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Editorial

Improving Quality: Organizational Benefits of Total Quality Management

My last editorial advocated improving the quality of articles submitted to the journal by avoiding several common foibles. Now I want to share some ideas about improving organizational quality through the use of total quality management thinking in the organization. Last year Don Riggs wrote an editorial about the benefits of total quality management for running an effective library. Penn State University is also actively involved in quality work through a Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI) program using the Oregon State model for process analysis. Our experiences are generalizable to other institutions and answer the "so what" question about the value of total quality management. Two specific benefits of CQI thinking are team initiative and customer focus.

Team initiative: Uncertain and falling state support has caused many institutions to examine priorities. Planning for a 10 percent cut encouraged Penn State library administrators to examine operations carefully. This impetus, combined with the promotion of the chief for acquisitions to an associate dean's position in another university, provided an opportunity for reorganizing the acquisitions department. Instead of making a predictable change in internal structure, CQI thinking necessitated consultation with the owners of the process—the staff in acquisitions.

In a half-day facilitated working session, the staff generated many innovative ideas. This group had already identified a number of redundant and outdated processes. Now they settled into the question of how their whole enterprise might operate. Two breakout groups generated the idea of self-directed work teams, while other groups addressed a lack of staff empowerment. As the name suggests, a self-directed work team is "a highly trained, committed team of employees fully responsible for turning out a final product or service." The team eventually manages the work assigned to it through agreement rather than from the directions of a supervisor. Most of the staff had attended total quality management introductory lectures, which probably provided the seed for this idea. Eventually, almost the whole department either endorsed the self-directed work team idea or expressed a willingness to try it.

Because staff had only a vague conception of what the acquisitions librarians did, their suggestions about departmental governance were more predictable. Librarian managers need to communicate the nature of their special organizational contributions more clearly, as Larry R. Oberg has noted in his work on paraprofessionals. Working to prepare a finished recommendation on reorganization, the Penn State Libraries' Human Resources Manager Nancy Slaybaugh, the university's specialist on organizational design Anita Schmidt, and I decided to initiate team management by asking the order librarians, receiving librarian, and approval plan librarian to form an Acquisitions Management Team that would assume the duties of the chief for acquisitions.

The risks were considerable: To whom would staff report? Who would be "responsible"? How would the
team participate in more general library governance? With whom would vendors work? Who would coordinate with collection development, cataloging, and campuses? How exactly would day-to-day problems be resolved? One of my mentor's repeated observations that a library is not a hospital emergency room and reassured me that all these problems could be solved.

The advantages were compelling. If three librarians who had adopted an every-woman-for-herself approach to the interim period could forge a team, the remainder of the acquisitions department would realize that they, too, could make a transition to team management. The libraries would gain three people who were thoroughly trained in all acquisitions issues as well as in the dynamics of team management. Any one of them could assume leadership in a difficult situation. The libraries and the university would have another example of the principle of CQI empowerment at work. The salary from the chief's position could be contributed to the impending cut.

The transition is difficult. Schmidt's aggressive training program for the new team members has only begun. Becoming a team is a mystery—time-consuming, emotionally taxing, and somewhat frightening. As they did with CQI, the staff has taken a wait-and-see attitude. Building trust is an incremental process, and some are impatient. Yet many others are optimistic. Empowering staff, reducing management layers, and streamlining operations are CQI objectives that can add quality through alternative organizational solutions.

Customer focus: Many of the processes initially undergoing CQI review here are ones whose customers are internal. For instance, preorder searching has acquisitions and selectors as its customers. This team and others (serials check-in, materials budget invoices, equipment ordering, wage payroll, campus added-volume marking, and faculty recruitment processes) have focused on increasing efficiencies internally, eventually to serve users—students, faculty, staff, and others—better. In the past, some internal customer needs have been aggrandized, misinterpreted, and immortalized. Changing procedures without the analytical framework of total quality management has allowed unnecessary steps to be perpetuated. CQI review identifies these anachronisms, and teams move through a process of quick fixes that can return needed resources to the organization.

Organizations regularly engaging in quality exercises seek the opinions of external customers, too. Even when we are not engaged in a formal CQI endeavor, we think in terms of customer needs. Too often libraries do not know what the customer wants or needs. Our students report in surveys that they want more books to be on the shelf, but will they, and the faculty, accept a shorter loan period to accomplish that? What are students' needs for information about due dates? What would be student reaction to a self-charge system? How can students become more empowered to recall materials desired?

As the College & Research Libraries editor, I regularly urge a more aggressive approach to research in librarianship; too few of our decisions are based on data. Total quality management brings that research/knowing approach into the arena of daily library processes. Communicating with both internal and external customers helps to maximize our effectiveness in this area.

Emphases on team initiative and on understanding customer needs have helped the Penn State Libraries to respond to the strains of shrinking resources. In addition to the revised processes that result from structured total quality management work, we have also realized benefits from applying quality principles to other organizational problems. As in writing articles for this journal, selecting problems that need solving and using innovative approaches to them can improve library quality.

GLORIANA ST. CLAIR
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The Managerial Decision Styles of Academic Library Directors

Terrence F. Mech

The decision styles of 370 academic library directors are examined using the Decision Style Inventory. Survey results indicate that most directors have an idea rather than an action orientation; with the exception of directors at baccalaureate institutions, they are primarily left-brain dominant. However, there are significant differences in the preferred decision styles among directors at doctoral, comprehensive, baccalaureate, and two-year institutions.

While the powers of the autocratic library director have been curtailed by the advancement of enlightened principles of participative management, library directors will continue to influence, make, and be responsible for hundreds of decisions. The consequences of some decisions may have long-term ramifications for library personnel and operations. Because library directors are not all alike, an understanding of directors' decision styles and the influence of cognitive preferences on decisions may improve our understanding of library managers and management.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Very little is written about librarians' decision-making methods. However, studies concerning librarians' cognitive approaches may shed some light on how librarians make decisions. Research has already established a relationship between cognitive style and decision making. Cognitive style, a characteristic mode of perceptual and intellectual functioning, is the way individuals perceive and process information. According to J. Hill, "Cognitive styles are determined by the way individuals take note of their surroundings—how they seek meaning, how they become informed. Are they listeners or are they readers? Are they concerned only with their own viewpoint or are they influenced in decision-making by their families or associates?" At an early age, individuals develop preferred ways of perceiving and thinking that serve them well and remain relatively unchanged over their lifetimes.

The field dependence/field independence dimension is an aspect of...
A cognitive style that has been studied extensively. Field dependence/field independence differentiates individuals according to how they view an object in relation to its surroundings. Field dependence is the tendency to see an object in context—to have a more integrated approach to perception. Field independence is a tendency to take an analytical approach by separating the object from its context or environment. Field dependent individuals tend to be more aware of social frames of reference, are more sensitive to nonverbal communication, and may appear more warm, tactful, considerate and socially outgoing than field independent individuals. Because they are less inclined to separate objects from their environments, field dependent individuals prefer more holistic, intuitive approaches to problem solving.

Field independent individuals tend to be more impersonal in working with others. They are better able to work alone and are more interested in theoretical and abstract tasks. Individuals with high field independence prefer problem-solving methods that emphasize detail and basic relationships. The social skills of field dependents contrast with the analytical skills of the field independents.

Information science students with undergraduate majors in the arts, sciences, humanities, and history tend to be more field independent. Those with undergraduate degrees in education, the social sciences, and library science, on the other hand, tend to be more field dependent. Students with a preference for reference tend to be field dependent. Reference librarians' field dependence does not vary by type of institutional affiliation (public, academic, or special), but subject specialists tend to be more field independent.

A study of communication and cognitive style shows that while library science students prefer written rather than verbal forms of communication, they do use and interpret nonverbal language (i.e., body language, vocal intonation) when communicating verbally. These future librarians tend to accept their own view of situations and only rely secondarily on the views of their peers and associates. If communication breaks down, the library science students tend to see others as being at fault for the miscommunication. When they are actively involved in a situation they may hear what they want to hear, or they may appear aloof.

Recent studies use David A. Kolb's learning style theory to explore librarians' cognitive styles. Kolb sees the learning process as a four-stage cycle (concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation) and identifies four different learning styles (converger, diverger, assimilator, and accommodator). An individual's preferences for a cycle in the learning process influences which learning style he or she develops.

Very little is written about librarians' decision-making methods. However, studies concerning librarians' cognitive approaches may shed some light on how librarians make decisions.

Convergers prefer abstract and active learning and are strong in the practical application of ideas to problem-solving tasks. They tend to have narrow interests, be unemotional, and prefer to deal with things rather than people. Divergers, the opposite of convergers, prefer reflective and concrete learning and approach problems broadly and imaginatively. They tend to have wide interests, to be emotional, and to be people-oriented. Assimilators prefer abstract and reflective learning and are good at inductive reasoning and theory building. They are less interested in people and less concerned with the practical use of theories. Accommodators prefer concrete and active learning and are good at carrying out plans. They are doers and tend to take risks. They tend to solve problems by trial and error, to rely on others for information, and are not strongly analytical.

Using Kolb's learning style theory, Jana Varlejs found librarians more likely to be divergers (33.3 percent) and to have weak abstract conceptualization skills.
In a larger study, Jin M. Choi discovered that librarians are more likely to be assimilators (38.6 percent), followed by convergers (27.1 percent), divergers (19.3 percent), and accommodators (15 percent). Unlike Varlejs, Choi’s findings suggest librarians have strong abstract conceptualization skills. While women frequently had a more divergent learning style than men, no significant differences were found between men and women librarians or between public and technical services librarians. These and other studies highlight variations in cognitive styles found in professions such as librarianship. Identifying a particular profession with a particular cognitive style is inaccurate and misleading, and fails to recognize the considerable flexibility of professions to accommodate individuals with diverse cognitive styles.

These studies demonstrate that librarians are cognitively diverse, and that particular attributes may be associated with certain cognitive styles. However, larger and more detailed studies are required before the definitive discussion is held. While these previous studies focused on librarians’ cognitive styles, the present study examines decision styles, of which cognitive style is only one element. This exploratory study profiles the decision-making approaches of academic library directors and examines the extent to which directors’ decision styles vary among the different types of institutions.

DECISION STYLE THEORY

This study uses the Decision Style Inventory, developed by Alan Rowe, to profile the decision styles of academic library directors. Four contextual variables are relevant to decision making: the reaction of the decision maker to the work environment, the people in the organization, the task to be performed, and the personal needs of the decision maker. A decision maker’s response to these variables is determined, in part, by the individual’s decision style. An individual’s approach to decisions is intrinsic to the individual and can be modified, depending on the situational factors and the individual’s ability to cope with expectations.

Rowe’s theory of decision style combines cognitive complexity with an individual’s concerns for tasks or people, in order to create a holistic look at decision styles. An individual’s (1) perception and receptivity to stimuli, (2) ability to handle information and to reach meaningful conclusions, (3) intuition or creativity needed to find workable alternatives, and (4) the skills needed to make the decision become reality are all elements of an individual’s decision style.

Figure 1 shows the decision style model. The vertical axis represents cognitive complexity and the horizontal axis represents environmental concerns or values. The less cognitively complex individual tends to perceive the environment in terms of few or rigid rules of information processing and has a high need for structure, whereas the individual possessing a high degree of cognitive complexity is able to integrate diverse cues and has a greater tolerance for ambiguity.

The horizontal dimension of the model addresses the environment in which a person finds herself and her response to it. A more focused individual will generally prefer technical or task-oriented environments. On the other hand, an individual with more divergent interests will tend to prefer the more social or people-oriented environment. According to the model, the technically oriented individual is left-brain dominant; i.e., a logical or analytical person. The right half of the model corresponds with those individuals who reason inductively and who think in broad or spatial terms and are gregarious, right-brain dominant.

The four decision styles are directive, analytical, conceptual, and behavioral. The directive style has a low tolerance for ambiguity and is focused on task and technical concerns. Directives emphasize speed and action and thus use limited information and few alternatives. They tend to be aggressive and authoritarian, and focus internally on the organization with short-range and tight controls. While they may be effec-
Tolerance for Ambiguity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Left-Brain</th>
<th>Right-Brain</th>
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<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>Conceptual</td>
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<td>logical</td>
<td>systems</td>
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<td>abstract</td>
<td>creative</td>
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Idea Orientation

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<th>Proactive</th>
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<tr>
<td>Proactive</td>
<td>Manager</td>
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<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>Reactive</td>
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Action Orientation

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<th>Directive</th>
<th>Behavioral</th>
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<tr>
<td>focused</td>
<td>support</td>
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<tr>
<td>results</td>
<td>empathy</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Task Orientation

<table>
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<tr>
<th>People</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
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Need for Structure


**FIGURE 1**
Decision Style Model

tive at achieving results, directives have a great need for power and prefer tangible rewards over intrinsic rewards. Directive individuals do well in structured, goal-oriented bureaucracies or other places where power and authority are important. These individuals are criticized for being too rigid, impersonal, simplistic, and autocratic.24

The analytical style has a high tolerance for ambiguity and is also oriented toward task and technical concerns. Analytics use considerable information and are very careful in the examination of alternatives. They tend to optimize problem solutions and enjoy challenges. They often reach top positions and are innovative in their solutions to problems. They prefer written reports and look for variety in their work. The analytical and the directive styles are both logical in their approach. Analytic individuals do well in impersonal situations, like planning or solving complex problems. Frequently these people are perceived to be dogmatic, overcontrolling,
impersonal, careful, abstract, and sometimes too slow in performing tasks. The conceptual style has a high tolerance for ambiguity (considerable complexity) and is interested in people and social concerns. Conceptuals are generally broad and future-oriented thinkers who take a system's perspective. They value quality, prefer openness, and share goals with subordinates. They are very creative and have a deep organizational commitment. They are high achievers who need praise and recognition. They tend to be very independent and refuse to be pressured; they prefer loose control to power and enjoy interacting with others. Conceptual individuals do well in loose, decentralized, or open organizations. These individuals are criticized for being dilettantes, too idealistic, indecisive, imaginative, slow, and difficult to control.

The behavioral style has a low tolerance for ambiguity and is oriented toward people and social concerns. Behavioralists are supportive, good listeners, receptive to suggestions, and communicate easily. They exhibit warmth and will accept loose control. They prefer meetings to reports, and do not use much data in making decisions. Their focus tends to be social with short-range goals. The behavioral and conceptual style people are less logical in their approach than the directive and analytical. Behavioral individuals do well in well-designed, people-oriented, and collegial settings. These people are perceived to be sensitive and perhaps too concerned about others; they tend to have difficulty in making hard decisions and saying no.

The Decision Style Inventory generates four basic scores (directive, analytical, conceptual, and behavioral) and several combination scores (left-brain and right-brain dominance as well as idea and action orientation). According to Rowe and Mason, the Decision Style Inventory is "conceptually and empirically consistent" with the Myers-Brigg Type Indicator. The twenty-item forced-choice Decision Style Inventory has a test-retest correlation of .7. Like the Myers-Brigg Type Indicator the Decision Style Inventory is not intended to be a predictive instrument, but rather a tool for personal discovery.

**LEFT/RIGHT-BRAIN DOMINANCE AND IDEA/ACTION ORIENTATIONS**

Brain dominance refers to an individual's tendency to think and act according to the characteristics of one side of the brain rather than the other. Research on the human brain shows that logical and linear functions occur in the left hemisphere, while the holistic, relational functions occur in the right hemisphere. The brain's left side governs the ability to use language, writing, and mathematics, to perform logical deductions and other types of analysis, and to enforce self-discipline. The right side governs visual, spatial, artistic, and intuitive concepts, imagination, and spontaneous play. Word opposites can be used to distinguish the two modes of brain dominance, left versus right; explicit versus implicit; verbal versus spatial; argument versus experience; intellectual versus intuitive; and analytical versus gestalt.

Left-brain dominant people process information in a sequential manner and prefer solving problems by breaking them down into parts and approaching them sequentially, using logic. They prefer working with concrete data (rather than nebulous or unstructured data) and like to complete one project before beginning another. These individuals tend to remember names rather than faces: they prefer hierarchical structures, and like their work preplanned and structured. Left-brain oriented individuals like to work alone in a quiet setting, doing tasks that involve analysis, numerical reasoning, problem solving, and achieving results. They like to be in control and focus on the work to be done. Occupations like engineering, accounting, research, law, computer technology, and science attract left-brain-oriented individuals.

Right-brain dominant people enjoy change, flexible schedules, taking on new challenges, and working on several projects at once. Working well under deadlines, many of these individuals...
tend to leave projects or reports until the last minute. They prefer solving problems by looking at the whole for patterns and by using hunches and intuition; they are better at conceptualizing the whole picture rather than attending to all the details involved. These individuals tend to remember faces rather than names, prefer collegial structures, and feel comfortable in fluid and spontaneous situations. Right-brain individuals prefer work that involves people, requires intuition or creativity, and involves visual perspective or broad thinking. They tend to be less focused in their thinking, more open about their emotions, and more influenced by their emotions than left-brain individuals are. Right-brained people are attracted to careers in the arts, entertainment, teaching, writing, architecture, decorating, counseling, advertising, marketing, sales, and ministry. 33

Rowe's Decision Style Inventory also measures an individual's preference for ideas or action. Idea-oriented individuals are more concerned with thinking, analysis, perspective, judgment, visualization, innovation, creativity, and new approaches. Action-oriented individuals are concerned with achieving results. They work well with others and find occupations that require direct involvement, achieving results, and interacting with the public. 34

THE STUDY

In October 1990, the Decision Style Inventory and a supplementary questionnaire were mailed to 600 library directors—150 directors from each of the American Association of University Professors' institutional categories: Doctoral (I), Comprehensive (IIA), Baccalaureate (IIB), and Two-year (III). 35 Usable responses were received from 370 directors, constituting a 62 percent return. During the analysis the institutions were further classified using the Carnegie Classifications. This was particularly useful with baccalaureate institutions, which were separated into selective and less selective colleges.

The chi-square, t-test, Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, and analysis of variance programs from the SPSS statistical package were used to analyze the data. The level of statistical significance for this study is .05.

INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

While 46 percent of the directors are women, women are least likely to be directors at comprehensive institutions (only 38 percent—see table 1). Women are more likely to be directors at baccalaureate institutions, particularly among the less selective liberal arts institutions. While there is no significant age difference between men (50.4) and women

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**TABLE 1**

**CHARACTERISTICS OF DIRECTORS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Doctoral (n = 80)</th>
<th>Comprehensive (n = 104)</th>
<th>Baccalaureate (n = 100)</th>
<th>Community (n = 86)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public/Private</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>M: 50.6, SD: 6.3</td>
<td>M: 50.9, SD: 9.5</td>
<td>M: 49.5, SD: 11.4</td>
<td>M: 49.1, SD: 9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of library experience</td>
<td>22.8, SD: 5.5a</td>
<td>22.8, SD: 7.2ac</td>
<td>19.0, SD: 7.9b</td>
<td>19.8, SD: 7.4d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of administrative experience</td>
<td>17.4, SD: 6.1a</td>
<td>17.3, SD: 7.8a</td>
<td>12.0, SD: 6.9b</td>
<td>13.5, SD: 7.6b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Refers to comparisons within a row where the mean scores of group* is significantly (*P* ≤ .05) higher than the mean scores of group*.

*Refers to comparisons within a row where the mean scores of group are significantly (*P* ≤ .05) higher than the mean scores of group*.
There are significant differences between men and women directors in their years of library experience and administrative experience. Males have significantly more years of library and administrative experience. Men directors average 21.9 years of library and 16.9 years of administrative experience compared with women's average of 20.2 years of library and 13.1 years of administrative experience.

The liberal arts and people-centered humanities influence appears to be something selective liberal arts colleges look for in their directors, perhaps to preserve their institutional uniqueness.

When these characteristics are analyzed by institutional type, an analysis of variance reveals significant differences in both the years of library experience and the years of administrative experience among the directors (see table 1). Further analysis (Scheffe's test) reveals that baccalaureate directors have less library experience than doctoral and comprehensive directors. Among the baccalaureate directors, those at the less selective liberal arts colleges have less library (17.5 years) and administrative (10.5 years) experience than directors at the more selective liberal arts colleges (22.8 years library and 15.5 years administrative experience). Community college directors have less library experience than comprehensive directors. Subsequently, baccalaureate and community college directors average less administrative experience than doctoral and comprehensive directors. There are no significant differences between directors at private and public-sponsored institutions with regard to age and years of library or administrative experience.

In addition to age, gender, and years of library and administrative experience, directors' undergraduate majors were tabulated also. Sixty-five percent of the directors majored in the humanities or history, while 23 percent majored in the social sciences, education, or library science as undergraduates. However, based on their undergraduate majors, directors do not significantly prefer one type of institution, decision style, or orientation over another.

**DECISION STYLE PROFILE**

Table 2 presents information on directors' decision styles and orientations. Scores within the very dominant category mean a particular style is used almost exclusively in most situations. Scores within the dominant range indicate a style is used frequently. The backup category reveals which styles are used when the occasion demands it. Scores within the least preferred category indicate a style is seldom used.

When the categories of very dominant and dominant are combined, the behavioral decision style is the predominate decision mode among comprehensive (38 percent), baccalaureate (53 percent), and community college (50 percent) directors. For comprehensive directors (36 percent), the directive is the second most popular style. Among baccalaureate directors (24 percent), conceptual is the next most preferred approach. The analytical decision style is the second most frequent mode among community college directors (36 percent). The preferred decision method among doctoral directors is the conceptual (38 percent) followed by the behavioral (36 percent). Baccalaureate and community college directors are the least likely to report a preference for the directive style (see table 2).

An analysis of variance reveals a significant difference in directors' behavioral scores (see table 3). Baccalaureate and community college directors have significantly higher behavioral scores than doctoral directors.

Further analysis reveals a significant negative correlation ($r = -.1377$) between behavioral style and years of administrative experience. Directors with less administrative experience are more likely to have a people-oriented behavioral style than directors with more administrative experience. Directors at private institutions tend to have significantly
### TABLE 2
MANAGERIAL DECISION STYLES & ORIENTATIONS (FREQUENCIES)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Doctoral  (n = 80)</th>
<th>Comprehensive  (n = 104)</th>
<th>Baccalaureate  (n = 100)</th>
<th>Community  (n = 86)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very dominant</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backup</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least preferred</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very dominant</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backup</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least preferred</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very dominant</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backup</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least preferred</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very dominant</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backup</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least preferred</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brain dominance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left-brain dominant</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right-brain dominant</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action/idea preference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Very dominant, scores more than a full standard deviation above the mean.
Dominant, scores between half and a full standard deviation above the mean.
Backup, scores half a standard deviation above or below the mean.
Least Preferred, scores more than half the standard deviation below the mean.

† The chi square value of 17.9 (9 df at a P value of .05) is statistically significant.
‡ The chi square value of 19.34 (9 df at a P value of .05) is statistically significant.
§ The chi square value of 22.97 (9 df at a P value of .05) is statistically significant.
‖ The chi square value of 8.81 (3 df at a P value of .05) is statistically significant.
higher behavioral scores than directors at public institutions. The more flexible administrative environment of private institutions, particularly small colleges, may attract behavioral style directors. Directors at smaller private colleges tend to have less administrative experience than directors at larger public institutions. As a result they may not have grown tired of “people problems.”

There is a significant correlation ($r = .123$) between age and directive style. As directors age, they may develop a more practical, factual, “here-and-now” approach. Age also correlates with left-brain ($r = .103$) and right-brain ($r = -.112$) orientations. As they grow older, directors may be inclined to logical thinking and less inclined to broad thinking, creativity, and concern for people. Perhaps as directors realize that they are rewarded more for results, they are less willing to spend mental and physical energy in order to be creative or concerned for people. It could also be that as directors gain experience and administrative skills they are less dependent on their social skills.

The left-brain scores of the directors are significantly higher than their right-brain scores (see table 3). With the exception of baccalaureate directors, the directors (61 percent) are predominantly left-brain oriented (see table 2). Among the baccalaureate directors, those at the more selective liberal arts colleges are more inclined to be right-brain oriented. Directors at highly selective liberal arts colleges tend to have undergraduate degrees from other highly selective colleges. The liberal arts and people-centered humanities influence appears to be something selective liberal arts colleges look for in their directors, perhaps to preserve their institutional uniqueness. Directors at the less selective liberal arts colleges are evenly split between the number of left-brain- and right-brain-dominant individuals among them. Less selective liberal arts colleges are more likely to have difficulty attracting career administrators. These directorships may be filled internally by individuals who did not actively seek the position or by individuals who are new to management. The result is perhaps a more heterogeneous collection of individuals rather than a group of self-selected career library administrators.

Overall, directors are significantly more likely to have an idea orientation than an action orientation (see table 2).
Idea-oriented directors (81 percent) consistently outnumbered action-oriented directors (18 percent) by almost four to one. This ratio, with some slight deviations, is found among the directors at all types of institutions. Directors' idea orientations are significantly higher than their action orientation (see table 3). While no significant differences exist among directors at the different types of institutions, directors at private institutions have significantly higher action orientations than their counterparts at public institutions. No significant differences exist between men and women directors on any of the decision styles or orientations.

The realization that others do not think the same way or see a situation in the same terms can be a startling experience for some individuals.

When the decision style scores of library directors are compared with the decision style scores of others, some differences are found. An earlier study of the Decision Style Inventory was conducted for the Department of Defense among 428 individuals from nine organizations: a mix of military, aerospace, government, managerial employees, and university middle managers. In individuals in the Department of Defense study have significantly higher directive and analytical scores and significantly lower conceptual and behavioral scores than the library directors in this study. Using the Decision Style Model (see figure 1), it appears that library directors, despite their task (left brain) orientation, are still more people (right brain) oriented than the individuals in the Department of Defense study.

COMMENTS

In many management and leadership training programs, library managers and potential library managers are given instruments to help them identify their personality types or managerial styles. The premise behind this activity is that such self-awareness will help to make them better managers. The realization that others do not think the same way or see a situation in the same terms can be a startling experience for some individuals. For managers, seeing events and alternatives through the eyes of others is vital to preserving their managerial effectiveness. However, before attempting to understand their organization and the people in it, managers should have an understanding of themselves which permits them to see their biases, cognitive and otherwise. With this knowledge they may be able to improve their managerial effectiveness. Given the complexity of the modern organization, no one person may be able to manage an organization by depending only on his or her own abilities. While individual managers may be responsible for an organization, they need not rely solely on their own skills.

As managers, directors need to couple the effective right-brain processes (hunch, judgment, and synthesis) with the effective processes of the left-brain (articulateness, logic, and analysis). According to Mintzberg, top managers should have well-developed right-brain skills; while planners should have well-developed left-brain skills. Left-brain-dominant individuals prefer a systematic, well-ordered world and tend to show little appreciation for the more relational, holistic processes. Mintzberg concludes that the functions of both hemispheres should be respected but that abilities of one hemisphere should not be applied where the other is most effective.

The preponderance of left-brain-oriented individuals among the directors may help to explain Perry Morrison's earlier findings that supervisory qualities frequently are absent in library directors. Perhaps directors, with their tendency to be left-brained and idea-oriented, are more adept at planning than managing. However, if ideas and plans are to be useful, they must be effectively translated into actions. In the implementation process the involvement of other people and their skills are necessary to bring ideas to fruition.

While certain jobs and tasks require the work of one side of the brain more
than the other, most individuals also develop a dominant side of the brain. The more this preferred hemisphere is stimulated, the better it performs. The better it performs, the more a person depends on it. Thus, if an individual tends to depend on her dominant hemisphere the less likely she is to develop the skills of her brain's other hemisphere. 39

While there are preferred decision styles and a predominant orientation among directors, these styles and orientations may not be the most effective in all situations or environments. To improve their effectiveness, library managers need to develop their other decision styles and find ways to take advantage of the benefits provided by the other styles.

Directive style directors provide direction and keep things running, but they must find a way to keep people issues before them. Behavioral style directors need a “clean-up” person to establish order, write reports, provide reminders, make difficult decisions, and do other unpleasant tasks. Directors with an analytical style need people (conceptuals) who can explain their ideas to others. These directors also need people who can provide them with facts and carry out details. Conceptual style directors need people who can administer and implement regulations and see to the details. Individuals with the ability to “flesh out ideas” can be helpful to conceptual style directors. 40

As managers, library directors must utilize the talents and abilities of others to be effective. Aware of their own decision styles and orientations, directors can use the strengths of others’ decision styles to balance against the differences in the directors’ own approaches. Library directors, like all managers, need to be aware of their strengths and preferences. But they must learn to balance their strengths and compensate for differences if they are to make the most of their skills.

Library management and leadership programs may not provide their participants with any indication of how they compare with other library administrators. This article is an effort to fill a part of that void. Because directors with particular styles frequently are found in certain institutions, ambitious managers may wish to ask themselves how their decision styles match with those of directors at particular types of institutions. While this research shows that there are differences in decision styles among directors at different institutions, previous research also shows that directors give managerial roles different emphasis according to the type of institution that employs them. 41 Aspiring library managers may wish to consider the relationship between their decision styles and the approaches frequently found at their institution or at other types of institutions where they may seek employment.

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How to Survive the Present while Preparing for the Future: A Research Library Strategy

Eldred Smith and Peggy Johnson

Research librarians are looking for and experimenting with strategies to cope with declining resources, increasing obligations, and the impact of new electronic information technology. This paper urges concerted action on the part of the entire research library community, in which ownership is traded for access and institutional competition for cooperation, so that the research library will not simply survive but reshape itself to contribute to a new world of scholarly communication. It suggests concrete steps that can be taken to achieve these goals.

It is widely recognized that the research library is in serious difficulty. Expected to do more and more with less and less, it appears to be in a downward spiral of deterioration moving toward collapse, and there seems to be little that can be done about it. But is this, in fact, the case? A long-term solution to the library’s crisis is beginning to emerge, as the research/higher education community takes advantage of the new information technology, transforming scholarly communication from a print-based to an electronic-based system.

Unfortunately, this solution is probably several decades away. Consequently, the critical issue for research librarians is to develop a strategy that will preserve the research library through its present difficulty, and at the same time begin to reshape it for a radically different future. Such a strategy is now, both technologically and organizationally, within the grasp of the research library community.

Much has been written and continues to be written about the stringent times in which research libraries are operating. Three pervasive causes are identified consistently: rising costs of materials and services, shrinking budgets, and the impact of new technologies for performing tasks and handling information. All contribute to the problems that face research libraries today. Nor is it likely that any of these problems will become either less significant or less ubiquitous. The financial situation will not substantially improve. The dollar remains unsteady on the international market, and costs of both monographs and serials continue to increase in excess of inflation. At the same time, the volume of scholarly publication expands exponentially, as it has for the past five hundred years.

Although all segments of the economy are in difficulty, the challenges confronting higher education are particularly severe and likely to be long-lasting. Even the richest and most well-established universities are in trouble and are forced...
to eliminate programs, to downsize, and to rebuild infrastructure with reduced resources.\(^1\) In more and more institutions, the library’s allocation, which has often been protected in past times of difficulty, is now retrenched along with others. The acquisition budget may still be sacrosanct in many universities, but libraries are expected increasingly to maintain it themselves by cutting elsewhere within their own resources.\(^2\)

At the same time that their purchasing power is shrinking, research libraries must acquire and provide access to a rapidly expanding amount of nontraditional formats and sources of information, further complicating an already complex budgetary situation. Information that is stored, managed, and delivered by computer is becoming a standard and increasing—and increasingly expensive—part of research library programs.

A long-term solution to the library’s crisis is beginning to emerge, as the research/higher education community takes advantage of the new information technology, transforming scholarly communication from a print-based to an electronic-based system.

How is the research library to cope with this array of problems? How will it find its way between the Scylla of budgetary crisis and the Charybdis of the new technology? Will this technology prove to be simply an additional burden, or will it, as many have hoped, offer a means by which research libraries can ultimately resolve their difficulties? These are the questions that research librarians are asking themselves and each other.\(^3\)

An answer, at least for the long term, is beginning to emerge. Recently a credible snapshot of the future has been provided by the report of the Task Force on Electronic Information Systems of the American Physical Society (APS). The report, the result of three years of intensive investigation, asserts that a complete, generally accessible, international electronic database of science is not only possible and desirable, but “probably inevitable... by 2020.”\(^4\)

The database would replace and improve upon the present system of print publication for science. It would include all authenticated (i.e., reviewed and edited) research. It would also contain “various forms of less formal literature, like preprints in a ‘prepublication phase,’ comments and discussion on the published literature, and a variety of possible forums”—the vast and continually growing body of prepublished and unreviewed works, the so-called gray literature, whose limited availability has long been one of the most critical information-access problems for the scientific community.\(^5\)

The database would be fully indexed, utilizing both human and electronic capabilities. “Among the variety of algorithms that are possible, some will involve indexing documents by bibliographic information, descriptors, keywords or symbols, and citations—indexing that will be done partially by computer and partially with human assistance from editors, authors, other experts in the field, and/or professional indexers.”\(^6\) Access to the database would be provided by a “network [employing] fiber-optic cables in which a single fiber will be able to transmit at 50 Tbit/sec, allowing a central or regional server with a high degree of parallelism to transmit simultaneously over hundreds of channels at 100 Gbit/sec for each.”\(^7\)

The report asserts that this “revolution will change the very nature of libraries.”\(^8\) It notes:

Despite the attractiveness of being able to search in a powerful and interactive way, many scientists will prefer not to be the actual searchers. This has been the frequent experience of information managers (and librarians, where they are available to do the searching). This will define an important role for the electronic-age librarian.\(^9\)

The task force urges the APS and its parent body, the American Institute of Physics, to “take a leadership role in
bringing together the [other scientific] professional societies so that ... the World Scientific Information System will be organized to provide maximum benefit to the scientific community and thus to science itself. ¹⁰

Certainly, the design identified in the APS report will be subject to much scrutiny and adjustment before an electronic world scientific information system is established; however, its basic elements provide a reasonable and even compelling model for future planning. Perhaps the most likely change will be amplification: social scientists and humanists will undoubtedly wish to participate. This, of course, will result in the creation of an electronic world scholarship information system (or systems), including all scholarly publication.

Assuming that within the next thirty years, scholarly publication becomes electronic and is dispensed through an international communication network, the primary source of the research library's present problems—its need to acquire and maintain enormous print collections—will be eliminated.

Assuming that within the next thirty years, scholarly publication becomes electronic and is dispensed through an international communication network, the primary source of the research library's present problems—its need to acquire and maintain enormous print collections—will be eliminated. In the meantime, however, research librarians must respond to two formidable challenges. First, they must begin to prepare for their electronic future. Second and more urgent, they must find means, in the face of increasing fiscal difficulty, to meet their clientele's needs while this transition takes place.

Throughout their history, research librarians have emphasized ownership. They have judged their libraries primarily by the size of their holdings, and they have influenced faculty and academic administrators to do the same. ¹¹ As a consequence, research librarians have invested the vast majority of their resources in buying, organizing, and maintaining enormous collections.

Research librarians have relied only marginally on sharing. They have encouraged their clientele to expect to find everything, or at least almost everything, that they need on campus, in the local library collections. The result has been that, despite a good deal of talk about cooperative collection development and resource sharing, an acquisitive, competitive mentality continues to dominate research library practice. ¹²

Of course, on-site ownership is extremely important in a print environment. Until quite recently, prompt and convenient access to needed material has been possible only if that material is held locally, and prompt and convenient access to information at need is a sine qua non for active, busy researchers. Indeed, researchers have generally insisted not only on having access to comprehensive collections, but also on having these collections housed in nearby libraries, down the hall if possible, where rows of stacks filled with volumes are expected to stand waiting for the chance use. They strongly and persistently resist any change, such as remote storage, that imposes difficulties or barriers to access. And research librarians have encouraged such expectations.

In an electronic future, such as that predicted by the APS task force, large local collections will, of course, no longer be essential. Indeed, the multimillion-volume holdings, substantially replicated in hundreds of research libraries, that are being acquired, organized, and maintained at the cost of billions of dollars annually, will become a burden rather than a benefit.

Given these circumstances, it is essential that research librarians adopt a new and radical approach to collection development. During the interim period that lies ahead, while the print distribution system of scholarly communication winds down and until the new electronic system is fully in place, research library
acquisition should be guided by four principles:

• Purchase only those materials that, because of intensity of use, must be at hand at all times;
• Purchase lesser-used materials only if it is impossible or unduly expensive to buy or borrow them on demand;
• Purchase nothing, except special collections, on the basis of long-term speculation;
• Implement a genuine and substantial cooperative collection development program at the national level.

Research librarians should effectively begin to reverse the approach that they have followed throughout the print era: rather than buying as much as they possibly can, to respond to any present or potential need, they should acquire only the most heavily and regularly used material for processing and retention.

Instead of measuring a research library's quality according to the size of its collections and acquisition budget, both librarians and researchers must begin to evaluate its success on the basis of a single criterion: current user satisfaction. Dollars must be expended to provide the desired information resource, whether article or monograph, on demand, rather than investing in the acquisition of materials for which there is no demonstrated present need.

This is not to suggest that research librarians abdicate their historic responsibility for preserving the entire record of world scholarship. This responsibility must, however, be approached realistically for what it is: a shared obligation to be cooperatively implemented by the entire research library community rather than pursued individually and competitively by every member of that community. Wise expenditure of circumscribed funds requires that individual libraries move away from the concept of the library of record toward one that views the library as the gateway to information.

This identifies the second principle that should guide research library activity through the next several decades: prompt, effective delivery. With the implementation of online catalogs, research librarians are beginning to look anew at a service that has been tried with only marginal success in the past—that is, document delivery. Research libraries that have made their new online catalogs accessible via campus networks have, in many instances, supported them with on-request delivery. Capitalizing on the speed of electronic mail, expedited handling within the library, and express delivery, some libraries have been able to set a standard of a twenty-four-hour response.

Instead of measuring a research library's quality according to the size of its collections and acquisition budget, both librarians and researchers must begin to evaluate its success on the basis of a single criterion: current user satisfaction.

In mounting such programs, research librarians are effectively beginning a revolution in service—a revolution that can help them gradually shift their emphasis from ownership toward access. As researchers become used to getting the material that they need delivered in timely fashion to their offices, laboratories, or other appropriate "drop," they will cease to focus their attention on the desirability of massive collections in libraries that they no longer have to visit.

Of course, this change of attitude will not happen overnight. Some influential faculty may, for a considerable period of time, resist any decline in the massive local collections that they have long supported as evidence of institutional distinction. Certainly, research librarians cannot ignore or dismiss such resistance. On the other hand, they must not allow themselves to be unduly diverted or frustrated by it. Every major development in research library practice, from the classification of collections to the introduction of online catalogs, has involved some struggle of this nature, yet research libraries have progressed.
which are increasingly visible to the entire scholarly community, necessary change cannot long be resisted, particularly if it is implemented with sensitivity. As the pace of scholarship continues to quicken and as active scholars in all fields benefit more and more from the speed and convenience of electronic mail and bulletin boards, clientele pressure on research libraries will, itself, shift from support for the slow, deliberate acquisition and processing of enormous collections to insistence on the prompt provision of needed information.15

Moreover, extensive library collections have never been an unalloyed benefit. Their very size and complexity make them exceedingly difficult to use, and drive researchers to seek alternative information sources. In fact, most researchers turn to the library only when all other avenues have been exhausted.16 Thus the critical issue for research librarians is to design and demonstrate a system that will make prompt and reliable access possible, irrespective of ownership. Once researchers are able to request every needed item with the same ease and facility, whether or not it is in their library's collections, ownership becomes irrelevant. The conditions needed to accomplish this are either presently available or relatively close at hand.

Methods of rapid information transfer have improved enormously since research librarians began to discuss the desirability of refocusing their objectives from ownership to access. Most dramatic, of course, is fax; however, the rise of commercial one-day document delivery service is at least equally important. These two services, properly used, provide a basis for effective resource sharing that was literally unimaginable twenty years ago. Hard on their heels, and promising even more fruitful benefits, is the combination of electronic text scanning and transmission, which has the potential of providing instant access to any material, regardless of distance. These developments rapidly are making it possible for research libraries to supply their clientele with materials held elsewhere, even across the country, as quickly as they can with material in their collections.

If research librarians are to refigure their programs in this way, however, they must make some major changes in how their libraries operate. They must certainly change their posture toward interlibrary borrowing and lending, which must be transformed from a last resort to a primary activity. They must move their resource-sharing operations out of the nooks and crannies in which they are all-too-frequently lodged and provide them with sufficient support so that they can become a viable alternative to on-site collections. Interlibrary loan deserves not only a change of name but a face-lift and a new personality. It must be overhauled, expanded, and moved front and center within research library facilities, priorities, and budgets. It must be staffed with some of the library's most effective, most service-minded personnel.

Once researchers are able to request every needed item with the same ease and facility, whether or not it is in their library's collections, ownership becomes irrelevant.

Research librarians must be prepared to utilize every source of alternative access available, whether it is another library, the publisher, or a commercial information service. It will certainly be essential to maximize rapid and effective resource sharing among and between research libraries. This means that all research libraries must strengthen not only their borrowing but their lending operations as well. In addition, research librarians must move beyond the philosophical contemplation of cooperative collection development and make it a day-to-day reality. Declining budgets are forcing uncoordinated picking and choosing from the scholarly information universe. Collections are becoming increasingly redundant, and works of interest to only limited segments of the scholarly community are, perforce, falling between the
cracks. The goal of individual comprehensiveness has been abandoned, and the obligation of collective coverage is increasingly at risk.

The only solution to this problem is to take a radical approach to cooperative collection development that ceases to nibble around the edges and consciously reduces, as severely as possible, the enormous redundancy that presently exists among research library acquisition programs. If research libraries' resource-sharing programs are adequately upgraded, there is no reason for a hundred institutions to buy, process, and retain several hundred copies of the same monograph or journal unless such intense duplication is justified by equally intense use.

Certainly, a document provision program of this kind will have substantial costs. How are they to be met? There is only one source available to research libraries: their acquisition budgets. If the hundred largest United States and Canadian research libraries reduced their serials expenditure by one-fifth, this would yield an average annual savings, per library, of approximately $500,000 per year, in direct acquisition and binding costs alone, according to data published by the Association of Research Libraries.

This amount should be sufficient to purchase, in the form of originals or photocopies, needed items on demand, including but not limited to articles in journals that had been cancelled or not acquired in order to generate these funds. Such a program would not only provide access to all of the cancelled material; it would make additional items available as well, thus extending overall access to library clientele.

Some funds for staffing this activity should be secured through the redeployment of acquisition resources. These could be supplemented by staff that would have been involved in ordering, processing, binding, maintaining, and circulating the cancelled materials; now they could redirect their energies to delivering information from external sources.

This shift of resources from document collection to document provision can be increased as research libraries extend the scope and effectiveness of off-site access, so that ultimately local collections contain only the most actively used material as well as material for which they have assumed cooperative collection responsibility. As individual research libraries are relieved of the burden of covering the entire range of scholarly publication as fully as possible, each of them will have adequate resources available to acquire and maintain everything in a few selected fields.

It might be argued that research libraries have no business, whatever the circumstances, of investing substantial and increasing shares of their budgets in materials that are given to clientele rather than added to collections. Doesn't this, somehow, violate these libraries' fundamental stewardship obligation? The answer to such an objection is that successful stewardship of the record of scholarship has two attributes: preservation and availability. If these can be achieved more effectively through a complete, distributed collection providing copies on demand, rather than through a number of highly redundant and increasingly incomplete, local-circulating collections, what does it matter that a major portion of the funding is invested in copies that are given away rather than expensively housed to meet, at best, an occasional need? Institutional fiscal officers who might object to such an approach would surely need only to be reminded that it will severely reduce every research library's future collection space requirements.

Of course, a change of this dimension will require considerable planning and coordination at the national level. It will be essential to ensure that all areas of research publication are fully covered, that there is equity in the distribution of responsibilities, that each participating library lives up to its obligations, and that resource-sharing programs are fully and effectively implemented. Such planning and coordination can certainly be accomplished by research libraries, ideally working together through their primary organization, the Association of Research Libraries.
By such a process, but only by such a process, the long-unfulfilled prospect of a meaningful research library cooperative collection development program will be accomplished. At the same time, the long-proclaimed shift in research library objectives, from emphasis on ownership to provision of access, will be achieved. There are a number of interesting possibilities that can be pursued in order to initiate and further this transformation.

Research libraries have recently begun to incorporate, in their local online catalogs, records of materials that are not among their holdings, most notably the cataloged collections of the Center for Research Libraries. Some libraries are providing access to bibliographic files, such as OCLC and RLIN and LC, that incorporate much larger collections than those held locally. As delivery is improved, both on campus and among institutions, so that clientele are able to request and receive needed items promptly and without coming to the library, local catalogs could be replaced by the larger, more comprehensive files, at least on campus electronic networks. This would radically advance the process of freeing research library clientele—from their dependence upon and absorption with local holdings.

Research libraries are also beginning to provide access to index databases through campus networks. Coupled with reference service via electronic mail, with which some of these libraries are also experimenting, remote access to index databases can eliminate the need for researchers to visit libraries even to carry out complex searches in the journal literature. This will only happen, however, to the degree that research librarians adopt an active posture toward reference service. They cannot simply refer remote researchers to an array of materials, particularly noncirculating reference materials whose texts are not yet online. They must be prepared to provide vigorous, aggressive information delivery, assisting clientele in their use of online sources and providing more substantive and extensive information via electronic mail.

As research librarians take steps such as these, they transform their libraries from massive repositories of stored material, gradually declining in strength and quality with every passing year, to active service centers, drawing on all available resources to meet the information needs of their clientele. They also begin to establish their essential role in the electronic future, where international information systems will maintain the entire record of scholarship online, instantly accessible to campus information centers throughout the world.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

3. Ibid.
4. "Report of the APS Task Force on Electronic Information Systems," American Physical Society, Bulletin 36:1119–51 (Apr. 1991), 1137. See also 1131: "The description is necessarily speculative and vague, but we don’t think it is unduly optimistic; the seeds for most of what we describe are already planted. If anything, this asymptotic state may be reached by the year 2000 or 2010. By 2020 we may have moved on in unpredictable ways."
5. Ibid. 1140. This issue has received wide discussion in the literature on scholarly communication over the past several decades. Perhaps the most up-to-date analyses, all prepared by Constance Gould for the Research Libraries Group, are: Constance C. Gould, Information Needs in the Humanities: An Assessment (Stanford, Calif.: Research Libraries Group, 1988); Constance C. Gould, Information Needs in the Social Sciences: An Assessment (Mountain View, Calif.: Research Libraries Group, 1989); and Constance C.

6. Ibid. 1134.
7. Ibid. 1130.
8. Ibid. 1138.
9. Ibid. 1135.
10. Ibid. 1139.
13. Such a program is presently being offered at the University of Minnesota-Twin Cities Campus Libraries. At present, the service is limited to faculty and researchers with campus addresses.
15. N. David Mermin, “Publishing in Computopia,” *Physics Today* 44(May 1991): 9,11. It is interesting to note that for every library user—student, faculty member, researcher—who complains about the switch from card catalog to online file, there are many more who chaff at the present limitations of such files: the lack of inclusion of all local holdings, the absence of references to journal articles, etc. Conversely, some research librarians have resisted incorporating any records in their online catalogs for anything not owned by their libraries. Attitudes must be changed in a variety of quarters.
17. *ARL Statistics, 1989–90* (Washington D.C.: Association of Research Libraries, 1991). These reductions must, of course, be made in addition to any acquisition reductions that research libraries are forced to make because of a diminution in their available resources. The objective is to generate funds necessary to support programmatic change. Without such an effort, research libraries confront the possibility of a “death by one thousand cuts”—the gradual elimination of their effectiveness through a slow sapping of funding.
A survey of Modern Language Association members and of representatives of other associations participating in the American Council of Learned Societies indicates that the vast majority of those surveyed see ongoing need for collections of primary records. Respondents note that neither photocopies nor digital records can satisfy the traditional needs of bibliographers, textual editors, and literary scholars; furthermore, renewed interest in the materiality of texts and the history of print promises to continue to influence scholars who study publications belonging to the print era. Scholars note an important disagreement about the nature of primary records.

What will scholars want from librarians in the years ahead as demands for access to information stored in increasingly varied formats accelerate? Because the issues implicit in this question are of great importance to modern language scholars, the opportunity to discuss them with you is particularly welcome, although it is also a little unnerving. Trying to reach across communities is rarely easy.

To prepare for the task, I followed a colleague’s suggestion and consulted a book written by a former library director—Eldred Smith’s *The Librarian, the Scholar, and the Future of the Research Library.* Unfortunately for my sense of self-confidence, the book was not reassuring. Smith suggests that librarians are likely to view scholars as difficult—even ornery—people. According to Smith, scholars value convenience over reliability and depend primarily, in a wrongheaded way, on serendipity and what Smith describes as “alternative information-seeking methods”—informal networks.1 Smith writes, “[S]cholars utilize library collections remarkably little, the bibliographic apparatus even less, and librarians’ reference services hardly at all.”2 And when scholars do turn to libraries for what they are unable to find on their own, they can be quite disagreeable if what they want is not in. Actually, Smith is too polite to say scholars are disagreeable, but one senses restraint beneath his measured prose.

Although some tensions between scholars and librarians seem unavoidable, the positive connections these groups have enjoyed seem equally important and date back to the nineteenth century and the development of research libraries in this country. Consider, for example, George Ticknor, who, in 1819, became the first Smith Professor of French and Spanish Languages and Literature at Harvard University. After earning an undergraduate degree from Harvard, Ticknor went abroad to study at the University of Göttingen. There he learned to see libraries in a new way, and he brought this vision back with him. In 1812, while he was still in Germany, he wrote to a friend:

Phyllis Franklin is Executive Director of the Modern Language Association of America, 10 Astor Place, New York, New York 10003. A version of this article was presented as a talk at the American Library Association in 1992.
... one very important and principal cause of the difference between [Harvard] and the [university] here is the different value we affix to a good library. ... In America we look on the Library at Cambridge as a wonder, and I am sure nobody ever had a more thorough veneration for it than I had; but it ... is ... half a century behind the libraries of Europe. ... [Even] worse than the absolute poverty of our collections of books is the relative inconvenience in which we keep them. We found new professorships and build new colleges in abundance, but we buy no books. ... We have not yet learnt that the Library is not only the first convenience of the University, ... it is the very first necessity, ... it is the life and spirit. ... 3

As published knowledge grew and library collections expanded, the organization of research libraries became correspondingly complex, and a managerial class of librarians emerged along with collection specialists.

Books were so important to Ticknor that he insisted that the university allocate funds for them before he would accept the Smith professorship.4 The scholars who succeeded Ticknor—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow and James Russell Lowell—were no less energetic about adding to Harvard’s collections. They were joined in this effort by Francis Child, who taught rhetoric and English literature and who served as a model for generations of scholars.5 In turn, these scholars pressed for better collections in their college and university libraries.

George Perkins Marsh, a modern language scholar who had struggled to be a scholar when no public collections of books existed, urged federal support of a national research library. As a member of the House of Representatives in 1844, Marsh opposed using the James Smithson bequest for “agricultural schools, popular lectures, chemical experiments, and other projects of immediate value to the common man.” He pushed instead for “a big museum and a great national library for basic research and the diffusion of knowledge among scholars.”6 Those who favored a museum and library won, although the book collection at the Smithsonian did not develop as Marsh hoped it would until it was moved to the Library of Congress in 1866.

Modern language scholars continue to depend on libraries, even though, as Smith notes, they have their own information-seeking methods, not all of which are idiosyncratic. For example, the MLA International Bibliography was conceptualized by scholars and librarians working together.

These instances of partnership between scholars and librarians serve as useful reminders that the ground between our communities has gradually shifted. As published knowledge grew and library collections expanded, the organization of research libraries became correspondingly complex, and a managerial class of librarians emerged along with collection specialists. Preoccupied by broad administrative questions—for instance, strategic planning and fund development—these librarians had concerns increasingly different from those of scholars, whose work remained largely unchanged, though they played a smaller role in helping to build library collections. Smith’s book exemplifies some of these changes and makes clear why administrators of large libraries must care about efficiency and coherent national systems. The book also demonstrates how removed administrators’ need for efficiency and systematic ordering can be from the research interests of humanities scholars.

Although Smith insists on an essential connection between scholars and librarians, his definition of a research library omits a key function of the research library for humanists. Smith writes:

Throughout their history, research librarians have functioned as the conservators of the record of scholarship. They have gathered and preserved the
written, printed, and now electronically encoded information generated by the scholarly process as well as other information of immediate or potential value to research.  

What Smith misses is the role research libraries play in collecting and providing access not only to the "record of scholarship," but also to the primary records modern language scholars—and many historians, linguists, musicologists, and folklorists—require for their work. Just as scientists look to the natural world as the object of their investigations, so many if not most humanists look to libraries for the objects they study. Certainly, the research library has been the chief repository of the primary records that modern language scholars edit, analyze, and interpret. What the sky is to the astronomer, the rain forest is to the botanist, and the hurricane is to the meteorologist, the library is to scholars in the humanities. Perhaps that is why, as Smith himself notes, humanities collections are used more frequently than are social science or science collections.  

In addition to understating the importance of library collections for humanities scholars, Smith has a vision of the future ideal research library. The library he describes would be even further removed from the realities of scholarship in the humanities because collections would be entirely in electronic form, with print formats of documents produced on demand. 

Not all visions of the future are so bleak for scholars who study literature written and published in the print era. In the realm of science fiction, "Star Trek," a popular television series set in the twenty-fourth century, makes a place for books in the otherwise hi-tech world of the Starship Enterprise. In "Star Trek: The Next Generation," Captain Picard reads books when he is off duty and enjoys Shakespeare in this format. On one occasion, the creators of the series even indicate a preference for the book over the computer. "Only from a book," we are told by a lawyer in one episode, can we "learn the intent of the men who wrote the law," because computer information is "homogenized, synthesized, [and] pasteurized."  

Please do not misunderstand: humanities scholars are not Luddites. Since librarians already know that scholars can be ornery, they will not be surprised to learn that scholars expect to enjoy the advantages of both old and new technologies. Scholars respect the access photocopies and microfilms of the written and print records allow those who are unable to visit distant collections to study works of interest to them. They recognize the need to save on microfilm at least an aspect of some of what was printed between 1850 and 1950. They welcome electronic databases of all kinds and electronic communication. Also they look forward to improvements in electronic scanning and to the creation of electronic texts of publications that appeared originally in print and publications of new works as well. 

SURVEY RESULTS 

In addition, modern language scholars and other humanists want ongoing access to primary records in their original form. A survey of members of the Modern Language Association (MLA) who served on MLA committees in 1991 and of colleagues in the American Council of Learned Societies is helpful on this point. In May 1992, 319 people were asked their views of the importance of rare books, archives, and the primary print record for scholars. Although the inquiry arrived at the end of the spring term, 169 people responded with letters, e-mail messages, and phone calls, which resulted in a response rate of 53 percent. The letters—many two to four pages long, some with comments on yellow Post-its added by colleagues, and others with copies of exemplary articles attached—testify to the value scholars place on primary records. Most respondents (95 percent) were MLA members, but a number of responses came from the administrative or elected officers of societies concerned with American studies, art history, biblical studies, folklore, history, linguistics, and musicology. The results of the survey are clear. Only a handful of people—1.7 percent—
think copies will do, and another 3.5 percent believe our society cannot afford to maintain rare book collections and archives. But the vast majority—94.5 percent—assert the need for these collections. They offer four general reasons. The majority—57 percent—affirm the importance of primary records for the traditional work done by bibliographers, textual editors, and literary critics. Shelley Fisher Fishkin of the University of Texas, Austin, whose studies of Mark Twain’s *Huckleberry Finn* and other writings have been featured in the national press, is one of many who indicate their absolute dependence on the analysis of primary materials. Moreover, Fishkin is one of several respondents who report using rare book collections to teach graduate students.\(^{11}\)

Since librarians already know that scholars can be ornery, they will not be surprised to learn that scholars expect to enjoy the advantages of both old and new technologies.

Along with emphasizing the need for primary records, 19 percent of the respondents question the stability and reliability of the technologies currently used to make copies. The experiences Peter Manning of the University of Southern California recounts are typical. He writes:

Sometimes the copying itself is imperfect: I have used the depository copies of the Dove Cottage Papers at Cornell University and encountered several puzzles that became substantially clearer when I saw the originals in Grasmere—though Wordsworth’s manuscripts are never completely transparent. Even if copying is well-nigh perfect, however, the copy does not permit the comparison of inks to distinguish layers of revision, say, and the other resources that expert scholars now habitually employ. In the case of books a similar argument holds for the ability to detect minor variations in type, and depth of print, that may help to determine editions, impressions, and possible forgeries. Even to the less bibliographically specialized scholar, there can be no substitute for the physical impression of a book: the watermarking, quality, and weight of its paper, its binding, its internal formatting, in contrast to other books of its day, all contribute importantly to its effect, its meaning, as a social act. My own criticism has involved tracking Wordsworth’s arrangement of successive editions of his poetry, work that would be much harder to accomplish and much more liable to overlook key features of the original impression the publications made were it not possible to handle the books themselves.\(^{12}\)

Thirty-nine percent of the respondents cite as important scholars’ renewed interest in the materiality of texts, and 28 percent point to the needs of those who study the history of the book. There is general agreement that primary records are an essential aspect of our culture and should be preserved in their original form, not, as Myra Jehlen of Rutgers University, New Brunswick, says, because we expect “future readers will read Keats as he wrote or as we read [him]; but so long as they have him in his original form, they can read him historically.”\(^{13}\)

Twenty-one percent of the respondents point to less tangible, aesthetic reasons for retaining rare book collections. Thomas M. Greene of Yale University writes:

I confess that as a grandchild of the Renaissance humanists, I have a particular slant on this issue. One can’t exaggerate the intensity of the joy a humanist felt when he discovered the manuscript of a lost classical work in some monastery attic. The joy was produced first of all by the acquisition of an unknown text, but it was also produced by the physical presence of the artefact. The artefact, however badly copied, however moldered and dirty, was an object of veneration. And I must admit to vaguely similar feelings when I call for a great edition of the past in Beinecke library. I am not a
religious believer, but I still recall the awe I felt when a copy of Erasmus's New Testament of 1516 was placed before me, that monumental version newly edited and translated in defiance of the church and all the authority of the Vulgate. This incredible triumph of the intellect (there were no Greek grammars available to Erasmus) and moral courage and patient tenacity, a triumph which rocked Europe, was there on the desk before me, with a frontispiece I never could have predicted. I wouldn't want to deprive future readers of that concrete object which deserves to be honored as an icon of human achievement and bravery—both Erasmus's achievement and all the others before and after him.  

THE FUTURE OF PRIMARY RECORDS

These letters, Smith's book, and other writings about preservation suggest that three issues may have confused discussions of the future of primary records. First, the model of microfilming brittle materials, which the Commission on Preservation and Access developed, seems to have inadvertently led some, perhaps many, people to assume that what is appropriate for brittle materials applies by extension to most or all of primary records. Economy and efficiency drive this assumption. Microfilming and the later conversion of microfilm to electronic formats will save storage costs and reduce the number of formats librarians must consider.

Although financial pressures are compelling, the solution to one problem is not necessarily the solution to another. The technology that gave us a century of brittle books is only a blip. It is a significant one to be sure, but only a part of the longer print era. As far as the respondents to this survey are concerned, when the choice is between losing the primary record and having a copy, microfilm must stand in place of print. When the primary record is sound, however, microfilm should be used only to supplement this record, whose integrity cannot be replaced by images.

A second confusing factor grows out of our society's current situation somewhere between the end of the print era and the beginning of the electronic era. Many of the proposals that prefer digital to primary records convey disdain for what is "old hat" and therefore no longer of interest to forward-looking people. The king is dead; long live the king.

That scholars' preoccupation with print should intensify while their use of electronic communication increases is intriguing. Major studies of the history of print have either just been completed (e.g., Roger Chartier's L'ordre des livres. Lecteurs, auteurs, bibliothèques en Europe entre XIVe et XVIIIe siècle) or are in progress (e.g., Ian Willison's history of the book before and after print). The historians engaged in these projects may be motivated by simple nostalgia, or they may feel some urgency to grasp and describe an age that is passing. Whatever the cause, the fact remains: interest in print has been growing among modern language scholars. At the request of MLA members, three meetings at the 1992 MLA convention focused on Chartier's work, and Chartier himself spoke at sessions that were very well attended.

There is general agreement that primary records are an essential aspect of our culture and should be preserved in their original form.

For the sake of argument, let us assume the print era will conclude in the year 2055, precisely six hundred years after it started. Imagine that the production of print publications begins to slow down early in the next century and stops finally—and even ceremoniously—in 2055. If we knew change would happen this way, how would our communities, including scholars and librarians, approach the question of preserving the primary print record, aware that the record then in existence is all that will ever exist? Would we not consider what people one or two centuries from now might want to know about our society
and what scholars now and in the future will need to do their work? At this point, someone might wish to object. Won't many or most scholars be content with—even prefer—other formats? Won't strategically selected examples of the primary print record stored in rare-book collections or vaults or museums be sufficient for the relatively small number of scholars who might use them?

Only 12 percent of the survey respondents think saving a few copies of a book will satisfy the needs of modern language scholars. The majority argue that our society should maintain as complete a record of print as possible because such a record will continue to be essential to scholars who wish to study the print era. For example, focusing on the history of Frank Norris's novel *McTeague*, Joseph R. McElrath, Jr., of Florida State University notes the importance of collecting reprints:

The physical work of 1899, and its reprints in 1900, 1902, 1903, and 1914 contain physical features which become data for ... analyzing the entire publication history. ... The way in which the printed sheets were folded and sewn, the kind of paper used, the observable wear of the plates as printing followed printing, the corrections of the plates before the latest printing, the binding, inscriptions on the flyleaves, and even the gilding of the ends of the leaves—all of these features are sources of important information for the analytical bibliographer and historian of the printing industry in the United States, who provide information to other kinds of historians and to critics.16

Charles B. Harris of Illinois State University considers the same question from the perspective of a different novel. He writes:

In an interview several years ago, John Barth mused about the ontological status of a novel. "Where," he wondered, "does a novel exist?" It's not the kind of question one would ask about a painting; the *Mona Lisa*, for example, hangs on a wall in the Louvre. All copies of it are just that, copies, worth little when compared to the sole original that exists indisputably there in Paris. But where does Joyce's *Ulysses* exist? Is my paperback copy as authentic as the 1922 first edition? Probably not (it certainly isn't worth as much in hard cash), although that first edition, which contains an estimated four thousand errors, isn't exactly Joyce's novel, either. Is Joyce's manuscript of *Ulysses* the "real" thing, then, and if so, which version of that manuscript? Gabler's "synoptic" text was supposed to give us a definitive edition but resulted in a scandal instead. Soon, Norton will publish the Dublin edition of *Ulysses*. But even if Kidd is more successful than Gabler was in pleasing the critics and textual scholars, will we be able to call that version the "real" *Ulysses*—and, if so, which of the several thousand copies of the Dublin edition Random House prints will we be able to point to as the real *Ulysses*? Clearly, no book—at least since the invention of the printing press—can ever exist in [the] same way as the *Mona Lisa* exists. ... Like some Vedic god, a book exists in all its incarnations simultaneously.17

While some respondents express concern about scholars' ability to study the history of books, others fear the field itself will change if originals are not retained. Myra Jehlen writes:

I am convinced that the disappearance of original texts would make the basic level of scholarship, the ground on which we all build, disappear. Without the possibility of looking at the actual materials we analyze, criticism, let alone historical studies, will be reduced to journalism. Literary scholarship will become an instrument for the distribution of literature—what book-reviewing is now; it will serve to introduce and mediate readings but will cease to be a primary analytical activity in its own right. And without the continual rethinking that this primary activity constitutes and generates, journalistic criticism itself will also lose its edge and come mostly to repeat established views. ... for the real work of
preserving the cultural heritage, which is not to keep its dead but to keep it alive, it is essential to have the continuing presence of the original object. Not a transcription, not an abstract, but the thing itself.18

The letters cited above are useful not only because they reflect the ongoing interests of modern language scholars but also because they recall the complexities of establishing editions, which does not promise to become any simpler with electronic texts.

In time, of course, the publications of the electronic era will grow in size and importance, but an interest in print will surely be sustained. At least some, perhaps a good deal, of the literature published between 1455 and 2055 will continue to be studied and taught, and scholars will want to consult original materials. Just as we value records from the ancient and medieval worlds and regard original documents as providing the best evidence for scholarship, so future generations of scholars will regard primary records. Lawrence Lipking of Northwestern University suggests that: the growing sophistication of electronic substitutes for print will dramatically magnify the importance of preserving books. As old habits of reading become archaic, the printed artifact will turn into invaluable historical evidence, a lifeline to the past. Then, even more than now, libraries will be needed to remind readers that other people once read in different ways.19

A third issue that has confused discussions of the future of primary records concerns a fundamental disagreement about the nature of these records. On one side are those who believe primary records contain information that is readily transportable from one format to another. On the other side are those who argue that the form and content of primary records cannot be separated without dramatically altering the evidence the record provides. In several key essays G. Thomas Tanselle has explored this question and related issues. He believes that the “electronic revolution” encouraged a view of print as information that is “independent” of its “container.” Tanselle insists that for serious scholarly work, copies cannot replace originals; he argues that “all books should be regarded as rare books.”20

Tanselle is not alone. It is remarkable that 28 percent of the survey respondents support his position, which has not been in circulation for very long. Some respondents even describe attempts to deny the important relation between form and content as pernicious. Eric Rentschler of the University of California, Irvine, observes:

To copy a book is to render important parts of the text intangible and irretrievable, to transmute a concrete object into an imaginary signifier.

According to Christian Metz, film, or at least feature film, involves such a play with imaginary signifiers, the objects on the screen always simultaneously absent and yet present. (For this reason the cinematic apparatus is, one might argue, inherently postmodern.) In the case of rare books on microfilm (or other media), to make that signifier imaginary comes at the price of a great loss. A rare book perforce changes into a postmodern text, collected and encoded signs of which once we discard the original, there remains no material trace. In this way we quite literally lose “touch” with the past.21

In “Preserving the Literary Heritage,” a report prepared by the Scholarly Advisory Committee on Modern Language and Literature of the Commission on Preservation and Access, committee chair J. Hillis Miller recognizes the validity of Tanselle’s “eloquent defense for the need to have the actual books and papers for scholarly research.” Although Miller and his colleagues on the Scholarly Committee on Modern Language and Literature accept the need for “microfilmed or digitalized preservation,” they assume copies are necessary when originals cannot be saved.22

The disagreement about the nature of primary records is not a trivial one for scholars, who look with considerable interest to the materiality of texts for a
better understanding of how these artifacts were produced, received, and used. A number of respondents commented on this renewed emphasis in literary study. James Grantham Turner of the University of California, Berkeley, writes:

We now look at the physical book in a new and sharper light, informed by the theoretical study of the way signs and texts operate.

Several of my current Ph.D. students have chosen to combine literary criticism with research into the material conditions of authorship, publication, and book distribution, breaking down the distinctions, or exploring the relations, between the verbal meaning of the text and the cultural history of its production. . . . I insist that incoming graduate students, in their first course on problems and methods of literary interpretation, see a pre-modern printing press in action and handle original books and manuscripts; to turn the luxurious pages of a Pope quarto, carefully designed and supervised by the author himself, or to unfold a letter of Mary Wollstonecraft, teaches more than many hours at the microfilm machine. The study of the material text, not as a merely pretty “artifact” but as an intrinsic element in its meaning, has never been so vital.23

So important has the study of the material text become that some scholars report changing the way they carry out their research. Mary M. Gaylord of Harvard University says about her work with Spanish Golden Age poetry:

Whereas, a decade ago, I was reading more or less contentedly what works I could with the aid of modern scholarly editions, more recently I have returned to the physical experience even of already edited old books and have emerged not only with materials which earlier editors did not see fit to reproduce . . . but with a different understanding of the place of particular books in their cultures.24

Interest in the materiality of texts has affected the study of noncanonical as well as canonical writers. William L. Andrews of the University of Kansas says:

We have known for a long time that authors like Mark Twain took very seriously the way their writing would be packaged and sold, but we are much less knowledgeable about the economics of publishing and printing books for persons outside the sphere of privilege in which Mark Twain wrote. African American writers of the nineteenth century, for example, often had to publish their books at their own expense working hand-in-hand with local printers, the result of which was an artifact that often differs significantly from the mass-produced products of the larger commercial publishing houses. It would be a pity to limit or lose altogether our access to such artifacts as socioeconomic indicators while we are in the very process of trying to reproduce them for wider study as literary media.25

Just as we value records from the ancient and medieval worlds and regard original documents as providing the best evidence for scholarship, so future generations of scholars will regard primary records.

Similarly, Ruth Bernard Yeazell of Yale University writes about her work with ladies’ advice books and conduct manuals “of the sort that were printed and reprinted in abundance in England and America in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.”

Though in one sense these would seem to be among the most expendable of material—certainly their literary value . . . is slight—the recent development of interest in women’s culture and writing, especially in that produced anonymously, . . . “from below,” . . . has made these texts of much more significance to scholarship than they might have been as little as a quarter century previously. And while what matters most, of course, is the words of advice that were so widely circulated, the size of such volumes, the quality of their paper, the
form of their original binding (if known) all potentially testify to the classes to whom they were addressed and the uses to which they were expected to be put. To lose the artifacts in such cases would certainly be to lose some significant historical and cultural information.  

As far as archives are concerned, survey respondents commend our present arrangements of collections in a variety of institutional settings. In a telephone interview, John Stephens of the American Studies Association pointed out that much of the material that provided the basis for the social histories of the 1960s and 1970s was found in local historical societies, microfilms of local and state government records, and other scattered collections. Modern language scholars join historians in valuing the existence of local and regional archives that encourage the collection of materials that might not make their way into more distinguished settings but could someday be important to scholars.

The history of scholarship makes clear that what some generations of scholars ignore, other generations value. James Gardner of the American Historical Association confirms this point by calling attention to Laurel Thatcher Ulrich’s treatment of a diary that a number of historians had examined over the years but had not used. Gardner says: “Ulrich ... saw in [the diary] something that the others did not and produced one of the most widely praised monographs in recent years.” Ulrich’s study, A Midwife’s Tale: The Life of Martha Ballard, won four awards, including the Bancroft and Pulitzer prizes. Gardner adds that reviewers of the book have “emphasized how Ulrich’s work has expanded our sense of [which] texts are valuable, demonstrating that the non-elite, the ordinary people of the past, have left important primary sources that merit close reading and analysis, offering the potential of better understanding of both an individual life and the larger social and historical context in which that person lived.” Gardner concludes by saying, “I doubt that Martha Ballard’s diary would have made it on to any priority list in terms of national significance.”

The survey results reported here are not likely to improve librarians’ opinion of scholars, since the results do not provide solutions to the serious funding and space problems libraries confront. What scholars want librarians to do is maintain primary records in such a way that contemporary and future scholars who wish to study these artifacts will be able to do so. In addition, we all expect to go forward into the electronic era. There is one consolation. Modern language scholars stand ready to renew an old and honorable partnership with librarians. Together, we may be able to develop creative approaches to current problems and ensure the survival of primary records for future generations of scholars and librarians. To this end, the MLA Executive Council has appointed a committee to consider the future of primary records. The association hopes to encourage discussion of the issues our communities face.

As we move forward, we will keep in mind Robert Penn Warren’s final statement in All the King’s Men: “...soon now we shall go out of the house and go into the convulsion of the world, out of history into history and the awful responsibility of Time.” MLA members believe, and perhaps you will agree, that our communities share responsibility for the records that others will someday need to tell—and retell—our history.

REFERENCES AND NOTES
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7. Smith, *The Librarian, the Scholar*, 7.
8. Ibid., 21.
9. Ibid., 72.
10. Shalom Staub of the American Folklore Society called these “Star Trek” incidents to my attention, and James Franklin verified the substance of the incidents.

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

*The Readability of Published, Accepted, and Rejected Papers Appearing in College & Research Libraries*
Cheryl Metoyer-Duran

*Mature Librarians and the University Faculty: Factors Contributing to Librarians’ Acceptance as Colleagues*
Jean A. Major

*Increasing Minority Representation in Academic Libraries: The Minority Librarian Intern Program at The Ohio State University*
Jose Diaz and Kristina Starkus
Exhibits: Illegitimate Children of Academic Libraries?
Laurel G. Bowen and Peter J. Roberts

Academic libraries requiring evidence of scholarship and publication for faculty promotion and tenure often regard exhibits as worthwhile activities, but not intellectually rigorous ones that meet accepted academic standards. This is not necessarily the view of archivists and museum professionals, who believe exhibits can be important interpretive ventures based on original research which can make a major contribution to scholarship. To demonstrate that exhibits are a fully legitimate scholarly enterprise, this paper compares the intellectual and creative process of producing a scholarly article with that of preparing an exhibit. Academic concerns about exhibits as scholarship are considered, and advantages of exhibits as a form of scholarly communication are suggested.

Academic libraries, particularly those that require research as a criterion for promotion and tenure, appear to have ambivalent attitudes toward exhibits. While few academic librarians would label exhibits as a frivolous activity, and while many point out their instructional and promotional value, most librarians do not regard exhibits as an intellectually rigorous activity on a par with producing articles for professional publications. Although considered worthwhile, they are not valued as an essential function, as reference or collection development are, and their creation is not viewed as a fully legitimate scholarly enterprise. Exhibits are the illegitimate children of academic libraries: while we enjoy having them around, they may not quite belong in the family, and we may be uncomfortable about the circumstances surrounding their creation.

The literature of the library profession reflects the prevalence of these attitudes. Authors refer to widely held views of exhibits that equate them with “merely a decorator’s task,” little more than “displays to dress up the library or add a little color,” “an added burden and a necessary evil” that the staff approaches “grudgingly.” These authors try to provide some legitimacy to exhibit preparation by exploring the planning, design, and execution of exhibits; the role of exhibits in education, public relations, and outreach programs; and the experience of mounting exhibits in particular libraries. There are even tantalizing indications that some authors sense the power and innate respectability of exhibits as “a scholarly effort,” something that is “important for professional development,” an interpretive tool that can “present the vast resources we control” to “open up new lines of sight into an unlimited array of topics and genres, ideas and movements, societies and individuals.” This occasional praise notwithstanding, the library literature that treats exhibits seriously still views this work as “a secondary function of academic libraries,” and it...
separates the "core functions" of a library from "our responsibilities as a museum"—a nonlibrary profession. The library literature lacks a perspective that fully explores the intellectual and creative process of producing an exhibit.

The archival, museum, and history professions are more receptive to the idea of exhibits as a scholarly enterprise, and the attitude of these professions toward exhibits is more positive than that of academic librarians. Archival literature describes exhibits as "worthwhile," "a major component in public outreach programs," "important and ... integral to the mission of the institution," and "a positive decision." Distinctions are made between "display-case" or "mini-exhibits" and those that "grow out of extensive study of primary source materials" and "make a major contribution to scholarship." Not only are the more substantive exhibits based on in-depth research, but they are "a form of opinion about the past" and "an important interpretive venture" that can "provide a visual counterpart to, and relief from, textbooks, scholarly publications, and other writings." The literature addresses all sides of the equation: the visitor—his or her attitudes, learning ability, and behavior; the exhibit—designing one that will attract, engage, and teach the visitor; and methods of predictably controlling interactions between the two. The desired result is a change in attitude or behavior—learning, in other words. Museums advocate points of view that universities seem to be adopting; the importance of adult education, full acceptance of a multimedia approach to teaching, and an emphasis on making research and scholarship more accessible to the public.

Is the intellectual and creative process of producing an exhibit as rigorous as that required to produce a scholarly article? The process of writing an article can be outlined as follows:

- Select a topic.
- Locate and explore the sources.
- Develop a theme or thesis.
- Evaluate and select material to illustrate and interpret the theme.
- Assemble and present material in a manner that will best convey the theme or thesis.
- Interpret the theme or thesis.
- Publish the results.

Academic libraries, particularly those that require research as a criterion for promotion and tenure, appear to have ambivalent attitudes toward exhibits.

This is the same process that one follows in producing an exhibit. In fact, the process of creating an exhibit can be even more demanding, since a wider variety of audiences, techniques, and media comes into play.

The intellectual rigors of producing library journal articles vary—bibliographies, surveys, success stories, interpretations of theory, and arguments for changed practices may not require the same amount of original thought. The same is true of exhibits. In producing "displays," for example, the process outlined above is not only greatly abbreviated but executed more superficially than that involved in preparing an interpretive presentation. Eye-catching arrangements of similar objects from a
collection with minimal interpretation of their significance have a place in an exhibits program, but the greatest prestige is reserved for "exhibits that explore their subjects in some depth and make original contributions to their fields." 21

When writing an article for a professional journal, there is little uncertainty about who is expected to read the publication. The audience is a fixed and known entity—namely, one's professional colleagues. Exhibits are more complex in this regard, since an audience must be defined and created. This is a critical task because the audience is the exhibit's reason for being. Considerable effort is expended to develop a profile of the target audience, and, once the exhibit is undertaken, to attract a more diverse audience through promotional activities and coordinated events. 22 The audience's reaction is of primary importance to the exhibit designer, who must use a variety of techniques to persuade visitors to become involved in the exhibit. Designers usually prefer interactive or participatory techniques to those that treat the audience as a passive receptor of information (like a lecture attendee or a reader of a book). 23 Mounting an exhibit, unlike publishing an article, is not the final act; observation of the audience's reactions and an evaluation of these responses are also considered essential components of the process. 24

The early stages of preparing a journal article or an exhibit are the foundation upon which the whole enterprise rests, and the process is very similar. Selecting a topic, locating and examining the sources, and developing a theme or thesis is a process in which interest, originality, accidental discovery, and persistence all play a role. Researching for an exhibit can be significantly more challenging, however, for two reasons. First, since an exhibit "raises issues visually so that they can be grasped immediately," a potentially interesting theme will fail if it cannot be presented visually. 25 In addition, the universe of sources explored for exhibits includes not just textual documents but also objects, images, sounds, and everything else that falls within the range of experience and perception. Nontraditional sources may add another dimension to our current understanding of events or issues and can completely overturn accepted views. In the words of one authority, "One of the great challenges of exhibiting is to inspire the writers of books to make more extensive use of a wider range of sources." 26

Once an author or exhibit preparer has identified a topic and developed a point of view based on a study of the sources, he or she then begins the process of evaluating and selecting evidence to support this thesis. While authors use words to marshall support for their arguments, an exhibitor must find just the right physical evidence to do the same job. 27 This is one of the most difficult and significant components of exhibit preparation. Additional background reading is often required, and attention to historical accuracy and objectivity are important. 28 Informed judgment, skill in keeping track of the location of potential exhibit items, and a sensitivity to the visual impact, documentary value, and symbolic importance of materials are all essential in what frequently becomes a lengthy search process. 29 While the success of a journal article depends primarily on the author's skill in presenting reasoned arguments, a powerful exhibit does not appeal just to the intellect but must be emotionally and aesthetically satisfying as well. Using an appropriate mix of materials—textual documents, graphics, and three-dimensional objects—to interpret a theme will attract viewers' attention, draw them into the subject, and encourage them to see new relationships by the way materials are juxtaposed. 30 Exhibitors are constantly alert to the interpretive possibilities of the materials they survey, as well as to the physical condition of the materials. 31 Including too much in an exhibit can overwhelm and distract a viewer, so the exhibit preparator must be particularly rigorous in selecting the most significant items that will illustrate the theme in a visually interesting manner.

The process of evaluating and selecting evidence frequently encourages an
author or exhibitor to refine his or her thematic concept. With this new understanding of their focus, authors and exhibitors structure a story or argument using their evidence, presenting it clearly and in a well-organized manner. Authors’ tools are words, ideas, and thoughts—they communicate verbally. Exhibit designers express themselves visually—they quite literally build a structure that will convey the theme. The designer interprets a subject by coordinating the selected objects with an idea and by presenting them in a style that fosters study and comparison. An author uses a logical progression of ideas to make the case. A designer groups and lays out documents, images, and artifacts in a manner that invites viewers to see relationships. He or she uses the interplay of color, light, and texture to create mood, while the size, shape, format, and placement of items determine emphasis in the composition. The designer also uses verbal cues in an exhibit; labels, which are part of an overall “script” or story line, explain the significance of the materials selected and establish the context in which they are presented. Judgments about their physical appearance and placement are thus as important as content.

While preparing a journal article or exhibit, similar intellectual and creative processes are used in choosing a topic, exploring sources, and evaluating, selecting, and presenting material to effectively interpret a theme. This process ends when authors or exhibit preparers place a concrete product—the results of their research and interpretation—in a public forum to be judged for quality and effectiveness by an audience. This is publication—the act of making public. The final product for a journal article is a printed text addressed to colleagues who speak the same professional language. An exhibit is a more complex final product. It is an interwoven composition of printed words, images, objects, and occasionally sounds, that is presented for the critical appraisal of not just colleagues but the public at large. An exhibit is judged by the uninitiated as well as the initiated and must be comprehensible to both. As a product, it is the result of both research and creative activity and thus is a close cousin to such artistic endeavors as musical and theatrical performances. An exhibit appeals to intellect, emotion, and the aesthetic sense. It is not merely a lifeless product—it is a sensory experience and an entertaining event as well.

While the success of a journal article depends primarily on the author’s skill in presenting reasoned arguments, a powerful exhibit does not appeal just to the intellect but must be emotionally and aesthetically satisfying as well.

Exhibits that re-create an environment for the viewer have the potential for making a significant impact on the public and the academic community. The Atlanta Heritage Row exhibit helps visitors experience the claustrophobia, fear, and uncertainty of a family hiding in their basement during the Union siege of Atlanta. Audio and visual effects are particularly striking as the visitor stands in a low, cramped area listening to a young girl read from a contemporary diary, accompanied by the steady thudding of shells and occasional flashes of red light. A simpler but powerfully moving component of the same exhibit combines photographs of segregated lunch counters and hooded Ku Klux Klansmen, a pastor’s pulpit, and a recording of Martin Luther King, Jr., proclaiming, “I have a dream....”

The use of sound and moving images in an exhibit can be particularly effective. Many books have been written explaining the power and popular appeal of Adolf Hitler, for example, but an exhibit using vintage German newsreels can instantly and unforgottably demon-
strate his charisma and the wild enthusiasm he provoked among his followers.

Homelessness is also a topic explored by numerous articles and statistical studies but never more meaningfully than in the Smithsonian's *Etiquette of the Undercaste*, an interactive maze that a visitor enters lying in a morgue drawer. Audiotape cassette players containing excerpts of real conversations with the homeless lead solitary visitors through simulated experiences in a prostitute's hotel room, a jail cell, reform school, and soup kitchen. The visitors are both audience and performer in this exhibit. They are assaulted by a street world of screeching sirens, pulsating strobe lights, and menacing figures—and then confronted by their own reactions when they see their images in a number of discreetly placed mirrors.35

The exhibit's kinship with creative artistic expressions makes it more difficult to evaluate than more traditional scholarship, but we do not lightly dismiss the work of colleagues in art, music, or literature because it is different or difficult to judge.

Like artistic performances, the ephemeral nature of exhibits as events may be a concern, but it is not an insurmountable problem. When exhibits are the result of "substantive original research," efforts are usually made "to publish a record of the information and insights gathered. "36 The exhibit catalog then becomes a permanent reference tool.37 Permanence can also be assured by other means. The exhibit can be photographed like any other event and studied later, using the photos as documentary evidence. Notes taken during the research phase of the exhibit can be handled as a manuscript collection and used by other researchers in the library. Like artifacts unearthed during an archaeological excavation, items used during the exhibit (or reproductions of them) can be retained as a group and used by patrons for study. Even if a catalog is not published, a record can be maintained of items used in the exhibit and their placement so that the exhibit can be re-created at a later time.38 While efforts to provide a lasting record of an exhibit's impact may be part of a striving for permanence in a changing world, it is the exhibit itself (and not the documentation of it) that is the published product of research.

The same procedures that an author employs in producing an article for publication are followed in creating an exhibit. Indeed, at many stages during the process, it is clear that preparing an exhibit is even more demanding than writing an article. If the intellectual and creative rigors of exhibit production are so great, why are most academic institutions uncomfortable granting exhibits the status of a scholarly activity? The exhibit's kinship with creative artistic expressions makes it more difficult to evaluate than more traditional scholarship, but we do not lightly dismiss the work of colleagues in art, music, or literature because it is different or difficult to judge. An exhibit is an entertaining experience. Do we suspect that because it is enjoyable, its creation must not have been rigorous or its purpose not serious? Exhibits appeal to the emotions and senses as well as to the intellect. Do we fear exhibits as tools of manipulation rather than respect them as instruments for teaching?

As the offspring of museums, exhibits treat artifacts and images as objects for serious study. Do we share "the prejudice on the part of learned people on university faculties that only the written or printed word is an intellectually respectable source for research and valid work"? Museums have long known that "objects are as much documents to be read as the printed page."39 Bibliographical scholars know this also.40 Information is more than just the message conveyed by a text. The physical carriers of ideas—the method of information transmission, the formats in which ideas are expressed—also provide information.

Exhibits use a multimedia approach to communication. Much of our learning today is visual and interactive. When we
convey the results of our research, are we going to insist on printed text in professional journals and the public reading of text at conferences? Information encountered in this way becomes a sterile commodity when it competes with “learning tools [that] are massive, multicultural, interactive, and visually stunning.” Will we be satisfied with the passive appreciation of text while multimedia approaches engage all the senses to enhance learning and stimulate personal responses to new knowledge? Will we dismiss a method of conveying information that accommodates different learning styles, that encourages the learner to use facts and ideas we present to create new knowledge on his or her own, and that portrays our work as “appealing, powerful, and moving”? 

Exhibits demonstrate that information is also packaged in nontextual forms. Effective exhibits are user-friendly; they stimulate interest in a topic and encourage a search for additional information.

Are exhibits merely a useful teaching technique, not a serious research activity? And is teaching what we relegate to second-string faculty? The links between teaching and research are being forged anew. Good teachers are those who are actively involved in research, and major academic institutions are becoming increasingly self-critical for sacrificing teaching on a narrowly defined altar of faculty research. Leading supporters of education are encouraging a more broad-minded view of the roles of teaching and research. A new interpretation of information or a presentation of ideas that leads to a new understanding is just as necessary in advancing knowledge as is the discovery of new facts.

As we broaden our concept of knowledge and of the research that reveals it, the value of collaboration across professional and disciplinary boundaries becomes clear. The process of developing an exhibit has often been a sterling example of cooperative work among curators, subject specialists, designers, editors, conservators, and public relations promoters. If research benefits from the integration of knowledge and if scholarship suffers from its fragmentation, we should be reaching out across the narrow boundaries of our own profession to adapt insights, techniques, and approaches used in other fields.

“At its best,” one author states, “the academic library exhibit is a scholarly effort subject to review by a large audience.” Do we harbor an unacknowledged sense that this audience, which includes students and the general public, might not be as significant as the professional colleagues who read our journal articles? Do we believe that the judgments of this audience are not as valid as those of our colleagues? Academics who receive government grants that support research, collections, and services are discovering that this attitude is self-defeating in the face of growing taxpayer scrutiny of the relevance of work supported by public funds.

Exhibits demonstrate that information is also packaged in nontextual forms. Effective exhibits are user-friendly; they stimulate interest in a topic and encourage a search for additional information. They empower users, enabling them to learn on their own. They provide lifetime learning for people of all ages. These are all concepts that are familiar in a library environment.

Exposure to a variety of design, fabrication, public relations, subject, and other specialists during the preparation of an exhibit encourages us to challenge and refine the assumptions of our own profession, and it promotes an ongoing process of learning, in the best traditions of higher education. Exhibits provide college and university librarians with opportunities to forge links with colleagues in other academic disciplines. Collaboration promotes mutual understanding and allows us to demonstrate the value of our own profession to academia—a profitable exercise if the faculty status of librarians is brought into question. Finally, exhibits provide both
librarians and other academics with a way to communicate the value of our work to corporate sponsors and the general public, whose financial and moral support is essential to our success.

Exhibits, as a form of scholarly communication, have many values for academic librarians. They allow us to speak in a new language to a wider audience. They encourage an interdisciplinary dialogue with academic colleagues, stimulating new thinking that promotes the advancement of knowledge. Exhibits broaden our view of the sources of information, and they foster awareness of the inextricable link between information and its carrier. Exhibits may be children that academic libraries have adopted from museums, but it is time to welcome them as an integral part of the family.

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The links between research and teaching are expressed as “the traditional scholarly underpinnings of the curriculum” in Chronicle of Higher Education 38 (Nov. 20, 1991): A1. On the renewed academic interest in teaching, see Carolyn J. Mooney, “Stanford


46. One of the most exciting research projects to be recently reported is a scholarly effort to present information about the excavation of the burial site and artifacts discovered in the tomb of the first emperor of China—"one of the most significant finds of this century." The project is directed by the associate dean of the Simmons College library school and includes on the research team a professor of anthropology, a curator of art, and a professor of Asian studies. They communicate the results of their research on two interactive videodiscs with film footage, images of artifacts, oral interviews with experts, and full text of publications. This project is at once scholarly, interdisciplinary, multimedia, and interactive. Beverly T. Watkins, "After 20 Years, Western Scholars Get Access to Information on a Key Archaeological Find," Chronicle of Higher Education 38 (Feb. 5, 1992): A21 and A23.


CORRECTIONS


The note for Table 1 was omitted; it stated that:

Some papers were rejected as articles but later accepted as "Research Notes."

Footnote 32 should read:

Data analysis did not proceed beyond 1990: for that year the authors only included manuscripts that had been submitted and for which the editor had rendered a decision. This accounts for the 24 articles mentioned in Table 1 for the year 1991.
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Approval Plans: Politics and Performance
Robert F. Nardini

Approval plans, controversial when introduced as a gathering technique during the 1960s and 1970s, have evolved into a focused acquisitions device commonly used in academic libraries. Yet approval plans remain controversial within some libraries because they are inherently political in nature. Approval plans challenge library boundaries, requiring consensus on collection development and acquisitions priorities, cooperation among library departments, cooperation between the library and teaching faculty, and a close partnership with the vendor. Since few concrete performance standards exist, approval plan effectiveness is difficult to measure. Perceived difficulty of measurement contributes to the political nature of an approval plan. As in the past, vendors will play an active role in the evolution of approval plans during the 1990s, when libraries may establish cooperative profiles and add a new dimension to approval plan politics.

"Approval and gathering plans are here to stay," predicted Peter Spyers-Duran, who in 1968 organized the first conference on this newly developed acquisitions method.1 Norman Dudley seconded Spyers-Duran with his 1970 observation, "[I]t seems very clear that . . . approval plans are with us to stay."2 The following year a third librarian repeated the comment: "It seems obvious," remarked H. William Axford at the third approval plan conference in 1971, "that the approval plan technique . . . is here to stay."3

In fact it wasn’t obvious in 1971 that approval plans were here to stay. The concept had been established by the Richard Abel Company during the 1960s. Yet in 1969 Norman D. Stevens spoke for many librarians opposed to approval plans when he described them as symptomatic of "a more casual attitude toward the expenditure of funds."4 His words were mild compared to others. In 1960 Eli Oboler had described librarians using publisher blanket orders, a forerunner of the approval plan, as having "no sense of values."5 Stevens himself noted book vendors’ "greedy demand for the library dollar."6 Skepticism grew when the Abel Company failed in 1974.7 Other vendors took up the practice after the demise of Abel, sustaining the approval plan and thus the debate. In 1978 Rose Mary Magrill and Mona East wrote of lowered selection criteria and of booksellers who "set up plans to exploit the situation."8 Margaret Dobbyn’s dissent was anthologized in a 1979 reader: "The literature even presents various justifications for turning over the selection of what is needed by the university library to a businessman, whose primary interest in the academic community is profit."9

Given opinions like these, Spyers-Duran, Dudley, and Axford weren’t simply reporting fact. They were argu-

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ing in favor of approval plans. Despite the hardy strain of criticism, many librarians agreed with them and the case clearly was won, to the degree that Dobbyn’s statement has been the last outright published attack on the approval plan idea. 10

Certainly today’s evidence indicates that approval plans are an accepted way to buy books. When the 1988 volume of H. W. Wilson’s Library Literature fixed “Approval plans” as a subject heading, ending seclusion of the topic under “Acquisitions—order processes,” a minor badge of legitimacy was awarded. Also in 1988, an Association of Research Libraries (ARL) survey found that over 90 percent of respondents used approval plans. 11 While statistics are difficult to find, smaller academic libraries also show significant approval plan activity. 12

The ARL found “striking,” nonetheless, a “remarkable diversity of practice.” The number of domestic approval plans varied from one to twenty-seven per library. Libraries reported an assortment of approval plan types: comprehensive; university press; specialized plans for certain publishers, subjects, or formats; and other variations. Six ARL members reported no approval plans at all. 13

The ARL’s findings hint that the question of how to use approval plans, even whether to use them, remains alive. Twelve years ago Jennifer Cargill’s summary report on the fourth, and most recent, approval plan conference said that they were “now regarded as a reliable and efficient tool.”14 Yet one 1988 ARL respondent said that a “vendor’s business is selling, not selecting.”15 Another reported, “We have found there are no benefits for us and are considering discontinuing the one plan that we now have.”16

“It is apparent,” the 1988 ARL report very cautiously allowed, “that in certain important respects, approval plans are a stable institution.”17 Caution had earlier been displayed in a 1982 report. “Apparently,” concluded the ARL, echoing Spyers-Duran, “approval plans are here to stay.”18 With consensus in the literature reached long ago and with widespread approval plan use clearly documented, why these refrains from an old debate? Two decades removed from the original words, the ARL’s restatements were less a continuation of Spyers-Duran’s argument than a symptom of librarians’ persistent unease with approval plans.

In fact, the debate once published in the literature takes place more privately, within the walls of some libraries. Approval plans remain controversial because by nature they are inherently political. They raise questions about how library decisions are made and who has authority to make them. Approval plans trespass upon library boundaries: boundaries between teaching faculty and library, between administration and staff, between acquisitions and collection development, between one subject selector and another, and between library and book vendor. Never easily drawn, these lines all may be challenged by a new approval plan or by change in an existing one.

THE POLITICS OF APPROVAL PLANS

The term library politics acknowledges that approval plans exist in a complex organizational landscape. To avoid the phrase is to slight the talents of the librarians responsible, sometimes in the face of opposition, for running approval plans. Despite a vendor’s best work, no library will have a fully effective approval plan without having staff able to forge and maintain consensus on priorities and procedures. Approval plan politics is nothing more than that.

Boundaries between Library Administration and Staff

One source of tension is disagreement between library administration and staff. “If the staff is opposed to it,” recalled former Abel representative Jim Cameron, “you should just say thanks to the library and walk away. It won’t work otherwise. If the director make the decision that ‘we want the approval plan’ and the staff is not in favor of it, the plan won’t work in that library.”19
A 1977 survey found administrators responsible more often than any other library group for the initiation of an approval plan. In the ARL's 1988 report, savings in staff time was the most common reason stated for having a plan. Demands upon academic libraries in the 1990s outpace growth in staff, one reason for the continued strength of approval plans in a time of lean budgets. As in the days of the Richard Abel Company, staff cooperation remains essential to approval plan success.

Boundaries between Teaching Faculty and Library

Hugh Atkinson, at the first approval plan conference in 1968, reported that a new approval plan at Ohio State had caused professors to feel the library "was somehow pulling a 'fast one' on them." In a sense the professors were right, since librarians often have seen in approval plans a tactic to gain control over book funds, and, as a 1982 ARL respondent stated, a way "to assert [their] role in collection development over faculty." Particularly institutions with no strong history of book selection by librarians might expect questions when teaching faculty learn that a portion of the usual funding—often viewed as "theirs"—will be diverted toward a program they barely understand. Approval plans, remarked a physicist addressing a library conference, only partly tongue-in-cheek, "are schemes designed by librarians to frustrate the faculty and get librarians out of work." In this second arena of approval plan politics, librarians must gain the cooperation of academic departments.

Boundaries between Acquisitions and Collection Development

Opposition to approval plans often comes from collection development librarians' sensing a loss of control in shipments of books that may anticipate their orders, that may be late in arriving, that a selector may dislike, or that may be wholly unfamiliar. Worse still is the time when a desired book fails to arrive at all. Selecting books in tandem with a distant vendor's staff, and with foreign procedures and standards, may seem an alarming prospect to librarians who consider book selection "the quintessential professional act," as William A. Wortman recently wrote. Yet there are always skeptics like Daniel Gore, who referred to "the old myth that only they [selectors] were truly qualified to select books for their library." Acquisitions librarians, apt to hold this less reverent view of selection, often see approval plans as a means to reduce the number of orders their department must process. But to some acquisitions librarians, approval plans are an avenue through which others can intrude upon their domain. Workflows must accommodate the needs and schedules of selectors visiting the approval review shelf. Returns must be processed, and the most discriminating selectors cause the most work for acquisitions. Vendor selection, a traditional acquisitions prerogative, can change radically, as the lion's share of the monographs budget may go to a vendor chosen by committee.

Certainly today's evidence indicates that approval plans are an accepted way to buy books.

One approval plan advantage, according to a 1982 ARL respondent, is that the process "forces dialogue between acquisitions staff and selecting librarians." The dialogue isn't always friendly. Achieving balance between acquisitions and collection development priorities is a third element in the politics of approval plans.

Boundaries among Selectors

When a library buys monographs through firm orders, selectors may be free—constrained only by budget—to define the library's collecting interests as they see fit. But an approval plan requires that the library's needs be explicitly stated in the form of a profile.
Reaching agreement on profile specifications such as publisher or subject coverage will require negotiation and compromise, since most decisions will affect several selectors and many will affect all.\textsuperscript{32}

Budget is another issue. If an approval plan is funded as a single line item, wary selectors will try to prevent too much money from being transferred from their discretionary funds. If approval plan books are charged to selectors' lines, estimating the allotments may be difficult, especially for a new approval plan, since this means predicting how much the vendor will ship.

Despite a vendor's best work, no library will have a fully effective approval plan without having staff able to forge and maintain consensus on priorities and procedures. Approval plan politics is nothing more than that.

Collection development is a young function in many libraries. Authority lines may be weak for the collection development head. Nonetheless, the need for some means to achieve consensus within the selecting group comprises the fourth sphere of approval plan politics.

**Boundaries between Library and Vendor**

A fifth area of consequence intersects all the rest. Approval plans require that the library and vendor share professional acquisitions and collection development responsibility. No other book-buying method puts the two in such an intimate relationship. Some librarians question that a partnership is possible. How compatible are business values and those of a library? What part does the profit motive play in a vendor's individual and aggregate book selection decisions? Which party truly controls the approval plan?

Competition among vendors for business is another factor in library politics. When vendors compete for a new approval plan or attempt to displace an incumbent rival, the stakes can be high. Beyond financial reward is the less tangible prize of prestige; i.e., the satisfaction of winning an important account. Bound up with the vendors' persuasive efforts may be staff's inclinations toward one vendor or another. Vendors will try to use these inclinations to their own advantage.\textsuperscript{33}

**Evaluation of Approval Plan Performance**

"I have had frequent opportunity to ask and be asked," reports Dennis R. Brunning, "how is the approval plan doing?"\textsuperscript{34} Many librarians might say the same thing. Despite the prevalence of the question, answers will draw nearly always upon impressions, not upon data. Approval plan performance, in comparison to firm order service, is difficult to analyze quantitatively.\textsuperscript{35} Concrete and widely accepted performance standards hardly exist. Therefore, the case for or against approval plans may proceed on any number of levels, many of them with political overtones.

At the same time, the political nature of approval plans is a contributing reason for the lack of an adequate means of quantifying them. While consensus may have been reached that approval plans are good, the question of why they are good is less easily settled.\textsuperscript{36} Statements in the literature variously assert that speed of delivery is not important, that discount is overemphasized, and that a plan with a 43 percent rejection rate was performing well.\textsuperscript{37}

Librarians on the same staff, even within a department, may view an approval plan in an entirely different way. Setting aside staff who participate with reluctance, those who join willingly may do so for differing reasons and may bring their own priorities with them. Whose priorities will prevail? Should librarians seek depth and breadth of coverage (one area of possible disagreement), or should profile precision and a low return rate be the goal?

Librarians aren't likely ever to have a ready equation to calculate approval plan success. Which factors should be rated, and what weight assigned to each? Return rate is often cited, since it
is easy to measure. But the list of other variables is formidably long: speed of delivery by the vendor, breadth of coverage, depth of coverage, accuracy in observing the profile, billing and shipping accuracy, quality of bibliographic records, quality of management reports, customer service responsiveness, technical services, and discount. The relative importance of these will vary from library to library, and from librarian to librarian. The political nature of approval plans is a contributing reason for the lack of an adequate means of quantifying them.

While the need for regular monitoring of approval plans has long been recommended, putting an approval plan under formal study will certainly erase any time savings the plan may have won for the staff. Brunning recalls the "countless hours" spent on his study, and Linda Ann Hulbert and David Stewart Curry concluded their research by warning that "the memory of the work involved ... will temper our enthusiasm for embarking on another." In addition, researchers face a moving target. Since vendor service levels may rise or fall at any time with improvements or disruptions involving staff, facilities, or equipment, results can quickly become obsolete.

A Case Study in Approval Plan Evaluation

One approach to formal approval plan evaluation is to compare a working plan to a parallel system of selection, the method chosen by Linda Ann Hulbert and David Stewart Curry in their study of a new approval plan at the Health Sciences Library at the University of Iowa. The library had canceled an earlier plan because "coverage ... appeared unsatisfactory," and the new one faced skepticism. Alongside the new plan, staff continued to select from book reviews, publisher fliers, and other sources. After three months, their choices were compared to approval receipts. The approval plan brought in 38 percent of selections from fliers and 20 percent from reviews. The record varied widely by publisher and journal. Did the plan perform poorly or well? The authors concluded: "We have assured ourselves that the approval plan ... works well for our library."

A year later Hulbert, who by then had moved to a different library, repeated the study. She wrote a letter to College & Research Libraries, acknowledging an absence of benchmarks to put her results in context: "Because the results from the original study could be taken by some as good and by others as mediocre, and, therefore, not conclusively in favor of approval plans, I felt the need to affirm that a good vendor can support a growing collection and that dependency on that vendor is not an abrogation of the collection development responsibility of a library."

Comparing Vendors

Another approach to approval plan evaluation is to compare an incumbent vendor to the competition, by asking one or more firms to operate a shadow approval plan by supplying bibliographic records under specifications as close as possible to the live plan. Because vendors use different methods to construct profiles, it is hard to devise instructions that will have competitors doing exactly the same thing. In addition, researchers must contend with explaining what doesn't happen in a study, as well as describing what does happen. Thus it is far easier to compare speed when all vendors under study treat a given book, than to account for a title handled by one and not another.

Did one vendor miss the title? Or did the profile, as understood by the vendor, exclude it? Or did the vendor treat the title before or after the study's time parameters? In their 1989 study of sci/tech approval plans at Texas A&M University, Gloriana St. Clair and Jane Treadwell demonstrate by their data that these questions will need to be addressed. St. Clair and Treadwell asked four vendors to provide the same subject coverage over
the same period of time, to find that only 77 of 1,892 titles—4 percent—would have been supplied by all four vendors.45

Study design aside, the question persists: how to interpret results? When one vendor supplied 67 percent of the titles treated by another, as Hugh Franklin found at Oregon State University, was this success or failure?46 Or was 72 percent, as reported in 1982 at Texas A&M, a success?47 The respective test vendors might have seen things differently, but both results were interpreted favorably toward the incumbents who had treated the smaller number of titles in both instances.

An incumbent vendor—at the very least a familiar name in the library—has every chance to build trust, to form working relationships with all levels of staff, and to defend its approval plan against competing firms by influencing library decisions. Librarians often invest considerable time and effort to establish and maintain an approval plan with their vendor of choice. How many percentage points better will a competing vendor need to be before the original investment is discarded?

Communication between Library and Vendor

The experience of the University of Nebraska, Lincoln, described by Kay Womack et al., suggests what may happen to a neglectful incumbent. Womack reported persistent dissatisfaction among some staff, yet reluctance from others to part with their vendor of ten years. With a new dean and new acquisitions head, though, the library conducted a review of five vendors and made a decision to change. One lesson learned was "that vigilance must be maintained if the services of the vendor are to be used with skill. It was obvious from the vendor presentations that the Acquisitions staff had not understood the full capabilities of the vendor services. The presentations also revealed the importance of good communication between the vendor and Acquisitions."48

"Good communication" between approval plan vendor and library has been a byword in the literature from the start. When staff confess not to understand vendor capabilities, blame is placed clearly upon the vendor, who cannot have taken advantage of incumbent position to correct this, who must not have formed strong relationships with key staff, and who may have assumed that an arrangement of ten years' standing would stand for ten more.

As vendors compete in a market that is static at best, and as libraries search for efficiencies, the cooperative approval plan may arise.

An attentive vendor is far more likely to pass review. Even if a study uncovers a usually responsible vendor's failure to ship one-third of the titles in a sample of desired new books, a librarian may still conclude that the approval plan "works as it should."49 More than once the bond between library and approval plan vendor has been compared to marriage.50 As the metaphor suggests, the two share a union in which much may be forgiven.

Has trust been achieved? The answer to this question, above any other, is the test of approval plan success or failure. Has trust been achieved within the library? Staff must work closely and communicate clearly for any approval plan to do its job. And has trust been achieved between library and vendor? Each must feel, as the measure of success, that the other has fully invested in a partnership requiring a remarkable level of interaction.

APPROVAL PLANS, PAST AND FUTURE

Thirty years ago, the approval plan was invented for the mass acquisition of books. Twenty years ago, as library budgets began to shrink, the survival of approval plans was doubtful. But vendors and librarians retooled the approval plan by focusing profiles upon core areas of interest, a shift so successful that published dissent on the method virtually disappeared over ten years ago.

While use today is widespread, there is no reason to think the approval plan's
evolution is complete. As vendors compete in a market that is static at best, and as libraries search for efficiencies, the cooperative approval plan may arise. The cooperative approval plan may include two or more libraries and a vendor who designs integrated profiles, thus adding a new dimension to approval plan politics. Joint profiles could only invite joint evaluation and monitoring. That, perhaps, would suggest new yardsticks for performance, fashioned from data jointly gathered on the concrete experience of peer libraries. Whether or not changes like these come about, it is clear Peter Spyers-Duran and all who agreed with him were correct, that approval plans are here to stay.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

17. Ibid., [flyer].
29. The 1964/65 annual report of UCLA’s university librarian, which reported that despite certain problems, approval plans had reduced by 29.8 percent the number of invoices processed, was excerpted in Library Journal and no doubt widely read: “Publishers, Computers, & Consumers,” Library Journal 91 (Mar. 15, 1966): 1365.


41. Ibid., 488–89.

42. Ibid., 491.


49. Brunning, "Troubleshooting the Approval Plan," 100, 106.


51. Such a venture was reported over ten years ago: Sylvia N. Schnaars, "The Bryn Mawr/Haverford Joint Approval Plan: Can Two Live as Cheaply as One?" in *Shaping Library Collections for the 1980s*, 59–68.
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his article follows the pattern set by the semiannual series initiated by the late Constance M. Winchell more than forty years ago and continued by Eugene Sheehy. Because 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 Guide AD540 and Suppl. CJ331) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide to Reference Books (10th ed., Chicago: American Library Assn., 1986) and the Supplement ... Covering Materials from 1985–1990 (Chicago: 1992).

INTERNET


Each new day brings with it an increasing array of library catalogs, textual and numeric databases, software and document archives, electronic journals and books, and discussion groups and bulletin boards available to anyone with a computer and modem or network connection. While the basic skills for navigating this new domain are fairly easy to learn, they are far from intuitive, and an even more daunting task is locating appropriate material in this vast and as yet inadequately cataloged universe of electronic information. As a result, reference librarians increasingly can expect to be called upon to render assistance with these matters, as well as to be using the network themselves in providing answers to specific requests for information.

A number of publications have sprung up to address this need, one of the most satisfying of which, in this reviewer’s judgment, is this volume by Ed Krol of the University of Illinois. Designed as a comprehensive introduction and guide to the Internet and its resources for the average computer user, it describes the various networks and how they operate, outlines regulations and etiquette for their use, offers troubleshooting tips, and provides an explanation and practical instruction in the use of such standard programs as telnet, ftp, and electronic mail as well as a host of other programs and applications for sending and receiving news, finding software, locating individual addresses, and organizing and locating resources through the interlinked menus of gopher, the index-searching capacity of WAIS, and the hypertextual links of World-Wide Web. The text is followed by a fifty-page subject listing of Internet resources; useful appendixes describing how one can get connected to the Internet, the extent of connectivity in different countries, defining “acceptable use” of the Internet, and a glossary of basic terms.

The book lives up to its name admirably, providing access to often quite detailed information on almost any Internet topic in the space of a single volume. Moreover, while dealing in concrete examples, the author takes care to
point out the major variations in procedure from one computer platform to another. This is clearly a work for those who want some understanding of how and why things work as well as for those who need basic instructions, but a well-designed layout and detailed index also make it possible to zero in quickly on the latter. In short, it is one of the best choices for a new or moderately advanced user of the Internet who wants to come to terms with the services and resources available or to find out about one of them quickly.

It is, of course, true that any attempt to track a dynamically exploding medium such as the Internet in the form of a static, printed book is doomed to start aging almost as soon as it leaves the press, and this volume is no exception. However, the foundation laid by this guide is a solid one and will no doubt lend itself to several subsequent editions. It is also clear that, for this generation at least, there will continue to be a need for literate, user-friendly printed guides of this kind to assist those less accustomed to the electronic media in taking the leap to a whole new way of searching for information.

Those in search of a more condensed ready-reference guide to using the Internet, with less accompanying commentary, are advised to consult Crossing the Internet Threshold: An Instructional Handbook, by Roy Tennant, John Ober, and Anne G. Lipow (Berkeley, Calif.: Library Solutions Pr., 1993. 134p.), growing out of the authors' practical experience as Internet trainers.—R.H.S

PERIODICALS


The "journal," in this survey of periodicals in the French language published between 1600 and July 14, 1789, is defined as a publication which appears periodically to provide the reader recent information concerning current issues. This work lists 1,267 titles, by far the largest number of titles collected for the time period; Hatin, Bibliographie historique et critique de la presse périodique française (1866, Guide, AE68) has some 350 titles. The Dictionnaire des journalistes (Grenoble: 1976) along with its five supplements (1980-1987) will be incorporated into the Dictionnaire de la presse, vol.2 (to be published). Together the two Dictionnaires form the authoritative study of the periodicals of the Ancien Régime.

Each entry lists: (1) title with title variations, (2) dates of publication, (3) physical description (volumes, fascicles, formats, illustrations, etc.), (4) address of the publisher, subscription information, price, circulation figures, (5) founders and editors, (6) general description of the contents, (7) location of existing copies, (8) references. All articles are signed. Extensive indexing is provided: collaborator, place of publication, printer/publisher, cited author, editor and journalist, and title; there is a chronological table which has cross-references to the entries.—J.S.

RELIGION


These two recent bibliographies from Garland provide complementary coverage of religion and religious groups within Soviet society, particularly during the period of glasnost. The volume by Yelena Luckert offers an admirable selection of literature in ten languages from as many countries (with a preponderance of materials in English) on the Jews of the Soviet Union from the time of the revolution to the end of the 1980s. Among the topics addressed are history and demography, biography and memoirs, religion, Zionism, ethnic relations and
anti-Semitism, emigration and émigré communities, and literature, art, and music. Equally broad is the range of publications surveyed: bibliographies and other reference works, scholarly monographs and essays, serials and government documents, newspaper and magazine articles. Many of the 1,446 entries are accompanied by helpful and detailed annotations that make this book a pleasure to browse. The material is made more accessible by its division into chronological and subject chapters, each divided further into topical sections, as well as an author index. (The volume would have benefitted from a subject index as well.)

While this is clearly a selective work and thus does not supersede the earlier Jewish Publications in the Soviet Union, 1917-1960: A Bibliography (1961, Guide BB537) and Russian Publications on Jews and Judaism in the Soviet Union, 1917-1967: A Bibliography (1970, Guide, BB538), there does not appear to be any other single-volume survey of such scope and comprehensiveness, and almost any collection seeking to provide serious coverage of Soviet or Jewish affairs will surely want to acquire it.

The aim of Boris Korsch’s work, in the author’s words, “is to present Soviet religious policies as illustrated by propaganda in a socio-political and ideological context, framed in accordance with the CPSU and Soviet government objectives of the moment,” and to document, among other things, the striking move away from a unified ideological front in the late 1980s under Gorbachev. To this end, Korsch has assembled an imposing collection of nearly 6,000 citations to articles and books, mostly in Russian, on the subjects of religion, theology, church history, atheism and free thought, gleaned from the basic Soviet national bibliographic periodicals, four or five other official or unofficial bibliographic serials, and the holdings of the libraries of the University of Jerusalem.

Users of Soviet bibliographic publications are frequently hampered by an absence of efficient subject control, and Korsch, by pulling together such a large amount of material in a single volume and providing it with a subject index, has thus performed an important service for students of this subject. However, the work does not go far enough in facilitating access to the literature. For the most part, the material is not arranged topically, but by publication type: reference works, Marxist-Leninist works, dissertations, and so forth, with the largest part of the entries (a few thousand) presented in a straight alphabetical list under the laconic heading “Soviet Publications on Religion and Atheism, 1980-1989.” The index, for its part, is insufficiently detailed or comprehensive to compensate for the absence of an overarching subject organization. English-language translations are provided for each title, but they are frequently wooden and unidiomatic, and in a few cases unclear or misleading. Finally, the precise criteria for the selection of materials are not obvious, making it difficult to anticipate just what sorts of titles one can expect to find here. Alongside works of a manifestly journalistic and propagandistic character one finds some, but not other, studies by bona fide scholars, and while a handful of uncensored religious publications is included, it is not clear why they, rather than others, were chosen. An introductory essay offers some key to understanding trends in the literature of this field, but while its observations are no doubt valid, the organization of the bibliography forces a reader interested in pursuing such lines of inquiry to go to considerable lengths in testing these assumptions or drawing conclusions of his or her own. Clearly, this is a publication that every serious student of religion in the Soviet Union will want to consult, but the shortcomings described will no doubt hinder its effectiveness as a more general reference tool.—R.H.S.

Any librarian who has used Dissertation Abstracts in print or on computer to find titles on a broad topic understands why this type of index is necessary. Keyword searching is notoriously imprecise, and it is a joy to have some sort of subject control over general topics. Part I of this bibliography is a listing of dissertations arranged alphabetically by denomination, from Adventist to YMCA; Part II is a listing by topics, such as women, music, education, etc. There is an author index and a fairly detailed subject index. Unfortunately, some of the headings are not detailed enough; "African-American" is the only heading for some 265 dissertations, and "Puritan" the only heading for some 300 others.

Since the limitations of keyword searching for dissertations are the reason for this bibliography, it is unfortunate that, according to the Preface, the compilers limited their search only to Dissertation Abstracts. Apparently none of the more specialized lists or lists of individual schools were examined. A look through Reynolds' Guide to Theses and Dissertations: An International Bibliography of Bibliographies (Suppl. AH4) turns up many titles which could have been searched.

Of course, if all the relevant dissertations are included anyway, relying on one source does not matter. But in this case, they are not. Harvard granted thirteen doctorates in the field of religion in 1974/75; only one is listed in this bibliography. Paul Laver's 1892 Johns Hopkins dissertation Church and State in New England is included; Maria Green's 1895 Yale dissertation Church and State in Connecticut is not.

This bibliography will be a useful shortcut to some hard-to-find titles, but cannot be used as a definitive list of dissertations on American religion.—M.C.

LITERATURE


Although these two companions to Romanticism are both arranged alphabetically, with signed entries for some of the same topics (architecture, Industrial Revolution, nature, orientalism, the sublime), people (Jane Austen, William Frend, and Thomas Love Peacock), and literary forms, they vary considerably in outlook and scope. The Encyclopedia of Romanticism is far more comprehensive. It has many more entries; they are longer, and each provides a brief bibliography of consulted works. Compiled by American and English scholars, it "is designed to survey the social, cultural, and intellectual climate of English Romanticism . . . [and] is for everyone from undergraduate English majors through thesis- or dissertation-driven graduate students to teaching faculty and scholars" (Preface). It provides entries for newspapers and periodicals of the day; painters, engravers, and other artists; playwrights, actors, and theatres; philosophers; romantic concepts (spontaneous overflow of feelings, spots of time, and anxiety of influence); and much more. It is recommended for libraries of all sizes.

The Handbook to English Romanticism is briefer and "is intended for the student who wishes to obtain information quickly and easily about the principal literature of the period." Entries are shorter, have no bibliographies, and are limited to the best-known subjects and figures of the age. It was compiled by British and French scholars, and the few unique entries relate to French subjects (Anti-Jacobin, Jacobin Novel, Robespierre, Rousseau, and Waterloo). Libraries owning The Encyclopedia of Romanticism have no reason to add this one.—S.S.

WOMEN'S STUDIES

This fine and useful bibliography lists some 1,150 journal articles, essays, dissertations, and reports on all aspects of the Chicana experience. Citations have been pulled from the Chicano Periodicals Index (Guide, CD490–CD491), and the Chicano Database on CD-ROM (Berkeley, Calif.: Chicano Studies Library, Univ. of California, 1990– ). Although the articles cited may be found in the sources listed above, the topical arrangement and the fact that the works focus specifically on women make this a very useful bibliography. It is arranged alphabetically by subject, with entries for individuals; organizations and companies; geographical areas; plays, poems, books and films; conferences; geographical areas; as well as general subjects including acculturation, marriage, sex roles, nutrition, feminism, and youth. The index covers articles about Chicana authors and literature, including critical essays, interviews, book reviews, and anthologies, but omits citations to poems, short stories, novels, and plays. There are many cross-references, and each citation is listed under at least three different headings, compensating to a large degree for the lack of a separate subject index. The cited articles are pulled from a wide variety of feminist, scholarly, and Chicano periodicals, including Gerontology, Environment and Behavior, Industrial and Labor Relations Review, as well as Third Woman, Latina, Fem, and De Colores.—S.S.


Lesbian Sources lists periodical articles concerning all aspects of lesbian life and culture, past and present, which were published in English between 1970 and 1990. It consciously does not repeat the articles cited in Clare Potter’s Lesbian Pe-
describes both published and unpublished material.

The bibliography, Section I, is arranged by topics, e.g., social adjustment, women, Scotch-Irish, specific geographical region or state, and includes books, articles, and theses and dissertations. The manuscript portion, based on results of questionnaires, is arranged alphabetically by state and then by institution; it offers an address and brief description for each. Section III, Government Manuscripts and Publications, lists relevant record groups in the National Archives with a mention of any finding aids, followed by a short bibliography of government documents, mostly Congressional. The final section, Statistical Overview, features thirty tables picturing population and immigration in the United States, Ireland, and Northern Ireland. The purpose of these tables is the "provision of a basic set of tables that researchers could use with appropriate caution" (Introduction). Unfortunately the index covers only the manuscripts and government documents chapters by personal name and a few subjects.

There are two similar directories with which Blessing can be compared. Irish Research compiled by DeeGee Lester (Suppl. DC146) cites only archives and manuscripts collections but in 647 organizations in the United States, Canada, Ireland, Northern Ireland, England and Wales, with somewhat longer descriptions, and better indexing. Susan Eleuterio-Comer, Irish American Material Culture (Suppl. DB171), describes 90 collections, a few not in the other two, and adds Festivals and some National Register sites. Each adds to the others but neither has the bibliography and statistical tables of Blessing.—E.M.


As the title indicates, the purpose of this index is to provide a means for locating and identifying published portraits of individual Indians within tribes with variations in the names by which an Indian may be taken into account. (Frazier uses the term Indian throughout the volume.) Chronological coverage is from the colonial period to the 1940s, although some sources include later portraits.

Each source included in the index has at least ten portraits identifiable by personal names and tribe. The author emphasizes that this work is not a comprehensive index and recommends other sources for Indian portraits, such as tribal histories. Not included, for example, is George Catlin's North American Indian Portfolio, both the original and facsimile, because they were unavailable.

The index is arranged alphabetically by tribe, and within each tribe, alphabetically by individual. There are many see references for the tribal names and alternative personal names, both Indian and Europeanized. There are 4,800 entries which include the name, the alternate name, if known, the source keyed by number, and the page or plate number within the source. Unfortunately, birth and death dates for the sitters are not included, nor are the media of the portraits. A general index at the end of the volumes lists all names and variations, with references to appropriate tribe.

When consulting other portrait sources, Frazier's Index fills a gap in the literature. The ALA Portrait Index (Guide, BE83) includes citations to well-known Indians, e.g., Sitting Bull and Geronimo, from popular sources, such as Harpers. The Bibliography on Portraiture by Irene Hepper (Suppl. BE7) provides some forty-four book and periodical citations to portrait literature in the classified area of the publication, under the heading "Ethnic Groups—Indians." Hepper would be a good portrait source to use in conjunction with Frazier's Index.—K.A.K.

Most reference librarians have some sort of ready-reference file to help answer frequently asked questions or to document difficult ones, but few are lucky enough to have one as elaborate or as extensive as that of the Schomburg Center; 100,000 handwritten cards compiled over the last forty years. The file was started originally because there were so few reference works with information about Afro-Americans and evolved into a (selective) in-house index to several black journals, newspapers, and articles in books, as well as a ready-reference file. This card file has now been revised, standardized, and published with the help of a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities.

It is arranged by subject, based on those headings established by the New York Public Library, supplemented by additional headings that the compilers thought useful. Citations are arranged chronologically, with any facts or references to books in the Schomburg collection at the end of each entry.

Though I found no “see also” references, there are a few cross-references that mainly cover different forms of names. This is unfortunate, though understandable, given the ad hoc nature of the index’s development. But this deficiency can make finding everything in the index on a particular topic difficult. “Afro-Americans—Relations with Jews,” for instance, has a number of articles discussing the issues of affirmative actions and quotas, with no reference to another heading “Affirmative Action Programs.” There is nothing under “Quotas,” but a number of entries under “Bakke.” In another instance, there are only seventeen entries under the heading “Apartheid” (all from The Amsterdam News), with no suggestion to look also under “South Africa,” where there are thirteen pages of references.

There are some surprising gaps. The Ocean Hill-Brownsville incident was a major turning point in New York City education, but there is nothing in the index under Ocean Hill, Brownsville, or Al Shanker. I found a few references to the topic under “Education—New York (N.Y.),” but there are many more citations in Lenwood Davis’s Black-Jewish Relations in the United States (Suppl. CC195). Nor are the sources indexed exhaustively. The entry for Kathleen Battle, for instance, lists a few reviews of her performances from The New York Times, but not the long article about her in The New York Times Magazine.

These caveats aside, this is a very useful source, especially for biographical references. In the short time this has been in our library, it has already proved extremely useful for the “I need three articles on...” type of question. “One of the most important things to know about this index is that it is idiosyncratic,” the Instructions warn (p.xv). It was also compiled by front-line librarians in response to actual questions, and it will be welcomed by other front-line librarians as a valuable supplement to, not a replacement for, other reference sources.—M.C.

UNITED STATES HISTORY


This alphabetical encyclopedia covers in 800 entries “essays about the major and minor naval battles of the era along with detailed information about raids, ambushes, skirmishes, engagements and massacres” (Introduction). Although it is strongest in its coverage of military aspects, there are articles on diplomacy, statesmen, the impact of war on society, women, blacks. For example, within just a few pages one finds entries for camp followers, casualties, Catherine the Great, cavalry, chaplains, Cherry Valley Massacre, Connecticut, conscription.

The articles are written by scholars, signed, range from 250 to 25,000 words, and offer surveys concluding with bibliographical references. Also as aids for the student are 58 maps, a chronology,
and a glossary. The volume concludes with a subject index; there are no cross-references in the text.

The American Revolution complements the Blackwell Encyclopedia of the American Revolution, ed. Jack P. Greene and J. R. Pole (Cambridge, Mass., and Oxford: Blackwell, 1991. 845p. $60). This earlier publication features "75 substantive articles which cover all the major topics relating to the Revolution, including its central events, the context in which it occurred, its causes, its effect, and the principal concepts associated with it" (Preface). Also written by scholars, the essays appear in six sections: Context, Themes and Events, External Effects of the Revolution, Internal Developments after the Revolution, Concepts, Biographies. It too has maps (but only eight), a bibliography ending each article, a chronology (covering in three parallel columns 1688-1791 for political and legal; military, civil order, western settlement; and society, culture, economics, science and religious developments), and is well indexed by topic (but with no cross-references).—E.M.


The editors of the Encyclopedia of American Social History aimed to produce a work that would "capture the results of the generation-long paradigm shift" away from the history of "battles, presidential administrations and treaties," to the "history of everyday life." Acknowledging that social history is a discipline without firm boundaries, they have cast their net as broadly as possible, and have produced a work of vast proportions.

The three-volume work is a compilation of 180 subject specific essays grouped into fourteen thematic sections, including sections on social identity, processes of social change, regional subcultures, work, popular culture, the family, etc. Some sections, such as the one on "Methods and Contexts," for example, provide quite a thorough over-view of the various approaches to the study of history. Others, such as the section on "Ethnic and Racial Subcultures," are much less comprehensive; it covers only a fraction of America's many minority groups. The essays are, by design, not mechanical surveys of a subject but interpretations. This combination of interpretive essays, broadly defined subject matter, and random arrangement of sections and essays within sections makes the Encyclopedia more a compilation of a series of essays to be read rather than a quintessential reference book of facts to be looked up.

To find a topic or to follow up on one noted in a see also reference at the end of an essay, one needs to consult either the table of contents or the index. The essay titles in the table of contents are, however, only partially indicative of the contents, and some subjects, such as the city, for example, figure in several sections. Since there is no alphabetical list of essay titles, locating a referred to essay through the table of contents can be time consuming. The index is thorough and extremely useful, but it is a typical back-of-the-book index with the attendant shortcomings of voluminous entries under some subjects, such as "South."

In the end, the many merits of the work, its broad scope, the acknowledged subject expertise of the contributors, the presence of a selected bibliography at the end of each essay, and, in general, the ability to consult an array of related American social history subjects in one convenient multivolume work, far outweigh any of its shortcomings.—O.dC.


In trying to answer the question, "Did nursing and medical care during the war make a difference?" the compiler has examined books and journals and provided a carefully annotated bibliography of contemporary and secondary sources. "I have tried to reference every letter and diary by
a doctor or nurse who participated in the events of the War, even if they made no medical observations. The bibliography includes the most important contemporary medical publications. I have included reports by individual soldiers and officers who were wounded or were hospitalized in order to sample the viewpoint of those on the receiving end of medical care" (Introduction).

Primary sources are first (17-144) and include descriptions of the medical journals which existed at the time as well as citation to individual articles and books. The secondary section follows also referencing books and articles (145-238); the index covers authors and topics.

On checking the citations here against other Civil War bibliographies, I found very few omissions; the one omission is from Garold Cole in Civil War Eyewitnesses (Suppl. DB28), who cites the earlier part of Cyrus Bacon's diary printed in the University of Michigan Medical Bulletin for Nov./Dec. 1963; both Freeman and Cole cite the later part. Freeman has, of course, many, many more diaries, letters, autobiographies from doctors, nurses, patients, observers, etc. With the well-written annotations, good indexing, and thoroughness of coverage, this will be of immense use to students and researchers working in this area.—E.M.

ENGLISH HISTORY


Fritze intends to fill the gap left by English historical dictionaries with a wider time span, such as Steinberg, Dictionary of British History (Guide, DC310) and Kenyon's Dictionary of British History (1983) by adding more specialized entries including short biographies and bibliographies. The primary focus of the Dictionary is England, and the main emphasis is on constitutional, religious, and military history.

The dictionary includes 295 articles, ranging in length from a few paragraphs to five pages, contributed by sixty-six scholars from England, the United States, Canada, and Australia. About one-fifth of the entries are biographical. Much emphasis is placed on political events, such as treaties, battles, rebellions. There are, however, survey articles on plagues and epidemics, social structure, and political thought. Each article is accompanied by a very brief bibliography, one to three titles, for further reading.

The dictionary concludes with a Chronology, a Selected Bibliography of Recommended Reading, and a subject index. The subject index is rather difficult to use: over 100 page references are given under a personal name without a topical breakdown of the titles. It also lacks cross-references within the index and the topics which figure as titles of the articles are not mentioned in the index.—J.S.

FRENCH HISTORY


A companion volume to L'Histoire médiéval en France: bilan et perspectives (Paris: Seuil, 1991), this bibliography surveys French works on the Middle Ages from numismatics to computer science published during the past twenty-five years. The bibliography is divided into sixteen chapters by field (political, urban, cultural, art, etc.); it also indexes coverage of Byzantium, Islamic regions, and Africa. Though most of the chapters are classified lists with short introductions, the chapter on art history takes the form of an essay followed by a numbered list of bibliographic citations. Each chapter cites between 100 to 1,000 items, and a wide variety of publications has been gathered from local history societies, universities, conferences, books, and articles in major journals.

The majority of items are written in French and published in France, but some Italian, Spanish, and German works are cited, as well as a few British
and American publications, especially in the chapter on medieval studies and the computer. Author index.—J.S.

NEW EDITIONS
AND SUPPLEMENTS

A cumulative index for the 1980–1989 annual volumes of Internationale Jahrbibliographie der Festschriften (Guide AA153–AA154) covers the names of the honored and of the authors of the contributions to these festschriften (Osnabruck: Biblio, 1992. 2 vols.).

In 1946 Warren Henry Brown compiled a Checklist of Negro Newspapers in the United States (1872–1946), which, in thirty-seven pages, cited 467 daily and weekly newspapers, giving place, often publisher, beginning year, and in some cases the ending date. The bibliography was a mimeographed one (Jefferson City, Mo.: Lincoln Univ., 1946), not widely held by libraries. Vilma Raskin Potter has reprinted the Checklist as A Reference Guide to Afro-American Publications and Editors 1827–1946 (Ames, Iowa: Iowa State Univ. Pr., [1993], 104p., $18.95) with corrections and additions, and with supplementary indexes for place of publication, year of publication, undated publications, and editors, and additional citations for publications from 1827 to 1880 with editors’ names when known. Professor Potter’s introductory essay “includes information on Brown, some of the early black women in journalism, what was printed in the black press...” (preface), and a description of other black newspaper lists.

Bartlett’s Familiar Quotations: A Collection of Passages, Phrases, and Proverbs Traced to Their Sources in Ancient and Modern Literature is now in its 16th edition (Boston: Little, Brown, [1992]. 1,405p. $40); 15th ed., 1980, Guide BD120). The new editor, Justin Kaplan, has thoroughly revised the selections—especially the Melville, Whitman, and Mark Twain quotations—added some 340 authors, and updated the coverage to reflect the influence of the Vietnam War; rock and pop lyrics, and the movies. In fact the volume ends with quotations from Michael Jackson and “Sesame Street.”

Another heavily used quotation dictionary, the Oxford Dictionary of Quotations, has also been revised (4th ed. Oxford: Oxford Univ Pr, 1992. 1,061p. $35; 3d ed., 1979, Guide BD129). Edited by Angela Partington, this new edition offers “17,500 quotations from roughly 2,500 authors” (introduction). Features include an increase in American, non-British, and scientific quotations, a return of lines from hymns and songs dropped from the previous edition, and an increase in explanatory notes. Obviously there is overlap with the Oxford Dictionary of Modern Quotations, ed. Tony Augarde (Oxford: Oxford Univ. Pr., 1991. 371p. $29.95).

And yet another revision, the New Quotable Woman (New York: Facts on File, [1992]. 714 p. $40), compiled and edited by Elaine Partnow, is a revision and updating of the Quotable Woman 1800–1981 (1982, Guide BD130) and The Quotable Woman from Eve to 1799 (New York: Facts on File, [1985], 522p.). Partnow states that she has “cut out about one-third of those quotations [from the earlier two volumes], updated material on 150 or so of the more contemporary women, and added 450 new contributors... supplemented with about 2,000 new quotations” (introduction). Arranged by author in chronological order by publication date, the quotations “reach all the way back to Eve.” Two new indexes covering occupation and ethnicity and nationality are added to the subject index.

Two bibliographies of Christianity are concluding. William G. Hupper’s An Index to English Language Periodical Literature on the Old Testament and Ancient Near Eastern Studies (Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow, 1987–1992, 5 vols.), and the ATLA Bibliography Series 21) has just issued volume 5 ($72.50), which is a classed arrangement of articles on general studies of religion, including comparative religion; philological and epigraphical studies; and the Bible as literature. Unexpectedly a third volume of Bibliotheca bibliographica historiae sanctae inquisitionis (Vaduz: Topos, 1992, 475p., 250SFr; for volumes 1–2 see Guide BB295) has been
published, and according to the compiler, Emil van der Vekene, "there are at present no plans to continue this bibliography" (introduction). This volume adds almost 2,200 references to the 4,800 in the earlier two volumes with an additional 100 items in a supplement. There are indexes to volume 3 for authors, editors, and titles of periodicals; festschriften; encyclopedias; and collected works and an index to names as subject in volumes 1–3.


Kindlers neues Literatur Lexikon, edited by Walter Jens (Suppl. BD29), is now complete in 20 volumes. The contents work out like this: volumes 1–17 (1988–1992) cover authors; volume 18 and part of volume 19, called “Anonyma, Kollektivwerke, Stoff,” focus on themes, e.g., Margarete or Passionspiele; the rest of volume 19 and part of volume 20 feature essays on the literatures of a group of people, including Arabic, Berber, and Spanish. Volume 20 also includes an author-with-title-of-work index for volumes 1–17, a cited title index for the essays in volumes 18–19, a list of titles cross-referenced to the author index, and an inserted index to the authors cited in the essays in volumes 19–20. These last volumes are edited by Rudolf Radler (München: Kindler, 1988–1992).

A. G. S. Enser’s Filmed Books and Plays (Guide BG171, Suppl. BG60) has been revised a number of times. This current revision, Enser’s Filmed Books and Plays 1928–1991, compiled by Ellen Baskin and Mandy Hicken (Aldershot, Hants., England: Ashgate, 1993. 970 p. $59.95), has as its cut-off date December 1991, though a few 1992s have crept in. The editors also weeded the entries for those announced but never filmed and added titles missed in earlier editions, as well as books and plays from which animations, musicals, and television series have been made. These latter works have special back-of-the-book indexes. Altogether there are now about 6,000 entries, with much stronger coverage of foreign and non-British films than previously. Other new features include the addition of directors’ names and a current list of production studios with addresses.

Another interesting film bibliography is Literature and Film: An Annotated Bibliography, compiled by Jeffrey Egan Welch (1981). Now a supplement has appeared, designed to record “all important books and articles published in North America and Great Britain having to do with the special relationship between films and works of literature.” This volume covers 1978–1988 (New York: Garland, 1993. 341 p. $53; Garland Reference Library of the Humanities 1114) and excludes film reviews, general interviews, dissertations, and theses. The indexes list authors and editors, individual literary works or films, and subjects—names and “ideas.”

The Actors and Actresses Volume of the second edition of the International Dictionary of Films and Filmmakers (Chicago, London: St. James, 1992. 1,080 p. $115; 1st ed. Suppl. BG92) now comprises some 635 entries. Most of the entries from the previous edition have been retained here, although all have been thoroughly updated. There are, however, 80 entrants new to this edition” (Editor’s note).

The same publisher has begun issuing another series for the theater entitled the International Dictionary of Theatre, edited by Mark Hawkins-Dady (Chicago, London: St. James, 1992. 950 p. $120; $345 for the 3 vol. set), which offers the same coverage and format as the film dictionary. The first volume, which is all that is available so far, covers 620 plays. For those plays not in English, “we have made a selection of those works, which, through study, performance, or reputation have become highly regarded and
well known in the English speaking world" (Editor's note).

Museums of the World, 4th edition revised and enlarged (Munich: Saur, 1992. 804p. $325; 3d ed. 1981. Guide BE131) is updated with the phone and fax numbers and the director's name added, while the number of countries covered increased from 163 to 182 and the number of museums from 17,874 to 23,997. In addition to person and subject indexes, there is now an Index of Museum Names. A more specialized directory, Bibliothèques et musées des arts du spectacle dans le monde/Performing arts libraries and museums of the world has also been revised (4th ed. Paris: CNRS, 1992. 740p.; 2d ed., Guide BG8). Compilers André Veinstein and Alfred S. Golding based their information on results of a questionnaire with the "greatest number of returns from the United States, Italy, Scandinavia, Netherlands, and Flemish-Speaking Belgium" (introduction). The arrangement is by country, then alphabetical by city and institution. The directory includes an index of names and of collections.

With the third edition, the compiler Brian Mitchell has changed the title of European Historical Statistics (Guide CG201) to International Historical Statistics: Europe 1750–1988 (New York, Stockton, Basingstoke, Hants, England: Macmillan, 1992. 942p. $250) in order to associate this volume more firmly with its companions for Africa and Asia (see Guide CG118) also compiled by Mitchell. The new edition brings coverage of many of the statistical tables up to the 1980s though the compiler cautions that many of the most current statistics "are provisional and will be subject to revision in the future" (introduction).

Volume V of Südosteuropa-Bibliographie was completed in 1976 (Guide DC35); now volume VI, part 1, compiled by Manfred Stoy and Gerhard Seewann, is published (Munich: Südost-Institut, 1992. 664p.). This volume covers publications on Rumania, 1971–1980, arranged topically with an index for authors, editors, and titles of main entries.

The Encyclopedia USA, now edited by Donald W. Whisenhunt (Suppl. DB63), has issued its first cumulative index, which is a topical one covering volumes 1–10 (1983–1988): Agricultural Adjustment Act–Chicano Movement (Gulf Breeze, Fla: Academic International Pr., 1992. 251p.).

The Bibliographie der deutschsprachigen Arabistik und Islamkunde (Frankfurt: Institut für Geschichte der Arabisch-Islamischen Wissenschaften an der Johann Wolfgang Goethe-Universität, 1992. Suppl. DE8) has completed the bibliographical portion of the set with volume 11 (1992), which also contains a supplement (arranged by volume), a table of contents for the previous ten volumes, and a list of sources and abbreviations. With volume 12 the author index begins; thus far volumes 12–13 have been issued and extend coverage through the letter F. For each citation full bibliographical details are given with a reference to the volume and page where it is originally cited.

Because of expense and extensive time commitment that a new edition of A Historical Atlas of South Asia (1978. Guide DE101) would require, the editor, Joseph E. Schwartzberg, chose to update a few maps and accompanying text, e.g., the prehistoric and protohistoric periods, but mainly to add a section of new maps most of which detail post-independence political history, with a cutoff date of June 1991. The bibliography (p.320–26) is updated as is the index to incorporate the new material (Chicago: Univ. Chicago Pr., 1992. xxxix, 376p. 42cm. $250. Reference series, Association for Asian Studies 2).
Time Patterns in Remote OPAC Use
Thomas A. Lucas

Expanded hours of access and the reduction of peak system loads are often cited as advantages of remote access to online public access catalogs (OPACs). This argument is based on the assumption that remote users search OPACs when libraries are closed or when there is low internal use. The author tested this assumption by performing a transaction log analysis of the remote and internal use of the OPAC of the Research Libraries of the New York Public Library. The analysis showed that patterns of remote and internal use differed greatly. A large part of remote searching occurred when the Research Libraries were closed. Compared to internal searching, remote searching was distributed more evenly over the course of the day and the week. The study shows that remote access expands the hours of use of the catalog and has the potential to reduce peak system loads at the Research Libraries.

Although OPAC use studies now constitute a large literature, only two authors have examined the time patterns of remote use in any detail. One is Sally W. Kalin, who studied the remote use of Penn State’s OPAC for one week in 1984. Kalin found that remote searching was heaviest between 2:30 and 5:00 p.m. She also tallied remote searches by day of the week, and found that they peaked on Wednesday, and were lowest on Saturday and Sunday. However, she did not attempt to compare patterns of remote and internal use. Moreover, remote access was not available at Penn State when the library was closed. Thus Kalin’s study does not reveal whether remote users at Penn State searched during hours of low internal use.

During an eleven-month period in 1988-89, Thomas A. Peters studied re-
mote use of the OPAC at the University of Missouri at Kansas City. Peters found that remote use was heaviest on weekday afternoons, and that there was comparatively little use of remote access in the evenings and on weekends. He compared remote use to total system use by day of the week and found that in both cases use was highest on weekdays. Both remote use and total use were much lower on weekends. Peters did not compare remote and internal use by hour of day. As at Penn State, remote access to the OPAC at Kansas City was not available when the library was closed.

Two other studies treat the time patterns of remote use only in passing. Bernard G. Sloan, commenting on seven years of experience with remote access to the Statewide Library Computer System (LCS) in Illinois, notes that “remote users access a system more frequently on evenings and weekends than do users of on-site public access terminals.” Lynn L. Magrath reported in 1989 that most remote users in Colorado’s Pikes Peak Library District searched the Maggie III OPAC between 4:00 p.m. and midnight. Neither Sloan nor Magrath attempts a fuller comparison of remote and internal use, nor do they indicate whether remote access was available when their libraries were closed.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

With the partial exception of Peters’s and Sloan’s work, these pioneering studies of remote use do not address the following questions: How do patterns of remote and internal use compare? Do remote users search during periods of low internal use? Do they search when the library is closed?

The present study attempts to answer these questions for one institution: the Research Libraries of the New York Public Library (NYPL). NYPL is a private corporation founded in 1895 by the merger of the Astor and Lenox Libraries with the Tilden Trust. NYPL operates four Research Libraries and eighty-two Branch Libraries in Manhattan, the Bronx, and Staten Island. (Brooklyn and Queens have separate library systems.) The Research Libraries hold thirty-eight million items in four locations: the Central Research Library in Midtown Manhattan, the New York Public Library for the Performing Arts at Lincoln Center, the Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture in Harlem, and the Library at West 43rd Street. The Research Libraries serve 1.4 million people a year in person, 337,000 by telephone, and many others by mail. This study exclusively concerns the Research Libraries.

Advocates maintain that remote access expands the hours of access to the catalog by allowing users to search it when the library is closed.

In January 1992, the Research Libraries replaced an existing OPAC with an INNOPAC system. The name of the catalog, CATNYP, was retained. CATNYP contains 1.6 million catalog records dating from 1972 to the present. Two periodical indexes have also been mounted on the system. CATNYP has one hundred ports which, at the time of the study, served all four locations of the Research Libraries, remote users, and the Graduate Center of the City University of New York (CUNY). During the eight-week period of the study, the system recorded 293,549 user-keyed searches, an average of 7,527 each day that the Central Research Library was open.

Because the Research Libraries are located at the heart of a metropolitan area of eighteen million people, the process of making remote access to CATNYP available has progressed gradually. During the study period, remote access was provided through a single dial-access port. This port was available twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. The dial-access number was released on a selective basis to librarians, students, and faculty members at three universities in New York. The dial-access number was not released to the general public, nor was its use promoted in any way.

These limitations on remote access obviously affected the outcome of this
study. If more ports had been available to remote users, and if the dial-access number had been widely disseminated and promoted, remote use undoubtedly would have been much higher. Nevertheless, the remote use that did occur showed a clear time pattern. The total number of remote searches during the eight weeks of the study was 3,891, an average of 69 per day. These remote searches constituted 1.5 percent of all public searches, and 1.3 percent of total system use.

The present study undertakes to answer the following four questions. First, did remote users search CATNYP during days when the Research Libraries were closed? Second, how did the daily patterns of remote and internal use compare? Third, did remote users search CATNYP during hours of the day when the Research Libraries were closed? Finally, how did the hourly patterns of remote and internal use compare?

**METHODOLOGY**

The research method used in the study was a transaction log analysis. Release 7 of INNOPAC compiles a detailed transaction log which is retained on the system for ten days. During the present study, the transaction log data were printed each Monday for eight weeks. The data were then transferred to Microsoft Excel version 4.0 for further compilation and analysis. The eight-week period of the study began at 11:00 a.m. on May 4, 1992, and ended at 11:00 a.m. on June 29, 1992. May and June are months of somewhat lower than average use in the Research Libraries. Still, use was substantial during the study period, and showed a clear pattern.

The INNOPAC transaction log identifies the port at which each search is entered. During the study period, each port was assigned to one of four classes of users: internal public, remote public, staff, and CUNY. Thus it was possible to separate the searches made by each of these user groups. The present study is concerned only with searches done by the internal public and the remote public. Staff and CUNY searches are not considered. During the study period there were 259,088 internal public searches and, as mentioned above, 3,891 remote public searches.

**FINDINGS**

**Remote Use by Day of Week**

The first question addressed was whether remote users searched CATNYP during days when the Research Libraries were closed. During the study period, the Central Research Library, where 89 percent of all internal use of CATNYP occurred, was open from Tuesday through Saturday. Central was closed on Sunday and Monday. The New York Public Library for the Performing Arts, where 6 percent of internal use occurred, was open on Monday and from Wednesday through Saturday. Performing Arts was closed on Sunday and Tuesday. The Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture, where 5 percent of internal use occurred, was open on Tuesday, Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday. Schomburg was closed on Sunday, Monday, and Thursday. The Library at West 43rd Street, where less than 1 percent of internal use occurred, was open on Tuesday through Saturday and closed on Sunday and Monday. Thus 94 percent of all internal searches were done in Central, Schomburg, and the Library at West 43rd Street, buildings which were closed on Sunday and Monday.

Figure 1 shows that there was substantial remote use on Sunday and Monday, when most divisions of the Research Libraries were closed. More than 12 percent of remote searches were done on Sunday, and over 14 percent on Monday. Remote searching on Sunday and Monday was only slightly below the level that would have resulted if remote searches had been evenly divided among the seven days of the week. Sunday and Monday together constitute two-sevenths, or 29 percent of the week, and 27 percent of remote searches occurred on these days. Thus it is clear that remote patrons made good use of CATNYP on days when the Research Libraries were closed.

When the daily patterns of remote and internal searching are compared, the
differences are readily apparent (see figure 2). Internal use was concentrated, necessarily, in five days of the week, with particularly heavy use on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Saturday. Twenty-three percent of all internal searching occurred on Tuesday, and 22 percent on Wednesday. On Sunday, by contrast, there was no internal searching, and only 3 percent of internal searching occurred on Monday. (These Monday searches are mainly attributable to the New York Public Library for the Performing Arts, the only Research Libraries location open on that day. In addition, some staff members in the Central Research Library used the public terminals on Mondays.)

Remote use, on the other hand, was distributed more evenly throughout the week. During the eight-week study period, the heaviest remote searching occurred on Thursday, with 18 percent of the total, and the lightest on Friday, with
12 percent of the total. A Kruskal-Wallis multiple comparison procedure was performed on the data to determine whether the differences in the number of remote searches per day were the result of chance. The procedure showed that there was no significant difference ($p = 0.25$) in the number of remote searches per day.

**Remote Use by Hour of Day**

The hours of the Research Libraries vary by division, but most divisions in the Central Research Library, where 89 percent of all internal use of CATNYP occurred, have similar hours. During the study period, most divisions in Central were open from 11:00 a.m. to 7:30 p.m. on Tuesday, from 11:00 a.m. to 6:00 or 7:30 p.m. on Wednesday (depending on the division), and from 10:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. on Thursday through Saturday. The New York Public Library for the Performing Arts, where 6 percent of internal use occurred, was open from noon to 8:00 p.m. on Monday and Thursday, and from noon to 6:00 p.m. on Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday. The Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture, where 5 percent of internal use occurred, was open from noon to 8:00 p.m. on Tuesday and Wednesday, and from 10:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. on Friday and Saturday. The Library at West 43rd Street, where less than 1 percent of internal use occurred, was open from 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. on Tuesday through Saturday. Thus, in the Central Research Library, where most internal use occurred, CATNYP was available about eight hours a day, five days a week. Remote access, by contrast, was available twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week.

Figure 3 reveals that remote users did a large part of their searching during hours when the Central Research Library was closed. Fully 48 percent of remote searches occurred either before 10:00 a.m. or after 6:00 p.m.—hours when the Central Research Library was usually closed. (In figure 3, the usual schedule for the Central Research Library was used to show the hours when the Research Libraries were open.) Figure 3 shows that there were three major peaks in remote searching during the day: the first in late morning, the second in late afternoon, and the third in late evening. The intervening valleys correspond to mealtimes. (Lunch and dinner are generally eaten later in New York than in other parts of the country.) Remote searching declined to a low level after 1:00 a.m., but there was some
searching throughout the night. The remote users confirmed New York's reputation as the city that never sleeps.

Figure 4 shows that the hourly patterns of remote and internal use differed greatly. Internal searches were bunched together, with 82 percent occurring during the six-hour period from 11:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. The heaviest hour for internal searching was from 2:00 to 3:00 p.m., when nearly 16 percent of all internal searches occurred. Remote use, by contrast, was spread more evenly throughout the day. The busiest hour for remote searching was from 4:00 to 5:00 p.m., when 8 percent of remote searches occurred.

**DISCUSSION**

It is clear that at the Research Libraries of the New York Public Library, patterns of remote and internal use of the OPAC differ greatly. Remote users do a large part of their searching during days and hours when the Research Libraries are closed. Thus the study shows that remote access expands the hours of use of the catalog. This benefit is of particular importance to a library such as NYPL, which has comparatively limited hours.

The study also shows that remote searching of CATNYP is distributed more evenly over the course of the day and the week than internal searching. This finding suggests that if internal users could be persuaded to do some of their searching from remote locations, a reduction in peak system loads might result. On the other hand, it is possible that remote access would simply increase the total use of the system, without reducing internal use. Further studies of this issue are needed. One approach to the problem would be to examine total system use before and after remote access is introduced. Another approach would be to survey internal users, asking them whether they would do less searching in the library if remote access were available. Those users who indicated a willingness to switch to remote access might then be asked when during the day and the week they would be likely to do remote searching.

The results of such studies would be valuable to librarians who must convince their administrators and funding agencies of the benefits of remote access in these times of financial exigency. These studies would be particularly welcome at a time when community information systems and freenets are receiving increasing scrutiny.

The present study should also be replicated and extended in other types of
libraries, particularly academic libraries and libraries offering Internet access. Such studies would involve different clienteles, and would help to determine whether the results of the present study are indicative of remote use in libraries generally.

Further studies may confirm that remote access is a way of expanding access to OPACs without the expense of increasing building hours. Future studies may also show that remote access is a means of spreading the load on OPACs over a greater number of hours, thus improving response time. As libraries increase the demand on their OPACs by mounting additional databases on them, these benefits of remote access can only grow in importance.

REFERENCES

Book Reviews


"This is the history of human institutions: first the forests, after that the huts, then the village, next the cities, and finally, the academies." So Vico wrote; Thomas Bender here gathers eight essays (four previously unpublished) that extend the story to the modern research university, providing a valuable background to the current debate on the usefulness (or harmfulness) of academic inquiry to public life.

Though written over more than a decade for a wide variety of audiences, the essays constitute a coherent project with two aims: First, to revise what Bender calls the "triumphalist" history of the rise of the research university and its associated professional disciplines. Second, by examining the careers of a number of twentieth-century scholars who challenged both the hegemony of the disciplines and their isolation from the broader culture, to suggest that, indeed, the figure of the public intellectual is due for a revival.

The book's first part, "Nineteenth Century of Origins of Academic Culture," treats a broad range of figures from a number of perspectives. From the eighteenth century until around 1840, American intellectual life was dominated by urban elites whose primary orientation and loyalty were to place and class. In museums, lyceums, societies of useful knowledge, and a whole range of institutions not academic in the modern sense, this life was dominated by the principles of mutual instruction, pleasure, and civic improvement. Though elite, it was inclusive: members of the learned professions, men of affairs public and private, and even tradesmen participated. Franklin and the many institutions with which he was associated may be taken as paradigms, and the pattern was repeated in smaller centers away from the Atlantic seaboard.

By 1840, under a host of pressures, among them the enormous growth and increasing diversity of the urban population and the spread of Jacksonian notions of democracy, this system began to break down. Its amateurish standards did not provide adequate validation to the work of those who saw themselves as intellectuals, nor was it successful in finding a broader audience. Attempts to re-center public culture were diverse: figures like Henry Ward Beecher, Walt Whitman, and for that matter, P. T. Barnum, sought to create a community of discourse where force of personality, not of argument, created authority. H. P. Tappan proposed the creation of a new kind of urban university that would provide intellectual certification and leadership to a wide variety of more popular institutions. None of these attempts resulted in a stable forum for the conduct of social inquiry.

It was only with the formation of professional societies such as the American Historical Association and the American Economic Association, "communities without location," as Bender styles them, within the new graduate schools of the 1880s that the situation stabilized. The new academics' loyalties were to the disciplinary communities that validated their work, not to the places where they performed it. Discourse was ordered, professional status secured, at the costs of intellectual overspecialization and of alienation from the life of the communi-
ties in which the new academics worked. Bender cites the founding president of Johns Hopkins, Daniel Coit Gilman, describing the university as a place to withdraw from urban life into "the repose necessary for scholarship."

The Kuhnian overtones of this largely convincing account, with its stresses on discontinuities, paradigm shifting, and validation are evident. Two points deserve emphasis: Bender's model is not evolutionary; Hopkins did not descend from Harvard. The earlier university was enmeshed in a completely different system of cultural production. And Bender stresses that there was nothing inevitable about the eventual outcome. Research universities seem natural to those of us who teach and work in them, but other alternatives were equally possible, and, to Bender, in many respects preferable.

Part II, "Twentieth Century Patterns," details some of the difficulties of the professionalization of intellect. The focus is on New York, and on social scientists: E.R.A. Seligman, a member of the first generation of professional social scientists and eventually editor of the monumental Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences; educationist and philosopher John Dewey; and Charles Beard, constitutional historian, municipal activist, and academic rebel. Because of his exemplary status as public intellectual, critic Lionel Trilling comes in for extensive and melancholy treatment. Less well-integrated into the themes of the book is a thin sketch of the Greenwich Village intellectuals associated with, among others, the magazine Seven Arts. Readers will be better served consulting Bender's recent New York Intellect for a picture of them.

If Seligman was the consummate academic professional (not high praise in Bender's terms), Beard and Dewey ultimately rebelled against the sterile standards of neutral expertise, quantifiable research topics, and the pretense of political independence that, for Seligman, embodied the virtues of the new social sciences. Bender makes a good case that these were simply the tools by which social scientists were able to establish their claim to be consulted by those in power.

In the third, concluding, section, Bender acknowledges the nostalgic Republicanism of his account of the growth of the academy. In fact, at the founding moment of American graduate education, the social sciences were conceived as the means to rationalize civic life. It was only with the spread of higher education that, instead of training public leaders like Woodrow Wilson and Theodore Roosevelt, academics began simply to clone themselves. But even at that early moment, the ideal of civic life was based, ultimately, on Florentine civic humanism, that is, on an historical model that could not, and cannot, simply be re-created.

For Bender, the work of John Dewey represents a possible resolution of the split (an issue raised by Hannah Arendt) between academic and political truth. The former is transcendental and unchanging, while the latter is necessarily of lesser order, contingent and mutable. Dewey essentially abandoned the Kantian epistemological project and, in the historical process, sought publicly to make ever better, more secure, and more broadly shared truths. It is to this fundamentally democratic process that Bender urges academics to contribute.

Although Bender, along with Richard Rorty and others, severely censures the academy for its hermetic self-absorption, there are signs that the situation may already be changing. Not only freakish figures like Camille Paglia (now writing a sex advice column for the glossy satirical magazine Spy) are involved. Writers like Henry Louis Gates, Jr., appear in The New Yorker, where Bender’s New York University (NYU) colleague Louis Menand is on leave as a consulting editor; and the recent anthology Wild Orchids and Trotsky: Messages from the American Universities (Penguin, 1993) shows that more academics are responding to the wake-up call sounded here.

This is a rich and engaging book. Perhaps its most serious weakness is that
Bender nowhere systematically analyzes what he means by the public and the public sphere. Recent controversies over multiculturalism together with contemporary advances in the technologies of communication and persuasion make this a vexed matter indeed. Fortunately, the present work serves as a sort of parergon to Bender’s more extensive examination of this question, shortly to be published under the title History and Public Culture.—David S. Sullivan, Stanford University, Stanford, California.


This concise and straightforward collection of essays, written by leading authorities who create, document, disseminate, and use social science data, builds on the earlier, seminal report of the Committee on National Statistics of the National Research Council, Sharing Research Data (National Academy Press, 1985). Subsequent conferences focusing on social science data sponsored by the National Science Foundation (NSF) and the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1988 and 1989 inspired much of the work in this volume.

Major archives that organize and disseminate social science research data have existed since the 1940s, gaining in strength during the 1960s when the Interuniversity Consortium of Political and Social Research (ICPSR) was founded at the University of Michigan. However, promotion of data sharing has intensified since the mid-1980s, by which time most funding agencies, including the NSF, systematically required investigators to deposit their primary data at a public archive within one year of project completion. The NSF requirement now even extends to data gathered by graduate students on NSF-funded fellowships. New policies intended to advance open scientific research coincided with more widespread access to computers, facilitating data collection, analysis, and distribution. The convergence of these trends has brought social science data increasingly into the mainstream of scholarly research. Readers familiar with the Research Libraries Group’s 1989 assessment of information needs in the social sciences will find that Sharing Social Science Data reinforces and illuminates many of its findings.

Editor Joan E. Sieber, who is professor of psychology at the University of California, Hayward, has assembled a coherent and compelling case for data sharing, concentrating on the need for archived data for current research interests. The first part of Sharing Social Science Data uses three carefully selected case studies to illustrate how different disciplinary trends and methodological perspectives influence scholarly research, drawing on investigations in demography, anthropology, and criminal justice. These examples document the complex issues in contemporary social science research and are worthy of close consideration.

V. Jeffery Evans describes a number of innovative hybrid projects that blend demographic constructs with various behavioral and social science methods of data collection, resulting in multilevel research designs that answer multidisciplinary questions. The strengths and weaknesses of data sharing in anthropology are ably presented by Douglas R. White. White writes:

Data sharing occurs in anthropology when there are shared theoretical, methodological, and data collection paradigms such as in archaeology and physical anthropology, and in areas of sociocultural or development anthropology...

He demonstrates how comparative data sets from diverse disciplines like environmental science, historical demography, and development studies permit anthropologists to test hypotheses about human populations in new ways. From his perspective further progress hinges on standardizing documentation, fully implementing a computer workstation concept that “combines advanced methodologies with ease and reliability in data management,” and maintaining mechanisms for cost-effective, international dissemination of information.
In the final chapter in this section, the investigating team uses criminal and civil justice research, specifically the Spouse Assault Replication Program sponsored by the National Institute of Justice, to explore how issues of confidentiality and protection of privacy of research participants, as well as the proprietary interests of researchers, were resolved in a multi-site field experiment while still achieving the standards and policies of data sharing.

Part II, on the "Elements of Successful Data Sharing," includes three chapters: "The Science of Data Sharing" by economist Martin David; "Establishing and Operating a Social Science Data Archive," by Josefina J. Card and James L. Peterson; and "Use of Shared Data Sets in Teaching Statistics and Methodology," by Sieber and Bruce E. Trumbo. Well-documented data sets, according to David, should permit the user to assess their "completeness, reliability, appropriateness of design, error, ambiguity, and portability." He then elaborates on weaknesses of current data documentation, using technical measures best understood by the specialist, although his interpretations and concepts are accessible to all readers. Card and Peterson discuss the purpose and structure of a centralized data archive from their perspective as professional psychologists who operate a commercial facility, Sociometrics, Inc., which is under contract to various federal funding agencies to manage social and behavioral data. Most of their criteria for evaluating a centralized data archive transfer to a university setting as well. Finally, Sieber and Trumbo discuss how the use of real data sets in teaching generates student interest and focuses their attention on substantive research problems rather than statistical techniques.

In the third section, "Challenges," Sieber poses questions most frequently asked by social scientists about the value of sharing data. She divides them into three groups: the professionally unconcerned who are either naively willing to share or reject sharing altogether; the concerns of neophyte investigators; and the informed concerns of experienced investigators. Two key factors will influence more widespread acceptance of data sharing—greater recognition and rewards for researchers who do share data, and, more systematic training of beginning social scientists in the value and methods of data sharing. Vivian Weil and Rachelle Hollander close the volume with "Normative Issues in Data Sharing." Trends toward team research, the erosion of boundaries between private and public research institutions, and the participation of government, industry, and foundations as funders call for the development of standards in data sharing. Weil and Hollander identify the following seven factors which need common guidelines: data quality, access, proprietary interests, maintenance (organizational support), privacy interests, informed consent arrangements, and assistance to users of data along with lending criteria.

Sharing Social Science Data effectively distills many aspects of the current debate about data sharing into a cogent argument. In many university settings, social science data archives are attached to specialized research institutes and often operate independently from the library. However, as more and more data sets become available in multiple formats or migrate from the domain of mainframe computing to the scholar's workstation, social science librarians need to forge closer alliances with data archivists. As this review goes to press, Sociometrics, Inc. has announced the release of The American Family Data Archive, which combines over 20,000 variables from 10 nationally recognized studies on family dynamics and child care. It exemplifies recent capabilities in the flexible "packaging" of data and its documentation, and, makes the complementary roles of librarians and data archivists more visible.

Librarians who wish to keep current of the evolving discussion about data sharing might consider joining the International Association for Social Science Information Service and Technology (IASSIST), which also sponsors a lively


Ann Lipow begins a 1991 LOEX conference presentation reproduced in Working with Faculty in the New Electronic Library by promising her audience that “because ours is a practical occupation,” her talk will quickly turn to the “nitty gritty.” It is at this level that the collections under review define their utility. Although this turn to the nitty gritty—rough, pestiferous, and hallowed ground of practitioners everywhere—intends to persuade us of the detailed real-life veracity and value of these volumes, it ensures a certain tedium as well.

These volumes are the three most recent in Pierian’s Library Orientation Series, which began in 1972 with a collection documenting the first of the LOEX conferences. Two of the volumes, Working with Faculty in the New Electronic Library and What Is Good Instruction Now? Library Instruction for the 90s, constitute the proceedings of the nineteenth (1991) and twentieth (1992) LOEX conferences; Bibliographic Instruction in Practice: A Tribute to the Legacy of Evan Farber includes papers presented at the fifth (1992) bibliographic instruction conference sponsored jointly by Earlham College and Eckerd College as successors to a series held at Earlham.

Both LOEX volumes reproduce four papers and a dozen “instructive” and poster sessions. The papers tend to be synthetic, hortatory, and prognosticating, while the session reports describe projects designed around specific user groups, technological applications, courses and fields, or methodologies and “problems.” Working with Faculty finds Evan Farber rehearsing the arguments for and challenges of working with faculty in any environment; Ann Lipow discussing how librarians at the University of California, Berkeley, communicate with faculty; Nathan M. Smith et al. describing Project FORE, a hypermedia library skills program at the University of Utah; and Fred Roecker and Thomas Minnick talking about the Gateway that provides online guidance in research at Ohio State University, and about the Gateway’s relationship to the “how-to-college” requirement the university places on all incoming students.

The second LOEX volume, What Is Good Library Instruction Now? offers Thomas T. Surprenant on teachers and students and the library’s future place in their work; Virginia Tiefel on a number of university library projects to enhance user services with electronic information technologies; Mary Reichel on the complex of issues surrounding developments in scholarly communication, learning theory, and the future of libraries and librarianship; and Hannelore B. Rader on the last twenty years’ work among library instruction practitioners, a period during which she sees an evolution from concern with library orientation to a more broadly conceived information literacy.

Bibliographic Instruction in Practice epitomizes the work of Evan Farber and others at Earlham College since they began their now famous program in the 1960s. After Farber’s introductory paper, in which he rehearses the familiar arguments for library instruction and the development of the Earlham program, the volume reproduces papers that describe departmental instructional rationales and goals, specific assignments, and instructional techniques. Transcripts of discussions, presentations, and testimonials cover the librarian’s role in
course and assignment design and the role of library instruction in the experience of students, faculty, and administration; the volume concludes with a helpful annotated bibliography of major works in the library instruction field from 1980 to 1992.

As a snapshot of current thinking on library instruction, these volumes offer a picture in which a concern with the opportunities presented by electronic information technologies is primary. In the foreground of the picture are university libraries, whose staff contribute the majority of the literature. Also much in evidence is a move toward a set of goals and methodologies gathered under the redundant rubric active learning. The snapshot represents librarians as having to take responsibility for identifying ways in which the library can enhance courses and assignments; it thus recognizes the need for librarians both to be proficient in and knowledgeable about the tools of their trade and to be sufficiently knowledgeable about the substance of work being done in academic departments to be able to see new ways in which the library can promote it. The picture further shows that there is no single, correct way to relate a library to its community: what works in one place may not work in another because a host of local realities can make a mess of what looked good somewhere else. The message between the lines of these papers is, then, that good library instruction is whatever works in each library's particular circumstances.

In this last regard, Tom Kirk's Introduction to Bibliographic Instruction in Practice, which discusses Evan Farber's management philosophy, suggests how different the possibilities for library instruction in university and college libraries are. The size, variety, and geographical dispersion of the university's user populations, together with its organizational structures and the patterns of human interaction that prevail in a large, heterogeneous organization, make the leadership, staffing, and content of library instruction programs look very different from the way they look at Earlham College. Sheer size and bureaucratic compartmentalization, for example, militate against, although they do not preclude, the integration of service functions, ongoing personal attention to individual students and courses, and close cooperation between librarians and faculty that tend to characterize user services in a college library. For much the same reasons, a college creates more opportunities for substantive interaction between librarians and faculty, opportunities that increase the likelihood of faculty's recognizing the intellectual as well as procedural contributions that librarians can make to their work.

Uniting the elements of this picture of current library instruction practice is a desirable convergence of librarians' "how-to" expertise and the faculty's "what-for" or "what-about" interest in designing courses and expanding students' knowledge of their field. This aspect of the picture includes something of an admonition for librarians, one heard best in the remarks of Earlham professor Gordon Thompson. His two pieces in Bibliographic Instruction in Practice remind us that information, knowledge, and the procedures that construct and relate them are meaningless outside of what is done with them. Thompson tells us, in effect, that research and interpretive expertise (for which "information literacy" may simply be the emperor's new clothes) cannot be divorced as a set of skills from the substance and disciplinary traditions that people study and certainly cannot be equated with what happens in a library or in front of a networked computer. Since much of "information literacy's" program can be achieved in literature and philosophy courses that need have nothing to do with a library or even "information," librarians should avoid the tendency implicit in our vocation to put the cart of the library before the horse of course matter. The library does not exist, after all, so that people can learn to use it, and Thompson's advice about "recalcitrant faculty" reminds us that the best library instruction will not teach information-seeking skills so much as it will use a library as a way of thinking about a subject.
That a sense of *déjà vu* accompanies these volumes is inevitable, so widely circulated are news and discussion of the projects and ideas recorded here. Although this fact makes these collections hard to read, they are nonetheless valuable as part of that ferment of redundancy through which the profession both moves toward consensus about its history and "major ideas" and finds a habitat for general principles in local situations. That these papers also have the inert quality which "how-to" advice tends to have outside the live performance of a conference (where such advice can be inert enough) is probably equally inevitable. Finally, even though one knows that the excitement of working with students and faculty on a project does not travel well beyond the moment of involvement, one misses that very excitement in these pages.

A number of the papers collected here inform us that ACRL's Bibliographic Instruction Section is its largest subgroup. This is good news because what strikes one is how strongly the proponents of libraries' instructional role still voice the concerns that have characterized their work since it began in the growth-oriented 60s and, indeed, that have always characterized the best of librarianship's public spirit. Today, this voice remains one of the library world's most humane. It reminds us, muffled though it sometimes is by practical detail, that what we librarians do is more about people and their development than it is about information or technologies or the troubles of large bureaucratic organizations. In the end, the affirmation of human capacity implicit in this commitment to the educational purposes of libraries provides the best possible ground for the profession, pesky with nits and rough with grit though that ground tends to be. One heartily endorses, therefore, Ann Lipow's exhortation, in the paper referred to above, that "our libraries should be redesigned so that you have to trip over a librarian when you walk in the door."—Robert Kieft, Haverford College, Haverford, Pennsylvania.

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