows that the difference between average salaries paid to men and women dropped from 15.5 percent in 1976/77 to 13 percent in 1983/84. Incidentally, these percentages are fairly close—though moving in the opposite direction—to those issued by the Women's Equity Action League for salaries of women faculty members compared to those of men, i.e., a 15 percent disparity in 1982 widened to 19 percent in 1983/84.25

One may also compare the distribution patterns by sex when the nineteen categories listed are grouped with changes noted through seven years. What is apparent in figure 2 is that the proportions of male and female librarians who are middle managers (branch and department heads) are almost the same each year (24.5 and 25.1 percent in 1976/77, increasing to 31.5 and 29.5 percent in 1983/84). But other percentages are quite different for each sex. The proportion of women in high administrative roles is up (from 3.7 to 5.6 percent), and the proportion of men goes down from 15.5 to 12.2 percent. Specialists, both subject and functional, comprise 21.3 percent of men in 1976/77. This is down to 19.4 percent in 1983/84. The number of specialists who are female rose from 12.1 percent in 1976/77 to 14.9 percent in 1982/83, but dropped to 13.6 percent in 1983/84. Especially significant is the 59.1 percent of women who are in nonadministrative positions in 1976/77, as opposed to 38.7 percent of men. Both these percentages have grown smaller by 1983/84, down to 51.3 percent for women and 36.9 for men, largely, it may be presumed, be-
FIGURE 1
Percentage by which Men's Average Salaries Exceed Women's, ARL University Libraries, 1976/77-1983/84

FIGURE 2
Percentage of University Librarians by Sex and Rank Level, 1976/77 and 1983/84
cause the number of new recruits to librarianship has been reduced. Progress towards sex equality in status is nevertheless slow.

It is also revealing to observe sex ratios within each broad status group, as shown in table 1; in only two is there an important change. The administrative group shows a significant climb in the female percentage (and a corresponding drop in the male element) from 27.6 percent in 1976/77 to 45 percent in 1983/84. There is a much smaller rise in the percentage that represents women in the specialist group, from 47.8 percent in 1976/77 to 55.5 percent in 1982/83, with a dip to 55.4 percent in 1983/84. The change in sex ratio, however, is scarcely perceptible in middle management and among the nonadministrative generalists.

When average salaries are tabulated for the four groups, women’s disadvantage is plainly visible. Although the number of women administrators rose from 130 in 1976/77 to 253 in 1983/84, and average salaries paid to these women increased from $24,988 to $39,875, the percentage of difference between average salaries of men and women administrators actually rose from 11.5 percent in 1976/77 to 15 percent in 1981/82 and dipped to 14.3 percent in 1983/84. The change in the difference between average salaries of men and women middle managers and specialists remained less than 1 percent, while at the bottom the sex difference changed only 1.3 percent. In contrast to the slight improvement for women in the sex differential percentages observed in the total group, the separate percentages for all four categories showed a small decline in women’s relative economic condition through seven years. This seeming contradiction in what were essentially insignificant differences can be explained statistically by reference to interaction effect.

When individual categories are examined starting at the top, an encouraging improvement is the increase in the number and percentage of women directors, from 73 men, 8 women in 1976/77 to 76 men, 19 women in 1983/84, or from 9.9 percent female to 20 percent female in seven years. This is shown in table 2. Unfortunately, there is no corresponding proportional increase in salary level.

TABLE 1
NUMBER AND AVERAGE SALARIES OF ARL UNIVERSITY LIBRARIANS
AT FOUR LEVELS, 1976/77 AND 1983/84

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank Level</th>
<th>Number of Staff</th>
<th>Average Salaries</th>
<th>% of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976/77* Administrative</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle management</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>848</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>2,081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,193</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>3,521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983/84† Administrative</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle management</td>
<td>799</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>1,326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>939</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>2,310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,539</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>4,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excludes Chicago, Harvard, Illinois, and Yale
†Excludes Chicago
Based on ARL Annual Salary Survey, 1976/77, table 1, p.31; 1983, table 13, p.26
Administrative includes: director, associate director, assistant director, medical/law head
Middle Management includes: branch head, department head (reference, cataloging, acquisition, serials, document/maps, circulation, special collections, other)
Specialist includes: subject, functional
Other includes: all other nonadministrative positions
TABLE 2
NUMBER AND AVERAGE SALARIES OF ADMINISTRATORS IN ARL UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES, 1976/77 AND 1983/84

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number of Staff</th>
<th>Average Salary</th>
<th>% of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976/77*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>90.1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate director</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant director</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>68.2</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical/law head</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983/84†</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate director</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant director</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical/law head</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excludes Chicago, Harvard, Illinois, and Yale
†Excludes Chicago

The difference between the pay of women and men directors actually rose slightly from 5.3 percent in 1976/77 to 6.4 percent in 1982/83, but fell to 4.6 percent in 1983/84. There have also been substantial gains in the number and percentage of women moving into associate and assistant director positions. In 1983/84, the number of women associate directors even exceeded the number of men by 12 (or 8 percent), and the figures were 121 men, 117 women at the assistant director level. For salaries, however, percentages through the years hover at about 8 percent lower for female associate directors and 5 percent lower for female assistant directors.

Another prestigious function is being head of a law or medical library. Compensation for heads of law and medical libraries is in fact higher on the average than for associate directors of general university libraries. Ratios here have changed from 53 men and 32 women in 1976/77 (62.4 percent male, 37.6 percent female) to 52 men and 45 women in 1983/84 (53.6 percent male, 46.4 percent female). At the same time, average salaries for women have been substantially lower than those for men, and the gap has widened from 7.6 percent in 1976/77 to 16.7 percent in 1983/84. Heads of special collections are also predominantly male, but the percentage of women is rising here too, from 36.1 in 1976/77, changing to 34.3 percent in 1977/78, and up to 40 percent in 1983/84 (See table 3). The gender gap in salaries is larger in this category than in any other, moving erratically from 20.2 percent in 1976/77 to a low of 12 percent in 1977/78, then to a high of 20.5 percent in 1981/82, and ending with a 17.6 percent differential in 1983/84. It appears that where the heads of special collections are female, their average salaries are comparable to those of other department heads; if they are male their average salaries are higher than those of other department heads and may approach those of female assistant directors.

What of pay equity in middle management in general, i.e., compensation offered to heads of branches (except medical/law) and departments (other than special collections)? Here, as shown in table 3, women hold substantial majorities, with the highest in cataloging and serials. In at least one category each year women have a slightly higher average salary than men. This is true for heads of serials five years out of seven, for circulation and documents/maps four times, and for cataloging twice. In all other categories men's average salaries are from 3.6 to 10.8 percent higher than women's in 1976/77 and from less than 1 percent to 9.4 percent higher in 1983/84, with sex differential for branch librarians highest each year.

The compilers of the ARL statistics, pursuing an issue first raised by the CLR studies, also have investigated the possibility
TABLE 3
NUMBER AND AVERAGE SALARIES OF MIDDLE MANAGEMENT LIBRARIANS IN
ARL UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES, 1976/77 and 1983/84

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number of Staff</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>$18,924</th>
<th>$16,884</th>
<th>$2,040</th>
<th>% of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1976/77*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch Head</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>$18,924</td>
<td>$16,884</td>
<td>$2,040</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department Head:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>18,222</td>
<td>17,558</td>
<td>664</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataloging</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>18,983</td>
<td>18,208</td>
<td>775</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquisition</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>18,546</td>
<td>16,972</td>
<td>1,574</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serials</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>16,331</td>
<td>16,734</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doc./Maps</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,526</td>
<td>16,576</td>
<td>1,050</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circulation</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,466</td>
<td>16,811</td>
<td>1,345</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spec. collection</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>63.9</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>20,233</td>
<td>16,151</td>
<td>4,082</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>17,725</td>
<td>16,258</td>
<td>1,467</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983/84†</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch Head</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>$30,357</td>
<td>$27,496</td>
<td>$2,861</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department Head:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>67.5</td>
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<td>29,134</td>
<td>28,806</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataloging</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>30,121</td>
<td>29,900</td>
<td>1,221</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquisition</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>29,303</td>
<td>27,107</td>
<td>2,196</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serials</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>26,358</td>
<td>26,783</td>
<td>425†</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doc./Maps</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>26,690</td>
<td>26,597</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circulation</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>25,404</td>
<td>24,852</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spec. collection</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>32,840</td>
<td>27,060</td>
<td>5,780</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>29,387</td>
<td>26,797</td>
<td>2,590</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excludes Chicago, Harvard, Illinois, and Yale
†Women's salaries higher
‡Excludes Chicago

Based on ARL Annual Salary Survey, 1976/77, table 1, p.31; 1983, table 13, p.26

that specialists, either subject or functional, might be better paid than the ordinary nonadministrative librarian. There is no evidence that this has happened, as table 4 demonstrates. The number of subject specialists grew rapidly from 634 in 1976/77 to 981 in 1981/82, but dropped to 720 in 1983/84. This group was 57.6 percent female in 1982/83 but 55.4 percent female in 1983/84. Meanwhile, the salaries of men subject specialists exceeded those of women by 7.1 percent in 1976/77, by only 3.6 percent in 1979/80, but by 7.9 in 1983/84. Functional specialists, a smaller group, were also 55.4 percent female in 1983/84. Average salaries, usually higher than those for subject specialists, have varied by sex differential from 9.5 percent for men in 1976/77 down to 8.3 percent in 1982/83 and then up to 9.7 percent in 1983/84. Moreover, the salaries of both varieties of specialists have been somewhat lower on the whole than those paid to branch and department heads. With average salaries in 1983/84 of $26,471 for men and $24,222 for women, one must conclude that the specialist route is not a promising avenue to high-level remuneration in the library!

At the bottom of the pyramidal structure are the generalists—the nonadministrators and the nonspecialists. The proportion of librarians at this level has decreased in seven years to 37 percent men and 51.3 percent women, but 3,249 out of a total of 7,039 librarians were still clustered there in 1983/84.

One particularly significant factor is the shift in recent years between newcomers and old timers. The number of librarians with less than ten years' experience shrank from 2,000 in 1976/77 to 1,584 in 1983/84, a drop of 20.8 percent, while those with more than ten years' experience—but who were not in an administrative or specialist role—grew from 929 to 1,665, an increase of 79.2 percent. Economic conditions throughout the nation may have restricted job mobility, thereby reducing the number of job
changes. Another consideration is that fewer young women are leaving the profession after becoming mothers. Many are continuing after a brief maternity leave.

How are the salaries of the "other" group at the bottom of the pyramid? The categories of "under five years" and "five to ten years" (in table 5) show the closest equity between the sexes, with a 3.6 percent differential for men in 1976/77, down to 2.7 percent in 1982/83, but back up to 3.8 percent in 1983/84. Salaries for those with more than fifteen years' experience are slightly below the average for middle management. They exceed the salaries received by some department heads. Furthermore, the 621 women nonadministrators with more than fifteen years' experience constituted the largest single category of women librarians in 1982/83.

They earned an average salary of $24,972. This is more than the salary of female specialists or heads of circulation departments. By 1983/84 the total of women nonadministrators with more than fifteen years' experience had increased to 701, with an average salary of $25,944. This is still less than half the average salary of the nineteen women directors who succeeded in reaching the top of the pyramid.

The 1983/84 ARL Salary Survey includes a new table presenting number and average salaries of men and women in ten four-year groups according to total library experience. Librarians have long careers. Twenty percent have more than twenty years of service. The female proportion falls from 71.7 percent with 0-3 years' service, to 64.7 percent for 4-19 years, and to 55 percent for 20-35 years. There are 101

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number of Staff</th>
<th>Average Salary</th>
<th>% of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976/77*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983/84†</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excludes Chicago, Harvard, Illinois, and Yale
†Excludes Chicago
Based on ARL Annual Salary Survey, 1976/77, table 1, p. 31; 1983, table 13, p. 26

TABLE 4
NUMBER AND AVERAGE SALARIES OF SPECIALISTS IN ARL UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES, 1976/77 and 1983/84

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number of Staff</th>
<th>Average Salary</th>
<th>% of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976/77*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983/84†</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excludes Chicago, Harvard, Illinois, and Yale
†Excludes Chicago
Based on ARL Annual Salary Survey, 1976/77, table 1, p. 31; 1983, table 13, p. 26

TABLE 5
NUMBER AND AVERAGE SALARIES OF "OTHER" (NONADMINISTRATIVE) LIBRARIANS IN ARL UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES, 1976/77 AND 1983/84

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>Number of Staff</th>
<th>Average Salary</th>
<th>% of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976/77*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 15 years</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15 years</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 5 years</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983/84†</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 15 years</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15 years</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 5 years</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>570</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excludes Chicago, Harvard, Illinois, and Yale
†Excludes Chicago
Based on ARL Annual Salary Survey, 1976/77, table 1, p. 31; 1983, table 13, p. 26
persons with more than 35 years (22 male, 79 female).

The salary lines for men and women rise steeply during the first twenty years. After fifteen to twenty years the female line is almost flat and the disparity between salaries increases dramatically (see figure 3). Thus the differential for males rises from 2.8 percent for those in the 0-3 category to an appalling 30 percent after more than thirty-five years (male average $45,155, female $31,620). This salary figure is somewhat suspect, along with the averages paid to all female categories over twenty years (ranging from $29,420 to $31,021), because they seem too high compared with the average salary ($27,263) paid in 1983/84 to female branch and department heads.

WOMEN'S SITUATION TODAY

It is the almost forgotten generation of older women librarians who are affected most from past sex and present age discrimination. They entered librarianship when even the best-qualified female had almost no opportunity to climb to upper administrative levels. There was little encouragement for them to attain a doctorate, conduct research, seek an elected office in professional organizations, or strive for promotion to middle management. They had no mentors grooming them for success, except perhaps as department heads where the proven route was by impeccable on-the-job performance.

More recently, management training programs have been aimed at the young and promising, not at those nearing retirement. Moreover, many who married and had children were confronted by pressure to make a career or family decision. Because of personal choice or yielding to existing prejudices, many left temporarily or compromised by working part-time. This practice was often cited as proof of a lack of professional zeal and aspiration. Upon reentry they were much less likely to achieve middle management status or to receive more than meager remuneration. A few outstanding women have moved up to the role of director or acting director at the end of their careers, but the average age of all women administrators in 1980 was forty-six. It is the young, well-educated, highly mobile women, with
new skills, attitudes, and expectations who are chief beneficiaries of the current concern with sex equality.

Recent studies have examined the extent to which the status of women librarians has been affected by factors such as lower educational attainments, less experience, limited mobility, more career interruptions, less involvement with professional associations, or fewer publications. Results are incomplete and not always consistent and comparable. They do indicate the importance of these factors and the myth that they account for all the differences. Clearly gender still plays a critical part in career patterns. The need for more research and for remedial action remains.

What gains have women made? Not many. Organized efforts by librarians at Stanford, University of California–Berkeley, Temple and University of Minnesota have recently led to increases in women’s salaries. In contrast there is the attempt by the Office of Personnel Management to lower the standards for federal librarians and the uncertainty caused by the Merwine case as to whether the master’s degree is a valid minimum requirement. Any lowering of the entry-level standards could have a disastrous impact upon the profession.

THE FUTURE

There are some hopeful trends within the profession. Among the most encouraging is the substantial increase in the number of women attaining a Ph.D. in library science. At one time there were many more men in doctoral programs, but now the proportion of women has risen to 57 percent. Women constitute a similar percentage of assistant professors in library schools, even though men still dominate the upper ranks. Since the number of men entering librarianship dropped to 17 percent in 1981, many women should have more opportunities for advancement in the future. Moreover, women are organized in such groups as ALA’s Feminist Task Force and Women Library Workers. Workshops and preconferences have been held. Networking efforts with outside women’s groups have also produced important results. These productive manifestations of the women’s movement should produce substantial changes in female career patterns and remuneration in the university library.

CONCLUSION

Historically there have been three basic status and compensation problems in academic libraries: (1) the level of most salaries is lower than that of the teaching faculty; (2) compensation for administrative work is disproportionately higher than for service work; and (3) men in every category usually achieve higher status than women.

Regarding status, the most encouraging finding is that the administrative group has changed in seven years from 27.6 percent female to 45 percent female. This elite is such a small proportion of all female librarians, however, that the percentage of all females who are administrators rises less than 2 percent between 1976/77 and 1983/84. Regarding salaries, the change in the sex differential has been minimal. The difference between the average salaries paid to all men and all women has dropped only 2.5 percent in seven years. Unless the pace accelerates, pay equity will not even be achieved by the year 2000.

REFERENCES

8. Ibid., p.126.
20. Cameron and Heim, Librarians in Higher Education, p.3.
24. Ibid., p.6, 12.
25. Ibid., p.22.


Current International Newspapers: Some Collection Management Implications

Stanley P. Hodge and Marilyn Ivins

This article discusses current newspaper collection management practices among research libraries; emphasizes the importance of incorporating use patterns into selection decisions; and offers a methodology for surveying the library's international user group. Based on the results of this study, factors to consider when drafting a collection development policy are provided. Interestingly, criteria such as journalistic reputation, geographic representation, and curricular and research support may not accurately reflect users' actual reasons for reading international newspapers.

Current international newspapers in university libraries are typically acquired on the basis of their journalistic reputations and representative geographic origin to serve as primary source materials for university curricula and research. In "Role of Newspapers as an Information Resource," Joel Rutstein commented, "There is no broad uniformity of control relating to the selection, processing and handling of current newspapers in academic libraries." And, in "Academic Library Newspaper Collections" Janell Rudolph and Byunn noted, "there seemed to be little, if anything written about acquisition and retention of newspapers by university libraries." The published research on library collection management does not indicate how current international newspapers are selected and how frequently they are actually used. A study of selection criteria and of current international newspaper use would be helpful to those with collection management responsibilities. Thus, the authors determined that obtaining answers to several questions related specifically to international newspapers would be useful to other librarians.

OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this study is to identify current international newspaper selection patterns in academic research libraries; to determine which selection criteria are considered most important; and to ascertain who typically uses current international newspapers and for what reasons. Questions included

1. How many current international newspapers are typically received by a research library—through paid subscriptions or gifts—in English or in a non-English language?

The number of subscriptions placed is...
interesting because the annual cost for an international newspaper may easily exceed $300, particularly if it is a daily airmail edition. Although surface mail is far cheaper, a frequent complaint heard from readers of international newspapers is that the latest copy on the shelf is too old to be of interest. Collection development librarians often face the option of selecting a representative title in English or in an indigenous language of another country. Whose language preference should be considered first: the U.S. students who comprise the majority of a university's enrollment or the international students who usually prefer to read in their native language?

2. What are the most and least important criteria considered when selecting a current international newspaper?

Various selection criteria may receive different emphases depending on the collection's purposes and clientele. Even when provided in collection policies, Ross Atkinson notes that these criteria "must still always be interpreted by each selector on the basis of his or her personal experience at the time of each selection decision." However, when considered in the abstract, which criteria are considered most important in terms of selecting current international newspapers?

3. What considerations do newspaper policies typically include, and what additional elements might be incorporated when formulating a policy?

Collection development policies serve to guide the selector through making decisions to meet certain stated objectives. A review of research library newspaper policies should theoretically reveal the bases for selection decisions. However, faced with a specific situation, a librarian may use additional selection criteria. When this situation occurs frequently, these additional criteria might be considered for incorporation into newspaper collection policies.

4. How long do research libraries usually retain paper copies of international newspapers, and what are the primary factors in determining their retention period?

A collection manager's job does not end with selection alone. Current newspapers can create special problems, especially when several issues per title are retained. Their size, diverse languages, and tendency to scatter become a nuisance to those responsible for maintaining some semblance of order in the newspaper reading area. Although microfilm holdings decrease these problems for many research titles, the lags in receipt often cause space and access problems.

5. For what reasons are international newspapers actually used and by whom?

Does the use of these newspapers validate the traditional emphasis placed on selection criteria in collection development policies? Again, the literature contains little information on this subject. "The lack of literature treating various approaches to newspaper use suggests that librarians have paid little attention to this major purveyor of information."

**Hypothesis on Newspaper Use**

The authors postulated that the predominant use of current international newspapers is by students primarily for the purpose of obtaining news from their home country. In order to compare major differences in reading patterns between user groups, it was also postulated (in the form of nondirectional hypotheses) that the same proportion of each type of user group who read international newspapers for five surveyed reasons would be the same proportion as for the other groups combined. (For example, "the proportion of graduate students who read international newspapers for news from home is the same as the proportion of all other user groups who read international newspapers for news from home.") The user groups studied were categorized as faculty, staff, graduate students, undergraduates, and others. The reasons for reading were categorized as class assignment, means of obtaining news from one's home country, current events awareness, recreation, and research.

In order to test these hypotheses, a survey of international newspaper readers in an academic research library was conducted. Such a survey would hopefully produce information to aid that library's collection development officers in the se-
lection of international newspapers. It would also serve to illustrate how well various selection criteria compare with actual use. Additionally, the methodology and resulting data could well be of interest to other academic librarians coping with the perplexities of international newspaper selection and use.

SURVEY METHODOLOGIES

ARL Library Survey

Two surveys were conducted in order to answer the above questions. First, the ninety-three U.S. university libraries that are members of the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) were assigned to one of the four geographic regions: Midwest, Northeast, South, or West. Second, the libraries in each region were alphabetized according to the name of the institution, and every fourth library for each region was selected for survey purposes.

A questionnaire was developed and pretested by collection development officers at two ARL libraries. Minor modifications were made in the survey instrument. The authors next called the chief collection development officer in each of the twenty selected libraries and asked them to participate in the survey. This procedure enabled the authors to obtain the name of the appropriate librarian to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaires were mailed in May 1985, and by November, responses from eighteen libraries (90 percent) were received.

Newspaper User Survey

The user survey was conducted at Texas A&M University’s Evans Library in 1985. This library served a student population of 33,859 (spring); 14,491 (first summer session); and 35,675 (fall). The international student population during these terms was 1,584, 1,046, and 1,596, representing about 100 nationalities. Approximately 58 percent of these international students were graduate students and 42 percent undergraduates. Although the primary focus of the university’s curricula is on engineering, science, agriculture, and business, there are sizable enrollments in the colleges of liberal arts and education as well.

The newspaper collection is housed in the Current Periodicals Department of the library; 86 international newspapers representing forty-eight nations are received here. The library receives 25 of these as gifts and purchases 61 through subscriptions; 30 of these newspapers are in English and 56 in other languages.

Evans Library has a newspaper collection policy statement divided into two sections, the first governing microform collections and the second, original paper copy. In the latter, international newspapers are addressed as follows under Scope of the Newspaper Collection:

International newspapers of primary importance are acquired to provide broad coverage on international affairs in areas of the world in which the academic community has a continuing interest; provide news coverage of countries from which the University has a significant number of faculty and/or students; and provide at least one newspaper in each language in which courses at Texas A&M University are taught.

The survey was conducted through a questionnaire consisting of six multipart questions eliciting twenty items of information. The information sought included the title of the newspaper being read, the reason(s) for reading it, participant status in the university, nationality, and year of arrival in the United States.

Two international students who worked in collection development tested the survey questionnaire with no problems. The first survey was conducted in April 1985. During a one-week period, the authors distributed the questionnaire to readers of current international newspapers every two hours that the library was open for service. While distributing the survey forms, the authors provided a brief introduction and offered to explain or clarify the questionnaire. Two additional surveys were conducted in this manner in June and October of 1985.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Characteristics of Newspaper Collections

The first question asked about the number of international newspapers acquired; how many are obtained through paid subscriptions or gifts; and the language of
FIGURE 1
Number of International Newspapers Received by Eighteen ARL Libraries

publication. Figure 1 illustrates that the number of international newspapers received through paid subscriptions (and through gifts as well) varies considerably among research libraries. Several factors are likely to affect this phenomenon: materials budgets, number of international students enrolled, type of research and curricular programs emphasized, and librarians' perceived value of newspapers as a service to readers. The "typical" responding library receives 43 (median figure) international newspapers. Seventeen respondents separated paid subscriptions from gifts; the median figures are 34 through subscriptions and 12 through gifts.

It is the authors' opinion that international newspapers may play an important role in undergraduates' liberal education by acquainting them with a broad spectrum of viewpoints and by promoting their respect for other cultures. From this standpoint, and from an assumption that international students are more fluent in English than most U.S. students are likely to be in foreign languages, a case can be made for preferring English-language newspapers when they are available.

The question of language preference was directly addressed in only one of the newspaper collection policies examined. However, a selection predisposition may exist when policy statements emphasize journalistic reputation, or so-called elite newspapers. Respondents were not asked to state their usual practice regarding selection by language, but were requested to indicate how many titles were received in English and non-English languages.

Seventeen libraries responded to the question regarding the receipt of English and non-English titles. The number of English language titles received ranged from 5 to 66, while non-English titles ranged from 7 to 128. For English-language international newspapers received, the mean average was 22 and the median 18. The libraries received a mean average of 41 and a median of 25 foreign-language titles. As collections become very large, the foreign-language titles predominate.

Policy Statements

The justifications for a newspaper collection policy statement are similar to
those for collection policies in general and have been well documented in other sources. Rutstein has noted, "Without guidelines the newspaper collections can easily become unmanageable, since their bulk and expense lead to formidable demands on staff and budget."

Respondents were asked if their library had a newspaper policy statement, and if so, to forward a copy to the authors. Nine of the eighteen libraries responding (50 percent) had a newspaper policy, while seven did not; one had a policy in draft stage and one left the question unanswered. The nine newspaper collection policies received vary greatly in length and detail. A few were confined to short, general statements appended to an overall selection policy. In these cases respondents often indicated that they were still struggling with the policy issues raised by current newspapers. As a guide to those who are reviewing their newspaper policies or who are developing one, several factors to consider are outlined in appendix A. These are based on the information gained from the two surveys conducted by the authors.

Criteria for Newspaper Selection

Analysis of the nine newspaper policies received indicated that selection criteria for current international newspapers emphasized:

- Quality or journalistic reputation—7
- Curricular or teaching support—7
- Research—7
- Geographic coverage—6
- News from foreign students’ home countries—2
- Languages taught—2
- Current awareness—1
- Cost—1
- Expected use—1.

The questionnaire asked respondents to indicate the importance of ten criteria for selecting an international newspaper for their library. Many of the criteria suggested were the same as Rudolph and Byunn used with response categories ranging from “not considered” to “very important” on a five-point scale. The ten criteria in ranked order of importance to the respondents are listed in table 1.

In addition to seeking librarians’ views on the importance of various selection criteria for current international newspapers, one question asked them to ascertain which criteria might actually be considered by a collection development librarian in a hypothetical, but typical, situation:

A student from Andrusia (fictitious country) comes to see you to suggest a newspaper for your library. This student mentions that he has been in the U.S. for only two months and has become concerned about some recent political developments in his country that have resulted in armed insurrections. Your library does not receive a newspaper from Andrusia. What further information would you seek and consider with regard to this student’s suggestion that you acquire an Andrusian newspaper?

The responses indicate that when presented with a typical situation, collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Geographical representation</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Quality or reputation</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Curriculum support</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Faculty request</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived use</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Cost</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Student request</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Index availability</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Microform availability</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Recreational interest</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 = very important; 4 = moderately important; 3 = equally important/unimportant; 2 = of little importance; 1 = not considered.
development librarians are quite perceptive and pragmatic in determining the several possible factors that may have an impact on a selection decision. Some of their answers suggest criteria that should be incorporated in their newspaper collection policies. The categorized answers are listed in table 2 by frequency of mention.

Retention of International Newspapers

The surveyed librarians were asked how long their libraries generally retain paper copies of international newspapers and which factors were the primary reasons for discarding them. Table 3 illustrates the response and indicates results very similar to those found by Rudolph and Byunn in their study. Nine librarians in the present study qualified the maximum retention period by noting "unless replaced by microfilm."

In stating the primary factor for discarding international newspapers, six librarians indicated space, six indicated use, two indicated space and servicing, and one indicated space and use. Three respondents did not provide a reason. One approach to length of retention is to have no standard period for all newspapers but to consider the criteria of space, use, and servicing on a title-by-title basis. There may not be a long-term need for many titles acquired by the library. For example, if their use is primarily fulfilling the need for current events awareness, 7 or fewer issues may suffice.

The Use of Current International Newspapers

The fifth and final collection management question examined was that of current international newspaper use. For what reasons are these newspapers used and by whom? This study has shown that the selection criteria for international newspapers in academic libraries empha-

**TABLE 2**

RESPONSES TO HYPOTHETICAL QUESTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses to Further Information Sought</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The number of university faculty/students from the country or the potential number of readers of a particular newspaper.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Cost of the newspaper subscription.</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The relationship of a newspaper from that nation to the curriculum.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The existence of a &quot;recognized&quot; newspaper in that country.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Availability of an airmail subscription.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The political orientation of a specific newspaper and the reliability of its news.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The significance of events in that nation including their importance to U.S. policy.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The existence of another paid subscription by the library already covering that region of the world.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Budget constraints.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Alternative sources of information in the library.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Language of the newspaper.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The availability of a newspaper from that country in a nearby library.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Other single responses.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 3**

RETENTION OF CURRENT NEWSPAPERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Hodge &amp; Ivins Study</th>
<th>Rudolf &amp; Byunn Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Libraries</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 months or less</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 2 months to 1 year</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 1 year</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
size geographical representation, journalistic quality or reputation, and support for university curricula and research. But, does the actual use of these newspapers validate the emphasis on these selection criteria?

A 1984 survey questionnaire seeking the reasons for reading newspapers at the University of Notre Dame disclosed the following answers from 229 newspaper-reading respondents (see table 4). This survey included readers of both foreign and domestic newspapers, the latter being the most heavily used. 14

Results

In the Texas A&M Survey, some 313 questionnaires were completed. Fifty-eight (18.5 percent) of the participants took part in the survey during more than one term. The participants represented 48 nationalities and read 56 different international newspapers. The most frequently read newspapers and the countries of origin most frequently cited by the participants are cited in table 5.

Table 5 indicates that the most frequently read newspapers were those representing the nations with the largest number of participants in the survey. This correlation also extends to the total international student body at Texas A&M during 1985 when students from Taiwan, Korea, and India led all other nationalities in number. Puerto Rican students are not counted in the international student totals because of their United States citizenship. However, evidence of their presence in the university is indicated by the high readership of the Puerto Rican newspaper El Mundo.

The participants represented faculty, staff, graduate and undergraduate students, and a miscellaneous “other” group, composed of visitors, faculty spouses, postdoctoral candidates, former students (an Aggie designation for alumni), and a student from another college in the area. These data clearly indicate that the predominant use of international newspapers is by students, since 261 readers, or 83.4 percent of the readership, were undergraduate (28.8 percent) and graduate students (54.6 percent). The fac-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Total Responses (n=229)</th>
<th>Percentage Indicating Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To keep up with national and international news</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>80.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For news from my hometown</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For news from my home country outside the U.S.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn about the culture/current events of another country</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve knowledge of a language</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To locate a piece of information</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To read classified ads</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a class assignment</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As part of a research project</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Origin/Number of Readers</th>
<th>Newspaper/Number of Times Cited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan 54 18.8%</td>
<td>China Daily News 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea 43 13.7%</td>
<td>Central Daily News (Taiwan) 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico 41 13.1%</td>
<td>Korea Times 44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India 22  7.0%</td>
<td>El Mundo (Puerto Rico) 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Times of India 22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ulty accounted for 5.4 percent.

Liberal arts majors were noticeably lacking among student readers. Indeed, further analysis of combined graduate and undergraduate majors showed that 26.8 percent of this group of survey participants were studying engineering, "the most popular field of study among foreign students in 1983/84."15

**Reasons for Reading**

For the purposes of this study, the most important data in the survey concerned the reasons for reading current international newspapers. Five choices were listed, and the participants indicated the primary reason(s) for reading. The choices were

1. Class Assignment
2. News from Home
3. Broader Perspective on Current Events
4. Recreational Reading
5. Continuing Research Interest

The respondents were not restricted to one of these choices and often checked several. As figure 2 shows, 87.9 percent of the participants cited "news from home." "Broader perspective on current events" was second with 41.5 percent, followed by "recreational reading" with 33.5 percent.

As in the Notre Dame survey, "research interest" and "class assignment" were of very low priority at 5.4 percent and 1.9 percent respectively. In figure 3, participants are divided by group according to university status.

These data clearly indicate that "news from home" was the most important reason cited for reading international newspapers. "Getting a broader perspective on current events" ranked second in importance for all the groups, followed closely by "recreational reading." Again, "continuing research interest" and "class assignment" percentages were very low. Faculty and "other" groups did not cite these two reasons at all.

The combined graduate and undergraduate student readers (83.4 percent of the total readership) indicated that they primarily read international newspapers for news from their home country (88.5 percent of the cases), thereby affirming the authors' basic hypothesis that this was the predominant use.16 Furthermore, there was no discernible pattern between the readers' length of residence in the U.S. and the frequency of reading for news from their home countries.

Results for the nondirectional hypotheses concerning proportions of the five

![FIGURE 2](image_url)

Reasons for Reading Newspapers
groups of readers and the five reasons for reading international newspapers were also computed using the StatPac corrected chi-square program. The hypothesis of no difference between groups was rejected only in the case of undergraduates reading for recreation. This statistical rejection was interpreted to mean that undergraduates read international newspapers for recreation in a different proportion (higher) than did all other groups. No differences in other reasons for reading by any other group were statistically significant.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Findings

This study determined that the number of current international newspapers received varies considerably among ARL libraries but may typically consist of 40 to 50 titles. The majority of these are in foreign languages and their ratio to English-language international newspapers increases as collections grow in size. Gifts account for a significant portion (30-40 percent) of international newspaper titles in most libraries. Paper issues are retained from more than two months to a year by most libraries, space and use being equally cited as reasons for their eventual discard.

About half of the ARL libraries have some form of newspaper selection policy, ranging from brief statements appended to more comprehensive policies to a separate policy with very detailed selection criteria. "Geographical representation" and "quality or reputation" are perceived as being the most important selection criteria by those surveyed, while curriculum support, faculty requests, and perceived use were also highly ranked. However, well over a dozen other factors were reported as possible considerations in a typical selection decision.

User studies at two research libraries indicate that reading international newspapers for "news from home" and other forms of recreational reading far exceed their use for class assignments or research. The use of newspapers by language or country of origin is closely linked
with the national characteristics of a university’s international student body. The authors believe that in newspaper policies more emphasis should be placed on what Atkinson terms the “communal context” of selection. In this context, a primary selector responsibility is to respond to clientele needs determined by systematic and aggressive observation and user studies. 

**Need for Policy Reviews**

The total number of foreign students in the U.S. for the past thirty years has steadily increased. In 1983–84 international students attended 2,498 academic institutions in the United States. Their numbers in American higher education will swell from the present 312,000 to over a million in the early 1990’s. By then, the presence of foreign students could be one of the most powerful themes in American higher education. 

Given the increasing numbers of international students attending U.S. colleges and universities, it seems time for academic librarians in institutions with significant foreign student populations to review their selection policies and practices for acquiring international newspapers. To respond to the needs of this growing enrollment and to hold high costs in check, librarians should solicit gift subscriptions from student associations, embassies, etc. Selectors should also consider subscribing to some of the so-called ethnic newspapers, which are published in the U.S. for foreign-language readers, as a way of eliminating costly airmail rates.

Although these foreign-language newspapers are often slanted by homeland politics, most of them provide reports from the mother country, national news with an ethnic angle, and local cultural calendars. Some examples of the most popular ethnic titles are Philippine News, Korea Times, China Daily News, Nguoi Viet, and Diario las Americas.

While provision of news from one’s home country may not appear as lofty an objective as curricular and research support, it may serve no less noble a purpose. Those students from the fictitious Andrusian nation are likely to be struggling with language proficiency, concerned about unstable political conditions in their homeland, adapting to cultural differences, and confronting an alien educational system. A well-selected and responsive international newspaper collection may serve as a vehicle for alleviating separation from their homeland and may provide a crucial link with the culture to which our guests will return. It therefore has the potential to fulfill important social as well as educational roles in academic research libraries.

The results of this research increase our knowledge about current international newspaper collections in academic research libraries. The characteristics of such collections, the primary criteria considered in their selection, and their client use patterns were examined and reported. This information will be useful to collection development librarians in evaluating their own collections and in developing more effective service policies.

**REFERENCES AND NOTES**

1. The operational definition of current international newspaper for the purpose of this survey is a publication issued in newsprint and containing general news coverage rather than specific subject matter. It may be published outside the U.S. in English or the national language or within the U.S. in a non-English language.
5. Rutstein, p.17.
6. This postulation was based on observing the use and users of current international newspapers in a research library over a period of several years.


9. The weeks selected to conduct the reader surveys fell about midsemester in each case. The data from the completed questionnaires were then compiled and analyzed using a StatPac program.

10. Higher mean averages of 61 (total), 45 (subscriptions), and 18 (gifts) are attributed to three very large international newspaper collections.


13. Three of the more substantial newspaper policies sent were from the libraries of the University of California-Berkeley, Colorado State University, and the University of Texas-Austin. The collection development officers at these institutions have stated a willingness to share their policies with those who request a copy from them.


16. Percentages of responses in each category were very consistent in each of the three separate surveys taken over the year. This indicates reliability of findings.

17. Statistical analysis yielded a corrected chi-square value of 4.829 for this reason. A chi-square value of 3.841 or less is required in order for a hypothesis to be accepted at a .05 level of confidence.


APPENDIX A: POTENTIAL ELEMENTS FOR INCLUSION IN A POLICY STATEMENT ON CURRENT INTERNATIONAL NEWSPAPERS

**Reasons for Collecting International Newspapers**

To support continuing curricular requirements
To provide broader coverage of current regional and international events
To provide news from home countries of international students and faculty
To support continuing research interests, i.e., particular geographic regions or area studies programs

**Selection Responsibilities**

Those who are assigned to evaluate the collection, to make selection and cancellation decisions, and to determine retention periods
Potential Selection Criteria

- Quality
- Reputation
- Language
- Political stance
- Perceived use (consider international student enrollments by country of origin)
- Actual use (based on user studies)
- Cost
- Availability of airmail, weekly edition subscriptions
- Alternative sources of information, e.g., weekly newsmagazines from the country

Selection Tools Used (See reference 23)

Cooperative Arrangements

- Availability of gift subscriptions from student associations, embassies, publishers, or exchange agreements
- Consortia

Bibliographic Control and Access

- Types of access provided, e.g., serial listings or indexing
- Arrangement on shelves and storage provisions

Newspaper Maintenance

- Those who are responsible for receipt, shelving, and disposal or storage
Selected Reference Books of 1985–86
Eugene P. Sheehy

This 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 AD540, CJ331) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide to Reference Books.

MANUSCRIPTS


Although this is a somewhat specialized work, it should prove a time-saver for a good many historians in search of original sources. It is in effect a union list of the manuscript, microfilm, and oral history holdings of the seven U.S. presidential libraries as of mid-1983. General directory-type information on each of the libraries is followed by a single alphabetical listing of the various collections. The number of items in each collection or the number of linear feet it occupies is indicated, reference to the National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections is given when applicable, and finding aids are noted. Personal name entries predominate, but there are entries for specific organizations and for government bodies. Information was derived from “the published guides [unfortunately not cited] of the individual libraries, announcements of acquisitions in Prologue: Journal of the National Archives, and reports of recent accessions from all seven libraries.”—Intro. There is great variation in the amount of description provided: some notes are gratifyingly full, giving names of correspondents or topics touched on in an oral history interview; others are tantalizingly brief (e.g., “Oberdorfer, Don. Papers. 6 ft.”), without so much as a word or phrase to identify the person under whose name the entry appears. Information on items found in NUCMC is substantially the same as in those volumes. There is a subject index.—E.S.

DICTIONARIES


Work on the Thesaurus Linguae Graecae was originally intended to start early in the twentieth century to emulate the The-
saurus Linguae Latinae (Guide AD540), but the enormity of the task dissuaded scholars from beginning the compilation until the advent of the computer. At the 1972 TLG Planning Conference (of American, Canadian, and European scholars) it was decided that using the computer would expedite the process of data entry and would also provide a thesaurus "readily adaptable to the continuing process of scholarship."—Pref. Two other important decisions were also made by the group: word definition was not the only reason for creating the thesaurus, and "all ancient Greek authors and texts from Homer to AD 200" would be covered.

The Canon (the first, limited edition of which appeared in 1977 under a slightly different title) demonstrates, to some extent, how the project is fulfilling those aims. It is a bibliographical listing of the 2,884 authors and 8,203 literary works in the TLG database. For each is indicated an entry number, author or work named if anonymous, generic epithet denoting the literary genre characterizing most of the author's output, date by century, geographical epithet, work, text edition used, means of transmission (e.g., quotation; papyrus), and word estimate; cross references to additional works are also included. The A.D. 200 closing date has been exceeded: the section for Homer to A.D. 200 is "nearing completion"; and the 400-600 period is represented by some 200 authors, with more to be added. All information is available for "rapid retrieval" from the TLG database, which is currently accessible at more than 100 institutions in the United States and abroad, with other sites to come. The Canon will be an aid not only to those using the database but also to the reference librarian identifying, verifying, and locating standard texts.—E.M.

PERIODICALS


Designed "to meet the needs of scholars and librarians for a comprehensive source of information about periodicals and other serials in the field of religion and theology in the broadest sense of those terms" (Intro.), this volume follows the pattern set by the same publisher's Historical Periodicals Directory (Guide DA31). That is, periodicals are listed by title within country sections that are arranged alphabetically within broad geographic regions. In order to encompass religion in its "broadest sense," coverage extends to journals in the fields of anthropology, linguistics, sociology, archaeology, art, and literature, with a certain amount of overlap between this directory and the multivolume one for historical periodicals. Entries include as many of the following elements as are applicable and available: frequency, publisher, address, sponsoring body, statement of purpose or subject content, language of publication, sources in which indexed, titles, and special features. Title and subject/geographic indexes complete the volume.—E.S.


In this guide to selected periodicals published in Great Britain Walford takes a "broadish view" of subject selection, covering any nonscientific field from English literature to pigeon racing, and including scholarly journals as well as general magazines devoted to leisure activities. Newspapers, in-house publications, school and college magazines of a general nature, parish bulletins, and the like are excluded. Publications are arranged by subject in a broad decimal classification. A brief survey of publications in the field is given under each subject category, followed by a bibliography of abstracting services, indexes, periodical directories, and online databases relating to the subject. A typical entry for a periodical includes title, year of first issue, frequency, price, complete address and telephone number. A special feature of the guide is a description of the contents of a recent issue; this should
prove a helpful selection aid for librarians. Information is mainly current as of summer 1985. There is an index by title, subject, and corporate name.—J. S.

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS


Intended primarily for use in depository libraries employing the SuDocs classification scheme, these volumes allow the user to approach government publications from the point of view of the search strategy needed to solve a specific type of problem. Search strategies are divided into five types: "known item," "subject," "agency," "statistical," and "special techniques." Known-item searching, along with an introduction to the set and a discussion of search strategy in general, occupies the first thirty-three pages of each volume. The remaining chapters illustrate search strategies of the other types, with each type subdivided according to topic (e.g., elections, legislative history, etc.). Chapters follow a set format: a suggested search strategy, a checklist of the most basic and/or important sources (useful as a selection aid), a description of the sources, and notes on relevant indexes, online databases, and other related materials. The chapters are clearly written, compact in style, and rich in examples from the sources cited.

Although the work is useful, one suspects that the intended audience is not the one that might benefit most from this approach. Depository collections are likely to be staffed by specialists who will already know and understand the search strategies put forth. A more appropriate intended audience would be smaller, non-depository collections and library school students taking a course in government documents; unfortunately the high price of the set makes it unlikely that these are the groups that will have easy access to it.

All would have been better served by a one-volume work without repeated material and at a more reasonable price.—L. S.

DISSERTATIONS


Dossick has compiled a listing of some 12,032 titles of doctoral dissertations on Canada and Canadians by surveying the research at Canadian, United States, and British universities and adding a few English-language titles from European, Irish, and Australian universities for good measure. Arrangement is by broad subject field with smaller subdivisions. At the beginning of each major section (e.g., "Agriculture" or "Drama and theatre") there is a brief statistical analysis; so, besides providing the lists of accepted dissertations, the compiler also proposes to "encourage research in those areas where little doctoral work has been done."—Pref. An "Index of Names" provides references to full citations and also gives the microfiche numbers of theses available for purchase from the National Library of Canada; there is no reference to UMI order number or abstract.

All in all, Dossick is to be commended for again identifying and classifying dissertations for the librarian and the researcher. In order to pick up relevant parts of dissertations, one wishes his scope were a bit wider: for example, a study of American Loyalists that includes chapters on those who fled to Canada. But one must be grateful for the clear, well-organized bibliography that has been given.

At this writing, the work does not appear to be widely held in the United States. The Columbia copy on which this note is based was received as a title made available for selection from the Canadian document depository program (SN2-223/1986). Perhaps other libraries will have received it in the same way, and reference librarians and researchers can find
it classified by Canadian documents catalog number.—E.M.

PHILOSOPHY

Inasmuch as both Koren’s Research in Philosophy (Guide BA3) and De George’s The Philosopher’s Guide to Sources . . . (Guide BA2) are now some years out of date, this new guide is particularly welcome. While it is primarily an annotated listing of general and specialized reference works (mainly in English) in philosophy and closely related areas, there is also a core list of journals and a list of the principal research centers and professional associations in the field (both lists annotated to indicate scope and purpose). Reference works are grouped by type, with relevant general sources preceding specialized works: e.g., general dictionaries and encyclopedias preceding specialized ones; general bibliographies of philosophy preceding sections of specialized bibliographies for particular schools and periods, for specific countries and regions, and for individual philosophers. Attention is given to indexing, abstracting, and reviewing media, to directories and biographical sources, to concordances and indexes, to works of individual philosophers, and to the limited number of computerized databases available. Annotations—some of considerable length—are mainly descriptive, but some include evaluative comment. There are separate author/title and subject indexes. The work will be especially useful in the academic library.—E.S.

LITERATURE

This bibliography seeks to present "both the amplitude and variety of stylistic criticism, defined broadly as the theoretical or practical study of the language of literary works."—p.7. Thus defined, coverage of the bibliography encompasses the prominent theoretical and methodological currents of the past twenty years—among them linguistic theory, semiotics, and structuralism—and the major works of literary theory and criticism informed and influenced by them. Except for the first section, which lists bibliographies appearing in articles as well as books, coverage is limited to books published between 1967 and 1983. English-language items (including translations) predominate, though important untranslated sources in Western European languages are included. Most items have short descriptive annotations, followed by citations to selected critical reviews and a brief quotation from one or more of the reviews. Because of their brevity these excerpts frequently amount to little more than "jacket blurs"; the space occupied would more profitably have been given to fuller citations to the reviews, which are cited only by journal title abbreviation, volume number, and pages.

The bibliography is organized into six categories, each with several subcategories: Bibliographic Resources; General Theory and Concepts of Style (the largest section); Culture, History, and Style: the Period, the Nation, the Genre; Habitual Usage: the Author; Individual Choice: the Text; Individual Response: the Reader. Appendixes provide a chronology of important texts and events in the development of stylistics; a very selective "Classification of Critics by Theory and Method," whose utility is unclear given the existence of a subject index; and an "Introductory Reading List on Stylistics," useful for identifying basic sources and sources appropriate for students. There are four indexes: Terms; Authors and Works Studies; Critics Discussed; Contributors (i.e., authors of the works listed in the bibliography). The indexes can be quite confusing, since many of the names and subject terms do not appear anywhere in the citations or annotations to which the index directs you—a practice not explained in the prefatory matter.—A.L.


Handbook treatment of Commonwealth literature has probably never before been so extensive or so up-to-date, these two volumes joining Margaret Drabble’s new fifth edition of The Oxford Companion to English Literature (1985; see Guide BD556) and the relatively recent volume for Canadian literature (1983; Guide BD770). Both of these volumes are typical additions to the “Oxford Companion” family, with entries for authors and literary works constituting a high percentage of the total number of articles. It should be noted, however, that the Welsh companion is concerned mainly with writers in the Welsh language, although a selection of Welsh authors writing in English and in Latin is included. A useful feature of the Australian volume is the inclusion of a significant number of articles dealing with “those aspects of Australian life and history about which readers unfamiliar with Australia might need basic information.”—Pref. Both works are welcome additions to the reference shelf.—E.S.


In his introductory essay “The Art and Appeal of the Ghostly and Ghastly,” Jacques Barzun points out that “Taken as a whole, the output [in this genre] from Horace Walpole to Hugh Walpole and beyond stands in need of critical study.” While some of the articles in this new encyclopedia should prove useful springboards to such study, the volume is more likely to be a joy to the browser than an aid to the serious student. Signed articles by more than sixty contributors deal with authors, artists, musicians, motion pictures, and terms relating to horror and the supernatural in a fairly broad sense. British and American figures and topics predominate, with some attention given to works and practitioners in countries such as France, Germany, and Russia. Cross-references abound, but bibliographies are limited to a writer’s own works and do not list critical studies.—E.S.

PERFORMING ARTS


This guide lists addresses of people, organizations, and companies associated with the theater in eighteen categories, including agents, colleges and schools, critics, directors and choreographers, festivals, foundations, libraries, press agents, producers, publishers, suppliers, theater groups, and unions. Within each category information is arranged alphabetically by state and then by city. An index lists all the names, with addresses, of individuals mentioned in the text.

Some of the information provided is too cryptic to be of much use; the Miami-Dade Public Library, for instance, is described as a “Research Library containing useful information for Performing Arts researchers.” Lee Ash’s Subject Collections is a better choice for those needing information about libraries with theatrical material. Indeed, much of the information provided here could be found in other sources, but librarians may find this work convenient for many theater questions.—M.C.


Leiter, a professor of theater at Brooklyn College, has attempted to “provide a description of every legitimate production—play, musical, revue, revival—given in the New York professional theatre during the decade of the 1920’s.”—Pref. The work is restricted to Broadway and off-Broadway offerings, but includes foreign-language productions when reviewed in the
English-language press. Approximately 2,500 works are listed alphabetically by title. The information provided for each is extensive, including (when available and appropriate) author, director, producer, literary source, designer, choreographer, theater, opening date, and length of the run. Casts are not given, but the entries, which “attempt to give the important historical background, a summary of the plot, and an idea of the critical reaction to the play and performance,” name the major actors.

There are ten appendixes, providing such information as a list of plays by subject, a list of awards and winners, a list of theater companies, and a list of critics and newspapers or magazines for which they wrote. Two indexes are included, one listing names mentioned in the text (making it possible to find plays in which a particular actor appeared), and an index of all titles mentioned, including songs, novels, and alternate or foreign titles.

These volumes are the first of a planned multivolume series that presumably will document American theater decade by decade. If the other volumes are as thorough, the series should become a standard reference work for twentieth-century American theater.—M.C.


Since its formation in 1935, the Museum of Modern Art’s Department of Film has built an archive of several thousand significant films, including fiction, documentary, animated, and avant-garde, as well as some television and video offerings. The collection, which is international and includes films from the beginnings of cinema in the 1890s to the present, is an important resource for the study of the “seventh art.” For film scholars, who often face great difficulties in locating copies of their primary source material—i.e., films—for study and research, this catalog is a most welcome guide.

The volume is the result of an ongoing project to catalog and computerize the holdings of the Department of Film and it includes approximately 5,500 titles of films acquired between 1935 and 1980. Each film is entered under its original title, with cross-references from alternate titles (e.g., American release titles for foreign films). For each film the following information is provided: alternate title(s); date; country of origin; classification(s) by type (e.g., fiction feature, nonfiction short); producer(s)/production company; director(s); computer access number. A thorough description of the type of information in each category and criteria for establishing it (often problematic for films) appears in a prefatory “Explanation of Terms.” There is an index of names of directors, producers, and production companies.—A.L.


For many years the first volume of The Film Index, entitled The Film as Art, has been the standard bibliography of English-language writings published before 1940 on the film. It was produced during the 1930s by workers of the Federal Writers’ Program of the Work Projects Administration in New York City and published in 1941 (see Guide BG181). When Congress eliminated the WPA in 1943, the second and third volumes of the Index were left unfinished, though most of the research and writing had been completed; fortunately, the thousands of typed cards representing the entries for these volumes were stored in the Museum of Modern Art and have now been “resurrected,” edited, and published. Thus, these two “new” volumes are unique and valuable guides to the literature of film from approximately 1900 to December 31, 1939.

Volume 2 covers advertising and publicity, associations and organizations, distribution, exhibition, finance, history, jurisprudence, labor relations, and production. Volume 3 deals with censorship, cultural aspects, education, Hollywood,
moral and religious aspects, social and political aspects, and special applications. Within these broad categories the citations to books, pamphlets, and periodical articles are arranged according to more specific topics. The annotations are extensive and provide detailed summaries for most items. There is a name index at the end of Volume 3.—A.L.

FOLKLORE

The compiler, a professor of German at the University of Arizona, defines fables as literary tales “generally assumed to comfortably fit under the rubric ‘Aesopic.’”—*Introd.* His bibliography includes selected criticism of fables from the Sumerian period through James Thurber appearing in books, dissertations, and articles published between 1880 and 1982. The citations, all extensively annotated, are listed alphabetically by author. There are three indexes: a name and subject index consisting of the writer’s name (where known) and general subject headings such as “dogs in fables”; an index of tales, listed by Perry numbers, based on his *Aesopica*; and a tale-type index based on the numbers in Antti Aarne and Stith Thompson’s *The Types of the Folktale.* The complexity of the indexes and the fact that most of the criticism cited is not in English would seem to limit the work’s appeal mainly to scholars in the field.—M.C.

SOCIOLOGY

An outgrowth of the author’s teaching bibliography for undergraduates, *Slavery* “includes secondary scholarly works reflecting directly on slavery or the slave trade anywhere in the world, published in Western European languages, and written from the perspective of any academic discipline.”—p.xv. Excluded are single-page book reviews; primary sources such as diaries; works published prior to 1900; works published in Asian, African, and Slavic languages; works that deal with slavery secondarily; and nonscholarly publications such as historical fiction. Entries are arranged alphabetically by author or other main entry within specific geographical regions or in the “General and Comparative” section. Complete bibliographical information is provided according to MLA guidelines. Author and subject/keyword indexes are included. Annual supplements are planned for publication in the journal *Slavery and Abolition.*—L.S.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

In light of the collapsed mini-summit in Iceland, this bibliography is a most timely and important aid to our understanding of a very complex relationship. Given the continuing debate over the precise chronological boundaries of the Cold War as a historical phenomenon, the compiler has focused attention mainly on the literature from or about the period between 1938 and 1950. Expect to find titles that discuss the foreign policy assumptions, specific policy concepts, and the decision-making processes that help explain the nature of the Cold War.

The references, primarily English-language books, journal articles and these, are grouped into chapters that cover the history of the Cold War, the historiographical debates over its origins, major political figures, critical issues, U.S./Soviet relations, regional influences and developments, and the role of international organizations and alliances. Particularly noteworthy are the two chapters that address U.S. and Soviet perceptions and misperceptions of each other; Russian-
language titles are a welcome bonus here. The annotations and excellent cross-referencing are especially valuable since great pains have been taken to identify and compare orthodox (U.S.S.R. as villain), revisionist (U.S.A. as villain), and realist (a natural, historical process between superpowers) viewpoints on a topic. Author and subject indexes complete the bibliography. —L.B.


The most notable feature of this new edition is part 1, a revised and expanded section on political reference theory. This chapter provides "a cohesive set of conceptual, hypothetical, and pragmatic propositions for identifying and accessing systematically the stored information about the political world."

Pref. Holler's essay is a virtual mini-course on the research needs and methodology of political scientists. In addition to presenting a bird's-eye view of political information retrieval mechanisms, his "search strategy" on broad topics incorporates direct cross-referencing to the most appropriate reference titles described fully in part 2.

Part 2 is a masterpiece of bibliographic compilation. Over 2,400 citations for printed and computerized reference works are grouped in chapters covering general social sciences, American government, politics and law, international relations and organizations, comparative and regional politics and government, political theory, and public administration. Every possible type of reference source is included, fully annotated, and easily located via chapter outlines or indexes of authors, titles, subjects and generic reference categories. All in all, an indispensable volume for anyone doing political research. —L.B.

GEOGRAPHY


This critically annotated, classed bibliography represents the collective effort of seventy-one geographers and librarians "to assist libraries in the United States, Canada, and other countries to identify, select, and secure publications of value in geography that are appropriate to the purposes and resources of each collection." —Intro. Intended as a selection guide and bibliography for works published 1970–1984, it supplements, rather than supersedes, the association's 1970 publication, Geographical Bibliography for American College Libraries.

While this volume maintains the detailed classed arrangement of its predecessor, one of the reasons for its title change is manifested in a new category, "Publications Suitable for School Libraries." Entries appropriate for school libraries are also keyed in the other six main categories: general aids and sources; history, theory, and methodology of geography; the fields of physical geography; the fields of human geography; applied geography; and regional geography. New developments in the field of geography are reflected in new subdivisions for historical cultural geography, cultural ecology, behavioral geography, development studies, etc. Dissertations and geography and map librarianship are also discussed for the first time in this edition. Selection criteria for the nearly 3,000 entries emphasize English-language publications that can be currently acquired and entered in library catalogs as separate publications—books, monographs, atlases, bibliographies, and serials. Major foreign-language titles, and key works published before 1970, are included if determined to be of "abiding value." Price, Library of Congress card number, and ISBN or ISSN are included for each entry; annotations are succinct and usually critical. The index includes authors, titles, and subjects; entries suitable for school libraries are marked with a special symbol in the index.

Users who come to this work with high expectations based on the previous com-
Compilations of Harris, his editorial board, and the associations involved will not be disappointed in this stellar production that mirrors the vast and exciting field of geography today.—D.G.

HISTORY


Articles are necessarily brief and concise in a work containing over 8,000 entries in just three volumes, yet here they cover the full range of topics expected in an encyclopedia of this kind. Entries are signed and often include suggestions for additional reading; longer articles (such as "Ethnic Literature") are usually divided into sections. Statistics and figures are from the 1981 census and the 1984 federal elections. Biographical entries (3,500 in number) are entered under the name the person is commonly known by and emphasize the biographees' contributions to Canadian affairs. Indeed, emphasis throughout is on Canada, so that the article on the American Civil War, for example, discusses the influence of the war on Canada. The alphabetical arrangement is "word-by-word"; cross references within articles are indicated by small capitals. Some see references are given within the articles; others appear in the subject index; lack of more references from one form of a name to another is a minor flaw. The use of color illustrations, maps, etc., is remarkable for such a concise endeavor. Charts and graphs are clear and include the source of the figures given. Overall, The Canadian Encyclopedia compares favorably to the multivolume Encyclopedia Canadiana (Guide DB208) of a decade ago. Recommended.—L.S.


"Edited by Lewis Hanke with the assistance of many historians in many lands. Sponsored by the American Historical Association and the University of Massachus­etts, Amherst."—t.p.

Many benefits could accrue from this commendable compilation: most importantly, realization of the need for communication between scholars of United States history inside and outside the U.S. To this end essays have been contributed by foreign specialists in U.S. history describing the teaching and research carried on in their countries between the end of World War II and 1980. For certain areas of the world—Africa, Arabic-speaking regions—the editors have supplied very general essays. Similarly useful are the descriptive essays discussing archival materials in various countries that relate to any aspect of U.S. history. For some countries there are, in fact, very specialized surveys, such as "Sources in Canada for the Study of Reform Movements in the United States" or "Edmund Vasary Collection on Hungarian Emigration to the U.S." In all, the compilation comes close to fulfilling the stated aims: "to inform historians of the U.S. of the studies made by scholars . . ., [to bring to their attention] new sources and fresh perspectives on their own history," and to "help broaden their views."—v.1,p.2.

The second part of the Guide (actually, v.4-5) is a selected, annotated bibliography that includes "items judged to be scholarly contributions, whether articles or books published abroad or dissertations accepted by foreign universities."—v.1,p.8. Arrangement is topical within period divisions; an author index and a list of periodicals are included. Although the emphasis in the bibliography is on economic, social, and political history, much material on intellectual and cultural history is cited. Useful as the compilation may prove to be in research institutions, the overall format seems unfortunate—reproduction from double-spaced typescript accounting for the large number of volumes and contributing to the high price.—E.M.

Historical Dictionary of the French Revolution, 1789-1799. Ed. by Samuel F. Scott and Barry Rothaus. Westport, Conn., Greenwood Pr., 1985. 2v. $95. LC 83-
NEW EDITIONS, SUPPLEMENTS, ETC.


Ten years after publication of volume 2 (Guide AA802), the first volume of the revised and enlarged second edition of Pollard and Redgrave’s *A Short-title Catalogue of Books Printed in England, Scotland, and Ireland . . . 1475–1640* has been brought to completion by Katherine F. Pantzer (London, Bibliographical Society, 1986. 620p. £125). In addition to the main entries A–H, the volume includes new introductory matter and a section of addenda and corrigenda. Still to come is a third volume containing ‘the printers’ and publishers’ index, the addenda and corrigenda to volumes 1 and 2, and a set of concordances to other related works.’’—Pref.


In the revised and enlarged edition of Michael M. Reynolds’ *Guide to Theses and Dissertations: An International Bibliography of Bibliographies* (Phoenix, Oryx Pr., 1985. 263p. $125) coverage has been extended to include ‘theses and dissertations bibliographies, which have been published as separate entities, produced through 1983 and most of 1984.’’—Intro.


Evelyn de R. McMann has compiled *Canadian Who’s Who Index 1898–1984* (Toronto, Univ. of Toronto Pr., 1986. 528p. $125), which not only provides a cumulated index to biographical sketches found
in Canadian Who’s Who, 1910–84 (Guide AJ149), but incorporates names from the 1898 and 1912 editions of H. J. Morgan’s Canadian Men and Women of the Time. In addition to reference to volumes in which a biography appears, each entry includes year of birth and indication of profession or occupation.

Who Was Who in American Art, edited by Peter Hastings Falk (Madison, Conn., Sound View Pr., 1985. 707p. $115), is derived mainly from the thirty volumes of the American Art Annual (1898–1933) and the four volumes of its successor publication, Who’s Who in American Art (1935–47; see Guide BE186), but it represents more than a mere reprinting of the latest or most complete sketches from those volumes. That is, material in the earlier sets has been augmented by information from additional sources—in particular, the files of the Archives of American Art. About 25,000 biographical sketches are included.

Prepared under the general editorship of Paul J. Achtemeier, the new edition of Harper’s Bible Dictionary (San Francisco, Harper & Row, 1985. 1,178p. $29.95) represents a cooperative effort of the publisher and the Society of Biblical Literature, which assumed responsibility for the content. 179 scholars from seven countries contributed to the work, which aims “to make more widely available, and to an audience of nonspecialists, the results of the best of current biblical scholarship.”—Pref.

Returning to the cumulative pattern of the second through sixth editions (see Guide BD302), the eighth edition of Granger’s Index to Poetry, edited by William F. Bernhardt (New York, Columbia University Pr., 1986. 2,014p. $150), provides “access to poems found in older anthologies, as well as to poems in collections published through June 1985.”—Pref. Of the 405 volumes indexed, 212 were carried over from the sixth edition, 111 from the seventh, and the remaining 82 collections are new.


African Literatures in the 20th Century: A Guide (New York, Ungar, 1986. 245p. $12.95 pa.) is a reprinting of the articles on literatures of the various African nations and on individual writers from those countries that appeared in the revised edition of the Encyclopedia of World Literature in the 20th Century (Guide BD60). Apart from minor revisions and corrections, articles are unchanged from the parent work, and no effort was made to update them.

Selected Black American, African, and Caribbean Authors; A Bio-bibliography by James A. Page and Jae Min Roh (Littleton, Colo., Libraries Unlimited, 1985. 388p. $55) represents a revised and enlarged edition of Page’s Selected Black American Authors (Boston, 1977). Emphasis continues to be on Afro-American writings (literary and nonliterary) of the United States, and the foreign writers included are those who have lived, studied, or been published in this country.

Wordsworth Scholarship and Criticism, 1973–1984 by Mark Jones and Karl Kroeber (New York. Garland, 1985. 316p.; Garland reference library of the humanities, v.536. $40) is more than an extension of David Starn’s Wordsworthian Criticism, 1964–1973 (New York, 1974), since it devotes a section to standard research materials (complete editions, concordances, bibliographies, etc.) and cites the most important criticism from the 1809–1972 period. Later studies (including citations to reviews) are listed year-by-year, 1973–84, and there is a supplementary listing for 1971–72. Indexes of authors, editors and reviewers, and topics complete the volume.

A Biographical Dictionary of Irish Writers by Anne M. Brady and Brian Cleeve (Giggingstown, Ireland, Lilliput Pr., New York, St. Martin’s, 1985. 387p. $35) is a revised and expanded version of Cleeve’s Dictio-
nary of Irish Writers (Cork, 1967-71. 3v.). It aims "to offer as much biographical and critical material as possible in the given space, about as many Irish writers as possible, from the time of St. Patrick to the present day." —Pref. There are separate sections for writers in English and for writers in Irish and Latin.

Tomo 2 of the third edition of José Simón Díaz's Bibliografía de la Literatura Hispánica (Madrid, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Instituto de Filología, 1986. 604p.) represents a revised and updated version of the first part of tomo 3 of the second edition (1963; Guide BD1139). It covers "Literatura Castellana, Edad Media" and has its own indexes of authors/titles, of libraries mentioned as holding specific works, and of subjects.

Old Master Print References: A Selected Bibliography by Lauris Mason, Joan Ludman and Harriet P. Krauss (White Plains, N.Y., Kraus Intnl. Pub., 1986. 279p. $70) is the latest addition to the publisher's "Print Reference Series" (see Guide BE346-BE347), which provides bibliographic references to works dealing with prints, printmakers, and the art of printmaking. This volume includes more than 3,000 citations to books, periodical articles, and exhibition and dealer catalogs.

Early Motion Pictures: The Paper Print Collection in the Library of Congress by Kemp Niver (Washington, D.C., Library of Congress, Motion Picture, Broadcasting, and Recorded Sound Div., 1985. 509p. $24) is a revision, expansion, and updating of Niver's Motion Pictures from the Library of Congress Paper Print Collection (Berkeley, 1967; Guide BG218). It serves as a guide to the more than 3,000 films restored from the paper print collection at the library, giving detailed information about the films. Indexes of credits (actors, actresses, cameramen, directors, scriptwriters and authors) and of names/subjects enhance its usefulness for the film historian.

William H. Webb and associates have produced a third edition of Sources of Information in the Social Sciences (Chicago, American Library Assn., 1986. 777p. $70). The work formerly edited by Carl M. White (2d ed., 1973; Guide CA9). Basic plan and purpose remain the same, with some variations in the arrangement within major sections. Eleven of the twenty contributors are new to the edition; some sections show considerable reworking, while in other cases the revision has been largely a matter of updating the existing text. There is a good, detailed index, but a remarkable dearth of introductory matter.

British Political Facts, 1900-1985 by David and Gareth Butler (New York, St. Martin's, 1986. 536p. $45) represents a sixth edition of a work first published in 1963, which covered through 1960 (see Guide CJ331). Updated and modified through successive editions, it now offers a wide range of facts, lists, and tables on government ministries, political parties, Parliament, elections, the civil service, royal commissions, social conditions, the economy, and related topics through 1985.

While it seeks to correct certain "inaccuracies or omissions in the earlier editions [Guide DA43]" (Pref.), the principal change in the second revised edition of R. Ernest and Trevor N. Dupuy's Encyclopedia of Military History (New York, Harper & Row, 1986. 1524p. $39.95) is the inclusion of an addendum (p.1346-1400), which covers events and developments of 1975-84. The bibliography has been slightly expanded; there is a separate index to the addendum section.

Twenty-four historians have contributed bibliographies and commentary to A Guide to the Sources of United States Military History: Supplement II, edited by Robin Higham and Donald J. Mrozek (Hampden, Conn., Archon Books, 1986. 332p. $42.50). The volume concentrates on publications of the 1978-83 period, and item numbers in the bibliography are continuous with those in the first supplement (1981; Guide DB28).

"In a reference work published serially it is necessary to make information from the early volumes accessible before the work is complete." That prefatory statement explains the editors' decision to provide an "Interim Index" to the early volumes of the Dictionary of the Middle Ages (Guide DA164). Published in 1985, the 190-page, paperbound index is issued free to subscribers. It offers detailed indexing of volume 1-4, gives page references for the
entry terms in volume 5, and indicates volume number for entries scheduled to appear in the remainder of the 12-volume set. With the appearance of volume 7 in 1986, the Dictionary now covers through "Mabinogi."

Volume 6 of Chris Cook's *Sources in British Political History, 1900-1951* (London, Macmillan, 1985. 272p. £25) is designated as "First Consolidated Supplement" to the five-volume series published 1975-78 (Guide DC287). It not only reports on additional collections of source materials, but updates (e.g., indicates changes of location) or expands information about numerous archives reported in the earlier volumes.—E.S.
Letters

To The Editor:

David Lewis, in "An Organizational Paradigm for Effective Academic Libraries" (C&RL, 47:4, July 1986), does a really good job of melding some contemporary organizational structure theory into a compound that might work for libraries. But it will probably take a lot of research to make the connection between structure and library effectiveness. Furthermore, as I have suggested elsewhere, structure alone has little demonstrated effect on organizational effectiveness. It is structure and contingency factors that impact on organizational outcomes, apparently.

I hope that the research I now have underway, examining the organizational-level effectiveness of academic libraries in six U.S. Eastern states will help us begin to map out the library organizational effectiveness construct territory. Structure may emerge as a key variable. In a small way, perhaps, this may also help to vindicate librarians who, after Charles Perrow, have felt that designing and managing the structure of the (library) organizational change and problem solving. As Perrow states, "This enormous potential for changing behavior can be utilized without substantial outside resources or time taken from productive activity, without invasion of privacy and without discontinuity between what is preached and what is actually allowed to be practiced" (Organizational Analysis: A Sociological View, 1970, p.176). "Touchy-feely" approaches may be needed where conditions are truly bad. But, I suspect, most people would much rather respond and adjust to a rational structure intelligently erected than to psychological manipulation inexpertly applied (or, to be blunt, to library bosses and ARPT committees who really don't know what they are doing, but are willing to mess around with my psyche, anyway).

Finally, Henry Mintzberg's name is, unfortunately, given as Mitzberg throughout Lewis's paper.

JOSEPH MC DONALD
Holy Family College, Philadelphia

To the Editor:

The article by Dale Montanelli and Patricia Stenstrom (C&RL September, 1986) on the benefits of research for academic librarians did not fire me up to do research. It did, though, explain what is wrong with much academic research. Personal advancement and recognition are not acceptable motives for engaging in research. What should fire people up is a burning desire to expand knowledge or produce something useful to mankind. If personal promotion is what drives most academics, no wonder so much drivel is produced.

JOHN H. WILDE
Librarian, Erskine College, South Carolina
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The author applies her many years of experience as a designer and teacher of document-based subject access systems to the description of the three principal components of such systems: file, collection, and terminology. She addresses issues concerning the file first and covers topics such as manual and computerized file organization; print, microform, and machine-readable storage media; alphabetical and classified file arrangement; and syndetic structure. The collection component is then discussed in terms of four variables: (1) the design of the collection of discrete documents to be indexed, (2) the parts of individual documents that are used as the sources of indexable matter, (3) the size of the unit of indexable information, and (4) the number of entries per document. The terminology component covers the selection of indexable subject terms from documents themselves, i.e., derivative and assigned indexing and policy decisions in the design of a controlled vocabulary for assigned indexing.

Milstead concludes each chapter with helpful chapter summaries and ends her monograph with a summary chapter that shows how the choices made for one component of a subject access system affect those in another. She includes a six-page case study of the design of a newspaper index for the *Washington Post* as an example that demonstrates how the principles she has discussed might be adopted. It is here, however, that the confusion in the author’s purpose becomes most evident: she notes in the introduction that the book is an intermediate-level manual in which the development of a subject access system is presented sequentially, but the book is not organized in a logical sequence. For example, Milstead begins the work with a discussion of file characteristics and then discusses the collection (the second component) to be indexed. In practice, however, designers ordinarily face these issues in the reverse order: they begin with the reality of the collection, and only afterward can they deal with issues that relate to file structure. She seems to confirm this herself; in fact, in her case study, the first issue broached is the description of the document collection.

The author assumes that readers already have a working knowledge of related concepts such as bibliographic description, Boolean-based online subject searching, and information retrieval systems. Her failure to provide figures and illustrations for most important characteristics of collection, subject terminologies, and files may have resulted from her expectation that this book’s readers will already be knowledgeable of these three components. For example, the inclusion of figures and illustrations for such topics as alphabetical and classified arrangements, postcoordinate and precoordinate indexing, bibliographic description, and subject authority records bearing scope and history notes, could be helpful to system designers who must face decisions regarding these various characteristics when selecting an indexing technique. One of the few illustrations provided is that given for a comparison of derivative
index entries with and without subarrangement, which beautifully illustrates the author's discussion. Many more such illustrations would benefit the reader immeasurably.

Designers of subject access systems for material in historical societies, archives, libraries, and museums will find this book a valuable resource for general principles of subject access. Although the author limits her discussion to documentary (i.e., print) systems, designers of subject access systems for graphic material—for example, architectural drawings, political campaign buttons, and movie posters—will find Milstead's three components of subject access systems generalizable to their system development work.—Karen Markey, OCLC Online Computer Library Center, Inc., Dublin, Ohio.


"There are few professions as dependent on successful interpersonal communication and persuasion as ours. As practicing librarians know well, ours is not a book- or periodical-based profession; these are only tools of the trade. Librarianship is a people profession and we are only as successful as our ability to interact with others makes us." These words from Herbert White’s introduction succinctly set the rationale and tone for his work on personnel management. I would classify this book as a "translator" volume. Part of the Professional Librarian Series from Knowledge Industry, it "translates" an important area of management study and practice into a book for librarians through the experience base of a well-known and respected professional.

As a professional summation, it is well to remember that the emphasis, bias, and strength of the work reflect one individual's analysis of the personnel field. This volume is not, by definition, a "scholarly" survey of the literature but an opinion statement. The author's note emphasizes that is not a how-to book: it "enables the reader to identify and analyze personnel management problems and strives to contribute to the manager's ability to arrive at the correct solutions to specific problematic situations as they arise." The volume is compact and very readable, and its style and practical approach made me feel as if I were in conversation with the author.

Librarians look for several things from a professional review. They want a review so precise and insightful that the summary of contents could substitute for the actual book! It must have been difficult for White to synthesize and select from the large amount of literature and experience found on "personnel." For me as a reviewer to further reduce such a large body of management thought would be a disservice to the reader. A partial list of chapter headings demonstrates the currency and structure of the book: "Basic Concepts in Personnel Management," "Staff Functions in the Library Organizational Structure," "Adapting to Changes in Technology," "Employee Recruitment and Selection," "Wage and Salary Administration," "Present and Future Issues for Library Managers."

The author writes for several audiences and one is obviously the library school student. He offers several "Personnel Problem Exercises" that could be used in a case review. No longer a student, my first reaction to this section was skepticism; however, when I finished reading the exercises, I was hoping for more. I have met almost every one of those people and situations discussed somewhere in my career.

The bibliography is short but effective and primarily reviews library literature. White found three monographs especially useful and recommends them for those wishing more in-depth coverage: Dale S. Beach’s Personnel, The Management of People at Work; Loren B. Belker’s First Time Manager and Murray S. Martin’s Issues in Personnel Management in Academic Libraries.

Although I am not willing to summarize this work, I am willing to suggest those who could benefit from reading it: (1) a graduate student in library school who has this book for a text and wants to complete the course; (2) a graduate student in library school, or a very recent graduate who was unable to take a specialized per-
sonnel course, would find it a particularly efficient way to review basic issues in this field; (3) a librarian new to supervision/personnel work or one in administration (not by choice) who would like to review the field or go into management. (4) Experienced managers have already "translated" the field of personnel through their own experiences. It is unlikely that they will find much that is new or innovative here. However, this work may be a perfect way to review one's own knowledge level and to help one realize that current personnel issues and problems (all managers have them) are similar to those other managers in the field have experienced. (5) As a graduate of Indiana University Library School, I feel this book would offer other graduates who did not attend during Herbert White's tenure an insight into the teaching and writing skills of the current dean. (This last plug will hopefully serve in lieu of my paying membership dues to the alumni association.)

Personnel management may not be a large part of a library administrator's duties but, in most instances, it takes the greatest amount of emotional time and energy to do well. White follows current management-school thought and states that each situation must be analyzed for its unique features. There are no easy, standard rules in personnel management. Because there is never a "final answer" to some problems, books like this continue to be useful and important to our profession. —Sherman Hayes, Solomon R. Baker Library, Bentley College, Waltham, Massachusetts.


This book grew out of a seminar on the economics of research libraries, organized by the Council on Library Resources as a series of meetings during 1984 and 1985. Its purpose is to help library directors and university administrators make better use of cost information for strategic planning, budgeting, and forecasting.

The book is partly a review of the literature and partly a discussion of current is-
sues in academic library costs and funding, with special attention to the effects of new technology and cooperation on both management and costs. It also presents the results of some studies of costs of operating research libraries and of formal library cooperation programs sponsored by CLR in recent years. The "Summary and Conclusions" chapter is a recap of seminar highlights. The book also contains three substantive appendixes: one by Michael Cooper on "Economic Issues and Trends in Economic Libraries"; one by Mark Cain, reporting on four case studies of university library management and rapid technological change; and an annotated bibliography on user fees and library economics by Jane Rosenberg.

The value of a good literature review is twofold: first, in the way that it organizes the literature and links publications it gives the reader a map of its subject, organizing the questions and concerns of the field by way of the relationships among publications. Second, it digests the literature, indicating which is the most important, pointing the reader toward literature relevant to his or her concerns and reporting the highlights of works that the reader may never see. This book does review a large body of important literature that has not been brought together before. However, it does not succeed very well at either of a literature review's missions.

Its structure is confusing. User fees, for example, are discussed in at least three different places. The succession of subjects often seems arbitrary. The overall effect is fragmentation: the reader gets useful snippets of information, but loses the overall structure. (The appendix by Cooper is an example of how the book could have been structured more effectively.)

As a digest of the literature, the comprehensiveness of the coverage of certain subjects is questionable. For example, the discussion headed "Cost Accounting in Libraries" refers almost exclusively to attempts to determine the costs of library automation—not the same subject. Some of Kantor's important work on academic library costs and economies of scale is cited, but some of his other equally relevant work is missed.

The book suffers some from occasional misstatements and lack of clarity: it seems to need a knowledgeable editor. For example, a lengthy discussion of "unit costs" never specifies whether that means average or marginal costs. "Cost benefits" is used repeatedly as a noun, a novel construction. The cryptic summary of D'Elia and Walsh's path-breaking research on user evaluation of libraries and library services is inadequate for the reader unfamiliar with the original. And the author periodically interjects editorial comments with which his readers will take issue: for example, he misquotes Herb White as saying that in libraries, cost-benefit determination is meaningless and cost accounting pointless, then concludes that "this attitude suggests that librarians are irresponsible managers and consequently cannot be trusted to handle large budgets." The non sequitur is not White's. (This reference was wrong, too.)

The book does, however, cover a large body of literature, and, commendably, is not limited exclusively to research libraries. It is a useful if flawed introduction to some of the major problems and research findings on the costs of research libraries. And the author makes some provocative conjectures about the effect of changing technology on the academic library. This is an area where everyone wishes for a crystal ball; Cummings doesn't have one, but he does raise some interesting possibilities.—Nancy Van House, School of Library and Information Studies, University of California, Berkeley.


As library instruction moved into the eighties, its advocates and implementors found that they had learned a great deal from the disciplines of education, psy-
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chology, and information science. It was only natural that instruction librarians then began to look beyond the classroom walls at the broader arena in which they operated, and to investigate disciplines such as sociology and public relations. The LOEX conferences, sponsored under the leadership of Carolyn Kirkendall, are traditionally on the cutting edge of innovation. The proceedings of the thirteenth Library Instruction Conference, of which this volume is a compilation, are no exception—they pave the way for the integration of marketing concepts into the practice of library instruction.

As with any good professional conference, program offerings ranged from the sublimely theoretical to the prescriptively practical—a little consciousness raising and a little exemplification. And as any good opening paper would, Elizabeth Wood’s comments span this spectrum. She discusses why instruction librarians should market their services and what self-serving obstacles they must overcome to do so effectively. She then goes on to provide a capsule summary of marketing theory and practice, complete with definitions, underlying principles, and steps to follow. In spite of a slight excess of jargon and transparencies, her instructions on how to implement a marketing program are informative and useful.

The underlying themes of the conference should have struck a familiar chord for the instruction librarians in attendance. One does not need formal training in marketing to recognize the tenets of model marketing performance, for they closely parallel the principles of good teaching. The emphasis of both services is on the consumer. Both marketing and instructional theory advocate that one analyze the needs of one’s clientele, plan programs appropriate to those needs, prioritize programs, package products in a manner that is appealing and memorable, and promote products with enthusiasm and conviction. Paula Warnken’s paper about her experience in adapting the Earlham model at Xavier draws heavily on the work of marketing theorist Phillip Kotler and clearly demonstrates the similarities between these disciplines. Many of Peggy Barber’s remarks in “Ten Things I Have Learned about Public Relations” could also easily have been about teaching.

Several papers in the collection indicate that the issues associated with marketing service organizations are just one step removed from the issues confronting instruction librarians in defining their roles in general. Warnken, for example, discusses the decade-old question of whether library instruction should be targeted to those with the greatest need, to those who are easiest to reach, or to the nonusers. Ian Malley’s reflections on the lack of library instruction marketing in the United Kingdom subtly enumerate the environmental, cultural, and political circumstances needed to support and encourage wide-scale library instruction efforts. Virginia Tiefel’s and Goodwin Berquist’s companion pieces about the library instruction program at Ohio State University demonstrate a case in point of how librarians can, over time, be accepted by faculty as partners in the teaching-learning process and how marketing can facilitate that transition. As the reviewers read through the volume, we found ourselves asking “Are we marketing library instruction or are we marketing ourselves?”

In her introduction to the volume, the editor explains that the scope of the conference was limited in several ways. The lack of attention to needs assessment and evaluation is justified by the amount of literature already available on those topics. On the other hand, the nearly exclusive focus on the marketing of course-related instruction to faculty seems less than helpful to the novice marketer. So much of a library instruction program’s success is determined by how it is perceived by administrators, how it is received by students, and how it is implemented by librarians. More mention should have been made of methods of guaranteeing success with these consumers and providers as well. However, the inclusion of seven poster session abstracts helped to fill this gap, as they highlight specific attempts to employ marketing techniques in specific library instruction programs. The bibliography on marketing library and informa-
tion services by Kirkendall, Hannelore Rader’s 1983 annotated bibliography on library orientation and instruction, and reproductions of handouts also add significantly to the value of the book.

William Miller’s paper features prominently among the conference offerings. Speculating upon the consequences of overzealous advertisement on already deteriorating library collections and already overworked library staffs, he alludes to the need for skeptical investigation and strategic planning before advertising such a labor-intensive service. While one can debate the appropriateness of marketing library instruction, it is important to keep in mind a distinction between marketing a package and marketing a quality product. It is doubtful that any of the speakers would endorse a full-scale adoption of private sector marketing to library instruction. Rather, the conference proceedings do an excellent job of introducing the concepts, outlining appropriate steps in implementing marketings, cautioning against potential pitfalls, and providing examples of library-specific applications. As library instruction seeks to enhance its visibility in the eighties, this volume will serve as a stepping stone and a guidepost along the way. —Tara Lynn Fulton, Northwestern University Library, Evanston, Illinois.

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College & Research Libraries
Prepared by Eldon W. Tamblyn

ABBR EV IAT I ONS
Standard abbreviations are used except in titles. Names of some organizations, ALA, ACRL, LC, etc., are also abbreviated and are alphabetized as if spelled out.

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