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Creating and Managing Change: Some Controversy, Some Level-Headedness

"We are being swept downstream by a torrent of change. The familiar vanishes and we have shifted into the rapids without really noticing them. Some people are acting as if they are still on a slow-running river; others recognize that they are surrounded by white water." — Robert Theobald

Many writers have said that the only constant in our society may be change. Furthermore, we are often reminded that when the only certainty is dramatic, unpredictable change, we can no longer rely on what worked in academic libraries in the past to be the best approach in the future. To extend the above perspective by Theobald, are we librarians arriving at a point where we cannot predict our course through the rapids and are beginning to see rocks appearing ahead? On the contrary, I believe we should not perceive the transformation of academic and research libraries through the eyes of an alarmist!

Unquestionably, the rate of change is occurring faster today than ever before in the history of academic libraries. The academic library was begun in a much simpler time, a time when most knowledge was printed in books and the creation of new knowledge was less overwhelming. Today, the academic library must strive for greater relevance on its campus and take its responsibility for information dissemination more seriously.

Technology: A Powerful Lever for Change

It is difficult to quibble with the observation that technology has improved the human condition in general and, specifically, the effectiveness of libraries. Technology has significantly improved the performance of libraries! It has played a greater role in creating and implementing change in libraries than in any other dimension of our volatile culture. One of the obvious benefits derived from modern technology is the improvement in users' information access. Owing to sophisticated technology, users can now access intellectual resources held in various libraries throughout the world. Greater user self-sufficiency is certainly a dividend realized from library technology. Technology has made it possible for academic librarians to become a much greater "integral" part of the academic enterprise. Value-added components derived from new technology are undoubtedly enabling the library to become the centerpiece of the campus.

At the same time libraries are becoming more accountable in their responsibility to disseminate information. Long-standing values are being revisited and reconsidered where necessary. New jobs are being created and long-existing jobs are being evaluated and sometimes dissolved. Technology is enabling us to break out of old thought patterns and develop a whole new way of thinking and responding.

The worldwide networked interchange perpetuated by an emerging global information infrastructure will initially have a subtle impact on smaller academic libraries but will eventually result in a huge influence on all academic libraries. The internationalization of scholar-
ship will call for new approaches in collection development, different staffing patterns, and new collaborative endeavors. Creating and sharing digitized collections will significantly enhance the scholarly communication process. All of these changes are bringing new challenges and opportunities for creating and delivering better library services.

Discontinuous Change
Change is different now than it was in the past; for example, change is discontinuous and not part of a pattern. This new characteristic of change makes the librarian's planning process much more trying. However, the word "change" designates one of the most conspicuous and pervasive features of our sensory and introspective experiences—only the related feature of plurality is equally so. Due to the complexities of change, we are witnessing more efforts toward libraries becoming "learning organizations." A bona fide learning organization is one that learns and wants its people to learn. With unlimited opportunities for change, the library must continually expand its capacity to create its own future.

Upside-Down Thinking
Libraries have a tendency to change gradually and prudently. Academic librarians have not been encouraged to take significant risks for several reasons, including limited financial resources. Change, for its own sake, has been viewed as leading only to a type of dysfunctionalism in libraries that reduces their effectiveness or equilibrium. Since more discontinuous change is being encouraged, should not more emphasis be placed on upside-down thinking? This type of thinking would include looking at library practices and issues from back to front, inside-out, or upside-down. Such thinking would stimulate our imaginations or spur our creativity.

Some libraries have already deviated from the normal way of doing things. For example, libraries have been outsourcing some of their activities (e.g., technical services), more of the acquisitions' budget is being used for site licenses and electronic formats, and some libraries are employing more part-time staff. We can indulge in some upside-down thinking by asking questions such as: Will the academic library become less "place centric" but more "user centric"? How soon will libraries permit more of their staff to work (telecommute) from their homes? How soon can we expect a larger mix of information technologists and librarians? When will we finally come to our senses and determine a library's worth and effectiveness on factors other than the size of its inventory and the capacity to identify items within it? In these uncertain times we should not be modifying or recycling all of the conventional wisdom that worked in a bygone era.

Moving from Passive to Aggressive
When traditions solidify, vitality diminishes and creativity fades. Today's effective library must embrace creativity, innovation, and entrepreneurship. And it must provide an environment that encourages and supports risk taking! In the viable library, there is our inherent responsibility to calculate strategies appropriate to existing and anticipated external and internal factors. Libraries cannot remain predominantly passive institutions. Those of us who work in libraries should step up to our responsibility in improving their effectiveness. We should recognize that technology can be a dominant driving force of change. Via technology, we have the opportunity to reconstruct library services that will be more resourceful for current and future users. Notwithstanding the discomfort, anxiety, and stress brought forth by change, libraries are expected to continue refinement and improvement. Radical changes in libraries are becoming more the norm than the uncommon. The preparation, timing, and strategies associated with making
changes are paramount. Thus, it is fitting to end this discussion with a surfing metaphor: “the time to change is when you don’t have to; when you’re on the crest of the wave, not when you’re in the trough.”

DONALD E. RIGGS

Notes

A Multicultural Library: Strategies for the Twenty-First Century

Veronica E. Nance-Mitchell

Demographic trends indicate that the economy will be dependent on the contributions of minorities and women because they will comprise 50 percent of the workforce. Library schools and institutions of higher education must be prepared to meet this demand of an increasingly multicultural population. However, minorities are still underrepresented in librarianship. Therefore, colleges and universities must be committed to affirmative action initiatives and the recruitment and retention of minority library students, and to mentoring, networking, and providing job opportunities.

Despite Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1966, which banned discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, minority groups remain underrepresented in education and employment. As society moves toward an increasingly multicultural population, educators, employers, and employees need to develop a multicultural perspective. This perspective should reflect the rapidly changing American demographics.

Research indicates that over the next twenty years, the population is expected to grow by forty-two million. Hispanics will account for 47 percent of this growth; African Americans, 22 percent; Asians and other people of color, 18 percent; and whites, only 13 percent. Current librarian demographics do not represent this rapidly changing population. All libraries (academic, public, and special) have a role to play in creating an environment conducive to a multicultural population. Therefore, this article attempts to identify strategies for creating a multicultural library based on the following significant areas: (1) implications of affirmative action; (2) recruitment and retention of minority students in library education; and (3) hiring minority librarians and networking.

Implications of Affirmative Action

In order to address the current and future effects of affirmative action, its historic purpose must be examined. The Civil Rights Act of 1957, the first major legislation of its kind since Reconstruction, created the United States Commission on Civil Rights, an assertive unit in the government’s struggle against discrimination. However, it was the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that mandated the end of discriminatory practices based on race, ethnicity, and gender. Title VI prohibited discrimination based on color or national origin in any program receiving federal funds. Title VII prohibited employment discrimination in institutions with fifteen

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or more employees. Legislators created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission to enforce the 1964 act. Executive Order 11246, signed by President Lyndon Johnson in 1965, prohibited discrimination in any agency receiving federal contracts of more than $10,000 in institutions with more than fifty employees. Programs that received federal contracts of more than $50,000 were required to write an affirmative action plan that demonstrated the inclusion of women and minorities.

Although Executive Order 11246 was a major step in affirmative action initiatives, it was Executive Order 10925 under President John Kennedy that attempted enforcement. Executive Order 10925 required the filing of regular compliance reports so that the hiring and employment practices of federal contractors could be monitored. It authorized publication of the names of noncomplying contractors and termination of the rights of such contractors to do business with the federal government. However, no federal contractors were ever prevented from doing business with the federal government for not meeting hiring goals. No steps were taken on any basis until President Jimmy Carter’s administration, and those occurred because of extreme noncompliance and noncooperation with laws and regulations governing federal contracts—never for just failure to meet hiring goals. Today, it is more important than ever that affirmative action initiatives be enforced. Historically, equal employment opportunities were imposed by government order rather than being self-initiated. Thus, government-imposed programs are viewed as wasteful and unnecessary. But government-imposed affirmative action will always be necessary until society becomes color blind. As demographics change, the composition of the labor force also will change. As all minorities enter the workforce, more labor power will be generated to meet the needs of the economy. The attitude that affirmative action is unnecessary reinforces the historical view that diverse people are not qualified and that affirmative action was a poor compromise. In part, this attitude was the result of a lack of understanding about the meaning of affirmative action.4

There will be no prosperity if the nation’s workplaces and educational institutions do not respond aggressively to demographic trends. However, before that can take place institutions must adopt a multicultural perspective. A true multicultural perspective can be defined as the achievement of a new level of knowledge and emotional awareness that enables people from various cultures to accept new experiences more readily. These people then develop and support programs that help people move from one stage of multicultural development to the next.5

A step toward multiculturalism would involve overcoming stereotypes and myths. The biggest myth is that affirmative action constitutes reverse discrimination. Actually, “the purpose of the establishment of equal opportunity nondiscrimination laws was to eliminate discrimination suffered by people of color and religious practices not considered mainstream. No legislator ever claimed that a law was needed to protect Protestants from racial or religious discrimination. Laws were actually enacted by Congress to provide protection for all. High standards of proof of discrimination are always required by the courts. White victims of discrimination could expect equitable relief as could African American victims.”6 Because few reverse discrimination cases have been lodged, little evidence of reverse discrimination exists. Although equal opportunity has increased the presence of diverse people in nontraditional jobs, usually it has not substantially strengthened their individual powers or their collective voice. Although they are present in more technical jobs and at higher management and profes-
sional levels, they remain marginal in many respects. Why? Because most organizations and managers continue to operate under the assumption that anyone not considered a member of a majority group is a liability rather than an important asset. This attitude causes lower productivity, increased turnover, and more discrimination complaints. To address these problems before they worsen, organizations must look critically at their internal cultures and determine what needs to change if diversity is to become a constructive rather than a destructive force. 7

Recruitment and Retention of Minority Students in Library Education

Library schools and institutions of higher education should incorporate multiculturalism as part of their annual long-range plans and goals. Institutional goals and plans should reflect these changing demographics. A recent report of shifting enrollments in elementary and secondary schools indicates a significant shift. According to the report from the Statistical Forecast of the U.S., Hispanic enrollment is expected to increase by 54 percent to an estimated 5.1 million in 1994, up from approximately 3.3 million in 1985. Native Americans and Alaska natives enrolled in school are expected to increase by 29 percent, but they still remain the smallest group, with about 414,000 students in 1994 up from 321,000 in 1985. African American students will remain the second largest racial or ethnic group in public schools behind whites, but this group is expected to increase by only 13 percent to approximately 67 million in 1994, up from about 5.9 million in 1985. By 1995, the report projects more than 29 percent of the public high school graduates in sixteen states and the District of Columbia will be nonwhite or Hispanic. 8

Most higher education institutions have been rather slow in reflecting this enrollment trend. According to a 1990 report by the National Center for Education Statistics, African Americans constitute 12.3 percent of the population but only 87 percent of college enrollment and 5.7 percent of college graduates. Hispanics, who account for 7.7 percent of the population, make up 49 percent of higher education enrollments and 2.7 percent of graduates. Although Native Americans, Hispanics, and African Americans represented 14 percent of university enrollments in 1986, they received just 9 percent of degrees, 8 percent of master’s degrees, and 6 percent of doctorates awarded. 9

According to a 1991–92 report by the National Center for Education statistics, 4,893 master of library science degrees were conferred over that time period. Of these, 4,230 were conferred to whites and only 159 to African Americans, 106 to Hispanics, 148 to Asian, and 8 to Native Americans. 10 These data indicate the continued decline of minority graduates from library schools. Some minorities consider librarianship a low-status profession. If so, why do so many white students choose to enter the profession? Most studies show several reasons for the under-representation of minority library students, including educational background, minority attitudes toward libraries, social status of the student, competition from other professions, lack of opportunity to work in a library, inadequate scholarship support, lack of minority faculty in library schools, and poor recruiting programs or no recruiting initiatives. To address these areas, especially in recruitment, the institutional climate and structure must change to reflect the changing demographics. Increasing the number of minority librarians starts at the higher education level. But, first, institutions must assess their culture and campus climate.

According to Gillett-Karam, “the concept of climate embraces the culture, habits, decisions, practices, and policies that make up campus life. It is the sum of the daily environment and central to the comfort of minority students, staff, faculty and administrators experience on cam-
pus. Students and other members of the campus community who feel unwelcomed or alienated from the mainstream of campus life are unlikely to remain. If they remain they are unlikely to be successful.\textsuperscript{11}

To promote diversity in the campus climate, administrators need to assess the situation, which should almost always begin with an institutional self-analysis and move to an environmental analysis. The assessment should revolve around diversity needs and the responses of each segment of the institution (administration, faculty, staff, and students). The purposes of such an assessment are to understand clearly the internal and external situation to discover why the current situation exists and to decide how to rectify the situation. The current situation should be assessed by examining the following items: the current percentage of minority administrators; recruitment efforts; retention of minority faculty and students; salary and professional opportunities; and the perceptions of the institutional climate.\textsuperscript{12}

Institutions should consider several possible outcomes when creating a diversity program as they assess their program. According to Nina Buchanan and John Feldhusen, the predicted outcomes of a diversity program should follow four lessons learned from industry:

1. Know what you are trying to produce.
2. Monitor the processes that are used to produce the product.
3. Evaluate the product.
4. Make corrections if the product does not meet expectations.\textsuperscript{13}

Institutions should focus on recruitment efforts after closely examining their internal climate. Since the mid-1970s, the number of students entering library education programs has slowly declined.\textsuperscript{14} Because of decline in enrollment, there may be an increase in the demand for librarians. Other factors may include technological advances that require training in utilizing the computer for various library functions (e.g., research, circulation). To meet this demand, institutions must recruit minorities in response to demographic changes, and as a first step in recruitment, start educating students about opportunities in librarianship before they reach the secondary level. Many students do not enter the library profession because they are unaware of its career opportunities. Librarians, educators, administrators, and student advisors can promote awareness of career options in librarianship. The information explosion and the increase in computer technology offer students many options in the library and information science profession. Therefore, minority students should be aware of these opportunities and the needed qualifications to enter graduate programs in the field. Some of the opportunities include: information managers; university or college librarians; information entrepreneurs; and research librarians for business, government, law, and medicine. Because of the interdisciplinary character of library and information studies, students with a strong undergraduate preparation in any discipline can pursue graduate work.\textsuperscript{15}

Second, institutions must be committed to affirmative action and equal opportunity. Employment measures must do more than take a passive approach to the elimination of discrimination. All recruitment and advertisement materials state, "We do not discriminate on the basis of race, color, creed, or national origin." Colleges and universities appeared to be saying that the removal of blatant discriminatory policies and advertising languages would make everything all right. However, because of this passive ap-
approach, little change has occurred in the institutional composition of students, faculty, and staff.\textsuperscript{16}

Furthermore, advertising in publications has not been successful in recruiting minority staff members. New measures that have been effective at universities such as Texas A&M include: (1) coordinating a board minority registry and the National Minority Faculty Identification Program Directory; (2) mailing vacancy announcements to ethnic and/or African American organizations; and (3) minority internship programs.\textsuperscript{17}

Serbrenia Sims lists several reasons for emphasizing diversity in faculty and staff. First, diversified faculty and staff provide support for students from a particular underrepresented group on campus. Second, diversification of faculty and staff is important in establishing a commitment to minority students’ futures and to helping these students recognize this commitment. Third, diversification of staff creates a more relaxed, homelike environment for students, faculty, and staff on campus. Fourth, diversification of faculty and staff is likely to contribute to curriculum development, content, and instructional techniques.\textsuperscript{18} Participation in college does not mean enrollment, it means graduation—and it means getting jobs. Colleges and universities must retain minority students and provide them with role models whose successes become a pattern for student achievement and student goals. Diversity is achieved by the commitment of leaders. Minority participation must be integral to the mission and workings of institutions of higher education.\textsuperscript{19}

Once institutions have taken steps to recruit minority students, they must focus their efforts on retention. Retention can be achieved by developing support services. According to Gillett-Karam, “institutions can provide training to white faculty to help them become more understanding of minority student needs, and encourage faculty members to become aware of the new issues in their discipline that focus specifically on minority issues and concerns.”\textsuperscript{20} It also is advisable to develop financial incentives for departments, such as minority fellowship funds or graduate assistantships and affirmative action grants.

Several universities have implemented internship programs to increase the number of minorities in the field of library and information science. There are programs at Iowa State University and the University of New Mexico, to name a few. However, programs at the University of California-Santa Barbara, and the University of Michigan should be models for all academic libraries to mirror. The goal of these programs is to promote training, library experience, and job placement for minorities.\textsuperscript{21} The objectives of these programs are to equip the interns with basic training in library functions and skills. At the University of California-Santa Barbara, interns receive one-year contracts as assistant librarians with full benefits.\textsuperscript{22}

In 1988, the president of the University of Michigan issued the Michigan Mandate. The order was for the university to become a multicultural community. This mandate came in the wake of much campus unrest and several serious racial incidents. Acting in that context, the library initiated its work with verbal support from the university. One outgrowth of this mandate was establishment of the University of Michigan’s Library Diversity Committee.\textsuperscript{23} The purpose of the committee is to provide leadership to the staff by promoting understanding across racial and cultural lines as well as by addressing the issues of gender, age, religion, and the concerns of people with disabilities.\textsuperscript{24} The University of Michigan Library received the university’s first affirmative action award and is recognized as a model diversity program on campus. This would not have been possible without the commitment of the library administration, librarians, and staff.\textsuperscript{24}
The focus of an institution's efforts to retain diverse students also should include outreach and academic support services. An effort has been made in the past several years to reach out to multicultural students and teach them the library skills they need to succeed at the university and beyond. The Learning Resources Library at the University of the District of Columbia developed a bibliographic instruction program to support an increasingly multicultural student population (the university has more than 5,000 international students). The library, in association with the English Department, provides bibliographic instruction (BI) each semester. The primary goals of the BI program are to: (1) inform students about the Learning Resources Divisions' collections and services; (2) teach students the library skills they need in the academic environment by acquainting them with the variety of resources available in modern libraries; and (3) teach use of library and media resources (Aladin online computer catalog, CD-ROM, printed indexes) for writing research papers.

The BI program provides a communication link with the teaching faculty and promotes the university's mission in serving economically disadvantaged students.

Another outreach service of the Learning Resources Division at the University of the District of Columbia is the Black Film Institute. It plays a significant part by introducing students to films by and about blacks from other cultures. Public film showings are sometimes accompanied by the live commentary of prominent personalities in the field. For example, the institute has offered a series of films that focused on aspects of black cinema. These films have included new works from the African continent, Hollywood's "Negro Problem" films of the 1950s, and the work of independent filmmaker Spencer Williams. The institute also hosted several screenings of the 8th Asian American Film Festival. As part of the festival, several guest speakers noted for their expertise in the genre participated in a panel discussion. These are examples of programs that can support a multicultural student population.

Hiring Minority Librarians and Networking

After minority librarians have completed the academic requirements to meet the necessary job qualifications, they should be recruited for the jobs. However, many libraries do not hire minority applicants because they assume applicants are not qualified and inexperienced. Increasing the number of minority librarians is a crucial aspect of changing institutional culture and climate. But "engaging in the damaging rhetoric that there are no qualified minorities for the position is damaging and accounts for additional exclusionary beliefs and policies."26

Many exclusionary practices that contribute to the underrepresentation of minorities are rooted in the single-mistake syndrome. According to Gillett-Karam, this syndrome is based on the assumption that if a woman or member of a racial ethnic minority has made a mistake, that mistake is proof that the whole group is not competent. Statements along the lines of "we shouldn't have taken the risk" are aimed at racial-ethnic minorities and women and their positions of leadership. The question becomes, is it alright, is it permissible, for women or members of racial-ethnic minorities to make a mistake, to be risk takers, or to be change agents? Of course, they should be able to make mistakes and learn from them. However, this "I told you so, they can't do it" perception remains a part of social reality.27 As one institutional leader stated, "If affirmative action is no longer purposeful, then it does not allow for the nurturing of the idea of opportunity. This idea can easily fall out of favor and be eliminated from the consciousness of employers."28

Every institution should have an affirmative action search policy. This policy
must indicate the specific means by which the institution will make efforts to identify minority and women candidates for jobs. Such means are expected to go beyond posting and advertising the availability of positions, and should include, but not be limited to, such efforts as: (1) personal telephone and/or written communication with colleagues or other groups who can assist in locating candidates; (2) visits by members of search committees to organizations or institutions; and (3) personal communication with minority and female colleagues at professional gatherings. An affirmative action search policy should also include the following: (1) a minority staff development and recruitment program that will utilize minority staff representation on search committees; (2) discretionary funds available for minority recruitment; and (3) carefully written job descriptions for accurate indication of employee requirements. Furthermore, institutions should target their recruitment efforts on areas most attractive to minorities. According to a 1986 Office for Library Personnel Resources survey by ethnicity, "minority students were attracted to the field because of the 'hi-tech' nature of the work. African Americans scored this characteristic the highest at 39.2 percent, compared to the overall population who scored it at 29.5 percent. African Americans also scored management opportunities as an attraction to the field at a higher rating (46.3 percent) than the overall population who scored it at 27.8 percent."30

Mentoring and networking also are important measures for inclusionary practices, and such measures are responsible for turning national attention to the underrepresentation of women and minorities in positions of leadership. Mentoring involves the care and concern of a visionary or a decision maker who breaks away from the mold of self-preservation and seeks to help others demonstrate their unique competencies.31 Researchers have listed several benefits that might accrue from mentorships with diverse students:

- It allows students to work in a noncontrolled setting, requiring them to interact with others who are fundamentally different from themselves. This difference might include age, race, sex, cultural, or socioeconomic orientation.

- Students acquire marketable skills necessary to qualify for a job.

- Students are forced to test and develop career goals by experiencing working conditions in their field and by discussion with mentors and at school.32

One organization that provides mentoring and networking opportunities is the President's Roundtable, a nationwide network of African American expertise and an affiliate of the National Council on African American Affairs. Its mission is to provide African American community college presidents with an operational network to identify and respond to issues affecting African Americans in community colleges. The network also provides mentoring opportunities for African Americans; the sharing of professional resources; national and international professional opportunities for African American chief executive officers (CEOs); and support for the goals and objectives of the National Council on African American Affairs. In pursuit of its mission, President's Roundtable also provides many services. Some of the services include: (1) mentoring opportunities for African Americans within member institutions; (2) monitors to review inequity in the delivery of educational and other services provided to African Americans in community college education; (3) a continually updated list of African American CEOs with information about each president's availability as a resource; and
(4) a third-nation support package that emphasizes current and emerging technology for appropriate nations as requested.33

Mentoring is important to the inclusionary process of minority employees. Too often, new minority employees feel isolated and not fully accepted in the organization's mainstream. The purpose of mentoring is to: (1) streamline the assimilation process of new employees; (2) promote the professional development of their protégés and contribute to an effective and productive library operation; and (3) promote the exchange of viewpoints and ideas by sharing knowledge and experience. These goals contribute to a staff with improved morale, lower turnover, greater efficiency, and a better understanding of one another's responsibilities.34

Conclusion
To achieve a multicultural library, institutions must be committed to creating an environment conducive to a diverse population. Creating such an environment requires a commitment to recruitment in education and employment, mentoring, and networking. Faculty and administration of library schools should be motivated to provide strategies to eliminate the gap between access and the completion rate of minorities in library education. The strategies can include the establishment of diversity committees that will have three primary roles: (1) to advise the administration; (2) to educate and serve as an organizational model for other staff members; and (3) to participate in and organize diversity programs. Furthermore, the strategies should include programs that provide academic support, financial aid, and job opportunities. All of these strategies require a commitment to affirmative action initiatives. Institutions have the responsibility and the obligation to establish diversity. They must realize that education for all diverse populations is a catalyst for change within the community. People need to work on core values, and there are no shortcuts. Affirmative action requirements cannot be met without comment and commitment. As an anonymous librarian said, "Librarianship is about sharing and increasing one's knowledge. Those who are not willing to share should not be in the profession."

Notes
3. Ibid., 16.
4. Loden, Workforce America, 30.
7. Ibid., 27.
12. Sims, Diversifying Black Colleges, 165.
13. Ibid., 59.
18. Sims, Diversifying Black Colleges, 72.
20. Ibid., 236.
22. Ibid., 53.
24. Ibid., 95-98.
25. Taken from the “Annual Report of the University of the District of Columbia Learning Resources Division.”
28. Ibid., 12.
32. Sims, Diversifying Black Colleges, 75.
34. “Minority Recruitment and Retention,” 72.

Letter

To the Editor:

Thank you very much for publishing my article, “Publishing in the Journal Literature of Library and Information Science” in the July 1996 issue of C&RL.

I am writing to apologize for a couple of errors that I did not catch in the page proofs. They are in Table 1. Fortunately, the errors do not affect the text, discussion, or conclusions in any way. However, I would like to set the record straight.

My sincere apologies for letting these errors slip into the final manuscript. I intend to e-mail the editors of the journals where the errors were made to let them know that I recognize the errors. Thank you.

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Improving Quality: A Reader's Advice to C&RL Editors

Rao Aluri

Gloriana St. Clair, immediate past-editor of *College & Research Libraries*, wrote an editorial entitled "Improving Quality: An Editor's Advice to Authors" (May 1993) in which she listed reasons for rejecting articles submitted to *C&RL* for publication. St. Clair presented some very helpful observations and suggestions for prospective authors. This article, in response to the issues raised in St. Clair's editorial, suggests that there are many useful things that journal editors can do to help authors and to improve communication among authors, editors, and reviewers.

In the past couple of years, *College & Research Libraries* (*C&RL*) has published a number of articles and editorials that advise its authors and book reviewers on improving the quality of their contributed works. Stephen Lehmann and Bob Walther, immediate past book review editors for *C&RL*, lamented that the problems of book reviewing "are symptomatic of a larger failure" of academic librarianship and noted that "[b]ook reviewing should not be regarded as an activity solely for unpracticed writers to cut their teeth on." 1 Peter Hernon and Cheryl Metoyer-Duran directed librarians' "attention to the role and value of literature reviews and references for placing studies within a broader perspective." 2 Gloriana St. Clair, immediate past-editor of *C&RL*, provided a succinct list of reasons behind the rejection of articles submitted for publication in *C&RL.* 3 Finally, Peter Hernon, Allen Smith, and Mary Bailey Croxen provided empirical support for St. Clair in their article, "Publication in *College & Research Libraries*: Accepted, Rejected, and Published Papers, 1980–1991." 4

Both St. Clair and the authors of the last-mentioned article agree that "the most common reasons for rejection of papers" for publication in *C&RL* are:

- not generalizable;
- failure to answer the "so what?" question;
- poor writing;
- inadequate scholarship;
- weak statistical methods;
- wrong choice of journal;
- bad luck. 5

Although it is imperative that *C&RL* contributors take note of *C&RL*'s reasons for rejecting certain articles for publication and make sure that their papers address and overcome these problems as best as they can, it should be pointed out that the process of writing and submitting articles for publication is a bit more complicated than what is implied in the editors' advice. An unstated assumption

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behind a typical editor's advice on writing articles is that bad papers are always rejected and good papers are most often accepted for publication. The peer review process, which is employed by journals such as C&RL, is supposed to act as a gatekeeper—keep out the bad papers and let in good papers. Although such a picture is aesthetically pleasing, the reality is that the scholarly gatekeeping function undertaken by the editors and peer reviewers is prone to error; sometimes relatively weak papers get published and strong papers get rejected.

In any case, most of the editorial advice seems to be condescending to authors and to discourage academic librarians from submitting articles unless the librarians are gifted. To the contrary, academic librarians should be encouraged to participate fully in all aspects of the scholarly communication process including writing, refereeing, and editing scholarly articles. One way to provide this encouragement is to openly discuss and debate the editorial and refereeing process and to counter the inadvertent negativism conveyed in most editorial advice.

The typical editor's advice fails to acknowledge or glosses over the weaknesses of the editorial and refereeing functions of the scholarly journals. St. Clair concedes part of this problem when she acknowledges that certain good papers were rejected due to "bad luck." Another part of the refereeing problem is that relatively weak papers get published. This aspect of the problem may be substantiated using Hernon, Smith, and Croxen's article as an example. Given C&RL's concern with the quality of information published, it should be safe to assume that Hernon, Smith, and Croxen's article is free of most of the serious flaws listed in St. Clair's editorial. However, the article, which must have gone through a rigorous refereeing process, suffers not only from some of these errors, but from additional problems as well. It is conceivable that a different editor would have either rejected the paper or suggested major revisions. Hernon, Smith, and Croxen's article, for instance, exhibits failure to answer the "so what?" question, poor writing, and failure to make appropriate links between the information they present in the literature review and their own data. The article then goes on to commit an egregious act—setting up a straw man with the purpose of tearing him down. Finally, their article raises important ethical issues that are not fully or satisfactorily answered in the text.

"So What?" Question
The data on the geographic distribution of C&RL authors reported by Hernon, Smith, and Croxen should have elicited the "so what?" question from the reviewers. After going through a series of paragraphs full of numbers and percentages on the geographic distribution of authors, one is left wondering about the significance of this information. Is the distribution unusual in any way? Are certain regions or states overrepresented in relation to their general populations or number of librarians or libraries? Based on the literature search, did the authors propose a hypothesis on the distribution of authors by geographic region and on the rate of acceptance of papers? No such discussion could be found in the Hernon, Smith, and Croxen article.

To give the benefit of doubt to the authors, it may be assumed that they had an unstated hypothesis that, among geographic regions, the acceptance rate of papers may be disproportionate to their rate of submission. However, an examination of the data shows no differences among regions on the proportion of pa-
pers accepted to the number of papers submitted. Even going to the level of states, no significant difference could be found. Hernon, Smith, and Croxen concede this point:

No significant differences appear in the frequencies of states for submitting and accepted authors. … (p. 311)

The states with the largest number of authors whose papers were rejected are identical to those given for the greatest number of submissions. (p. 312)

Therefore, one is left with the question, so what? There is a series of numbers on the geographic distribution of authors, but those numbers add nothing to the readers’ understanding of the issue under consideration.

**Poor Writing**

Hernon, Smith, and Croxen’s article exhibits poor writing and, in some areas, resembles the boilerplate writing favored by attorneys. The authors should have used tables and charts to achieve an economy of expression, checked for accuracy of the data they presented, and provided information in a more focused manner.

**Economy of Expression**

Hernon, Smith, and Croxen present their findings under three headings: submissions, accepted papers, and rejected papers. This organization resulted in unnecessary duplication of information, made reading of the article tedious, and masked inconsistencies in the data.

Duplication of information follows the observation that \( n_r = n_s - n_a \), where \( n_r \) is number of rejected papers, \( n_s \) is number of submitted papers, and \( n_a \) is number of accepted papers. Given the two variables \( n_s \) and \( n_a \), it is easy to calculate \( n_r \). In light of this observation, consider the following paragraphs:

Overwhelmingly, [the authors who submitted articles] work in academic:
- 26 in community colleges;
- 50 in baccalaureate institutions;
- 217 in master’s-granting institutions;
- 854 in doctoral-granting institutions. (p. 308)

Over three-fourths (404 or 77.7 percent) of the 520 authors affiliated with academic institutions [whose papers were accepted] work at doctoral-granting institutions. The next largest percentage (16.1 percent or eighty-four authors) is associated with master’s-granting institutions. The remaining 6.2 percent encompasses baccalaureate programs (twenty-two people) and community colleges (ten). (p. 311)

Given this information, is it possible to calculate, for instance, the number of authors from doctoral-granting institutions whose articles were rejected? The number is the difference between 854 and 404, which is 450. The authors are, of course, helpful and they tell us:

Some 71.8 percent (450) of the 627 individuals affiliated with academic institutions [whose papers were rejected] work in doctoral-granting institutions. The next largest percentage (21.2 or 133 people) is associated with master’s-granting institutions. The remaining seven percent includes baccalaureate programs (twenty-eight people) and community colleges (sixteen). (p. 312)

Reading paragraphs with a series of numbers and percentages is tedious, and it is hard to compare the submission, acceptance, and rejection numbers because they are on different pages and thus are physically separated from one another. In terms of economy of expression, present-
ing these data in one table would have been more efficient.

**Accuracy of Data**
The greatest difficulty with the arrangement chosen by the authors is that it is confusing and may have masked inconsistencies in data. The authors present different numbers for the statistic “total number of submitters.” This number could be either 1,242 (according to the gender distribution of 630 female, 599 male, and 13 undetermined) (p. 307) or 1,246 (according to the geographic distribution of 1,124 U.S. authors, 103 non-U.S. authors, and 19 undetermined). However, adding the gender and geographic distributions that are presented under the headings “Accepted Papers” and “Rejected Papers” produces slightly different totals. For instance, in the case of gender distribution, the total comes out to 1,225, instead of 1,242. Why the difference? Endnote 46 cryptically explains that “[e]xcluded from the presentation of gender are the authors of papers needing revision before an editorial decision could be rendered.”

Comparing data on the geographical distribution of authors gives rise to a similar disparity. Tallying the numbers given under the papers accepted and papers rejected sections gives the total of 1,233 after taking into consideration that the geographic location of nineteen authors is undetermined. What happened to the missing thirteen authors?

In any case, carefully designed tables and graphs would have presented the same information in a more readable manner, and would have either avoided or explained such inconsistencies in a more straightforward and understandable manner.

**Better and More Focused Writing**
A good editor should have caught the authors’ favorite expressions: “viewed from another perspective,” “viewed from a different perspective,” “another way to view the data,” and “expressed another way.” This repetition added to the tedium of the article. “Viewing from different perspectives,” in some instances, clouded matters more. For example, when the authors said, “[v]iewed from a different perspective, sixty-one of the 110 papers (55.4 percent) submitted by faculty members at accredited library schools were accepted for publication,” (p. 311) there was no reason to view from this perspective because nothing in the preceding sections prepared readers for such a statement. The fact that library school faculty submitted 110 papers is new information; the preceding paragraphs concentrated on the number of authors, not the number of articles.

Another interesting approach used by the authors is mixing two unrelated topics within one paragraph, as in the following cases:

More than one-third (35.1 percent) of the accepted papers had more than one author. The gender of the 562 individuals who had papers accepted for publication was . . . (p. 311)

Only 22.7 percent of the rejected papers were coauthored. Of the 663 authors, 358 (54%) were women . . . (p. 312)

In their zeal to share with readers every piece of data they gathered, the authors lost sight of the article’s readability and allowed it to become unfocused. The “Findings” section starts with the statistic on “number of papers.” However, in the next paragraph, the authors switch their attention to the statistic on “number of individuals/authors submitting papers,” and much of the paper revolves around this statistic. The authors then switch to two other measures, “number of recommended changes before accepting papers” and “number of reasons for rejecting papers.”
Sometimes the numbers in the texts and tables could be baffling. For example, the authors state:

Table 4 summarizes the editorial decision rendered for the 922 submissions examined for this study. The various editors accepted 385 (or 41.8 percent) papers for publication, while rejecting 518 (56.2 percent) papers. For the remaining nineteen papers, the authors withdrew them from consideration . . ." (p. 310)

Examination of table 4 reveals that the number of papers accepted for publication is 447 and the number of papers rejected for publication is 481, which is not the same as the 385 and 518 mentioned in the paragraph above. In a misguided attempt to help the readers, the authors clarify further by using three symbols, "*", "†", and "‡." In case it is not clear, readers are referred to endnote 33, which goes on a different tangent and fails to shed light on the discrepancy between the numbers cited in the text and those listed in table 4.

Demographic data such as gender and geographic distribution would have been better presented in the form of tables. Likewise, data presented in some of the tables would have provided better information if they were in the form of Pareto diagrams. For instance, a Pareto diagram would have shown more clearly the numbers and cumulative percentage of articles coming from administrators, reference librarians, and library school faculty.

**Missed Opportunities for Providing Clarification**

Hernon, Smith, and Croxen missed several opportunities to provide clarification and explanation of data. They make two points: (1) doctoral-granting institutions account for three-fourths of authors who submitted articles and three-fourths of authors whose articles were accepted for publication; (pp. 308, 311) and (2) almost half of the submitters are library administrators and reference librarians, and half of all the authors whose papers were accepted for publication also are administrators and reference librarians. Is there a connection between these two observations and the types of articles favored for publication in C&RL? Does C&RL attract or favor, by design or by accident, topics and methodologies that appeal only to those who work for doctoral-granting institutions and who are primarily interested in administration and reference services? Is the scope of C&RL so narrowly defined as to discourage technical services and information technology personnel from submitting articles? No attempt has been made to connect these two points, leaving readers with disconnected pieces of information.

The literature review quotes Mary Biggs, "when consensus among reviewers, or even a majority 'vote,' is required for acceptance of a manuscript, the tendency toward safe, unexceptionable decisions, and avoidance of intellectual risk-taking is likely to be especially marked" (pp. 304–5). Does Biggs's comment apply to C&RL decisions? That is, does C&RL shy away from potentially controversial articles in favor of safe, but unexceptional articles? St. Clair, for instance, left unanswered the question, What does she do when one of the two reviewers recommends publication of an article and the second one rejects it? (p. 195). Conflicting recommendations may arise from, among other factors, innovative or controversial approaches taken by the author. Determining whether C&RL avoids or welcomes controversy would have been a relevant contribution.

Although Hernon, Smith, and Croxen were careful in providing parallel data for geographic distribution and gender of authors under the categories “articles submitted, articles accepted,” and “articles rejected,” they did not maintain that parallel structure for more important information. For instance, there is a list of
frequently occurring topics among rejected papers (pp. 312-13), but no such list is presented in the case of accepted papers. That would have given readers some idea as to emphasis or bias on the part of the C&RL editors.

Even the papers that were accepted for publication suffered from problems in the areas of “editorial and writing, interpretation and conclusions, and presentation of results” (pp. 311-12). The 385 papers that were accepted for publication generated 1,054 reviewer recommendations (p. 311), as opposed to 1,426 reviewer comments on 518 rejected papers. How do these comments compare and contrast with each other? One notes that nearly half the recommendations on papers accepted for publication are “related to editorial and writing problems” (p. 311), whereas only 9 percent of the reviewer reasons for rejecting papers come under the heading “poorly written.” 9 What does this mean? Without these connections, the conclusions presented by the authors remain weak and unconvincing.

Straw Man Strategy
One of the more troubling parts of the Hernon, Smith, and Croxen paper is the setting up of library school faculty as a straw man. The authors set the stage with the statement “[g]iven the leadership role that schools of library and information science should play in research and publishing, . . .” (p. 316). The editor picked up the cue by using this statement in a pull-quote. We are given clues as to the straw man strategy because of the special attention paid to the library school faculty who number 136 out of, say, 1,242. Consider the following statements:

Some sixty-three authors are affiliated with accredited graduate programs in library and information science. Viewed from a different perspective, sixty-one of the 110 papers (55.4 percent) submitted by faculty members at accredited library schools were accepted for publication. (p. 311)

Fifty-three authors who had papers rejected for publication were affiliated with accredited graduate schools of library and information science . . . In effect, 45.7 percent of those submitting papers from these schools had their paper rejected. Viewed from another perspective, forty-nine (44.6 percent) of the papers submitted by faculty of these schools were rejected. (p. 312)

These statements are structured in an unusual manner. In the case of any other type of submitters (e.g., library administrators), was a link made between number of authors and number of papers they submitted? These unusual statements alert readers to the fact that the authors are making a special effort to tell them something. A few pages later, readers see what the authors are driving at:

Given the leadership role that schools of library and information science should play in research and publishing, it is important to know more about the breadth, depth, and quality of the research emanating from them and whether other journals experience similar rates of rejection for these faculty members. (p. 316)

To further prepare readers, the authors explain explicitly why papers from “these faculty members” were turned down:

Rejection was based on the fact that the paper offered few new insights, reflected poor scholarship, was poorly written, or had problems in the methodology or in the presentation of findings. (p. 312)

In short, papers from “these faculty members” suffered from the same ills as those of “those librarians!”
There are three reasons why library school faculty should not have been subjected to such special scrutiny: (1) rates of rejection of articles are remarkably consistent among different groups—administrators/reference librarians, people from doctoral-granting institutions, and library school faculty; (2) the authors do not address editorial biases/emphases; and (3) one cannot draw blanket conclusions based on the experience of one journal alone.

The authors implicitly assign the role of infallibility to library school faculty. It seems that by accepting a position as a faculty member in a library school, one is suddenly thrust into such a high responsibility that any sign of fallibility, such as having one’s paper rejected for publication in *C&RL*, makes that faculty member run the risk of losing his or her halo and invites inquisition into “the breadth, depth, and quality” of his or her research. Such infallibility, however, is not in accordance with reality. In every field, journals turn down papers from faculty members for a variety of reasons, including poor writing and poor methodology. Library school faculty members are not that special!

Given the fact that readers have not yet understood the impact of the *C&RL* editors and editorial boards on the content and style of articles that were accepted or rejected by *C&RL*, it is hard to draw reliable conclusions on the reasons behind rejection of articles by library school faculty members. For instance, there could be a mismatch between what the library school faculty members were writing and what *C&RL* was willing to publish given its orientation to doctoral-granting institutions, reference librarians, and library administrators. If such is the case, other reasons such as poor writing may be merely secondary reasons for rejecting those papers.

Four out of ten articles rejected by *C&RL* appear in other sources. This is a conservative estimate conceded by the authors. Specifically, readers do not know how many of the articles submitted by library school faculty find eventual publication. Submitting an article to *C&RL* is not a final act in scholarly communication, nor is getting an article rejected by *C&RL* a matter of high crime for which the library school faculty members or any others should hang their heads in shame. It is conceivable that authors use one journal as a sounding board for their ideas, using the comments from that journal to improve upon papers and submitting them elsewhere. Given that Hernon, Smith, and Croxen did not examine the manuscripts themselves, they are basing their conclusions on the reviewers’ and editors’ comments. But their own literature search draws the readers’ attention to researchers’ concerns about the refereeing process itself. Before jumping to any conclusions, it is necessary to address those concerns.

Hernon, Smith, and Croxen’s article is weak in terms of placing *C&RL* within the scholarly communication pattern of the field of library and information science. Jumping to broad conclusions based on a narrow study is unbecoming of serious scholarly work. Before unduly criticizing library school faculty, it is necessary to examine the rejection rates of articles submitted by faculty members from humanities and social sciences. How do those rejection rates differ from the rejection rates suffered by library school faculty? The trouble is that rejection is not necessarily based on scholarly reasons. Even when every article submitted to *C&RL* conforms to the highest standards, the editors have to reject a certain portion of those submitted because of journal space limitations and other considerations. This
point is noted by the former C&RL editor who identified "bad luck" as one of the reasons for rejecting a paper. A member of the editorial board did concede that he or she rejected "perfectly good articles" for other reasons (p. 314). In fact, the type of presentation—e.g., quantitative presentation versus essay-type presentation—may have a bearing on the acceptance of the papers. Ironically, a recent article noted that the articles rejected by C&RL, in terms of readability, are better than those accepted and published. In any case, a scholarly article should not isolate one segment of the population for special treatment in the absence of legitimate intellectual or methodological reasons.

Ethical Issues
The Hernon, Smith, and Croxen article raises important ethical issues. The first issue is the protection of confidentiality of the correspondence between C&RL editors and submitters of manuscripts. When an article is submitted, there is an implied understanding that the correspondence between editor and author is confidential; the only person who will see the complete correspondence is the editor and others will see only parts of that correspondence on a need-to-see basis. For instance, in a double-blind refereeing system, which is followed by C&RL, reviewers do not see the names of the authors of articles they are reviewing. Hernon, Smith, and Croxen's article was the result of the editor sharing the full correspondence with a third party. Although opening up of the correspondence can be justified on the basis of furthering scholarship, one is left wondering what the rights of the authors are in keeping that correspondence confidential.

Although the issue of confidentiality is troubling enough, there is another one that was not even recognized by either the C&RL editor or Hernon, Smith, and Croxen. This is the expectation of objectivity that researchers should bring to their research projects. The article by Hernon, Smith, and Croxen is problematic because it does not seem to be sufficiently objective.

Hernon, Smith, and Croxen complimented C&RL's editors and reviewers on "their responsible approach to their work, their unending patience with authors, and their careful study of the manuscripts" (p. 317). The authors concluded, "refereeing for C&RL filtered manuscripts and served the readership of the journal" (p. 317). These congratulatory and complimentary statements should be accorded some skepticism. The senior author at the time of the study was a member of the C&RL editorial board. The study was conducted with the cooperation of the editor, who provided the journal's internal records to the authors; thus, the authors are beholden to the editor. Given this context, one wonders how truly objective the authors can be in evaluating the work of C&RL's editors and editorial board.

The question of author independence and objectivity is important because it may have an impact on the type of questions the authors ask or fail to ask. Hernon, Smith, and Croxen are a little too quick to be complimentary to the C&RL editors and reviewers; they fail to probe the effect of the editorial board and the reviewers chosen on the direction of the journal in terms of the topics and types of articles that are deemed appropriate for the journal. Such topical and format biases may influence the acceptance/rejection rates of the articles submitted. For instance, does the editorial board have a preference for issues that primarily affect major research university libraries? Does the editorial board have a preference for certain scholarly apparatus, thereby ignoring articles that deal with potentially important topics and issues because they lack such scholarly trappings? Does the composition of the editorial board work against intellectual diversity?
The editorial board was reported to have conducted its business "without rancor, major disagreements, egotistical rantings, or self-promotion" (p. 317). Is it because the board is too homogenous? Does one not expect disagreements among editorial board members who are intellectually alive?

**Recommendations for Improvement**

The above discussion on Hernon, Smith, and Croxen's article is presented to demonstrate the ambiguities involved in the refereeing and editorial process. It shows that an article that was accepted for publication by one editorial board could be easily challenged by another reviewer, editor, or editorial board. In other words, there is not an insignificant chance for error in the refereeing process; good papers could get rejected and not-so-good papers, on the other hand, could get accepted. Therefore, the message that should be sent to authors is: If your paper is rejected for publication, carefully read the reviewers' and editors' comments, accept and implement reasonable comments, reject those that are not sensible, and, above all, do not be discouraged. Having a paper rejected is not something to be ashamed of; simply try again.

At the same time, the discussion of Hernon, Smith, and Croxen's article has implications for referees, editors, and editorial boards as well. The typical line of communication between editors and authors is one way—from the editors to the authors. Communication from the authors to the editors is relatively sparse because of power differential; authors have trouble arguing with those who always have the last word. The fact that in only eight instances did the authors complain about editorial decisions is a sad testimony to the perceived power of the editors (p. 314).

But in these days of total quality management, there is a good possibility that editors of journals such as *C&RL* may benefit from listening to the authors and improving communication with the authors. Such a two-way communication may improve the quality of the journals and their relevance to their readers. Here are some suggestions from this reader who has two decades of experience as librarian, library educator, author, and reviewer, and who had his share of accepted and rejected papers.

- The primary function of peer-reviewed library journals such as *C&RL* is quality control by publishing only those articles that meet certain explicit or implicit quality criteria. Although this quality control function is valuable in itself,

Many young librarians lack confidence and experience in designing, conducting, and writing a research project.

library journals should make the teaching function an integral part of the reviewing process. There is a need for editors, editorial boards, and reviewers to assume this teaching responsibility. Many library school graduates do not possess appropriate skills and experience in writing journal articles; library school programs are too short and too disjointed to inculcate such skills. Many young librarians lack confidence and experience in designing, conducting, and writing a research project; often they labor without sufficient encouragement from their own colleagues and institutions. Therefore, it is necessary that scholarly journals published by ALA broaden their perspectives and play active roles in training new cadres of researchers, authors, and scholarly reviewers. When teaching and training responsibilities are considered as integral to the journal article reviewing process, reviewers will realize that they have to take more time in evaluating the papers and explaining their evaluations to the authors, suggesting relatively detailed ways of improving the rejected articles, and even suggesting the names of experts
who can be of further assistance to the authors. As a profession, we owe it to ourselves to encourage and nurture talent. This can be done without in any way sacrificing the high standards set by the editors for accepting articles.

- Actively train reviewers and members of the editorial boards. Teach them how to review and evaluate articles, how to critique them constructively, and how to advise the authors to improve their submissions. Reviewers need to be open to unorthodox points of view, should not take authors’ arguments personally, should refrain from making snide and insulting comments, should learn to distinguish between substantive weaknesses in the article from the run-of-the-mill spelling and grammatical errors, and should learn not to jump to conclusions based on trivial weaknesses in the articles. The U.S. Department of Education, for instance, distributes a training manual that instructs members of peer review panels to “prepare constructive written comments, instead of offering snide commentary.” Often reviewers fail to see the broad picture and get lost in details. To assist such reviewers, develop a top-down evaluation method, looking at the most important criteria first, then the next level of criteria, and so on. In such an approach, problems such as spelling errors and grammatical mistakes are at the bottom because they can be fixed with greater ease compared to errors in research design.

- Regularly evaluate the reviewers, members of the editorial boards, and the editors. Some reviewers tend to be more critical of the articles routed to them than other reviewers. Recognize that being highly critical is not always a sign of high standards. It is not uncommon to come across reviews which show that the reviewer is profoundly ignorant of the topic under consideration. Insist that the reviewers and the members of editorial boards provide reasoned and documented arguments when they comment on the submitted articles. It is only fair because the authors are expected to document their arguments as well.

- Clarify the role of the editor. Tell the author what to expect from the editor. An editor or someone on the editor’s staff should take responsibility for assisting the authors in improving the content, style, and presentation of the information contained in the articles accepted for publication. Editors should be master writers; they should help the authors present their arguments in the best manner possible.

- Explicitly state the subject content that is favored by the editor and the editorial board. Editors must clearly articulate the types of articles desired and from whom, if such is the case, to prospective authors.

- Inform the authors of the journal’s reviewing policies and procedures—for example, how long the reviewing process takes and when the author can expect to hear from the editor. It is only courteous to provide a timely response to the authors.

- Recognize that not all authors have ready and reliable access to “local peer reviewers.” Friends and colleagues of authors cannot always anticipate the types of questions raised by journal editors and reviewers, and, sad to say, many colleagues do not know how to critique someone else’s paper. In any case, comments and suggestions from friends and colleagues do not carry the same weight as those of journal editors and reviewers. In fact, there may not be any correlation between the questions raised by “local peer reviewers” and those raised by the members of the journal peer review panels.

- Editors should retain ultimate authority to accept or reject papers. Reviewers’ recommendations should be just that—recommendations. Rank-order the recommendations in terms of importance. Encourage the authors to “talk back” to the reviewers; not all the recommendations from the reviewers are sensible or
crucial for improving the paper. It is annoying to the authors to carry out recommendations of one review panel only to be told by another panel to revert back to the original version. Many of these problems occur because of the editors’ failure to exercise leadership and let everyone know that they—and not the anonymous reviewers—are responsible for the final decisions.

- Broaden the membership of the editorial boards and manuscript reviewer pool to include a wider spectrum of librarians. Do not treat these positions as spoils to distribute among editors’ friends. Make sure that there are adequate opportunities for young librarians to participate in various aspects of journal publishing. Use internships to attract bright, young librarians.
- Conduct regular surveys or focus group interviews of your readers, and identify ways of improving the journal in terms of content, readability, relevance, and appearance. To this author, C&RL is too staid, boring, and uninviting; it fails to convey the excitement of intellectual and technological changes sweeping academic librarianship.
- C&RL seems to revel in the expansive use of scholarly apparatus—an abundant use of endnotes, footnotes, endnotes to footnotes, unchecked and extraneous discussions in endnotes, and so on. In a number of instances, the primary purpose of discussion in endnotes seems to be to display the authors’ research prowess. The trouble is that this type of scholarly apparatus may bury some useful information and create a barrier between author and reader by making the articles difficult to read and understand. Control the use of endnotes by using a simple rule: If the information presented in the endnotes is important, it should be incorporated into the article itself; otherwise, get rid of it.
- Finally, be kind to authors. Writing is a difficult task. Although some people find writing quite easy, most have to work hard to produce even a three-page manuscript. Most people make all sorts of mistakes, using clichés and trite language and misusing grammar, to name a few. Most people know one or two bright people who cannot spell even if their life depended on it (sorry for the cliche). However, such mistakes may not have any bearing on the worth of the paper; therefore, do not be sidetracked by them but, instead, give a fair and critical reading on the substance of the paper first and the grammar later. Remember that no one intentionally writes articles with poor grammar and spelling; it only shows that the help of a good editor is needed.

Summary
Improving the quality of any journal is a two-way process. Authors must take their task of writing articles for consideration seriously and pay attention to the editors’ advice. At the same time, editors should constantly examine their operations and continually implement changes to improve the quality of their journals. They should honestly explain the ambiguities involved in the peer review and editorial processes to their authors and readers, and offer to work with their authors. Instead of lecturing or talking down to authors, they should work toward improving communication between editors and authors, and encourage authors to talk back to the editors by raising questions, pointing out reviewer inconsistencies, and, in general, communicating their concerns. Authors have a right to expect polite, courteous, thoughtful, and speedy responses from editors. After all, ALA journals are supported by membership dues; they are our journals and are not the properties of editors and editorial
boards. In the end, authors, editors, reviewers, and editorial boards need to work together to improve the quality of library journals!

Notes

6. Ibid.
7. Ibid., 307; 308 and endnote 43; and 311–12.
8. Ibid., 309 (table 3), 311.
9. Ibid., 313 (table 5).
10. Ibid., 315 (table 7).

Authors’ Response

The authors thank the author of “Improving Quality: A Reader’s Advice to C&RL Editors” for his careful reading of “Publication in College & Research Libraries: Accepted, Rejected, and Published Papers, 1980–1991.” Although we strongly disagree with many points, it is our hope that readers will hold “Improving Quality” to the same scrutiny. As noted in our references, there is an extensive literature on peer review and assessment of manuscripts submitted to journals for publication. A number of descriptive studies report author characteristics of articles published in different journals, and two studies present statistical profiles of publication patterns of articles appearing in C&RL. We attempted to cast our article within the context of this literature, and we are not convinced that hypothesis testing is meaningful for statistical profiles, although we think it is informative to provide the descriptive information relating to, for instance, the number of authors and the geographic distribution of those submitting papers for possible publication.

Issues relating to privacy fall within two discrete areas: (1) researcher access to the referees’ evaluation sheets for the manuscripts submitted, and (2) the steps we took to adhere to strict procedures to protect privacy. Our article discusses both of these points. As the literature indicates, other professional associations have allowed researchers some access to internal documentation and have produced some very interesting results. We attempted to examine the issues the studies addressed and noted that none of them engaged in hypothesis testing.

We agree with the observation that the data might have been presented in a dif-
ferent manner (some charts were eliminated in the review process itself), but would also maintain that the data were submitted to extensive validation. If the author "wonders how truly objective" we were in evaluating the work of the editors, he should first duplicate the work (as would be the case in other disciplines) and then offer observations on objectivity. Also, although he makes numerous assumptions about quality, a careful review of the works cited in our paper would have tempered some of these assumptions.

What is more important, there are ample opportunities for research. The more we probe the internal reviewing process of different journals in library and information science, the more we are able to see how our discipline stands in relation to other disciplines. Developing a data collection form to capture the reviewing process was much more difficult than previous research suggested.

Not all research can be expected to fit the same pattern. We are pleased that our results parallel research in other disciplines. Given the nature of the published literature, it is important that research within library and information science portray itself within that broader context. Let a criticism of research on the reviewing process do the same!

Peter Hernon is Professor and Allen Smith is Associate Professor at the Graduate School of Library and Information Science, Simmons College.

**Note**

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The widening gap between constituents' demands for materials and research libraries' abilities to meet those demands calls for new strategies or emphases by those libraries. It may be expected that patron demands will exert increasing influence over the allocation of materials budgets and those data on use of materials will drive or guide collection development. Are such data, which can be provided by automated systems, being used to guide collection development? Responses to a survey reveal that, with few exceptions, they are not.

Among libraries serving the leading North American research universities, there is clear evidence of a widening gap between constituents' demands for materials and libraries' abilities to meet those demands from their own collections. According to the report on the ARL/RLG Interlibrary Loan Cost Study, interlibrary borrowing among ARL libraries grew by 108 percent in the ten years through 1992, or at an average annual compound rate of 7.6 percent. The increase the final year was ten percent. Moreover, a graph in the 1993–94 ARL Statistics portrays vividly the near-doubling of interlibrary borrowing among ARL academic libraries between 1986 and 1994 (see figure 1).

According to the cost study, three converging trends explain the increase in interlibrary loans. These trends account for the widening gap between constituents' demands and libraries' abilities to meet those demands. They are "more accessible and easy-to-use bibliographic tools;... a growing universe of published items"; and "reduced buying power" for libraries as a result of increased acquisition costs for most research resources combined with constrained budgets. Another graph from the ARL Statistics portrays the third of the converging trends. It reveals the disparities, during the period 1986–94, between the unit price increase for serials and monographs (115% and 55%, respectively), and the slower rate of increase in library spending for serials and, in particular, for monographs (93% and 17%, respectively). The graph also shows the consequences of these disparities, a 4 percent decline in serials purchased and a 22 percent decline in monographs purchased (see figure 2).

The graphs depict what Nancy L. Eaton refers to as the "crisis of scholarly publishing," which has had severe consequences for research university library budgets. As the director of such a library, Eaton asserts:

Pleading for more money to match inflation and the fluctuations in the
dollar is no longer viable unless it is also accompanied by new strategies that hold promise for changing the system. Library directors must also question how well we are using the resources we have. The old 80/20 rule of thumb—20 percent of our collections meet 80 percent of demand—is no longer credible to our senior [university] administrators and funding agencies, given the fiscal climate.\(^5\)

**Importance of Use Data: Increased Significance of Demand**

Charles B. Osburn believes libraries are establishing a new set of guiding principles in response to persistent and significant stresses and strains, ambiguities and change, which are either triggered or aggravated by economic pressures. One of the principles is a shift in emphasis from spending acquisitions budgets on the basis of speculation to spending on the basis of demand.\(^6\) Establishment of such a
principle should increase the importance of the data that can be produced by automated systems. These data reveal the demand for materials and could guide collection development and thus the spending of acquisitions budgets.

Questionnaire
To determine the extent to which data that can be produced by automated systems are used to guide collection development, the author developed a questionnaire and sent it to the chief collection development officer at each of the 108 university library members of ARL. Respondents returned seventy-nine completed questionnaires, for a response rate of 73.1 percent. Respondents were asked if they could be quoted or paraphrased by name; not all consented.

Discussion of Responses
Universality of Automated Systems: Use of Data Leads to Better Decisions
The first question asked respondents if the main library uses an automated circulation system. Not surprisingly, all respondents replied affirmatively. Respon-
dents were then asked if the data produced by the system are regularly used in collection development decisions. Thirty-four (43%) replied affirmatively. Those who replied affirmatively were asked if they believe use of the data leads to significantly better collection development decisions than would be the case if the data were not used. Twenty-eight of the thirty-four (82.4%) replied affirmatively. Those who reported that the data produced by an automated circulation system were not regularly used in collection development decisions were asked if it is planned to use such data for such purpose. No time horizon was specified. Thirty-two of the forty-five (71.1%) replied affirmatively (see table 1).

**How the Data Are Used: Macro-Level Use Infrequent**
Respondents who reported that their libraries use the data in collection development decisions were asked to describe the data and how they are used. Their responses fell into two categories. One category has to do with use of the data at the micro level, or individual title level; the other at the global (macro), or subject classification (call-number range) level. Only eleven respondents reported use of the data at the macro level. That is 32.4 percent of those who reported their libraries use the data in collection development decisions, but only 13.9 percent of all respondents. However, use must be at the macro level if the data are to bear significantly on resource allocation and guide collection development (see table 2 for a summary).

At the micro level, twenty-four of the thirty-four respondents (70.6%) reported using information about title holds to consider purchasing additional copies. Fourteen (41.2%) reported using information about lost or damaged titles to consider purchasing replacements. Eight (23.5%) reported using circulation data to make storage decisions and eight institutions use such data to determine candidates for withdrawal. Five (14.7%) said data are used in canceling journal subscriptions. At the macro level, six respondents (17.6%) reported using the data in allocating the materials budget and five said data are used to determine circulation by classification, which information may influence budget allocation. As approval plans increase in popularity, it may be especially interesting to other institutions that three respondents (8.8%) reported use of the data to monitor and adjust approval plans. Because of comments made in two of the approval plan responses, the author decided to treat the three as macro-level use of the data.

Several respondents commented on the difficulty that a NOTIS system presents. According to Chuck Hamaker, assistant dean for collection development at Louisiana State University, “One of the major problems for most libraries with NOTIS is that it takes special programming to get the SASS reports that coordinate data to make it meaningful.” Another respondent at a NOTIS library commented that purchase of NOTIS Quick Reports enabled the library to produce some reports. However, Quick Reports “was very expensive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Summary of Responses to Questionnaire</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Questionnaires sent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Questionnaires returned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Automated circulation system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Data regularly used in collection development decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Use of data leads to significantly better decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Data not regularly used in collection development decisions</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Plan to use data in collection development decisions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 2  
How the Data Are Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of use</th>
<th>Micro</th>
<th>Macro</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Add copy</td>
<td>24 (70.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Replace copy</td>
<td>14 (41.2%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Store</td>
<td>8 (23.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Withdraw</td>
<td>8 (23.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Cancel journals</td>
<td>5 (14.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Allocate budget</td>
<td></td>
<td>6 (17.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Determine use by</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 (14.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classification or</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>range</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Monitor approval</td>
<td>3 (8.8%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[and] there are some very annoying omissions."

Conversely, Linda Di Biase, collection development librarian at the University of Washington Libraries, which uses an Innovative Interfaces Integrated System, noted the system's excellent management reporting capabilities.

"Significantly" Better Decisions  
Does the use of data lead to significantly better collection development decisions than would be the case if the data were not used? It does, according to twenty-eight of the thirty-four respondents (82.4%) who reported the data are used. Those who answered yes were asked to elaborate, though not all did so. Jim Kuhlman, associate dean of libraries for collections and information services at the University of Alabama, commented on use of the data at the micro level:

"Significantly" is a relative term. We haven't made the use of circulation data that I would have hoped. For example, it has not played a role in budget allocation other than helping to make the case for increasing the amount for replacement/added copies. On the other hand, I think that has been significant. Such data has provided [an] accurate and convenient mechanism to increase the avail-

ability of those specific titles most in demand by current students and faculty. A relatively small amount of money spent here can result, I believe, in a disproportionate benefit to customers. ... Also, as we face another round of journal cancellations, use data for sci/tech journals captured at relatively low cost will aid greatly in the decision process.

At Auburn University, Yvonne Kozlowski expressed the view of several respondents who use the data at the macro level: "We know what areas of our collections are receiving high use." As a result, more materials are acquired for those areas. At the University of Illinois-Urbana, Karen Schmidt, chair of the Collection Development Committee, captured the essence of what use of the data makes possible: "It allows us to make informed decisions about where our dollars should go."

Suzanne Pitman, associate director for technical services and collection management at North Carolina State University, made a number of good points that should be of interest to her colleagues, especially those not using data generated by an automated system:

The use of hard data, as opposed to anecdotal or individual impression, leads to more reliable analyses; data is now available that wasn't in the manual system, and data are routinely available now that formerly required special efforts. The availability of data over time helps analyze trends more accurately. The ability to tailor reports supports more extensive and creative use of data to better understand use patterns and our user communities.
Explaining Lack of Use

The forty-five respondents who reported that their libraries use an automated circulation system, but that data produced by the system are not regularly used in collection development decisions, were asked to explain the lack of use. Not all respondents did so; several respondents cited more than one reason (see table 3).

System limitations were cited by eleven of the forty-five respondents (24.4%). At Arizona State University, Elliot Palais, coordinator for the social sciences, stated “that a number of years ago the library adopted the CARL automated system, which provides only the most rudimentary kind of data on collection use. The library hopes to install a new system within a year or so, and a requirement for it will be the ability to produce a variety of collection use statistics.”

Barbara Van Deventer, assistant director for collection development at the University of Chicago, commented that the system in use there is a local system developed more than a dozen years ago. Although certain categories of information useful to patrons are provided, nevertheless “data retention helpful to collection management was not included [in system design]. Thus, we have no information on use through circulation. This is a serious defect.”

According to one respondent, “Unfortunately, the libraries’ present circulation system does not make data that is useful for collection development readily available.” And another respondent noted, “Our NOTIS system yields gross circulation data presently. We are not receiving the Quick Reports which would provide useful collection management data.” A third respondent added: “The data that will be generated [from a new automated circulation system] will not be sufficiently attuned to collection management needs for it to be helpful.”

At the University of Kentucky, Bonnie Jean Cox, collection development librarian, reported, “The system’s data cannot be accessed from the desktop. Producing such a report requires the intervention of a systems librarian and a programmer.” At MIT, according to Carol Fleishauer, associate director for collections services, “It’s too difficult to extract the data from the systems.” Lynn Sipe, acting director of libraries at the University of Southern California, wrote that circulation data now are used for replacement and added copy decisions, and “more sophisticated use would be made if the automated data were more easily retrieved, especially without assistance of computer room staff.”

Another eleven respondents reported having data for too few years. According to Joel Rutstein at Colorado State University, his institution has had three systems since 1985, and, as a result, staff have been unable to accumulate reliable information over sufficient time. The current system has been in place only two years. Another respondent wrote that her institution has “only a few years of data that indicate usage, etc., in our present SIRSI circulation system.”

Seven of the forty-five respondents (15.6%) reported that within the context of automated systems, other programming had higher priority. At Cornell University, according to Ross Atkinson, associate university librarian, the necessary programs have not been written because they have been “a lower priority than other programs needed for processing and public access.” The head of collection development at a Canadian institution also commented that special programming is needed and “our library system has given

<table>
<thead>
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<th>TABLE 3</th>
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<tr>
<td>Why the Data Are Not Used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Limitation of system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Data for too few years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Needed program(s) unavailable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Not convinced of value of data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
little priority to deriving management in-
formation." At the University of Hawaii
at Manoa, according to Carol Schaafsma,
collection development coordinator, "We
have not had the necessary expertise to
extract the information being collected.
We are in the process of hiring an individ­
ual who will be charged with responsi-
bility for doing this."
Joseph Branin, associate university li-
brarian at the University of Minnesota,
commented, "We automated circulation
late (about five years ago) and other au-
tomation issues have taken priority over pro-
gramming for useful statistical reports."
At some institutions, however, the rea-
son for not using the data rests with col-
collection development itself. At one of the
leading U.S. public institutions, according
to the respondent, the "basic problem is
that collection development has not con-
ceptualized and requested data that might
be helpful." Another respondent wrote that
there is "no particular reason" why the
data are not regularly used in collection
development decisions. And at a major
Midwestern institution, it was reported
that "It's something we haven't gotten to
on a regular basis yet."
At Washington University in Saint
Louis, according to B. J. Johnson, head of
collection development services, consider-
ation has been given to using circulation
data in collection decisions, "but effort to
produce reports from the circulation sys-
tem is much more trouble than informa-
tion is worth." Johnson then makes an
interesting point: "Also, local history and
politics would not tolerate any significant
changes—regardless of source of data!"
Several respondents asserted that cir-
culation data are not seen to be im-
portant for guiding collection development
due to the nature of their institutions.
At one Midwestern institution, the head of
collection development commented that
"because of the research aspect of [our]
collection and for political reasons circ
data is a 'hard sell.'" The collection de-
velopment officer at another Midwestern
institution commented, too, on the influ-
ence exerted by the institution's research
mission: "Circulation isn't viewed as the
most important factor in collection
development in a research library."
The head of the Collection Develop-
ment Department at a Canadian institu-
tion also noted the influence exerted by
the need to support research: "Our re-
search collection is a single-copy collec-
tion. This means that the number of times
an individual title circulates over a given
period is largely irrelevant." Another re-
ponent made a similar observation,
saying that circulation "is a minor crite-

dion for evaluating collections" at a re-
search library and "takes no account of
in-house use, ILL, or use of special col-
lections." Yet, circulation could be de-

dined so as to take account of in-house
use and ILL.
Finally, the comments made by two re-
pondents may contain valuable warn-
ings. According to one, "The effectiveness
of the data is related only to the actual
use of it and that is entirely dependent
on the ability and the willingness of the
selectors to take advantage of what can
be made available." In that regard, Jim
Kuhlman at the University of Alabama,
whose library does use the data in collec-
tion development decisions, expressed
the view that "many librarians are
uncomfortable with statistics, especially
if the resulting conclusion contradicts our
preferences."

Concluding Comments
This article reports findings concerning
the use of the data available from auto-
mated circulation systems to guide col-
lection development. Although it is be-
lied that such data are valuable in guiding collection development, the data are not the only information that is valuable to collection developers. The importance of interlibrary loan statistics in collection development has been asserted. Moreover, those who contend a formula is the best means to allocate the materials budget argue, if only implicitly, that a considerable amount and variety of information should bear on collection development. In one formula, for example, information was incorporated on undergraduate enrollment, number of graduate majors, number of faculty by department, holdings by subject, and average price by subject.

In spite of the value of other data to collection developers, however, some have predicted that it is the data available from automated circulation systems that will guide collection development. Fifteen years ago, H. William Axford wrote that there was "every reason to believe that the long-term collection use study will become widespread and that it will result in fundamental changes in the way library collections are managed in the decade ahead." Economic constraints would be the principal impetus for the use studies. He continues, "This unpleasant [economic] reality poses an impossible budgeting problem for institutions of higher education unless there is a willingness to explore new approaches to resource allocation which incorporate the concept of attempting to measure the return on investment." Senior campus administrators and external agencies would see that the institutions' libraries were not exempt from the requirement to explore new approaches to resource allocation. As one result, collection use stud-

pees, made possible by "sophisticated automated circulation systems, would become common"; and according to Axford, "it is highly probable" such studies "will prove to be the most effective tool for . . . upgrading the management of academic libraries to emerge from a decade of experimentation."

Nearly a decade ago, Susan Nutter wrote:

Collection development librarians are facing increasing pressures to tailor collections more precisely to user needs and to do so in a more cost-effective manner. Increasingly, collection management decisions need to be made on the basis of hard data—assumptions, educated guesses, and intuition are no longer adequate.

Fortunately, Nutter continued, "with this growing need, computer-based systems that can provide this management information are coming into widespread use in libraries."

Charles Hamaker wrote of "fiscal reality" and "accountability," and of the potential benefits available from computer-based systems: "As many libraries, large and small, begin to utilize data from online circulation and control systems . . . one of the least examined areas has been the potential impact on collection development and management decisions." According to Hamaker, other demands stand in the way of having the potential benefits realized, but he believed it was inevitable that "collection design" would come about and would lead to the benefits, which are a better match between collections and user needs. The selection "process is about to change even in some of the largest libraries. Fiscal reality will drive the change and accountability will become a necessity. . . . With the availability of circulation information with just a few keystrokes, the question of which book to add has a whole dimension available that was guesswork before."
Yet, more recently, Hamaker has written that although "OPACs held [and hold?] the promise of better management data, more information on our collections, [f]or the most part this information has not been collected, analyzed, utilized. It is a promise yet to be fulfilled."12

The results of this survey bear out that assessment. The predictions of Axford and Nutter have not been borne out. Why, in spite of their predictions, is so little use made of data that can be provided by automated circulation systems to guide resource allocation and collection development? The responses to the survey reveal a variety of reasons. System limitations were cited by a number of respondents and seemed to be a particular problem at NOTIS sites. Some respondents lamented the nonavailability of needed programs and the inability to persuade the appropriate persons that the programs should be developed. Still other respondents made it clear they are not convinced of the value, for collection development, of data available from automated circulation systems.

Is there, however, another, overarching explanation, not revealed in returned questionnaires, for the nearly universal nonuse of the data at the important macro level? In discussing, and in some cases predicting, use of the data "to shift resources internally" (Eaton), to bring about "fundamental changes in the way library collections are managed" (Axford), or "to tailor collections more precisely to user needs" (Nutter), reference was made to an expected increased concern on the part of university administrators and funding agencies about how libraries allocate their resources. Perhaps that has not come about. Perhaps, for the most part, libraries serving research universities have not been subjected to the increased accountability that some saw coming. If the anticipated heightened accountability has not materialized, then a powerful incentive for a shift in emphasis "from spending acquisitions budgets on the basis of speculation to spending on the basis of demand" (Osburn) has not developed. This issue is of such significance that it deserves further exploration.

NOTES

3. Roche, ARL/RLG Interlibrary Loan, 1.
5. Ibid., 4–5.
7. I am indebted to Paul Metz, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, for the terms micro and global, which he used in his response.
8. Data presented in a table may seem to be inconsistent with data reported in the text due to multiple responses of a single respondent.
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Accessing Electronic Journals and Other E-publications: An Empirical Study

Stephen P. Harter and Hak Joon Kim

This article reports the results of a study of access problems and issues related to scholarly and peer-reviewed electronic journals (e-journals) currently found on the Internet. Data are reported on the accuracy of directory information, the accessibility of e-journal articles, the status of e-journal archives, methods used to retrieve current and back issues, and the variety of data formats used by e-journals. Data also are presented on the accessibility of the texts of electronic publications referenced by e-journal articles. The findings illustrate the practical problems that can arise when users attempt to retrieve the texts of electronic publications, and reveal relatively poor accessibility and usability of the e-journals studied. Implications for academic and research libraries are considered.

The first scholarly journals, Journal des Scavans and the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, began publication in 1665. For more than three centuries, the journal has played a crucial role in the creation, transmission, and storage of knowledge, as the primary medium of communication among scholars. Despite its successes, however, in the past fifty years the print journal system has been subjected to many criticisms, perhaps the most serious of which are high costs, long delays in the publication process, and failures of peer review. The problems of print journals and the concomitant development of computer and communications technology have led to the development of electronic alternatives to print journals—various forms of the electronic journal, or e-journal.

This article reports empirical research conducted in the latter half of 1995 on access problems and issues related to networked e-journals, defined as e-journals that are delivered via, or accessed through, the Internet. It is part of a larger study designed to assess the impact of e-journals on scholarship and research by examining references of, and citations to, e-journal articles.

The Research Problem

Before the introduction of the first graphical World Wide Web (WWW) browser (Mosaic) in 1993, most e-journals were based on the listserv (electronic mailing

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list) technology operating on the Internet and Bitnet networks and distributing e-journal articles as ASCII text files. The Gopher or FTP protocols were often used as complementary mechanisms providing additional access to listserv-based e-journals. Since 1993, the tremendous growth of the WWW has influenced both the number and distribution mechanisms of e-journals. Many e-journals formerly based on listservs and most newly established e-journals have migrated to the WWW, which allows journals to go far beyond simple ASCII text in the provision of information. Journals published on the WWW can include hypertext links connecting references, tables, and other parts of an article, as well as links to other Web files. In addition, they can use powerful new features such as graphics, sound, video, and even miniprograms (e.g., Java applets). Web browsers use several Internet protocols, including Gopher, FTP, and http (hypertext transfer protocol). In addition, speed of publication can be greatly enhanced over that of print journals. Thus, although thorny cost, quality, archival, and preservation issues have not yet been resolved, there are clearly potential benefits of e-journals over traditional print journals. Some commentators expect e-journals to supplant paper journals in the relatively near future. 5

To this point, vastly more speculation has been written about the potential of e-journals than empirical research conducted on existing ones. Although thousands of e-journals, newsletters, zines, and other electronic serials now are available on the networks and interest in them has greatly heightened, little empirical research has been conducted. 6

Hazel Woodward and Cliff McKnight argue that three levels of access to e-journals must be considered. 7 The first is access to the bibliographic information on e-journals and publishers, including names and addresses. The second level is access through indexing and abstracting services to information about the individual articles published by e-journals. The third level is access to the actual texts of e-journal articles.

Several e-journal directories are available in both print and electronic form, 8 and some abstracting and indexing services have recently begun to index a few e-journals. 9 However, to the authors’ knowledge, no empirical research has been published regarding access problems and issues related to the texts of e-journal articles that are currently available on the networks. Reliable access and usability seem crucial if e-journals are to succeed as a new medium of formal scholarly communication.

A related issue is access to the texts of e-journal articles and other kinds of e-publications that have been cited in print or electronic journals. That is, when an author cites an e-publication, what can be said about the accessibility of that item, given the information provided in the citation? Again, to the authors’ knowledge, no research has been conducted on this question.

The specific research questions addressed in this article include:

• To what extent can information provided in e-journal directories be used to retrieve the actual texts of articles? The issues addressed here are accuracy, currency, and completeness of the information provided, as well as stability of the locations of these files.

• If e-journals cannot be located from the information provided in a directory entry, can they be found through independent means (e.g., use of search engines)?

To the authors’ knowledge, no empirical research has been published regarding access problems and issues related to the texts of e-journal articles that are currently available on the networks.
What kinds of problems do users encounter when they try to access e-journals?
- To what extent do e-journal archives exist?
- How complete are existing e-journal archives?
- What methods are used to access current issues and archives of e-journals?
- What data formats are used for e-journals? These will have implications for ease of use, printability, and so on.

As part of the larger study, references in e-journal articles were checked as a measure of the impact of e-journals on scholarly communication. References to e-journal articles and other types of e-publications also were checked for accessibility and type of resource. Thus, two additional questions are raised:
- What are the frequencies and types of e-publications that are references in e-journal articles?
- To what extent are references to e-publications in e-journal articles accessible to users, based on information provided in the reference?

**Methodology**

The primary purpose of the larger study was to assess the impact of scholarly and peer-reviewed (or refereed) e-journals on scholarly communication by studying citations to, and references in, e-journal articles as of the latter part of 1995. To conduct the reference study, it was necessary to retrieve and study a sample of e-journal articles. This gave the authors an opportunity to experience firsthand the kinds of problems that occur when users try to accomplish the same task.

Because the larger study dealt with scholarly and peer-reviewed e-journals, the authors needed to exclude other electronic publications such as newsletters and zines. To define their population, the authors chose to use two print directories that include information on electronic journals: *Internet World's on Internet 94*, published by Mecklermedia, and *Directory of Electronic Journals, Newsletters and Academic Discussion Lists*, published by the Association of Research Libraries (ARL). All e-journals identified in either directory as peer-reviewed or refereed were included. Procedures followed to select the sample (drawn in June 1995) were:
- E-journals selected from the ARL directory were taken from the section entitled "Electronic journals, magazines, and zines" and identified there as "peer-reviewed." All e-journals meeting these criteria became members of the sample.
- E-journals selected from the Mecklermedia directory were taken from the section entitled "Electronic Journals and Newsletters" and identified there as "refereed." All e-journals meeting these criteria became members of the sample.
- The two lists were combined and duplicates removed. There were 131 scholarly and peer-reviewed or refereed e-journals in the final list. The authors attempted to access all of these to retrieve a sample of articles for study.

Most of the e-journals in the sample use more than one access mechanism. The authors used all access methods provided by the ARL and Mecklermedia directories to attempt to gain access to the e-journal collections. For example, one e-journal directory entry provided only the editor's e-mail address as an access method, whereas another provided the editor's e-mail address, uniform resource locators (URLs) for FTP, Gopher, and WWW, and a listserv address. The authors checked all the access points provided in each e-journal entry in the two directories for each of the 131 e-journals in the sample.

There were several occasions when the authors failed to gain access to the e-journals using any of the access methods provided. In such cases the authors used other methods. First, they used Internet search engines such as Infoseek, Webcrawler, Lycos, and Yahoo. In this way, some of the inaccessible e-journals were located. Second, the authors checked vari-
ous e-journal collection sites such as the one maintained by the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC) in its Electronic Journals Collection. Third, the authors attempted to browse (navigate) in directories of the host server, based on partial addresses provided in the directories. Although this technique is intuitive and time-consuming, it was generally useful because many of the inaccessible e-journals had incomplete URLs in their directory listings. Finally, when the authors failed to access an e-journal using all the techniques described above, they attempted to contact its editor. Sometimes this method also was successful.

Through their best efforts to access all the e-journals in the sample, the authors identified the extent to which e-journals were accessible, the types of problems that actually occur when users try to access e-journals, and some possible causes of these problems. In addition, the authors investigated whether archives for the e-journal existed and, if so, their state of completeness. Finally, the authors attempted to determine the life status of the e-journals in the sample. An e-journal was operationally defined as "alive" if its archives existed and contained at least one issue or article published in 1995 (as of September 1, 1995). Otherwise, the authors assumed it had ceased publication.

Findings
Access Methods and Data Formats
Table 1 reports the most frequently used combinations of methods for accessing e-journals. Most e-journals use two or more access/distribution methods. Twenty-four e-journals used the WWW as the sole access/distribution method, making it the most popular e-journal distribution mechanism. Six e-journals used Gopher alone. This is not a surprising result when the explosive growth of the WWW and the simultaneous drop in attention to Gopher, which itself underwent explosive growth only a few years earlier, are considered.

Table 1 also shows the heavy use of listserv software in combination with other distribution methods. Most e-journal publishers evidently recognize the limitations as well as the strengths of listserv-based systems and try to complement them with other methods. All listserv systems maintain a mailing list of subscribers. The table of contents and abstracts of an issue, or sometimes even the full texts of e-journal articles, are sent through e-mail whenever a new issue or article becomes available. If an e-journal is available only through the listserv, accessing e-journal issues, especially back issues, is somewhat difficult, particularly for non-subscribers. The procedures can be time-consuming and require a fair amount of knowledge on the part of users. On the other hand, to be notified of current issues or articles via e-mail is probably the most convenient of all approaches. Thus, it is not surprising to find listserv software used in combination with other distribution methods.

Accepting the premise that a major function of scholarly e-journals is "to make public the results of original research to the widest possible audience," it follows that several methods should be used to provide access so that users can choose the methods most suitable for them. Nine e-journals use all four of the most common e-journal distribution methods: listserv, FTP, Gopher, and WWW.
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The patron-friendly EPIC 3000 with touch screen
comes ready for paper or electronic output.
Don't get caught in a bound document bind.

For more information call 1-800-9-MINOLTA
TABLE 2
Access Methods for Current and Archival Issues of E-journals (N=125)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access Method</th>
<th>No. of E-journals Using Method</th>
<th>Percentage of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WWW</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>66.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gopher</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTP</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>41.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listserv</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>38.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidon</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper (for current issue only)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telnet to freenet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*A given e-journal may provide several access methods.

Table 2 shows that about two-thirds of the e-journals in the sample used the WWW as at least one distribution method. Gopher, FTP, and listserv occupied the second, third, and fourth ranks, respectively. In addition, it should be noted that e-mail, which is relatively primitive compared to other e-journal distribution methods, is still used as a distribution method by one-sixth of the e-journals studied. Table 3 lists the very diverse data formats used by the e-journals in the sample. Among these, the simple ASCII text file was the most commonly used. ASCII is limited in terms of its information representation ability because it cannot handle graphics or special characters such as mathematical symbols. On the other hand, for certain scholarly forms (e.g., essays) and for the bulk of research and scholarship in many fields (e.g., English and sociology), ASCII is perfectly adequate and perhaps preferable. Plain ASCII texts also have an obvious merit in that they can be easily read and manipulated by all kinds of computer hardware and software, and can easily be transmitted using the straightforward e-mail and listserv technologies. HTML (Hypertext Markup Language) and PostScript are the second and third most commonly used data formats. HTML is the standard language used on the WWW for creating and displaying multimedia documents. PostScript is Adobe's page description language used for delivering and printing complex documents that include layout, font descriptions, and graphics over the Internet.

Table 3 also shows that various data formats necessary for multimedia presentations, such as DVI, GIF, MPEG, and QuickTime, have begun to be...
used by e-journals. The kinds and numbers of data formats used for multimedia presentation indirectly reflect the impact of the WWW on e-journals. With the exception of ASCII text, all the data formats listed in table 3 require special software, and in some cases hardware, to view or use the document or document part. This fact can have a significant impact on user accessibility (and on a library’s ability to provide access for users to these files).

**Accessibility of E-journal Articles**

Table 4 shows the success rates the authors achieved in connecting to the e-journal archives using all access methods listed in the ARL and Mecklermedia directories. Less than half the e-journals in the sample could be accessed on the first try using all the methods and addresses provided. This is a disappointing result, because one of the most important advantages claimed for e-journals compared to print journals is speed of access. Such low success rates in accessing e-journals must be considered a serious problem. If e-journal articles cannot be accessed by the target audience when they are needed, their value is diminished. Unstable or limited access to e-journals cannot help but affect their acceptability among scholars as a legitimate medium of formal scholarly communication.

Table 5 reports the results of the authors’ failures to connect to e-journal archives. More than 40 percent of the e-journals in the sample had one or more identifiable problems with the data provided in one or both directories. Nearly 10 percent of the e-journals could not be accessed at all through the URLs listed, although the authors tried to connect to each on at least three different days and times. Eleven (8.6%) of the e-journals had moved their locations, but only six of these provided a “move notice” on their old sites that included a new address (URL). Five e-journals moved but provided no information. In such cases, the authors were able to identify the new location through their own efforts, for example, by using Internet search engines or via intuitive navigation of host serv-

---

**TABLE 4**

Success Rates in Connecting to E-journal Archives*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Connection Result</th>
<th>No. of E-journals</th>
<th>Percentage of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Connected first time for all methods given in the directories</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>45.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure to connect for one or more methods</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Two fee-based e-journals could not be accessed because the authors had no subscription.

---

**TABLE 5**

Summary of Failures in Attempts to Connect to Archives*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Problem</th>
<th>No. of E-journals</th>
<th>Percentage of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identifiable problems in directory data</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>42.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response to listserv or e-mail request</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure to connect to Gopher URL on three or more different days</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location has moved, new address given</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location has moved, no new address given</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure to connect to Web URL on three or more different days</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure to connect to FTP URL on three or more different days</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listserv responded but did not accept subscription to e-journal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*More than one result is possible for a given e-journal. N=71.
TABLE 6
Problems with Data Provided in the Print Directories*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Problem</th>
<th>No. of Times Problem Occurred</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part of URL was missing</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing URL</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typographical error</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect listserv command given</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URL was entirely incorrect</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part of URL was incorrect</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect e-mail address</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* More than one problem may be associated with a given e-journal.

ers. In addition, nine (7%) of the e-journals did not respond in any way to the authors’ listserv or e-mail requests. For these e-journals the authors can conjecture that either they have ceased publication, no longer distribute issues using e-mail, or have a new editor (with the former editor no longer answering his or her e-mail).

Nearly half the problems the authors experienced in connecting to the archives of the e-journals in the sample could be traced to inaccurate data in the print directories (see table 6). For twenty e-journals, parts of the URLs were missing. The authors were often able to identify the correct URLs by navigating the sites using the partial information provided in the directory entry.

In fourteen cases, the authors discovered a Gopher, FTP, or Web location for an e-journal through their own efforts, but this information was not provided in the relevant directory entry. These situations almost certainly resulted from the rapidity of change—from an e-journal adding a Gopher or Web site after the directory information had been gathered and published.

The authors found nine typographical errors in the e-journal listings. The types of errors varied from relatively easy to find to very difficult. For example, "SUBSCRIBED" instead of "SUBSCRIBE" was given as a listserv command, a relatively easy error to diagnose (but not, perhaps, for a naive end user). In another case, “utsas” instead of “utas” was given as a part of a URL; this was very difficult to detect. Even though these look like very minor errors, access to the e-journals failed because of them. URLs must be correct in every aspect, including case, or the connection will fail. “Minor” typographical errors can have devastating consequences.

In nine directory entries, an incorrect listserv command was provided. For example, one of the directories gave the subscription command syntax “subscribe <list>” instead of “subscribe <list> <your name>” for subscribing to a list controlled by the Listproc listserv. The command <your name> is necessary in Listproc, but optional in Listserv.

In nine additional cases, the URL provided was entirely incorrect, in many cases probably due to the archive having been moved to a completely different location. Other less frequently observed problems in the directory listings are given in table 6.

Another important issue that should be considered in determining the accessibility of e-journals is the completeness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State of Archives</th>
<th>No. of E-journals</th>
<th>Percentage of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Archives were complete for all methods</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>66.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archives were incomplete for one or more methods</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impossible to evaluate completeness of archives</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of the archives. Many of the e-journals provide several different access methods, and also maintain several different forms of archives based on these methods. Table 7 reports the authors’ findings on the completeness of the archives maintained by each e-journal in the sample. For two-thirds of the e-journals, all archives were complete. More than one-fifth of the e-journals had at least one incomplete archive, and the authors could not determine the completeness of the archives of the remaining sixteen. To publish their articles as quickly as possible, some e-journals have no concept of issue, though they usually retain the concepts of volume and/or publication year. For these e-journals, articles are individually distributed (published) as they are accepted. Such a mechanism, which is unique to e-journals, speeds up the publication process because there is no need to wait until enough articles are ready before publishing an issue. However, this made it impossible to identify whether articles were missing from the e-journal archives, because typically no index to published articles was provided.

Table 8 reports the life status of the e-journals in the sample. About a quarter of the e-journals had ceased publication, according to the authors’ operational definition of death. Twenty-eight e-journals had archives but had published no 1995 issue (or article). Four e-journals could not be accessed at all. In addition, the authors could not determine the life status of four e-journals. Two of these were fee-based e-journals for which the authors had no subscription. The remaining two had no concept of volume, issue, or publication year. Although there were articles stored in the archives, it was impossible to tell when they had been placed there.

References to E-publications
One of the main purposes of the larger study was to analyze the references from a sample of articles in scholarly and peer-reviewed e-journals in order to measure the extent to which authors of e-journal articles are currently citing e-journals and other online sources. Such authors can be assumed to be more knowledgeable about, and sympathetic to, the electronic media than typical authors. Thus, the re-

E-journal Pricing and Access
Whether an e-journal charges a subscription fee or is free can affect the extent to which libraries may be asked for assistance in providing access to it. The authors identified eight pricing models for the e-journals in the sample (see table 9). In all, only thirteen (10.4%) of the 125 e-journals in the sample for which the fee question could be determined charged a subscription fee.

The authors tested the relationship between several access variables and whether a subscription fee was charged, using the chi-square test. A significant relationship was found between the success the authors had in connecting to the e-journal archives (see table 4) and whether a subscription fee was charged. Free e-journals were significantly more likely to have access problems ($\chi^2 = 11.172, p = .002$).

### TABLE 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life Status</th>
<th>No. of E-journals</th>
<th>Percentage of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Archives and one issue in 1995 exist [living]</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>72.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archives exist but no issue published in 1995 [probably ceased publication]</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No connection could be made [probably ceased publication]</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could not determine life status</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 9
Pricing Arrangements for E-journals

If There Is No Print Counterpart (N=101)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pricing Arrangement</th>
<th>No. of E-journals</th>
<th>Percentage in Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All electronic issues are free</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>90.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fee for both archival and current issues</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fee for current issue; archival issues are free</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscription to electronic version is included with membership in a society</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If There Is a Print Counterpart (N=24)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pricing Arrangement</th>
<th>No. of E-journals</th>
<th>Percentage in Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electronic version is free; fee for print version</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fee for both electronic and print versions</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic version is free; cannot tell about print version</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic version is free; subscription to print version is included with membership in a society</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (fee charged)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (free)</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>89.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the reference study should provide an upper bound on the current influence of e-journals on scholarly communication. Among the original sample of 131 e-journals, the authors determined through examination of sample issues that seventy-four of these were scholarly and peer-reviewed, were accessible to them, and published articles with references. The authors retrieved and printed the last four such articles published by each e-journal. Six of the seventy-four e-journals had published fewer than four articles as of September 1995, when the data collection took place. In these cases the authors studied all the available articles.

From the most recent 279 articles published in the seventy-four scholarly and peer-reviewed e-journals, there were a total of 4,317 references. The authors classified each reference as to its format (book, serial, book chapter, online source, etc.). They further classified the online sources as to subtype (Web page, e-mail, e-journal article, etc.). Finally, the authors tried to retrieve the texts of the referenced online sources. A full discussion of the methodology and findings from the reference study is given in Harter and Kim. Of particular interest here is the result of the authors’ attempts to access the online publications that were cited in the sample of e-journal articles.

A total of eighty-three online sources (1.9% of the 4,317 references) were cited. Table 10 shows the types and frequencies of references to online sources, arranged by the content of the source (Web page, listserv posting, etc.). Web pages, electronic personal papers, e-mail messages, and e-journal articles were the most commonly referenced electronic sources. The authors found many of the references to
online sources to be inconsistent, incomplete, and/or inaccessible. Many did not lead to the text of the cited online source.

The authors could not determine the types of twelve online references (14.5%) because bibliographic information was incomplete and because the online sources were not accessible, making further investigation impossible. For example, some of the online references provide only a URL and no other bibliographic information. In these cases, if the authors could not access the cited reference through the given URL, it was usually not possible to determine the type of online source being cited.

The authors studied each of the eighty-three references and tried to access the text of the cited material. One of the great theoretical advantages of references to online sources is that the reader can retrieve the full texts of the cited sources very quickly (ideally, by clicking on the reference itself). The third column of table 10 shows the results of our attempts to retrieve the texts cited by the eighty-three references. Only six of the nine e-journal articles cited were accessible. E-mail messages and newsgroup postings were especially inaccessible, and none of the twelve sources whose types could not be determined could be retrieved. Overall, only about half of the texts of the cited online sources could be accessed.

These findings are analyzed in another way in table 11. Online information sources can be obtained using several different access protocols. Forty-seven of the cited references included a URL. The authors used Netscape, a Web browser, to attempt to access these URLs. However, only two-thirds of the URLs led to the text of the source. For the remaining third, the authors obtained the browser message "The server does not have a DNS entry" or the server error message "404 URL Not Found." Several types of the online references listed in table 10 (e.g., Web pages, electronic personal papers, SGML-encoded documents, software programs, and local file references) were usually cited in this way, often only with a URL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Online Source</th>
<th>No. of References</th>
<th>No. and Percentage of Accessible* References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Web Page</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10 (83.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic Personal Paper</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7 (70.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail Message</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2 (22.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-journal Article</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6 (66.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newsgroup Posting</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listserv Posting</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2 (40.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic Directory</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGML Encoded Document</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic Preprint</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Software</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic Newspaper</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Catalog</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local File</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type could not be determined</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>43 (51.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*A reference is accessible if it leads directly to the text cited given only the information found in the citation.
TABLE 11

Access Protocols and Accessibility for the 83 Online References

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access Protocol</th>
<th>No. of Online References</th>
<th>No. and % of Accessible References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>URL</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>31 (66.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail information</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4 (30.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listserv information</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6 (66.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usenet newsgroup</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic newspaper</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 (100.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete access</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information provided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>43 (51.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For online sources in which e-mail information was provided, the authors tried to contact the source using e-mail. Only four of these references led to the online source cited. The authors received the mail server message “User Unknown” in seven cases. In two other instances, there was no response to the authors’ message.

Nine of the online references were to listserv postings. The authors were able to access six of these by using the listserv access information provided in the reference (e.g., the listserv name and posting date) and by using listserv commands. These required a fair amount of knowledge and effort. The authors’ failures were due to the lack of the existence of listserv archives or archives for the time period in question. This also was the explanation for the authors’ inability to find the seven cited Usenet newsgroup postings. Two electronic newspaper articles were cited. The authors were fortunate to have access to Lexis/Nexis, and found the cited articles that way.

Finally, table 11 indicates that five online references fell in the category “incomplete access information provided.” In these cases, there was insufficient information for the authors even to attempt to gain access to the source.

Table 11 shows that, except for electronic newspapers available through a commercial service (to which not all Internet users will have access), none of the methods led to perfect retrieval. The authors consider the overall rate of 51.8 percent to be extremely low, given that the online sources were apparently considered important enough for an author to cite; and yet in just one or two years, nearly half of the referenced texts were not accessible online. The percentage of successfully accessed material would be even lower if the authors required transparent accessibility—that is, if texts found through search engines or through knowledge of arcane listserv commands were considered to be in a different category than those available simply by clicking on a URL. Table 12 summarizes the accessibility findings when the data are viewed in this way.

Table 12 shows that only 37.3 percent of the references in the sample provided transparent (clickable) access to the text of a cited reference. In another 14.5 percent of the references, the text could be found, but only with significant effort, as described above. Nearly half of the references did not lead to the cited text even when significant effort was expended.

Direct accessibility to cited e-journal articles and other cited online sources would obviously be extremely convenient to readers and would offer a great advantage to e-journals over print. Equally, if readers cannot access original sources of referenced material, references to electronic sources are much less useful than references to print sources. The authors should emphasize that the references studied appeared in recently published e-journal articles—most during the year in which the data gathering took place. The authors might reasonably expect the great majority of such references to be largely correct and complete—at least enough to
lead the reader to the text of the referenced source. This was not what the authors found; only half of the references were accessible, and only somewhat more than a third provided transparent access. When more time has passed, these proportions are likely to be much lower. The authors conclude that the accessibility of cited online sources is potentially a very serious problem for e-journals and for the citation of electronic publications more generally.

Conclusions
The findings of this study illustrate the practical problems that occur when users attempt to access the texts of articles published in scholarly and peer-reviewed e-journals that are currently available on the Internet. The problems the authors identified raise several important issues that libraries should consider.

If academic and research libraries are to provide users with access to the texts of e-journals, appropriate hardware and software is needed. Many of the e-journals in the sample employ two or more access and distribution methods, and some include data formats such as PostScript, DVI, and TeX, as well as audio and video capability, for rich information representation. Many users will not be able to fully utilize such e-journals on their own computers for lack of their own appropriate hardware or software. Just as academic libraries subscribe to print journals for those users who are not able to individually subscribe to many journals in their fields, they also will need to provide users with appropriate equipment and software necessary not only for accessing e-journals, but also for printing articles and manipulating related files. In addition, user training will be necessary for many users if they are to effectively use the facilities provided.

One of the troubling findings of this study was with the information found in the two (print) e-journal directories the authors used. More than half of the e-journals in the sample could not be accessed by one or more methods given in the directories, despite the recent publication dates of the directories. The most frequent reason for access failure was inaccurate directory information. The authors assume that the main cause of inaccuracies is that the directories, which are compiled and published annually, cannot keep up with rapid changes in the relevant information. As long as growth and change in e-journals continue to be rampant, the print medium may not be well suited for an e-journal directory. In fact, the ARL directory is available in both print and electronic form. However, the electronic version, which is available on a Gopher site,17 is an abridged version of the annual print e-journal directory and is not continually updated. In this sense, it does not take full advantage of its electronic character. To keep up with rapid changes in e-journals, up-to-date information should be readily available—and that implies that the directories themselves should be on the Internet and in a state of continuous revision.

Another important issue is the need to create and maintain e-journal archives. A full 55 percent of the e-journ-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 12</th>
<th>Summary of Accessibility Results for References to E-publications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result of Accessibility Tests</td>
<td>No. of References</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparent (clickable) access to text of cited reference</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text of cited reference findable with significant effort, given the information provided in the citation</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text of cited reference not findable given the information provided in the citation</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
nals in the sample could not be accessed on the first try by one or more methods listed in the directories. More than half of the access failures were due to the problems of the e-journals themselves, such as servers being down or server location changes. Moreover, about one-fifth of the e-journals had incomplete archives and almost a quarter had probably ceased publication. The authors' data raise serious questions concerning the permanence and reliability of e-journal archives.18

Commercial publishers also will become much more involved. This article has dealt with scholarly peer-reviewed e-journals that were in existence as of June 1995 (as given in the ARL and Mecklermedia directories used to draw the sample). These did not include any of the major commercial publishers, such as Elsevier Science, Springer Verlag, John Wiley & Sons, Blackwell Science Limited, Academic Press, and Taylor and Francis, who are just now making their presence known.19 The authors are sure that some of the access problems noted here will be addressed by these large fee-based publishers, who will probably try to maintain complete and easily accessible archives. The situation is not so clear for the smaller publishers. Indeed, the authors found significantly more access problems with free e-journals than with fee-based ones. This implies that smaller e-journal publishers need to give more attention to quality control issues, especially those involving access. It also suggests that the idea of free e-journals may be an illusion that cannot be sustained.20

Academic libraries have traditionally performed archival functions for serial publications that publish academically relevant articles, regardless of format. E-journals should not be an exception. Precisely how and in what format e-journals should be archived by academic and research libraries—paper, microfilm/fiche, floppy disk, CD-ROM, or on local servers—remains to be determined by the individual libraries or cooperative entities that determine to maintain archives. But without such archives, the unreliable access to e-journals that the authors have reported makes their evolution into a new medium of scholarly communication somewhat problematic.

The traditional scholarly journal system was not built in a day. The transformation of print scholarly journals to their present form and function has been an ongoing process for more than two centuries. The journal has had to continuously evolve in order to best serve its role as the primary medium of scholarly communication. On the other hand, the scholarly e-journals that began to be available on the networks in the late 1980s have had a relatively short history, and academic libraries have grappled with them for an even shorter period. E-journals are still in a very early stage of development, and the many issues related to them are in constant change. Nonetheless, e-journals have unique advantages over print journals and offer the potential to revolutionize the traditional scholarly communicat-
tion system that heretofore has been dominated by paper journals. The change in the scholarly communication system brought by e-journals has already begun and will probably be profound.

Electronic journals are, of course, only one type of e-publication, though certainly one of the most important ones from the perspective of a research library. The study of references to e-publications reported here shows that access to the texts of the cited material is no more reliable than access to e-journal articles. Potential solutions to this problem are not apparent because there are vastly more citable e-publications on the WWW that are not e-journal articles than those that are. Building a framework to approach this knotty problem is extraordinarily challenging. Yet traditionally academic libraries have played a crucial role in the scholarly communication process, and cannot ignore the access problems and issues the authors have discussed. It is time to actively attack them.

The authors wish to thank Margaret Harter, Debra Shaw, and Taemin Park for their thoughtful comments and questions on an earlier version of this manuscript, and are grateful to OCLC, Inc., for partial funding of the larger study of e-journals of which this report is a part.

Notes


3. Woodward divides electronic journals into three types: online (available from a commercial vendor such as DIALOG or Lexis/Nexis), CD-ROM, and networked (available directly on the Internet or other academic network). See Hazel Woodward, “The Impact of Electronic Information on Serials Collection Management,” IFLA Journal 20, no. 1 (1994): 35–45. However, because DIALOG and other vendors are now searchable on the Internet, these are no longer mutually exclusive categories. Operationally, networked e-journals are defined in this article by the inclusion criteria used by the two directories the authors used to draw their samples: Mecklermedia’s Internet World’s on Internet 94 and ARL’s Directory of Electronic Journals, Newsletters and Academic Discussion Lists (see note 8 for full citations). Neither directory includes e-journals available through a commercial vendor such as DIALOG.


ogy Today

ing temporary access to the following fee-based e-journals for purposes of conducting this study:

Thomas's product.

Applied

sis for Nursing.

search, Gene-Combis,
sage from the system. Some listserv systems require a confirmation response of the subscription

764.html>

packages. Some listserv software does not allow the archiving, searching, or retrieving of files. The

available at URL: <http:/ /science-mag.aaas.org/science/scripts/display/full/271/5250/

Commonly used and venerable Listserv software by Eric Thomas is fully featured and powerful,

Other

titles are targeted for inclusion in the near future. Source: E-mail message from Eileen Curtin, Edito­

its databases:

URL: <gopher: http:/ /gort.ucsd.edu/newjour/>; and "Scholarly Journals Distributed via the World Wide Web," avail­


"listserv" refers to all the listserv software packages and uppercase "Listserv" refers to Eric

The CIC Electronic Journals Collection is available at URL: <http://ejournals.cic.net/>. Other collections are "NewJour: Electronic Journals & Newsletters," available at URL: http://

gorton.ucsd.edu/newjour/>; and "Scholarly Journals Distributed via the World Wide Web," avail­

There are several listserv software packages, including Majordomo, Listproc, Mailbase, and Listserv. Both the available features and commands differ significantly among these pack­

10. As of June 1995, when the study began, the 1995 edition of the Mecklermedia directory had not been published.

11. By inspecting the e-journals themselves, the authors later reduced this list to exclude many e-journals, zines, and newsletters that in their judgment did not report the results of re­

13. There are several listserv software packages, including Majordomo, Listproc, Mailbase, and Listserv. Both the available features and commands differ significantly among these pack­


17. See note 8.

18. Citation in a networked information environment and establishing trusted channels of distribution are two of the “integrity issues” discussed by Clifford A. Lynch in “Integrity Issues in Electronic Publishing,” in Scholarly Publishing: The Electronic Frontier, Robin P. Peek and Greg­


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his article follows the pattern set by the semiannual series initiated by the late Constance M. Winchell more than sixty years ago and continued by Eugene Sheehy. Because the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and general works, 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 articles. Code numbers (such as AD540) have been used to refer to titles in the Guide to Reference Books, 11th ed. (Chicago: ALA, 1996).

National Bibliographies

Česká národní bibliografie: Knihy, disertační, periodika, články/Czech National Bibliography: Books, Journal Articles, Periodicals, Dissertations [CD-ROM]. Albertina icome, 1995-. Pricing information not available. (ISSN 1210-8995.) LC sn95-33917. (Publisher’s address: Albertina icome Praha; Revoluční 13; Praha 1, 1100 00 Czech Republic. Telephone: 02-24-803-254).

Students of Eastern European affairs should be familiar with the ambitious series of national bibliographies published by the countries of the region, detailing not only the output of books and serials but also indexing articles in many periodicals, listing doctoral dissertations, and documenting various other types of publications. Sadly, this information resource has tended to be greatly underutilized, particularly by researchers in this country, because of the lack of easy or comprehensive indexes and the fragmentation of the data into many successive issues.

For this reason, the appearance of a CD-ROM publication of the kind reviewed here should be a cause for rejoicing among scholars in this field because it can provide a quantum leap in information about publications at a time when the opening up of the region and the freeing of its intellectual life are creating new demands in the West for access to publications from that part of the world.

The Czech National Library has begun issuing its various national bibliographies in electronic format (for the paper versions, see Guide AA600). The disk contains four separate databases: (1) a listing of books published in the Czech Republic between 1983 and 1993, and presented to the National Library under the mandatory deposit program (approximately 100,000 titles); (2) an index to articles published in the major newspapers and selected general interest, humanities, social science, and science journals of the Czech Republic between 1991 and 1994.
(again something on the order of 100,000 entries); (3) a listing of all Czech Ph.D. dissertations and dissertations defended at the Czech Academy of Sciences from 1989 through 1992; and (4) a catalog of periodicals and newspapers published in the Czech Republic from November 1989 through 1993.

The search interface is well designed, and easy to learn and remember. Search forms (available in both English and Czech) enable retrieval using a variety of access points—author, title, place of publication, publisher, date, standard numbers, subject headings, keywords, and many more—both individually and in combination. A full range of logical and proximity operators may be used within any of those fields; truncation is possible to retrieve permutations of the same stem. Search terms must include diacritics (using the "v" and "’" before the accented letter), and subject headings and keywords must be in Czech, but the availability of an index for browsing every field means that a native command of Czech is not required for effective searching.

Users select from a number of different display and output formats and choose the specific fields to be included in either. Moreover, the records, although not in MARC format, are designed to be easily importable in MARC, which offers an interesting technical processing potential as well. One challenge for user institutions may be in dealing with the diacritics in printing and downloading, but the well-written, on-disk manual includes documentation for this purpose.

The ability to search for Czech language publications of all major types electronically represents a quantum leap for researchers interested in the study of this country or in obtaining Czech literature on other topics. This tool surely belongs in every major research institution providing support for advanced Czech studies. Indeed, it behooves those institutions to move soon to acquire such materials as a way of encouraging further publications of this kind, so important for the continuing development of East European studies in this country. The CD-ROM has had a very small distribution in this country, and there are indications that its future availability may depend on whether the publisher sees that it is a marketable product. The CD-ROM was originally priced at about $900, but Albertina is reportedly entertaining the idea of a lower price to encourage more sales. Although this order of cost is more than most libraries have paid in the past for this information in print, the enormously improved access seems well worth the difference.

At a time when interest in the study of Eastern Europe is growing, thanks to the opening up of the countries of the former Soviet bloc to greater contact with the rest of the world and with the emergence of more varied and lively publishing industries in each of them, this type of enhanced access to bibliographic information from the region is most timely and desirable. Indeed, one can hope that this achievement will be imitated by more of the national libraries of the region.—R.H.S.

**Dictionary**


The "grand Robert" now residing on one CD-ROM disk contains all the works in the nine-volume *Grand Robert de la langue française: Dictionnaire alphabétique et analogique de la langue française* (1985; Guide AC334). The electronic version can be operated on MS-DOS, Macintosh, or Windows.

From a simple menu, one can browse through a word list of more than 99,000 words and search a word by either selecting from the list or typing the word into
a box, using, if you wish, "joker" or wild characters. The joker works for left, right, and middle of a word for one character (using ?) or an indefinite number of characters (using *). The search result can be displayed in a brief or long format. From an entry, the user can go on to the etymology, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, and derivatives; take a look at citations by clicking on a citation number; or jump to the article on any word in the entry. A table of conjugation for a verb in any mode and tense is available.

If unsure about spelling, the user can type the word phonetically and click the "orthographie" button, and the database will search for word(s) with the same pronunciation. Pronunciation is given in all entries using the phonetic notation for which the table can be called up at a click of the menu button. The Robert has not yet gone for the multimedia format used by some dictionaries. At the moment, users cannot hear the word pronounced by a Comédie française actor or hear the bird in the entry sing.

The electronic dictionary comes with a database of quotations which can be searched separately. Each citation is composed of two elements: text and bibliographic reference. Each element can be searched using Boolean logic and/or a "joker," and the two may be combined to find a quotation(s) that contains one or more of the keywords. The quotation portion of the dictionary contains some 160,000 entries.

The dictionary can be set up to be used in a resident mode while writing a paper using another program. The text of both the dictionary and quotation entries can be copied into a document when this database is used in memory resident mode in conjunction with a word processor. There is a 300-word limit to copying.

Recommended for academic and research institutions where the advanced level of the French language is spoken.—J.S.

Religion


This work represents an important new reference tool on the history of the papacy for advanced scholars. Directed by an editorial board from the École française de Rome, and written by a collective of scholarly authors affiliated with various institutions primarily in France and Italy, it offers, in a single volume, approximately 700 articles covering all aspects of its subject. In addition to substantive entries for individual pontiffs (and anti-popes), there are articles dealing with the various institutions, customs, councils, political movements, and doctrines. One can turn to this volume, for example, for an authoritative summary of the types of documents issued by the Vatican, or a useful account of the changing shape and status of the Papal States. Each entry concludes with a bibliography of key sources and secondary studies (primarily in Western European languages other than English). A number of useful illustrations and maps also are provided.

However, a few topics that one might expect to find described in greater detail are not included. This reviewer was somewhat surprised by the relatively small amount of coverage (in the form of separate articles at least) of some key councils such as Pisa and Basel which, though deemphasized as sources of authority by the papacy today, were very important in the history of the institution. Likewise, an article summarizing the relations of the papacy with individual countries would have been valuable, although it would, of course, have required the addition of a great deal of labor to what was already an ambitious undertaking. More serious, perhaps, is the lack of an index or table of contents, not entirely compensated for by a generous number of cross-references in the text. As a result, users who do not
have time to browse the work may miss such useful, but rather specifically titled articles as "'Silence' de Pie XII," "Sac de Rom," or "Helsinki."

In any case, however, this represents an important new addition to the literature, one that belongs in any advanced research collection dealing with the history of the church or European history in general. It also is an item that many scholars may want to consider adding to their personal collection.—R.H.S.


This bibliography by a librarian at Union Theological Seminary in New York will be an invaluable addition to all reference collections supporting undergraduate and graduate research in history and the humanities. It lists some 250 Christian women writing up to 1500 Christian Era whose work has appeared in print since 1800. Writing is defined liberally to include the recorded testimonies before inquisitors, chronicles and letters; and Christian is defined to include "all women who would have regarded themselves as Christian, whether their writings are religious or not" (Introd.). Nine chapters range from "Earliest Writings of Christian Women" to "Byzantine Empire and the East" to "Letters and Occasional Writings of the Fifteenth Century." Entries for each woman provide a biographical note, followed by citations to critical editions, translations, and works in anthologies. Most entries list only primary sources, but in some cases, especially when authorship is disputed, secondary sources also are cited. The volume is completed by a brief list of writers whose works have not been published since 1800, a bibliography of secondary sources, and alphabetical and chronological indexes.—S.S.


Judaica Americana is a two-volume bibliography containing more than 7,000 annotated entries of monographic and periodical literature published between 1960 and 1990 on American Jewish history, including the United States, Canada, and Latin America. This monumental effort is the work of Nathan Kaganoff, a foremost bibliographer of American Jewish history and past librarian of the American Jewish Historical Society.


Nathan Kaganoff's Judaica Americana is uniquely arranged into twelve sections, with entries in each section listed alphabetically by author. Under "General Works," Kaganoff includes general works, bibliography, historiography, local history, and periodicals; under the subheading "Special Studies" are biography, cultural life, education, genealogy, medicine, relations with non-Jews, rela-
tions overseas, sociology, synagogue architecture, synagogue history, and Zionism. This classification system is uneven at times. It is not always evident why entries for works about an artist are included in the "Biography" section whereas similar types of material can be found in "Cultural Life."

Overall, sections such as "Local History" provide a wealth of information not easily found in other resources. The "Periodicals" section includes selected titles and contents or partial contents for issues published during the period covered by the bibliography. Many of these periodical citations are indexed by author and subject, although this can be irritating at times. The index directs the reader to the abstract number for the periodical title, and he or she must then browse through the contents to find the relevant article. In fact, the weakest aspect of this bibliography is the subject index, which lacks subdivisions for topical subjects, such as music or New York City. This makes subject searching cumbersome.

The strength of this work is in the breadth of coverage of the topic and the annotations that distinguish this bibliography from others. The annotations provide a good guide and invite the reader to explore—they personalize the work.

*Judaica Americana* is an important and significant work bringing together a vast amount of information central to scholars, students, and those individuals interested in American Jewish history.—N.E.F.


Students of culture and society often find themselves drawn to a study of the periodical press as an abundant, chronologically arranged source of material about the nature and evaluation of a particular phenomenon, movement, or institution. An informed understanding of the history and point of view of a particular journal or magazine can be equally useful to a reader seeking to make sense of a particular article in that journal or seeking to locate articles representing a particular outlook or group. This is the value of works such as Mott's classic *History of American Magazines* (1938–68; Guide AD40) or Robert H. Muller's *From Radical Left to Extreme Right* (2nd ed., 1970–75; Guide AD45n). Given the amount of work involved in this type of research, reference works of this kind are not always easy to find, so any new addition to this genre is always a welcome event.

Written by sixty academic specialists, the work under review here profiles 100 major American popular religious periodicals of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. It is conceived as a complement to Lippy's *Religious Periodicals of the United States: Academic and Scholarly Journals* (1986; Guide BC24), issued by the same publisher. This time, as the title suggests, the focus is on publications appealing more to a general or mass audience than those treated in the earlier volume, and hence materials likely to be of even greater value as a source for the study of American religious and cultural history.

An attempt has been made to provide a broad sampling of religious groups, so along with journals from all major branches of the Christian tradition, three Jewish publications and three titles from "Eastern, Oriental, and Non-Western Traditions" also are profiled. The titles surveyed include denominational organs, publications issued by leading evangelists, and interdenominational or general religious magazines. Each entry begins with a brief essay (generally four to five pages in length) describing matters such as the founding and aims of the journal, its institutional affiliation, editorial emphases and points of views, readership, influence, and place in the history of religion in America. The essay is followed by a listing of "information sources" (in-
dictions of where, if anywhere, a given journal is indexed, and of libraries or microfilm vendors from whom a full copy of the text may be obtained) and then basic publication history, including title changes, volume and issue data, publisher and place of publication, editors, and circulation. At the end of the work is a listing, by religious group or movement, of the journals surveyed (the entries themselves are arranged in alphabetical order, but no alphabetical listing of those titles is provided), and a fairly detailed index of names and topics.

Inevitably, a survey of 100 titles can be nothing but a representative sample of the literature. The editors note that approximately 10,000 titles were potential candidates for inclusion in this work. Given that fact, a focus on Christian periodicals alone would have made more methodological sense. However, care has been taken to include many of the key titles of the American religious experience and to represent important currents such as fundamentalism, conservatism, and liberalism, making this a useful addition to research collections specializing in religious studies or American history.—R.H.S.

**French Literature**


This analytic bibliography aims to complement Burgess’s previously published bibliography devoted to the works of Marie de France (Marie de France: An Analytical Bibliography. London: Grant and Cutler, 1977, suppl. 1986), providing a comprehensive list of editions, translations, and major studies, as well as journal and book articles on the corpus of twenty lays. (The selection of twenty lays is based on Mortimer J. Donovan’s *The Breton Lay: A Guide to Varieties* (Notre Dame, Ind.: Univ. of Notre Dame Pr, 1969, 267p.).

Part I deals with general studies of the genres and part II consists of bibliographies on individual lays. Each entry typically has five to ten lines of notes and citations to reviews. Each bibliography on an individual lay lists manuscripts, editions, translations, and adaptations in the

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At first glance, this ravishly illustrated book looks more like one of those coffee table books that try to get away with very skimpy intellectual contents, enticing readers with beautiful illustrations. However, this is a good, informative entertainment, which is in fact what the author set out to accomplish.

The encyclopedia covers the English language historically as well as globally, and is divided into six parts: (1) history of the language; (2) vocabulary; (3) grammar; (4) spoken and written English; (5) using English (which discusses regional, social, and personal variation in discourse); and (6) learning about English. The appendices contain a glossary of linguistic terms bibliography, an index of authors and personalities, and an index of topics.

This work emphasizes popular culture such as word games, the language of advertising, and verbal humor much more than other language discussions such as *The Oxford Companion to the English Language*, edited by Tom McArthur (1992, xxvii, 1187p.; Guide BD94). The two works meet different needs. For a quick reference to a specific topic, the *Oxford Companion* might be easier to use, but it tends to give too much space to nonlinguistic general information on a country or literature that could be readily found elsewhere in standard reference books. The *Cambridge Encyclopedia* is better focused on the language and its varied manifestations both scholarly and popular.—J.S.
English, Spanish, and French languages, as well as critical studies that were published. An effort was made to include as many 1994 publications as possible. Burge's provides name and subject indexes. Recommended for scholarly collections that include European literature of the twelfth to thirteenth centuries.—J.S.

German Literature


The compilers, each of whom wrote a dissertation on German women writers, have produced both a useful bibliography and a work of true scholarship. Based on much original research, this biographical dictionary provides one- to two-page biographies (often accompanied by photographs) of some 200 women writers who lived in Berlin between 1871 and 1945. For each entry, this scrupulously documented work also lists archival sources (when available), major secondary sources, and a list of the author's works. The book has a fascinating variety of authors, from those producing sentimental children's stories to bestselling authors and avant-garde poets. Few of the authors are well known now, but this dictionary provides a fascinating glimpse into the literary life of Berlin during this politically important and artistically vibrant period. It should be of interest not only to those working in German literature, but also to anyone researching modern German social and intellectual history and European women's history.—M.C.


Karl Goedeke's *Grundriss zur Geschichte der deutschen Dichtung aus den Quellen* (Guide BE1218) is the basic bibliography in German literature, a towering achievement of German nineteenth-century scholarship. Although the published work only covers literature through 1830, Goedeke planned to include more of the nineteenth century and had begun to compile material. This work was continued after his death, and in 1929 the Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften began planning a nineteenth-century supplement based on the work of Goedeke and his successor, Franz Munker, under the direction of Georg Minde-Pouet. The first Lieferung appeared in 1940, but, unfortunately, most of the unpublished work was lost or destroyed during World War II, and many of the compilers did not survive. Finally, volume I (A-Ays), including a revision and updating of the 1940 Lieferung, appeared between 1955 and 1962 (Guide BE1218n), but this effort did not continue.

The present volume is a further effort to bring the work of Goedeke into the later nineteenth century, although in a somewhat different form. The compilers have attempted to include all literary figures who were first published between 1830 and 1880. The entries are much briefer than the more selective and bibliographically exhaustive Goedeke (and Minde-Pouet). Ludwig Anzengruber's entry, for example, is 165 pages in Minde-Pouet's supplement and fourteen pages in the present work. But the current volume lists many more authors than the earlier attempt and refers the reader to many additional sources, including Minde-Pouet.

There are two types of entries, based on the importance of the author. The more complete Personalbibliographien includes birth and death dates, brief biographical information, references to full-length biographies and standard biographical sources, references to sources of secondary literature, a list of the author's works (though not including different editions and translations, which is available in Goedeke), and references to...
major archival collections. The briefer entries include the authors’ dates (when known) and refer the reader to standard biographical sources. This is an indispensable work for any library supporting German literature.—M.C.

Dance

This elegantly produced bibliography lists citations to books and articles written in the twentieth century about ballet and modern dancers and choreographers. The articles indexed are from the more scholarly journals, so, with a few exceptions, material from sources such as Dance Magazine, Dancing Times, and Dance and Dancers is not included. Most of the articles are in English. This reviewer found some French, but no Russian or German items, which does eliminate some major untranslated works.

Entries are arranged alphabetically, with birth and death dates. There is a brief bibliography at the end with selected reference works and histories of dance, which is a very useful introduction to the field. Dance as an area for scholarship is a recent development, and it lacks the reference sources available in the other arts. This bibliography is an important addition to the field.—M.C.

African American Studies


Several African American history chronologies have recently appeared, includ-

Membership in the African American Holiness, Pentecostal, and Charismatic congregations today exceeds seven million people; their written and oral testimony over the course of the past century constitutes an invaluable historical resource. Sherry DuPree has harnessed that resource for scholarly users. She has identified, located, organized, and described an important segment of a hitherto little-known and elusive literature documenting the history of the black church in America. The bibliography is limited to information, excluding the area of theology, by and about African American Pentecostalism from the 1880s to the present. It is arranged to help the user distinguish among Pentecostalists, Holiness people, and Charismatics—and even their subsets. It lists not only the common types of secondary sources (books, articles, dissertations), but also includes references to materials such as convention souvenir booklets, plays, FBI reports, gospel records and music books, WPA reports, and oral interviews. In a word, there is a clear attempt at comprehensiveness.

The entries are annotated, and, most important, the place holding the item is indicated. Much of the material is stored in the DuPree African-American Pentecostal and Holiness Collection at the Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture, New York Public Library.

Maps, a comprehensive index as well as a geographical one, and several appendices make this bibliography an outstanding piece of research.—O.dC.


The classic one-volume *Encyclopedia of Black America* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1981), which has served librarians and readers as a quick lookup tool for more than a decade and a half, now has been supplanted by a superb new work—the *Encyclopedia of African-American Culture and History*. This five-volume encyclopedia is bigger in scope and truly outstanding in scholarship, clarity, and visual appeal. Conceived in 1989 to fill a perceived gap in accurate, easily accessible knowledge on the history and culture of African Americans, the encyclopedia set its task to “present the lives and significance of African Americans in the broadest possible way” (Pref.). Its emphasis is therefore on biographical information; about two-thirds of the 2,200 entries are for persons, both historical and contemporary. The remaining entries deal with events, historical eras, legal cases, areas of cultural achievement, professions, sports, and places. There are entries for each of the states as well as for cities of significance to blacks. Several interpretive essay-length articles contributed by well-known experts in the field on broad topics (e.g., literature, intellectual life) and on key issues in African American history and culture add depth and scholarly analysis to this compendium of factual information. All articles are signed; cross-references to related entries are embedded in the text. The more than 1,000 captioned illustrations, the bibliographies concluding each entry, and an appendix with tables, charts, and other statistical data, as well as a breakdown of biographical entries by profession, a thorough back-of-the-book index, enhance the work’s usefulness and appeal. Every library should own this work.—O.dC.

Fabre, Michel. *The French Critical Reception of African-American Literature from
The first real reviewing of African American literary production in France began in 1844 when audiences welcomed the romantic dramas of Victor Sejour. Over the course of the next 125 years, many other African American writers found receptive readers in France. It is to enrich the bibliographies of these individual writers, as well as to chart the critical reception of this specific body of literature abroad, that Michel Fabre has compiled this book.

The bibliography focuses on responses to creative writers and excludes from its scope reactions to political, sociological, historical, and other studies, except when written by primarily creative writers. The exceptions are responses to writings of prominent political leaders such as Martin Luther King Jr., Malcolm X, and Eldridge Cleaver.

The bulk of the items selected for inclusion were published between 1900 and 1970, and were all printed in French. The arrangement is chronological by year and then alphabetical within each section. There are separate indexes for authors and concepts, titles, and periodicals, as well as a list of translations and original publications of African American literature in France until 1970.

By the compiler’s own admission, the work has many lacunae, chiefly because indexes to French periodicals and newspapers are rare, and newspaper and journal holdings of French libraries are often incomplete. Stress has been placed on accuracy; therefore, only items that were actually read are included in the bibliography.

Because no other reference book covers this information, it is a worthwhile acquisition for libraries with African American studies collections.—O.dC.


This bibliography evolved out of a doctoral dissertation project, hence from the outset the author was obliged to conceive of a work that would make a unique contribution to the field of African American studies.

A Narrative Bibliography of the African American Frontier makes its contribution in both choice of subject and treatment of the material. The author’s selection of the Rocky Mountain Region—specifically, the states of Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming—fills a gap in our knowledge about the African American frontier experience. Scholars have tended to focus on other western states, such as Kansas, Texas, and California, where the black presence was more pronounced.

Designed to be more of a story to be told rather than a list to be enumerated, the bibliography is divided into fifteen subject-specific chapters. Each chapter opens with a background narrative, and each entry is accompanied not only with an annotation but often with further explanatory text, making each chapter a “narrative whole rather than merely a collection of annotated sources” (Intro.). It is not a definitive bibliographic study as it limits itself to books and journal articles, but it is thorough and accurate because the author examined and evaluated each item included. The book is accompanied by state, journal, subject, and author indexes.

An unexpected feature of the bibliography is its inclusion of references to sources for young readers. Though this was done primarily to include the serious high school student, sometimes these are the only works available on the subject.

This bibliography is a fine piece of research, eminently readable and valu-
able in its coverage of a little explored topic in the history of African Americans.—O.dC.


Building on Warren Brown's Check List of Negro Newspapers in the United States, 1827–1946 (Jefferson City, Mo., 1946, 37p.) and drawing on 106 additional reference sources, Barbara Henritze brings us—exactly 50 years later—a compilation of more than 5,539 titles, ten times the number listed in Brown's pioneering work. Included in this comprehensive listing are newspaper and assorted periodical titles (the latter included whenever they were listed in the source consulted by the compiler) published beginning with the early decades of the nineteenth century through the present in forty-four states and the District of Columbia, and either owned, published, edited, and/or read predominantly by African Americans. Arranged alphabetically by state and city (there is a title index), the title entries include information on the frequency and time span of publication, and note the source in which mention of the title was found. Although no attempt is made by the compiler to indicate the actual whereabouts of the newspapers on the list, clues to repositories are often found in the originating source. Moreover, in the Introduction, Henritze provides indispensable information to the prospective researcher about locating old newspapers. The work is enhanced by an extensive bibliography of works relevant to the study of the African American press.

Because of the indispensable nature of newspapers to historical and genealogical research, and because of the lack of attention hitherto paid to black newspapers, this compendium of information culled from a multitude of existing bibliographies and directories is an invaluable contribution to the field of African American studies.—O.dC.

Women's Studies


The majority of the records come from the Women's Studies Database (52,000 records), which includes some essays published in books, and Women Studies Abstracts (30,000 records). The indexing is quite good, and abstracts from the latter are included. Because this is primarily an index of the feminist press, it is an excellent resource for finding articles from a feminist perspective (drug testing of pregnant women, for example, or reviews of Katie Roiphe’s The Morning After or articles about body image).

The search software is very flexible, with novice, advanced, and expert search systems including all the features one would expect: boolean searching, truncation, the ability to limit by fields, and a variety of printing and downloading options. There is some problem with collo-
cation; the records from the two largest databases seem to have merged quite easily but the records from the Women of Color & Southern Women database do not seem to have merged with the others and often appear as duplicates.

An online thesaurus is coming and is not part of the first issue. Although this is not the first women's studies index to appear on CD-ROM, this database is far more useful. It goes back farther than the Women's Studies On-Disc (Boston: G.K. Hall, Macmillan, 1995- . $495) which only goes back to 1989, and is more extensive, with better indexing and abstracts.—S.S.

Folklore

An Arab counterpart to Stith Thompson’s Motif-Index (Guide CF49), it starts with the classification system devised by Thompson and expands it to include “facets of culture and society other than those explicitly expressed in folk-literature” (Intro. to vol. 1), as well as the use of some concepts in cognitive psychology such as “empathy” and “fealty” as indexing terms.

The first volume presents systematically classified motifs, their geographic presence, and source materials that include collections, field recordings, and manuscripts. The second volume is an alphabetical index. A bibliography at the end of volume 1 lists printed and archival resources cited in the index. A table of geographic locations of tale types is found in volume 1 (pp. 415-41).

This type of data could have been more effectively presented in a CD-ROM format for ease of access and quicker retrieval (such as Stith Thompson is now, see Guide CF49n). It is suggested that the publisher would consider offering this index in computer-readable form and would include some representative texts of source documents. Meanwhile, this printed index is a valuable addition to both folklore and Islamic studies collections.—J.S.

Economics

This book explores what the author considers the three main methods for valuing an asset: valuation using discounted cash flows; relative valuation, which looks at comparable assets; and contingent claim valuation used mainly in valuing options. The bulk of the volume is devoted to valuing either a firm or the equity and debt issued by a firm.

The subtitle is somewhat misleading as there is only one chapter on valuing real estate and one chapter on valuing various other types of assets. The author argues that the techniques that work in valuing financial assets, largely stocks, can be applied to valuing any other asset.

Each chapter begins with a statement of the questions to be discussed and ends with a conclusion restating the result of the inquiry. There also are “Questions and Short Problems” after each chapter, making the book usable as an academic text as well as a reference book. The sections and subsections of each chapter have their topic heading in boldface making it easy for the reader to home in on a discussion of a specific point. The chapters that involve computations, such as “Understanding Financial Statements,” are studied with formulas in boldfaced boxes and with illustrations based on corporate filings from the early 1990s. The text also contains many charts and graphs illustrating specific points.

The author addresses practical questions such as, How does one estimate a firm’s future growth rate? or How do financial markets account for the tax sta-
tus of the earnings or cash flow that a firm generates? At the same time, he is clearly very familiar with the academic literature on valuation and financial markets. There are numerous references in the text to important studies of securities valuation or to published work describing innovative techniques. The author strives to present all significant valuation methods and to assess the advantages and disadvantages of each. This thoroughness makes the book a useful overview of valuation techniques for the business student or the serious investor.

Much of the volume assumes a basic knowledge of statistics. However, the writing is lucid enough that the reader can grasp the author’s main points without any background in statistics.

There is an occasional undefined term in the text. The index is no more than adequate, and there is no glossary of terms. Nevertheless, this book is a worthwhile addition to any finance collection in an academic or large public library.—H.G.

Political Science


This bibliography lists 1,322 items in a wide variety of material in terms of both format and approach concerning activities of animal rights organizations, ideas, and issues—newspaper articles, government documents, law reviews, trade journals, science journals, among others. Most items are accompanied by three- to ten-line notes. The bibliography is divided into nine chapters that cover topics such as philosophy, ethics, and religion; law and legislation; factory farming and vegetarianism; fur industries; use of animals in entertainment such as circuses and horse racing; and animal experimentation.

It is unfortunate that this bibliography stops at 1990, because many legislative measures were enacted in the early 1990s, some especially to curb what was regarded as the excesses of “animal liberation” movements. Some updating, perhaps in the form of a supplement, would be useful. Another area for expansion is the animal rights movements in international contexts. The author has already included some foreign publications in English. It would be important to look at movements globally, because animal trade, whether for food, garment, or tool of research, is not confined to the United States.—J.S.

History


Whereas in the past researchers found a dearth of dictionaries on Britain, now we have almost an embarrassment of riches. Most of the books produced here are compiled by people to address a definite need in their work or to benefit the readership of a journal.

The History Today Companion covers from the Roman invasion to around 1979, with articles updated beyond that to the 1990s. Six historians, assigned specific time periods, made up a good proportion of the articles with a few other specialists making contributions. The articles vary in length from a paragraph (Aelfthryth) to half a page (Agadir Crisis) to several pages (agriculture). The arrangement is
alphabetical. The articles are unsigned; and there is neither a bibliography nor an index, although there are cross-references in small capitals.

Bamber Gascoigne's *Encyclopedia of Britain*, on the other hand, grew out of questions for a quiz program and is meant for quick lookups. (For the 1993 edition, see Guide DC292.) The articles are usually about one to two paragraphs in length, and cover a wide range of topics including current events, television, and literature (Abbey Road, Admiral's Men, Abide with Me). The illustrations are handsome. Cross-references are starred, but there is no index; there is a short bibliography. The articles are unsigned, which implies they were written by Gascoigne.

The compilers of the Cassell Dictionary of Modern Britain are with CIRCA, a group responsible for *Keesings Record of World Events* (Guide DA187) and the Cassell Dictionary of Modern Politics (1994, 340p.). The period of coverage is 1945 to mid-1995. Articles are unsigned, with a paragraph or so usually for identification or definition (ABC Trial, Advertising Standards Authority, Agenda 21, AK-47), though a few are longer (about a column) and more substantive (major and majorism, punk rock). Cross-references are in boldface within the body of the article, and there is an Index of Personal Names. The appendices present tables of senior government members since 1945, general election results from 1945 to 1992, and countries of the empire granted independence since 1945.

The fourth of these dictionaries is meant for researchers. *Twentieth Century Britain* offers articles of 500 to 3,000 words (abortion, The Cabinet, Camden Town Group) written and signed by scholars, with four- to five-entry bibliographies at the end of each. Cross-references are in boldface, the index is well done, and the "Guide to Further Research" is a two-page listing of reference books by format. To enhance use of the volume, the compilers have added a breakdown of the entries into 20 broad topics (e.g., art and architecture, communications, foreign and imperial relations). The volume concludes with a chronology 1900-1994, with four to ten entries listed for each year. Because this volume is considered an extension of the Garland dictionary, *Victorian Britain* (Guide DC337), one hopes that other periods will be similarly covered.

So which to use? For identification or definition, Gascoigne's work would be a good starting point unless one is seeking focus on an earlier period, in which case the *History Today* volume would be the better resource. For a survey, one should use the *History Today Companion*.

For the twentieth century, though, Gascoigne's work would be appropriate for popular culture; for political and economic questions, one should use the Cassell dictionaries. Finally, for someone beginning research or for a scholar wishing to review a topic, readers would be very well served by the Garland.—E.M.


This past year, Blackwell has published a number of very good reference works, such as dictionaries of religion, metaphysics, evangelicals; the volume under review here is another very useful one. The *Companion to American Thought* states that the goal of the compilation is "to help students, scholars and general readers deepen their knowledge of the major concepts and thinkers in the diverse traditions of American thought, and to become acquainted with key debates in the contemporary intellectual life of the United States" (Introd.) from "Abortion" to "Youth." Thus, there are essays of between 1,000 and 2,000 words for the most important articles (for example, baseball, frontier, Margaret Fuller, fundamentalism, Clifford Geertz, and guilt). The
shorter articles of about 100 words (for example, ashcan school, Armory show, Robert Frost, Sarah Grimke) are meant "to signal their existence and to suggest their value for future study."

American thought is hard to define, but here it is interpreted broadly to mean "key ideas and thinkers in history, literature, religion, philosophy, political theory." Literature is included "on the grounds that authors of fiction and poetry have often contributed to thought as well as literature."

An article offers informed discussion, with emphasis on its relation to the discourse in contemporary life, cross-references at the end of the article, and a short bibliography called "Suggestions for Further Reading"—and it is signed. The index is thorough, with major articles given in boldfaced page numbers. Inevitably, there will be questions about inclusions and exclusions. For example, why include Christopher Lasch (one of the contributors) but not his father-in-law, Henry Steele Commager? Why not Samuel Eliot Morison?

By and large, the entries are well written and the concept behind the undertaking is extremely relevant. Already our beginning students have found the volume and put it to good use. —E.M.

Similar in scope, arrangement, and content to other subject encyclopedias being published (e.g., Encyclopedia of African American History and Culture), the Encyclopedia of Latin American History and Culture covers life in some twenty different countries in 5,287 articles. More than half (about 3,000) of the entries are biographical and the Appendix biographies offer twenty-one categories by occupation or field of activity (e.g., outlawry, visual arts). The articles are well written by scholars, thorough, are signed, have cross-references at the end of each, as well as with short bibliographies. The subject index includes reference to the illustration, the tables, and the graphs. An article on a country gives a survey of its political history by period, then treats various important constitutional documents, its geography, movements, organizations, political parties, and so on. Smaller articles, such as "Water Witch Incident" or "Llanos," are thorough with bibliographical references. There are some unfortunate gaps—for example, there are no articles on libraries or archives and no mention of them in the index.

Still the encyclopedia fulfills its stated aim: "To organize current knowledge of the region for the literate and curious public" (Pref.).—E.M.

New Editions and Supplements
The sixth edition of Walford's Guide to Reference Material is now complete with volume 3, "Generalia, Language & Literature, The Arts" (compiled by Anthony Chalcraft, Ray Prytherch, and Stephen Willis. London: Library Assoc., 1995, 1148p., £130; 5th ed. Guide AA363). The bibliography has about 8,700 entries of which 1,500 are new, and includes many references in the critical annotations (though these are not indexed). The emphasis is still English language, the arrangement is still UDC classification, and the series is still very authoritative. Electronic resources are included, though here one can quibble at exclusions—for example, OCLC but not RLIN, no mention of First Search or CitaDel. The indexing is thorough, and there is a separate Online and Database Services Index. This a major reference tool.

The Bibliographie der Autobiographien, compiled by Jens Christian Jessen (Guide AH214), adds doctors to its coverage with volume 4, Selbstzeugnisse, Erinnerungen, Tagebucher und Briefe deutschsprachiger Arzte (Munich: Saur, 1996, 630p., $160). Other professions covered in earlier volumes
have been mathematicians and other scientists, artists, writers, and engineers.

Several biographical dictionaries have been expanded and updated: *Who Was Who in Egyptology?*, 3rd revised edition by M. L. Bierbrier (London: Egypt Exploration Society, 1995, 458p., £62; 1st ed., comp. Warren R. Dawson and Eric P. Uphill, 1951; 2nd rev. ed., 1972) has added portraits for each entry in the "Biographical Index of Egyptologist; of Travellers, Explorers, and Excavators in Egypt; of Collectors of and Dealers in Egyptian Antiquities; of Consuls, Officials, Authors, Benefactors and others whose names occur in the Literature of Egyptology, from the year 1500 to the present day, but excluding persons now living" (verso of title page).

David Quinlan's *Illustrated Directory of Film Character Actors* (London: Batsford, 1995, 384p., £25; 1st ed. 1985 Guide BH284n) has added up to 1995 to the filmographies of each actor. The work still offers thumbnail sketches of the person, which makes the volume fun to read (e.g., Una Merkel, prettily pixieish; and Jan Merlin with mean eyes and a hyena smile).

Robert S. Wistrich, *Who's Who in Nazi Germany* (London: Routledge, 1995, 296p., £17; 1st ed. 1982) is updated with new information added. The coverage is not only for known Nazis but also those who suffered (e.g., Emil Nolde, Kurt Weill). The volume addresses only Germans, not Austrians or others in Central Europe.

Growing from 504 entries in the first edition to 777 bibliographies in the second (or 1,268 entries counting the cross-references), William Wortman's *Guide to Serial Bibliographies for Modern Literature* (New York: MLA, 1995, 300p., $37.50; 1st ed. 1982. *Guide BE34*) aims to include "all current serial bibliographies that cover national literatures, literary periods, genres, themes and subjects and literary authors" (Introd.). Current means from about 1960 to the present. "All the bibliographies with electronic formats are also listed separately in the appendix with place of publication." Additions and corrections are now maintained in a file on the Internet: http://lib.muohio.edu/serials-bibliographies (corrected from the URL given in the introduction).

John R. Hinnells compiled the *Penguin Dictionary of Religions* (Guide BC73) in 1984. The revised edition has been retitled *A New Dictionary of Religion* (Oxford: Blackwell, [1995], xxxvii, 760p., $74.95) and now is compiled with the assistance of sixty-five contributors (formerly twenty-nine). The text has been extensively expanded to include new sections (e.g., Afro-Caribbean religious movements, Hinduism in the Caribbean, implicit religion), completely rewritten topics (e.g., study of religion, Buddhism), and updated entries to emphasize movements, developments, and practices (e.g., religious pluralism). The bibliography (pp. 577–676), compiled by Nora Kirby with references supplied by the contributors, is arranged in broad topics (e.g., American religions, astrology). Each entry in the text explicitly refers to one of these sections in the bibliography. A list of contents by subject area and by author concludes the volume.

A *Guide to the Contents of the Qur'an* (Reading, Penn.: Garnet, 1995, 245p., $55.00), compiled by Faruq Sherif, is a new printing of the 1985 edition (London: Ithaca Pr.) with some additional material. Although the contents are more or less the same, libraries that own the 1985 edition will want to purchase this edition because it is printed on better paper using a larger font.—J.S.

The continuation of Harriet Semmes Alexander’s *American and British Poetry* (Guide BE488) adds coverage for 1979 to 1990 (Athens, Ohio: Swallow/Ohio Univ. Pr., 1996, 450p., $65). A new category within each poet’s section called "General" provides for references to substantial information on the poet’s work as a whole, but not on a specific poem. There are an author/title index and a list of sources.
Black African Literature in English 1987–1991 continues the coverage (London: Hans Zell, 1995, 682p., $125; see Guide BE1506 for earlier volumes) and includes some earlier materials omitted from previous volumes. No creative works are included unless they have a substantial preface, though bibliographies of creative work are cited. Still in two parts—genre and topic, and individual author—the bibliography cites 9,000 books, essays, and those journal and newspaper articles with literary significance.

This second edition of Blacks in Black and White: A Source Book on Black Films by Henry T. Sampson (Metuchen: Scarecrow, 1995, 735p., $89.50; 1st ed. 1977) offers much new information: new chapters (“Whites in Blackface: The Emerging Black Image in American Films”), expanded chapters (Oscar Michaeux and other producers), updated biographical sketches, expanded entries for black film companies, and new titles in the filmography. Also new is appendix C, which lists theaters in the United States that catered to black patronage. This compilation is a labor of love.

The Cambridge Guide to Theatre by Martin Banham (Cambridge, England: Cambridge Univ. Pr., 1995, 1250p., $49.95) is the revised edition of The Cambridge Guide to World Theatre (1988; Guide BH67). An updating, the dictionary also includes new entries and major rewriting (African theatre, liturgical drama, the biographies). Articles are signed with initials, which are spelled out in a four-page list of contributors and their affiliations. There is a list of less-obvious entries, such as boulevard, hunger artist, stage food.

Since the mid-1970s, Manchester University Press has published a bibliographic series most useful for undergraduates because it emphasizes English language material and is selective: History and Related Disciplines: Select Bibliographies. Several new editions and new titles have been published within the last year: Ancient Greece and Rome, compiled by Keith Hopwood (1995, $79.95), with 8,000 entries covering c.950 BC to AD 565; however, it is not as strong on literature; British Economic and Social History, compiled by R.C. Richardson and W. H. Chaloner (3d ed. 1996, £69; 1st ed. 1976, 2d ed. 1984; Guide DC272) with a cutoff date of 1980; Western Political Thought, compiled by Robert Eccleshall and Michael Kenny (1995, 342p., $79.95), treating the publications 1945 to the present for the political thought of the British Isles, continental Europe, and North America.

A new edition of Österreich Lexikon in zwei Banden, edited by Richard and Maria Bamberger, Ernst Bruckmuller, and Karl Gutkas (Wien: Verlagsgemeinschaft Österreich Lexikon, 1995, 2 vols., il.; 1st ed. 1966–67; Guide DC96) updates both the articles and the bibliography ending each article. Unfortunately, some of the tables have been dropped instead of being updated—for example, the table for the Bundesbudget for 1953, 1961, 1964, or the list of Benedictine cloisters. There is a definite need for an index. A general bibliography has been added (pp. xiv–xvii). Now, if only the Austrians would do a definitive historical bibliography.

K. G. Saur has been publishing a series, Guides to the Sources for the History of the Nations, and part 3 of that series covers North Africa, Asia, and Oceania (Guide DD75). Volume 5, Sources de l’histoire du Proche-Orient et de l’Afrique du Nord dans les Archives et Bibliothèques françaises, of the subseries is an inventory actually covering only North Africa and the Middle East; and part 2, Bibliothèque national, was published in 1984. Part 1 of volume 5 is in three volumes: Archives nationales (vol. 1); Archives départementales municipales et des ministères (vol. 2); and Autres archives (vol. 3) (Munchen: Saur, 1996, 3 vols., $400).
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Correction

Chrzastowski and Schmidt's article, "Collections at Risk: Revisiting Serial Cancel­lations in Academic Libraries," in C&RL, July 1996 (pp. 351–64) included an incorrect Figure 2. The authors have now provided the correct figure, which is printed below.

![Corrected Figure 2](image-url)
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A few years ago, Richard D. Brown, a professor of history at the University of Connecticut, produced the important study, *Knowledge Is Power: The Diffusion of Information in Early America, 1700–1865.* Now he follows that work with an equally important book, this time on the history of the idea of an informed citizenry in America. It is a superb intellectual history of a subject that, unlike the principle of freedom of the press, has never been explored in a thoroughgoing and systematic way. Furthermore, as Brown clearly shows in his new study, *The Strength of a People,* “the more closely we approach the idea of an informed citizenry, . . . the more evident it is that the meaning of this idea is not fixed but fluid and imprecise.”

Reflecting on the significance of Brown’s book sparked two memories from this reviewer’s undergraduate days. The first is the recollection of the words “The hope of democracy depends on the diffusion of knowledge” carved high on the stately exterior of the college library. The second is the experience of having read Milton’s *Areopagitica* in an English course, and the professor declaring to the class that this classic defense of freedom of the press should become “a part of your intellectual equipment.” In Brown’s tracing of the origins of the idea of an informed citizenry in seventeenth-century England, *Areopagitica* stands as one of the basic documents in the formulation of the concept, born out of the turmoil of the period of the English Civil War. The thought of Milton and Locke, the significance of the Glorious Revolution, and the role of the English gentry all are discussed by Brown as background for the developing idea of an informed citizenry that was transplanted to Britain’s American colonies, where it took root and flourished. In this regard, Brown has surprisingly little to say about the John Peter Zenger case in New York in 1735, often cited as an American landmark in the history of freedom of the press, one of the prerequisites for a well-informed citizenry, as the significance of *Areopagitica* attests.

It was the American Revolution, however, that stimulated the idea of an informed citizenry and solidified it as a crucial American one. After the Revolution it was nurtured and shaped by Washington, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and others, although early American leaders differed on how the citizenry should become educated and informed, and were ambivalent about the role of the common people in the new republic. At the same time, American religion and the cultural life of the new nation fostered a concern for inculcating virtue and morality among the people, and this fed the impulse for an informed citizenry. The great expansion of democracy in the Jacksonian era augmented the idea even more through the promotion of education for the masses, the growth of publishing, the development of libraries and museums, and the rise of the lyceum and public lecture movement. With the elimination of property ownership as a qualification for voting, even American workingmen of the pre–Civil War period began to take seriously the notion that they, too, would become well-informed citizens. Finally, Brown shows how the ideology of an informed citizenry in America was shaken...
by challenges to the definition of citizenship from women, blacks, and Native Americans in the mid-nineteenth century and beyond. All this is discussed by Brown in an erudite and readable narrative.

The significance of *The Strength of a People* transcends its function as a scholarly history. In a thoughtful and modest epilogue, in which the author makes clear that he is stepping outside his customary role of historian, Brown reflects on the idea of an informed citizenry within the context of the troubled state of American democracy today. In fact, his book can be read as a companion piece to other recent volumes that focus on the problems of American democracy at the end of the twentieth century, including works such as Robert H. Wiebe's *Self-Rule: A Cultural History of American Democracy* (1995) and Lawrence K. Grossman's *The Electronic Republic: Reshaping Democracy in the Information Age* (1995). Indeed, the subject of Brown's book is at the heart of much that is central to Wiebe's and Grossman's concerns. How can American democracy be revitalized in our time (Wiebe), how will it be shaped by the new information age (Grossman), and what is the role of an informed citizenry in this brave new world?

If the idea of an informed citizenry is not fixed but dynamic, how will the idea function in a presumably open society geared to instantaneous access to information? Will the age of democratized electronic information promote a responsible citizenry, or will it contribute to a more rapid fragmentation of society—toward the disuniting of America? Will the citizenry's ease of electronic access and response to information lend itself to a tyranny of the majority or to a stalemate of conflicting minorities? Certainly if education is presumed to be vital to an informed and responsible citizenry, it would appear that the current lack of reform in American education augurs ill for the future.

Although a brief essay on sources would have been helpful, Brown has written a thoroughly researched and carefully documented book. Both the text and the thirty-five pages of notes reveal a firm grasp of early American historiography, as well as an informed reading of pertinent primary sources. Certainly Brown's *Strength of a People* provides the necessary historical perspective for the idea of an informed citizenry in America, and also reinforces the need for the highest civic responsibility on the part of educators, librarians, archivists, and information managers. It also points to the need for the cultivation of civic virtue in an America that is increasingly strained by the tensions of multiculturalism, failing institutions, and an apparent inability to reform its educational system. Brown's book serves as both a valuable history lesson and a warning for the future.—Gerald F. Roberts, Berea College, Berea, Kentucky.


Odd as it might sound, most of the writing done in academe is nonacademic, especially by those of us in service and administrative roles. By "nonacademic," these editors mean writing "that gets something done, that matters," that will not appear in the scholarly or popular media. It means writing that is specialized for a technical audience (e.g., memos and annotations). And it means the kinds of writing done by workers in business and other real-world locations.

Why put together a book about it? (1) Nonacademic writing, according to these editors and their twenty-three chapter authors (many of them graduate students or junior faculty), is important for shaping the communication and cultural patterns of our work sites. (2) It bears closer
watching, presumably because technology increasingly shapes how nonacademic writing is done (even, perhaps, how writers think). (3) The part of academe responsible for teaching aspects of technical writing (with some 200 degree/certificate programs) has had too little apparent success: Studies suggest that employees who can write well are increasingly difficult to find; the second leading deficiency among job candidates (beyond problems of interpersonal sorts) is a lack of writing skills.

At first glance, this book seems promising and exciting. All of us, I think, would like to learn more about this ubiquitous, necessary activity. And most of us, I suspect, would like to be part of a higher education that effectively teaches and improves nonacademic writing. To an extent, this edited book helps readers see the way to making these changes. There are chapters on: how to apply a sociotechnology to the study of nonacademic writing (i.e., it takes the whole communication, technological, and social pattern into account); how to apply research to the problem; how sexism haunts the technology undergirding nonacademic writing; problems of translating what we do in classrooms to the workplace; how nonacademic writing influences broad social institutions; and how technologies such as hypertext might modify our usual notions of things such as authorship.

But the appearance is deceiving. In fact, the book turns out to be a long-winded polemic and an impractical, frustrating approach to a practical subject. Ironically, it is the sort of academic writing that may not matter to most of us. One of the earliest and most sensible of chapter authors, Elizabeth Tebeaux, warns about this very thing:

Technical communication researchers, to give academic credibility to their work, have developed their own exclusionary language. This increasingly allusive, political, ideological, and abstract language gives intellectual stature and a sense of erudition to our work, but also alienates nonacademic users of our research.

The rest of this long, difficult series of chapters fits that description all too perfectly.

There are, for instance, excursions into contemporary ethnographic theory ("Working in the reflective and textual tradition at Cambridge, Williams recognized that Lukacs was mistaken when he thought that reification could be totally dominant. . . ."); into feminist scholarship on gender differences in nonacademic writing ("the impulse to personify through metaphor what the program is designed to do for the user . . ."); into architectural design ("The design problem is both rhetorical and semiotic. . ."); into Marxist/critical theories (which would require us to appreciate group

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members as mere tools for the organization). Nowhere are there proven specifics about how to improve nonacademic writing or how to better manage its expanding technology. Nor are there any rules or hints for those of us who would like to make our everyday writing of email, technical manuals, and administrative evaluations more efficient and effective. Instead, one of the chapter authors, Dorothy Winsor, concludes that it cannot be taught by rules—although she offers no practical, tested alternatives. (Curiously, experts who go unmentioned in this and the other chapters have demonstrated the worth of simple principles for improving nonacademic writing; e.g., Anthony Trollope, working to improve the reports written by officials of the postal system a century ago, brought about significant changes in the clarity of, and time invested in, administrative writing.)

So would Nonacademic Writing make worthwhile reading? Perhaps only to those interested in the theories and philosophy of nonacademic writing and its technology. To me, a psychologist with a private practice for academic and nonacademic writers, this book offered no returns for a difficult read. Those of us who want to “get things done” (to paraphrase the editors) might want to wait for a more nonacademic account of nonacademic writing.—Robert Boice, State University of New York at Stony Brook.


The United Nations has proclaimed 1996 the International Year for the Eradication of Poverty. This fifth publication from the Comparative Research Programme on Poverty (CROP) compiles a prodigious amount of information on alternative poverty conceptualizations, theories, policies, and research, although it is not a handbook in the customary sense of the term nor strictly a comparative treatise on methodologies of poverty research, as the title might suggest. The Programme itself was created through the collaboration of the International Social Science Council (ISSC) and UNESCO’s Sector for Social and Human Sciences, both of which provided funds for this monograph along with the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) and the Centre for Health and Social Policy Studies of the University of Bergen, Norway.

Poverty: A Global View is appropriate to both social sciences/social welfare and area studies collections. Its twenty-five chapters are organized into six parts, the first and last of which are composed of a total of six chapters providing a comparative review of poverty concepts and theories. The analysis reveals the political nature of social research in general, and how political regimes and institutional bases of research support influence the characterizations of the poor and the etiologies constructed to explain poverty within developed and developing countries. The diffusion of Western (especially U.S.) definitions and measures of poverty around the globe is particularly interesting given the lack of consensus for a standard among researchers and policymakers here. Having adopted the notion of a “poverty line,” which demarcates the poor and nonpoor, researchers in other countries have waded into this intractable measurement mire. Taken together, these chapters elucidate the many different conceptions of poverty from absolute to relative need, and from personal to structural explanations.

The remaining central parts of the book provide country-specific poverty research approaches and findings. These four parts focus on, respectively, the Asian region (South Asia, Korea, India, Southeast Asia, China, and New Zealand); the African region (Egypt,
Anglophone West Africa, and South Africa); the Western region (Western and Eastern European countries, Israel, and North America); and the Latin American region (Latin America, Brazil, and Mexico). Individual chapters vary in comprehensiveness based on the history and volume of poverty research in a country. Although adhering to a standardized format, each chapter stands alone as a description of the individuals and/or institutions engaged in poverty research, their theories and methodologies, and the resulting research programs and data sets. Unfortunately, the chapter focusing on the U.S. and Canada footnotes the two leading national data collection agencies rather than specifically identifying poverty research initiatives (with the exception of reports emanating from the University of Wisconsin-Madison’s Institute for Research on Poverty and the University of Michigan’s Survey Research Center’s Panel Study of Income Dynamics). Although they allude to their results, specific reference to major studies such as the Seattle/Denver Income Maintenance Experiments and the Survey of Income and Program Participation would have been appropriate for a “handbook.”

Although the editors are to be commended for assembling an internationally representative panel of contributors, the predominance of sociologists and economists has limited the range of disciplinary perspectives and methodologies. An integrative, cross-national discussion of inequality, such as found in geographer David M. Smith’s Where the Grass Is Greener: Living in an Unequal World (1979), as well as in his subsequent publications, would have added balance. So, too, would a thorough review of the contributions of applied anthropologists to our understanding of poverty through ethnographies undertaken in developed and developing countries, rather than repeatedly lamenting the paucity of qualitative work. Finally, the absence of any mention of some of the better-known leftist writers (from liberal to Marxist, e.g., Richard A. Cloward and Frances Fox Piven to Ralph C. Gomes) suggests that some views are less well represented in the political debate over the causes of poverty. But then the Far Right is too often presented as conservative, leaving conservatives and centrists to share the label “liberal.”

Overall, Poverty: A Global View fills two gaps in the reference literature. First, it brings together in one volume summaries of the major poverty research efforts and findings for regions and countries worldwide. Second, it conceptually and analytically integrates this information through introductory and closing chapters. Furthermore, the detailed subject indexing across all chapters readily enables comparisons across countries by topic (e.g., concepts, definitions, and measures of poverty, and construction of poverty lines; data sources; and the roles of various international organizations) and by subpopulation (e.g., aged, children, women, rural/urban residents). Ironically, it is the quality of the indexing that revealed the paucity of specific attention given to the role of ethnic, racial, and political violence, as well as internal migration and immigration, in regard to the prevalence and persistence of poverty. Nevertheless, the strengths of the volume far outweigh its weaknesses, and it is hoped that the latter will be addressed in either regularly updated editions or separate topical monographs within the CROP series.—Gary McMillan, Howard University, Washington, D.C.


Herbert Schiller, professor emeritus of communication at the University of California at San Diego, is sounding an alarm regarding a lurking social crisis that has
grave implications for society. He states that the information crisis—"inequality of access and impoverished content of information"—is "deepening [an] already pervasive national social crisis." He continues: "The ability to understand, much less overcome, increasingly critical national problems is thwarted, either by a growing flood of mind-numbing trivia and sensationalist material or by an absence of basic, contextualized social information." Specifically, he asserts that the information crisis increases social inequality and intensifies other national social crises as well.

Schiller is eminently qualified to make such an observation, having been professor of economics and communications at the University of Illinois, and preceding that, chair of the Department of Social Studies at the Pratt Institute, Brooklyn. He also has authored and edited numerous articles and books in the area of mass communication research, including: Mass Communications and the American Empire (1969, 1992); The Mind Managers (1973); Communication and Cultural Domination (1976); Culture Inc.: The Corporate Takeover of Public Expression (1989); and The Ideology of International Communications (1992).

The primary source of the information crisis Schiller identifies in the book is the interaction of the "freewheeling corporate enterprise system" with the "unprecedentedly influential and privately-owned information apparatus." In the pivotal first chapter, Schiller explains key mechanisms and structural determinants of the free market. Two important features of the free market are salient and play decisive roles in maintaining corporate control over the media/information sphere. First is the concentration of ownership of the cultural industry, which includes film, television, radio, music, education, theme parks, publishing, and computerization. This concentration leads to vertical integration of the industry, thereby linking these sectors and creating even greater power in the marketplace. As a result, products cluster around the center and the "space for a free marketplace of ideas narrows." The second significant feature is the selection and training process used for "culture industry managers."

Schiller draws particular attention to the class-based educational system as the foundation for the culture industry's selection process. Schooling generally "impart[s] outlooks and beliefs that support rather than challenge basic institutions, [especially] the political process and the structure of the economy." These values, internalized in school, bear fruit later in life where successful candidates for promotion are "distinguished by a lifelong unquestioning goalongism," called consensus-building in today's business parlance. The result is that the principal actors in the economy (as well as those librarians who take the corporation as a model for the nonprofit sector) are remarkably similar, quite homogeneous in thought, and can be counted on to act within the "commanding logic of corporate business."

Schiller also points out that advertising is crucial to the operation of the corporate marketplace. It "reaffirms daily . . . that consumption is the definition of democracy." We have the freedom to choose any, or none, of the products offered. Cultural production at this point is market-driven and the main purpose of the media/informational sphere becomes selling goods. Most important, Schiller emphasizes that cultural outputs must satisfy not only advertiser preferences for products that offer ideological comfort and support to the prevailing social order, but also stockholder demands for higher and higher profits. Thus, cultural products that deal with social issues from a critical perspective are rarely promoted.

In summation, Schiller demonstrates how the corporate domination of culture with its transnational character works to
drown out any alternative voices striving for the attention of a larger national audience. The free market, transformed by the demands of corporate business logic, does not operate for the public good: it breaks down the social fiber of community, and when the market becomes global, it breaks down the legitimate authority of the state.

This book, although not Schiller at his best, deserves a wide audience among academic librarians of all stripes, especially those in smaller, nonresearch libraries with limited budgets for collection development. He explains very well how the corporate free market and its particular ideology work to limit information available for a national discourse. Schiller correctly identifies, as have Buchanan and Gingrich, that "Cultural, media, and informational issues already are, and increasingly will be, centers of social dispute." Academic librarians, as culture managers, can and must play a role in this social struggle if their libraries are to remain centers of true research and scholarship.

Schiller's style and the book's organization are more typical of a series of introductory lectures than a tightly structured argument. Consequently, the reader must work hard for clarity in certain areas. It is troubling that such an important book has no bibliography and that the index is minimal, chiefly limited to proper nouns. Concepts such as "ideology" and "hegemony" are used in the text without descriptions or even brief definitions. With a more thorough index, the reader could massage the text for a clearer understanding of such subjects.

Schiller does provide sufficient documentation to support his arguments throughout. Endnotes follow each chapter but, on occasion, are less than ideal. For example, note 11 in chapter 5 gives the reference "Gore speech." A close reading of the section surrounding the note gives clues to chase it down. (Notes like this, however, are one of the things that make being a reference librarian fun.) Still, despite these mechanical shortcomings, the book is worth reading. Indeed, it is a welcome introduction to a crucial area in the sociology/anthropology of information.—Noel D. Young, Rehoboth, Massachusetts.


The central question in this book by a professor of sociology at Oxford Brookes University is whether the information society in which we now live is a new kind of society, different in character from any previous society, or whether it is basically just an "informatized" version of a familiar old kind of society. This sounds as if it ought to matter to information professionals, who could be expected to benefit from occupying a strategic position in a novel kind of society. Webster's book will do nothing to encourage such hopes; he is skeptical of any claim of novelty for the information society.

He begins by reviewing, and quickly dismissing, accounts of the transition to a new type of society that are expressed in terms of quantitative increases in information technology, information production, information occupations, information transfer, or exposure to media culture. He turns for illumination on the significance of information in modern society to a variety of social theories and theorists. Few of these are explicitly concerned with the idea of an information society, but all are relevant in various ways. Daniel Bell's theory of a postindustrial society gets sharply criticized. Herbert Schiller's critique of the dominance of market criteria and corporate self-interest in information development, and of class inequalities in access to information, gets a very sympathetic exposition. So does Anthony Giddens's account of the nation-state's longstanding
interest in surveillance, fueled in large part by military concerns. Juergen Habermas's story of a once-thriving, but now threatened public sphere of disinterested rational debate is told briefly and then followed by an account of recent financial squeezes on British radio, public television, public libraries, museums, and government information services. A chapter is devoted to discussion of recent economic changes, contrasting the "Fordist" period 1945–1973 with the subsequent "post-Fordist" era, characterized by globalization of markets, finance, production, and other restructurings (e.g., downsizing and outsourcing); this discussion is based on work by what is known as the Regulation School, but the phenomena discussed are all familiar. From this we move on to theories of postmodernism and the views of Jean Baudrillard, J. F. Lyotard, and (very briefly) Mark Poster, David Harvey, and a few others. Finally, Manuel Castells's concept of the informational city is explained, emphasizing sharp class contrasts between globally oriented information workers and locally oriented service workers and ghetto inhabitants.

In Webster's view, the accounts of postindustrial society, postmodernism, and the information city (actually the "information mode of development" that figures in Castells's theory) support the idea of a new type of society resulting from information developments, whereas others, especially Schiller, Giddens, and Habermas, favor the claim that there has been no sharp break but, rather, development continuous with the past.

Webster is firmly on the "no sharp break" side: there is no question about a pervasive "informatization" of life, but there is no warrant for talk of a radically new kind of society. Why not? Webster just finds the continuity story more plausible than the sharp break story, and denies that the case has been made for a break or, what is somewhat different, for the appearance of a new type of society.

Webster's arguments are often suspect. When at the beginning he dismissed quantitative accounts of a transition to a new kind of society, it apparently was because no one could tell him exactly how much change it took to make a new society—exactly how much more information, exactly how many more people in information occupations. But where did he get the idea that gradual quantitative change can never result in major qualitative change without there being any particular point at which the change occurs? (One grows old, but there need be no exact point in time at which one becomes old.) Unless he is going to deny the possibility of gradual evolution of new species, it is hard to see why the absence of a clearly defined sharp break settles any questions about the information society. (And if he does deny that possibility, why should anybody follow him?) There is another and even more bothersome recurrent argument Webster uses against proponents of a new type of society. He repeatedly accuses people such as Bell and Castells of technological determinism, which he thinks is obviously a serious intellectual crime. They think that technological change has led to major social change; why is that so wrong? Webster's (implicit) argument seems to be this: If you think that technological change ever leads to major social change, you must think that it always does and that nothing else ever does. Obviously, Bell and Castells do not have to think any such thing, but Webster's apparent belief that they do has devastating effects on his own position. He is helpless in dealing with technological change.

So Webster does not have much to offer in support of his argument that the information society is no new kind of society. But might he not be right all the same? Let us review the situation. Everyone is agreed on the pervasive "informatization" of society, it appears; the argument is over whether to call the information society a new stage in an old process or a new kind
of society. But that argument just cannot get off the ground unless we have some way of distinguishing new "stages" from new "kinds." But we do not appear to have any agreed ways of doing that, and so two commentators can describe the same social situation as enormously different from the past but only a new stage or, alternatively, as the beginnings of a new kind. The thing to do might be to put a moratorium on this particular argument and tell the parties to come back when they have proposals about how best to distinguish stages from kinds, and why we should care. On reflection, one wonders why information professionals should care, unless they can be shown reason for thinking the difference between stage and kind is a big deal and one that makes a difference to them.—Patrick Wilson, University of California, Berkeley.


Authored by Stanley J. Wilder, assistant dean for technical and financial services at Louisiana State University Libraries, the purpose of the report is to: (1) compare the age demographics of academic librarians to the age demographics of members of comparable professions, (2) examine the dramatic increase in age of librarians between 1990 and 1994, and (3) project the retirement rates of academic librarians over the next twenty-five years. Additionally, the author wanted to explore the possible explanations for, and implications of, his discovery that academic librarians tend to be older than their counterparts in comparable professions.

If you are like me, you are probably initially wondering why this information is important and what the implications of an older workforce for the profession might be. Wilder examined librarian age differences for different job categories; among minority group members, library administrators, and librarians working different regions; and in public and private institutions. He suggests that the age demographics information will have implications for workforce planning, recruitment, automation, and outsourcing.

Wilder relies primarily on data obtained from the Association of Research Libraries' (ARL) salary surveys for 1990 and 1994, and ARL statistics from 1963–91 and 1992–94; indeed, the subtitle of the report is A Report Based on Data from the ARL Annual Salary Survey. However, the appendices reveal that he also analyzed data obtained from the Current Population Survey (CPS) and from the Association of Library and Information Science Education (ALISE). The author makes good use of the ARL statistics by conducting a secondary analysis of the data and by supplementing the analyses with additional material from ALISE and CPS.

The first purpose of Wilder's research was to examine the age of librarians as compared to members of comparable professions. The U.S. government-defined, comparable professions are derived from the Standard Occupational Classification Manual. This professional specialty group includes librarians, physicians, professors, teachers, lawyers, and social workers, among more than 100 other professions. The author found that librarians tended to be older than members of these other professions. There was an underrepresentation of young people and an overrepresentation of librarians in the 45–49 age group. Wilder states that during the 1960s there was a dramatic increase in the number of students attending higher education institutions. This increased population required an increase in staff at colleges and universities, including more academic librarians. Of lesser consequence is the banishment of a mandatory retirement age for college faculty. Academic librarians with faculty status also are exempt from mandatory retirement.
Another purpose of the report was to determine why there was a dramatic shift in the age demographics in the ARL statistics between 1990 and 1994. Wilder concedes that there are weaknesses in relying on figures from only two sets of data (the 1990 and 1994 ARL statistics) to measure shifts in age distribution; however, he strengthens his argument by supplementing these statistics with data from the other sources mentioned.

The report suggests that librarianship does not attract as many young people as do comparable professions. Data obtained from ALISE about the age of students enrolled in library science programs bolster this conclusion. Students in library schools tend to be older than students in comparable professional programs, such as social work and law. For many, librarianship is a second career entered during midlife. However, most students entering professional schools in preparation for a career in the comparable professions enter during their twenties after completing their bachelor’s degree. Library schools also are more attractive to older students because most schools have shorter training periods and are less expensive.

Wilder used the data to calculate retirement projections for the profession. He predicts that a large portion of the profession will retire over the next twenty-five years and expresses concerns about library schools’ and academic libraries’ ability to replace them. One consequence of trying to replace the retirees with younger librarians, according to Wilder, is the pressure to increase salaries. But he does not provide either evidence or an explanation for why, or how, he reached this conclusion.

Each chapter begins with a preview of the topic and a brief discussion of the findings. Wilder uses a large number of graphics to illustrate the information he is trying to convey in the text. He includes thirty figures and fourteen tables in the brief (sixty-page) report. Although this may seem excessive, the graphics demonstrate his findings nicely, and they are easy to read and interpret.

This report concludes with twenty-seven pages of appendices that explain in greater detail the data sources, how the author calculated projections, and the methodology he utilized. The appendices also contain a bibliography, copies of the ARL survey and the ARL salary survey, and a list of ARL libraries. The list of cited references is particularly relevant and provides a solid foundation for examining the data in this report.

I would recommend this book to library school personnel who are responsible for recruiting new members into the profession and to academic library administrators responsible for hiring staff. As this report makes evident, there is a need to be concerned about the aging of the profession and the implications of this aging population, nearing retirement, on the vitality of the profession.—Ethelene Whitmire, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
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