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Editorial

Creative Behavior in Libraries

On April 17, Raymond Miles, dean of the School of Business Administration at Berkeley, delivered a visiting scholar lecture. His topic was organizations in the future. The substance of his remarks might be summarized as "everything that is not tied down is coming apart." [See Raymond Miles and Charles Snow, "Designing Strategic Human Resources Systems," *Organizational Dynamics* (Summer 1984).] Since it was Earthquake Preparedness Week in California, I found a certain irony in his conclusion. As a librarian, I felt a certain alarm. Cards flying from the catalog, order slips falling apart, and books reappearing randomly on the shelf were among the images that entered my mind.

How can libraries operate in a "coming apart" environment? Aren't we charged with creating order out of chaos—bibliographic order out of publishing chaos? We select resources and organize them for use. We develop intermediary functions to assist users in coping with the order that we have created. These activities are formal and rather precise. In order for us to cope with the future and the demands of a Knowledge Society, it seems that we must also develop creative responses to dramatic changes. How?

In my mind, creativity implies somewhat alien qualities—the generation of ideas on a random basis, the suspension of disbelief, and the exploration of the mysteries of abstract thinking. [See Min Basadur and Carl T. Finkbeiner, "Measuring Preference for Ideation in Creative Problem-Solving Training," *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* (Feb. 1985).] In librarianship we follow rules (e.g., AACR2) and attempt to arrive at quick closure (e.g., the reference interchange).

Creativity implies freedom, deciding what to do and how to do it.

When people are inspired by their own interests and enjoyment there is a better chance that they will explore unlikely paths, take risks and, in the end, produce something unique and useful. [Daniel P. Haney, "Creativity: A Drive From Within," *Sacramento Bee* (Feb. 3, 1985), p.A22.]

There is a degree of leisure that is usually associated with the creative process. In librarianship, leisure has been depicted as a luxury that we can ill afford given the many service demands that we face. Furthermore, traditional forms of bureaucracy do not encourage the practice of creativity. Business organizations create research and development (R and D) groups and organize them according to different principles as one means for offsetting this deficiency.

Libraries are experiencing dramatic changes. These changes signify that important adaptive behaviors are occurring. I tend to categorize these behaviors as coping mechanisms. I do not believe that they are creative behaviors. This judgment is personal and is based on the belief that the act of creation brings forth something new and unique. Few of our adaptive behaviors, however, fall into this category. Our efforts are largely extensions of what is known.

Some trends in the information world are momentous in their implications for the future direction of academic librarianship. They seem to demand not coping but creative responses. Today, many members of the computer world are confused by the rapid changes that they are experiencing. The impact of laser, microwave, computer, and other related

technologies may be overwhelming our ability to see a path through the thicket. At one time ten-year plans seemed feasible. Now the experts question the utility of five-year plans. Indeed, strategic planning may be in vogue mainly because some organizations realize that they need to revise their planning assumptions and goals at a rapid rate (e.g., monthly or semiannually). We have entered a period of turbulence.

Recently, I heard the advice that libraries should expect to change their automated systems every five to seven years. Some libraries have taken this long just to make the decision to purchase an automated system. Getting the funding for such a system presents additional obstacles and more time.

In the early 1970s I felt comfortable with my knowledge of online reference as a technology and as a form of service. Today, I am not only unable to keep up but I am confused. A newspaper, *Information Today*, tracks developments. It is but one symptom of a turbulent environment. In the past, trends in library automation could be plotted with relative ease. The trends moved through libraries based on functional needs—circulation, acquisitions, and cataloging. Now we can see a shift toward reference-type systems. Immediately, with this shift, the scope and range of possibilities increase dramatically. Simultaneously, transmission and storage technologies are multiplying rapidly and some of these technologies are in direct competition with one another. This compounds our problems so that typical coping mechanisms may no longer work. Again, creative responses are required.

How can we learn to think in new and unique ways about our problems? It will be difficult. In my opinion we will have to examine old assumptions. First, we need to examine the historical basis of librarianship. Let me give a few examples of some of the questions that might be raised and the assumptions that might be challenged.

- What business are we in? One might say that we are in the container business. We label the containers and we circulate the containers. Given the work load of these tasks it is sometimes difficult for librarians to help users to interpret the labels and to select among containers.
- What business should we be in? One might say that we should be in the content business. When I buy a carton of milk, I rarely observe the brand or spend time on examining the container. I'm interested in the milk. As librarians we should be interested in content, ideas. Perhaps these ideas should be organized to help people to solve problems.
- Should library collections be the base from which all other activities are derived? One might say that books on the shelf represent static information. Should we create a new base, a base of dynamic information? Information might be organized at the time it is needed to help the user solve a problem. The organization of information would be tailored to individual needs.
- Should we conceive of developing information sources not through local collections but through new, unimagined uses of physical and mental technologies?

In this issue of *C&RL* the second part of Allen Veaner's article "1985 to 1995: The Next Decade in Academic Librarianship" appears. He has created for us a synthesis, an organized perspective of the future. It should help us to understand what might happen in the future and what role we as librarians should play. Jane Robbins-Carter, Johannah Sherrer, Deborah Jakubs, and Charles Lowry offer their comments on Veaner's article in order to provide a critical perspective on various themes and issues. The need for more creative behavior is obvious. It will not come solely from reexamining the old and the worn. We also need to examine new territory.

CHARLES MARTELL

1985 to 1995: The Next Decade in Academic Librarianship, Part II

Allen B. Veaner

Based upon the vision of greatly reduced mechanical and production concerns for academic librarians within the next decade, the author (1) describes required skills, knowledge, attitudes, and abilities in areas of intellect and human relations, (2) suggests revised educational requirements for academic librarians, and (3) concludes with a plea that academic librarians focus upon increased development of their mental, intellectual, and administrative talents. Part I of this article appeared in the May issue.

WHAT TYPES OF KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, ABILITIES, ATTITUDES WILL ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS NEED IN 1985 TO 1995?

The library may be durable, but it is not necessarily eternal. Adaptation is essential, in the institution and in its personnel; the profession must find ways to invent new viewpoints and alter many aspects of its traditional orientation. Only a profession that is flexible and responsive will be capable of coping with changes that, if viewed negatively, are perceived as threats, yet, if seen positively, emerge as golden opportunities. The previous segment of this paper outlined the context of radical and rapid change that has enveloped academic librarianship over the past generation. The concluding part will suggest specific skills, abilities, attitudes, and knowledge that academic librarians will require for the remaining years of this century. Eighteen recommendations appear in appendix A.

The Transition from Producers to Managers

A major thrust of this paper is the contention that academic librarians' responsibilities have shifted heavily from production to management, a change induced by

the very nature of new technology, which has forced resource expenditure into high levels of visibility.¹ One university librarian respondent to the author's informal survey² affirms that over half her librarians now occupy management positions. In smaller academic libraries, virtually all the major management responsibilities fall upon the chief librarian. What knowledge, management skills, abilities, and attitudes will academic librarians of the immediate future find useful, even essential?

Preparation for Multiple Working Styles

Following the faculty model, some academic librarians conceive themselves to be comparatively autonomous professionals. Although Battin maintains that the autonomous professional model is not the reality in the large research library, it could be highly functional in a college library, or junior/community college library.³ Yet the concept of librarians' work is not an either/or proposition; there will be times when they will work with colleagues as teams—committees, task forces, consulting groups, even team teaching in a formal or semiformal atmosphere. In a teamwork environment, both authority and responsibility will be shared. On other occasions they will need to work one-on-one at an advanced level with graduate students,

faculty, postdoctoral researchers, and academic administrators. Clearly, academic librarians of the future must be able to grapple with a wide spectrum of working styles.

Flexibility and Adaptability

Academic librarianship, especially in cataloging work and in the management of library materials funds in U.S. public universities, has often been characterized as rule-bound. AACR2, earlier codes, the rules for arranging dictionary catalogs, the rules for applying LC subject headings and classification schedules, the responsibilities of collection maintenance, the regulations for handling public money all hold a natural attraction for those who enjoy regimen. While computerized information systems have rigidities of their own, they also introduce an enormous range of new options and flexible choices that little resemble earlier protocols and constraints. As managers, academic librarians will have the capacity to make new rules and procedures, test them, and change them. Librarian-managers will need to take risks, experiment, and even be willing to fail on occasion. Librarian-managers can look to the world of business administration for some of their models. Elizabeth Bailey, dean of the Graduate School of Industrial Administration, Carnegie-Mellon University, suggests that future business managers must have the ability to "anticipate sudden sweeping change . . . and to react quickly and effectively in rapidly changing situations."⁴ Flexibility, foresight, and the capacity to deal with increasing complexity are included in the qualities Dean Bailey seeks. Academic library directors will seek these same qualities in new recruits and will expect many of the incumbents to adapt to new outlooks, indeed to invent them. However, the directors also need to find humane (and affordable) methods of reassigning those who are more comfortable in a bureaucratic tradition.

Entrepreneurial Attitudes

Effective two-way communication facilities offered by microcomputers and digital networks are already fostering the growth

of a new kind of librarian—the entrepreneur who seeks out clients in an active "marketing" mode rather than waiting for patrons to come to the institution.⁵ Entrepreneurs need to be highly skilled at selling and presenting themselves to many kinds of audiences, whether academic, business, or other. Those who choose to work outside an institution need the toughness and self-sufficiency to face a career of competition and the capacity to survive without bureaucratic safeguards. As computer systems advance to the point where librarians are virtually free from all production work, some may wish to take up an entrepreneurial challenge. There is nothing to suggest that significant parts of an academic librarian's functions cannot be done extramurally. ACRL should not be reactive to the hazard of losing top-grade people from the ranks of institutional librarianship. On the other hand, why should entrepreneurship be construed solely as an extramural activity? Academic librarianship ought to devise programs or structures to compete with the attractions of entrepreneurship, so that the "best and the brightest" remain with academic institutions.⁶

Evolution of an Intellectual Network

Electronic mail is an instrument that can be exploited to weld academic librarians into "electronic colleges" of reference and specialist librarians who, crossing institutional boundaries, collaborate on information retrieval problems. A "standard network interconnection" now being developed by the Research Libraries Group, intended to link RLIN, NOTIS, BLIS, and GEAC Computer Corporation, may provide a key enabling "a librarian affiliated with almost any network or automation system [to] make contact with a library or librarian on any other major system. . . ." This offers the exciting prospect of linking reference librarians throughout North America—even the world—into a unified body whose members have rapid access to each other. Think about what reference librarians could contribute to instruction, research, and scholarly communication via a "un-

ion catalog" of reference expertise! Many of the smaller schools and colleges could avail themselves of experts anywhere.⁸ To exploit this possibility within the context of ALA, a new ACRL section might be formed, perhaps in cooperation with the Reference and Adult Services Division.

Development of an Attitude of Scientific Detachment

Librarianship as a whole has embraced technology far more rapidly and more successfully than many other fields. Yet at times the embrace has been too strong, almost maternal. So comparatively "new" is technology to librarianship, so great the excitement it engenders, so narrow is the technological focus of the profession that it is easy for librarians to form almost irrational, familial loyalties to computer-based systems, services, and methods, even to specific items of equipment. Once some new method is installed, there is a temptation to "fall in love" with the system and form a fortress mentality that wards off new ideas. We may have carried over into the computerized world the old-fashioned view that we once held about our office furniture and typewriters, viz., that they should last forever. Yet there will be a spate of new tools, systems, and devices over the next decade. The profession needs to teach itself to freely abandon tools that have become superseded, even if not worn out. All new systems ought to be regarded only as powerful tools, not as friends or colleagues deserving of emotional attachment. There is no reason for the electronic apparatus to take on the character of a comfortable pair of old shoes or a well-thumbed OED.

Helpful to this end is encouraging would-be academic librarians to enrich their educational experiences with the study of logic, philosophy, linguistics, and mathematics. Kaplan strongly supports these subject areas as useful, practical background for librarians:

not because they underlie the computer technology or related technologies . . . but for an intellectual reason, because there is central to them the concept of structure, of order, of form, which seems to me to be precisely the central concern also of library science.⁹

Systems and Software Design Opportunities

Licklider correctly points out that technologists and users perceive totally different constructs when they sit before a terminal.¹⁰ While the technologist is oriented towards building abstract, idealized models, the academic librarian's experience, education, and training are all geared to the practical world of the user. In the same piece Licklider notes that hardware development was rapidly out-running software, that the limiting factor in effective computer utilization was lack of software.¹¹ But effective software cannot be designed by technologists working *in vacuo*. In computerized information systems, the librarian occupies the ideal middle ground between system designers and users—a position exactly paralleling the librarian who guides current users through the maze of conventional, inkprint software, e.g., card catalogs, abstracts and indexes, and so forth. Working with system and software designers, academic librarians can employ their special, user-oriented talents to achieve effective, "ergonomic" designs. If the library and the computer center should somehow be unified, or at least drawn closer together, staff in both areas will realize how complementary are their different expertises and how together they can create superior products and services. There is ample evidence of this intellectual symbiosis at work in what all the major bibliographic utilities have achieved. In fact, the success of the utilities demonstrates conclusively what can be accomplished by putting computer experts and bibliographic experts together in the same organizations.

Despite the fact that academic librarians possess enormous experience and understanding of the human factors in data access, a substantial amount of research is being conducted outside of the library profession. Landauer and others published a long article covering virtually every problem of search and retrieval confronted by academic librarians, yet the thirty-item bibliography for this article includes no citations to research journals in library science.¹² Does this suggest that

scientific writers ignore library literature, or that library and information science lacks a sufficient research base? At any rate, it is clear that the membership of ACRL represents an enormous base of expertise in areas where extensive research is being carried out independently of and in isolation from librarianship. Can a tracking mechanism be devised? Can ACRL serve as a link or clearinghouse to bring together librarian experts and behavioral scientists? Currently, such a function appears to be fulfilled, in part, by the American Society for Information Science (ASIS). Closer links between ACRL and ASIS research concerns may be worth investigating. Specifically, ACRL should maintain an ASIS conference watch, seeing to it that someone is designated to attend appropriate ASIS sessions. (Currently, ACRL has no representative to ASIS and no formal liaison, unless one counts the ALA linkage via LITA.)

The Search for Competencies

Although King Research is developing a list of the various competencies needed by librarians,¹³ White is skeptical.¹⁴ Curley, speaking at the 1984 ALA Conference in Dallas, suggests that the very term *competency* is too narrow, that it connotes some quite specific, measurable skills of a technical character whereas what is needed, he maintains, is broad background, perspective, and the ability to deal effectively with people.¹⁵ In 1982 the present author suggested that in identifying professional duties and responsibilities, list making may be a perilous instrument for steering the course of professional education.¹⁶ The trouble with competencies is that they foster concentration on the observable things that academic librarians do, whereas in fact it is precisely in the area of the intangible—the thought processes; the summation of knowledge, intellect, and judgment; the quality of interpersonal relationships—in which the highest performance levels are revealed.

Yes, competency listing may be a dangerous game. How will the competencies be verified in the field? Academic librarianship deals little with mechanical abilities that can be measured quantitatively; its focus is on the librarian's intellectual

capacities and service effectiveness, qualities best evaluated by judgment calls. This writer has seen little to improve on Battin's four requirements for the research librarian, and believes that the same requirements apply to all librarians:¹⁷

1. A first-rate mind with problem-solving abilities (regarded by her as a "nonnegotiable" requirement).
2. A solid undergraduate preparation in any of a variety of disciplines. The key is the rigor of the training, not the subject discipline. . . .
3. Concrete evidence of managerial abilities. Almost every research library responsibility, even at the entry level, now requires some degree of sophisticated management of either people or resources. The trend is expected to intensify as staffing resources dwindle and information technology becomes more complex.
4. An intellectual commitment to research librarianship. . . .

Substitute any type-of-library adjective in place of "research." No academic librarian anywhere can afford to lack these requirements.

Knowledge of the Higher Education Scene

Virtually all respondents to the author's informal survey indicated that librarians must be well acquainted with the general condition of higher education in North America. But can they get the time for this? Getting librarians out of the "manufacturing" business will facilitate reassignment of personnel currently in technical services and will offer the possibility of internally redistributing the remaining work load of the academic library. Conceivably, this could give academic librarians the amounts and kinds of time that faculty routinely enjoy to maintain currency in higher education developments and to participate meaningfully in the governance process. But a more likely scenario is that the bureaucratic apparatus required to manage both support staff and new information systems will, in Parkinsonian fashion, absorb the released time. Lack of time for true involvement in higher education has been a perpetual dilemma for academic librarians. It is doubtful whether any primary ACRL initiative can resolve this dilemma; its solution

must come as a by-product of the long process of educating faculty and administrators about the role of academic librarians, and of the even longer process envisioned by Battin and Dunn of restructuring the university itself.^{18,19}

Communication Skills:

Oral and Written Expression

Librarians need high-level skills in oral and written expression, and they need a capacity to generate high-class graphics.²⁰ Communication skills that are merely good will not suffice; librarians will require skills that are outstandingly superior, indeed exceptional, if they are to be effective in their relationships with others in the academic community. Excellent communication skills are also vital to high quality programs of bibliographic instruction. Cronin puts the requirement very well; the information manager must be not only professionally competent,

[b]ut, most important of all, he needs to be able and willing to deal face-to-face with senior members of the organisation, whenever possible developing informal contacts and working himself onto committees, project teams or matrix management groupings. To do this requires a degree of self-determination, inter-personal skills, dynamism and ambition not always demonstrated by members of the information profession at large.²¹

Skills in oral and written communication are more than intellectual, they also represent valuable social assets that can be exploited and honed by active participation in professional activities at many levels. The narrowness of viewpoint fostered by staying too long in one academic institution can be offset by active participation in meetings and conferences. Yet there are academic librarians who conscientiously avoid conferences, who are unwilling to spend any of their own time at professional meetings, or who unrealistically expect an institution to pay 100 percent of their expenses.

ACRL has already achieved notable successes in persuading major library book and equipment vendors to underwrite a variety of awards and scholarships. More support should be solicited to help bring promising academic librarians to ACRL national conferences. In consultation with

other appropriate bodies, e.g., the ACRL Planning Committee, the Committee on Supplemental Funds ought to consider the design of incentive and award programs to promote academic librarians' communication skills. Travel grants might be awarded to librarians contributing the best papers in response to some research problem in academic librarianship; or publication subsidies might be provided for deserving projects.

Mechanical Skills and Tools

It is said that many top executives do not use terminal-based information systems because they accept the stereotype that operating a keyboard is clerical work. Probably every academic librarian learned to type in high school, or at latest as an undergraduate while writing term papers; yet it is surprising to find an occasional librarian who cannot type. Any academic librarians who cannot type will find themselves at a great disadvantage in the electronic world.²² Typing is a pedestrian skill that can be self-taught; it requires neither an instruction book nor a software package. It is a mechanical skill that should not be underrated; it opens up convenient access to a wide range of computer-based information systems. It ought to be recognized for what it is, not an end in itself, but a simple competence that is the key to the exploitation of intellectual skills.

High school students now routinely learn at least the elementary aspects of using computers and few new faculty appointees are unfamiliar with computer applications. New students are probably the greatest academic market for microcomputers, especially the newer, lightweight portables. There is then the danger that students and younger faculty might come to the college or university far better prepared to interact with computerized systems than some of us. Networking with the bibliographic utilities has actually put more technical expertise in the hands of library assistants than some professionals possess. If subordinate staff develop skills greater than our own, what does that imply for the future?

Many librarians have become expert in assisting faculty and students in searching

large, complex databases. However, there probably remains a significant number of librarians—sandwiched in between the expert database searchers and the expert clerical staff—who do not have daily contact with terminals or microcomputers and have little or no hands-on experience. Here there may be a promotional role for ACRL in bringing “computer literacy” to its entire membership. More and more one reads of colleges requiring their students to possess a microcomputer upon entrance, and some schools are reported ready to distribute them to students as part of the tuition package. Academic librarians ought to be encouraged to acquire their own hardware and software as another professional tool. Today, most academic institutions enjoy special educational discounts on computer hardware. ACRL can assist college and university libraries in building cases with educational administrators to facilitate the acquisition of such equipment by all librarians. ACRL might help member institutions develop model grant proposals to selected hardware manufacturers or model low-interest-loan proposals (aimed at banks, credit unions, colleges, and universities). Additionally, it is possible (depending upon legal constraints) that cooperatives (such as CLASS, the Cooperative Library Agency for Systems and Services) or even the bibliographic utilities might be approached.

In encouraging academic librarians to acquire microcomputers, ACRL must maintain focus on the device as a tool to aid in performance of the academic librarian's basic mission—which remains that of intellectual link in the academic community, the transformation agent who brings civilization's records to the users and the users to the records. This recommendation is made in context that by 1995 a terminal of some kind will likely be required to access most files and many texts in academic libraries.

Intellectual Skills

“So many members of our profession really do not have a strong intellectual commitment to librarianship,” Battin sadly observes. She adds dishearteningly: I seldom find, in talking to librarians, the same

kind of crisp, thoughtful, and directed career orientation that I find in my conversations with members of other professional groups.²³

As has been said several times in this report, the life of the academic librarian is the life of the mind, not the life of devices, files, hardware, or even software. Librarians need the same intellectual skills as people in computer science, linguistics, logic, the “hard” sciences, mathematics, and the humanities. Many academic librarians already come from educational backgrounds that reflect ruly disciplines emphasizing strong logical skills, e.g., English, music, and philosophy. Academic librarians with these backgrounds can be strongly responsive to the challenges of designing and working with electronic information systems, for no matter how “friendly” these are claimed to be, their interaction protocols are still fairly rigid, their design features dominated by the technologist, not the user. ACRL cannot help those librarians described by Battin's gloomy statement but it can work to recruit the “best and the brightest” for the future. One helpful aid to high-quality recruitment would be aggressive pursuit by the ACRL membership of membership in the ALA Committee on Accreditation's pool of site visitors to programs of graduate education in library and information science.²⁴

Financial Management Skills

As managers rather than production workers, academic librarians are already responsible for allocating expensive resources—staff, space, collections, and machines. More and more they will use computerized information delivery systems that will be guarded by accounting systems of relentless power and sophistication. Increasingly, they will manage cadres of highly skilled support staff or large numbers of student employees. It will be almost impossible to hide an expense category, and having to do a computer-supported job over again will involve inescapable additional costs. Therefore, librarians must become highly skilled at managing institutional time and money, for they will certainly be held closely accountable.

In connection with costs, it will be up to academic librarians to convey to higher levels of administration the true costs of computerized information systems. We should be long past the seductive hope that great cost reductions in computer hardware will bear any relationship to trimming a service institution's budget. Any "savings" realized will be more than offset by far more significant increases in other costs, which will result in a larger, not a smaller, total expenditure:

- swiftly rising telecommunications costs attributable, in part, to deregulation;
- constantly changing software that must frequently be replaced to keep systems up-to-date;
- progressively briefer shelf life for hardware;
- rapidly escalating demands upon library data files, brought about by the proliferation of personal computers;
- demands for a more complex and expensive infrastructure (e.g., local area networks) to support such access;
- training of new users and retraining of personnel whose jobs have been displaced by automated bibliographic systems; "grandparenting" or early retirement of others;
- special environments for sensitive equipment, accompanied by additional electrical power demands, which further tax already strained energy budgets.

In this scenario, expenditures will shift from expensive library materials to even more expensive services. This trend has been clear to academic librarians for some time; now they must communicate the change unequivocally to academic administrators, who generally look at a new technology with the hope that it will cut the cost of library operations. And here is an important role for academic librarians to play in the education of academic administrators. Educational institutions have their own internal technological enthusiasts who unwittingly reinforce the marketing efforts of salespersons in the hardware, software, and database industries. Focusing on the intellectual basis of the university, in alliance with faculty, academic librarians can provide a soundly based counterpoise to overenthusiasm for

hardware. No one is better equipped than the academic librarian to educate administrators that the most expensive and sophisticated hardware is useless without the highest quality human direction, that the true benefit of technology derives from the value it adds to human capabilities. But providing this kind of guidance carries high risks and needs to be engineered with great care—academic librarians must not apply strategies that make them appear as obstacles to progress.

RECRUITMENT AND GRADUATE EDUCATION

Recruitment

Respondents to the informal survey repeatedly stressed that the profession should recruit only the "best and the brightest." Yerburgh opines that potential lawyers, doctors, dentists, and business administrators face much stiffer entrance requirements to graduate school than do librarians. He suggests that what academic librarianship really needs is fewer—but higher quality—graduates capable of exercising imaginative leadership.²⁵ He further maintains that "we must take rigorous steps to encourage the best and discourage the rest."²⁶

ACRL can work with high school and college career counseling and guidance organizations, ALISE, U.S. state and Canadian provincial library associations, OLPR, and college and university placement officers to depict a profession that is deeply intellectual and highly technical—not an employment opportunity for those who "love books" or "enjoy reading," nor a "game room" for those who enjoy "playing" with computers. Tests used to determine career interests could be reviewed for the existence of harmful stereotypes that might be directing the wrong type of applicant to librarianship.

In 1980 Block published a study of U.S. recruiting announcements in twenty-six categories of academic librarian positions.²⁷ He observed that most of the employers sought traditional positions and the most striking characteristic of the postings was their traditional outlook. He further suggested that "[t]he academic library job market . . . offers little incentive to librarians to acquire a diversified educa-

tional background or computer expertise despite a continual discussed need for new professionals with these skills."²⁸ Block concluded that the "requested skills in physical sciences, business, mathematics, and computer applications are conspicuous by their absence," and claimed that his study "suggests that academic libraries carry a conservative hiring profile into the 1980s." Block's appraisal seems to be supported by Otto's Delphi study, which suggested that traditional subjects—management, cataloging, and acquisitions—"were foreseen as continuing to dominate library school curricula, although the entire group [of librarians, educators, and administrators] expressed dissatisfaction with such a probability."²⁹ Persistence of traditional views in an era of rapid change may be an area for further research or discussion among the Personnel Administrators and Staff Development Officers and the Task Force on Library Schools and Academic Libraries.

Compensation

This observer has not seen much in the literature on strategies to improve librarians' salaries. It is problematic whether we can attract top talent to academic librarianship at current salaries, and even if the "best and the brightest" can be attracted, they have to be retained. The salary issue is probably closely related to matters of image and perception. Except for the Academic and Research Library Personnel Study Group, there appears to be no ACRL unit charged to examine compensation issues. Lack of broad-based attention to salaries may contribute to interest in collective bargaining along lines parallel to faculty. The salary issue might be added to the educational agenda aimed at academic administrators, as it is closely related to conveying an understanding of the academic librarian's role in higher education.

The M.L.S. Issue

No respondent to the informal survey mentioned the M.L.S. in connection with academic librarianship. This does not suggest that no one is paying attention to it but rather that the value of the M.L.S. as a

prerequisite for academic librarianship is taken for granted. Court cases, OPM recommendations, and growing dissatisfactions among classified staff and other contenders for librarian positions demonstrate that the M.L.S. cannot be taken for granted. Clearly, nonlibrary forces do not take for granted the value of the M.L.S., and some believe there is hazard that the case may be lost by default. The specter of professional appointments awarded to the uneducated, the ill-educated, or those possessing solely technical competence, totally contradicts the role of academic librarians as the intellectual levers and links in higher education. ACRL should take a firm stand on the M.L.S. as the basic educational prerequisite in academic librarianship—but only on an M.L.S. based on theoretical principles, not on one constructed around procedures or the "body of knowledge" idea.^{30,31} In connection with the Library of Congress' practice of appointing persons lacking the M.L.S., ACRL should stress that the environment at LC, a unique institution, is not relevant to colleges and universities, as Holley has shown.³² The issue is exceedingly complex and ACRL should consider the pluses and minuses of engaging independent legal counsel. At any rate, the M.L.S. issue ought to rank very high on the ACRL action agenda.

Shifting the Educational Focus

In the future we may hope that technical and production work in libraries and information centers will increasingly be off-loaded to support staff who, ideally, will work with computer-aided systems designed by librarians. If this change can be achieved, graduate education programs for academic librarians can be sharply refocused upon building students' management expertise. Programs should aid students to develop and refine:

1. Analytic skills to define problems and design solutions;
2. Financial skills to cost out operations and proposals in order that resources may be managed responsibly and effectively;
3. Interpersonal skills to sell the proposed solutions to subordinate staff;

4. Promotional skills to sell ideas to higher levels of institutional management;

5. Supervisory skills to manage day-to-day activities;

6. Leadership skills to bring about change;

7. Labor relations expertise, as more and more support staff join unions.³³

In this endeavor it will be vital for the schools to (1) convey principles rather than strict technique and (2) select students who are judged capable of exercising decisive leadership. A number of library schools have closed recently and enrollments have declined in others. If these closures signify an increase in student quality at the remaining schools, there is no cause for alarm. But surely this is an optimistic hope; there is no necessary connection between these events. To produce a smaller number of higher quality graduates, the schools of library and information science must take care to admit fewer marginal students and impose more rigorous grading and examination standards. The increasingly technological nature of the profession also suggests a need to recruit more students from a scientific background. For example, education in the history of science would form an excellent foundation for a librarian in a science-centered program or institution.³⁴

Linking the Schools and the Field

Battin recently proposed that ARL and ALISE consider joint sponsorship of workshops for faculty to reduce the schools' lag behind field developments.³⁵ Perhaps in response to that proposal the Council on Library Resources awarded \$54,700 to the Association of Research Libraries late in 1983 "to design and operate a pilot institute to enrich library educators' understanding of research library issues and needs." But these issues are not specific to the large research library. This is a potential area for ACRL to cooperate with ALISE along with ARL. Yerburgh suggests that academic librarians, to be truly effective, require a one-year practicum or internship in the field before taking on a full-time assignment.³⁶ The ACRL Task

Force on Library Schools and Academic Libraries is the logical agency to pursue both these concerns.

Special Programs for Academic Librarianship

The Council on Library Resources' Professional Education and Training for Research Librarianship Program (PETREL) is seeking the "best and the brightest" for the research library community. But those are precisely the people needed by every academic library. Not all of the "best and the brightest" will wish to work in the large research library. Can ACRL approach CLR or other agencies to devise similar programs to build quality throughout academic librarianship?

Participation in ALA Accreditation Process

ACRL members should be encouraged to join the pool of site visitors from which the ALA Committee on Accreditation draws teams to visit schools. Participation gives ACRL membership the opportunity for direct input to the educational process for the profession. As the mechanism for accreditation is currently under study, with the view of encompassing a wider base of constituencies in the process, ACRL's interest takes on a greater vitality.

In the accreditation context, the ACRL Task Force on Library Schools and Academic Libraries might also continually examine the one-year and the two-year MLS programs, while understanding that school differences are such that one school's one-year program could conceivably be more difficult and challenging than another's two-year program. Many educators (and employers) believe that graduate education for librarianship should take two years. This raises the issue of whether education for academic librarianship needs different levels for the different types of markets. Ought there to be a three-tier system, with separate tracks, different programs, and different durations, for research libraries, college libraries, and community/junior college libraries? The ACRL Task Force on Library Schools and Academic Libraries might re-

view such a question in concert with the ALA Committee on Accreditation.

CONCLUSIONS

1985 to 1995: The Academic Librarian's Decade

Whether or not the "new" library of the 1990s or 2000s and beyond will be paperless is not a relevant debate. Even the most enthusiastic advocates of new technology concede that the book and other printed media have a future. Actually, it can be argued that the invisibility of the electronic media makes them less accessible and more mysterious than print. Whatever the format, we will still have to cope with information, paperless or otherwise, and that is what we ought to debate. As "keepers" of humankind's collective mind and memory ("stimulators of thought," "linkers of concepts," or "amplifiers of ideas" would be superior terms) academic librarians will be needed more than ever as we move towards the end of this century. In one of Jesse Shera's last articles, that dean of library educators reminded us of what librarianship is all about:

I submit that there are three components in the concept of a library. First, there is *acquisition*, which involves knowing what to acquire for a given clientele and how to acquire it. Acquisition implies substantive knowledge of the materials and the uses to which knowledge can and should be put. The second is *organization*, that is, ways in which accumulated materials can be arranged and processed for maximum convenience and efficiency of use. It is here, and only here that information science makes its contribution to librarianship. The third is *interpretation and service*, which is the *raison d'être* of the library. . . .³⁷

Automation, terminals, hardware, software, videodisks, optical disks, fibre optics, personal computers, instantaneous electronic communication, satellites, and so forth do not alter Shera's tripartite model. Nor do they alter the fact that academic librarianship remains the life of the mind, not of the device.

Yet the debate on the paperless society has had its merits. It has helped to focus attention on traditional academic librarianship's preoccupation with costly house-keeping and manufacturing operations.

Continuing displacement of these task-oriented activities toward support staff ought to be an early, high priority for the professional. The end users do not care to learn, nor should they, about the black magic of codes and standards; they seek facts, records, interpretations, evaluations, guidance, and documents in preference to citations. To fulfill those needs they must be able to interact with dedicated professionals. Foskett, head of Library Studies, South Australian Institute of Technology, has put the matter fairly bluntly:

If we are to be recognized as significant workers in the information industry, we must provide information to the users in a form which they use, and in a positive fashion. Not only must we do this, we must be seen to do it; to quote Holladay, we must take our show on the road and visit as many carefully targeted areas as possible, asking about their projects and information needs and describing today's information possibilities. Lewis points out that there is a need for us to recognize that the processing and handling of information is only a means to an end and not an end in itself. Challenging work is to be found in interpretation and analysis. We have to persuade people that they not only can but should rely on us; we have to go out to make direct contact with our users if we are to achieve this.

The temptations to avoid this are many. . . . It is so easy to sink back into the role of the "cozy" professional who is really a paraprofessional being overpaid.³⁸

A few librarians, objecting to its commercial tone, may choke upon the expression "information industry" in Foskett's remarks. But the facts are that colleges and universities spend real money to secure the best possible information services for their faculty and students. Assurance of the highest quality is no less a rightful expectation in the academic information enterprise than in any other college and university business, and there ought to be no emotional obstacle to designating non-profit academic librarianship as an element in the information industry. In pointing out that "machines replace people when they can do the work more cheaply," Feigenbaum is merely restating a principle that every responsible administrator is committed to.³⁹ Effective resource management will be a key aca-

democratic librarian responsibility in the upcoming decade; it is a responsibility that we will shirk at our peril.

Lancaster and others have suggested that the term "librarian" may work against us, suggestive as it is of the institution rather than the librarian's professional expertise. Proponents of a name change claim that a new designation would make it easier for librarians to be viewed as peers (or at least expert academic consultants) by faculty. Lancaster thinks the term may have to be abandoned, a suggestion that sometimes elicits angry responses in the library press. What is often overlooked is that a change of name does not change the problem to be solved, anymore than renaming a disease changes the treatment; by whatever name, the functions now performed by academic (and other) librarians will still need to be performed. But, as a means of stressing the library's dynamic human element, which brings alive the institution's inert storage media and facilities, ACRL might debate whether the organization's name should be changed to Association of College and Research Librarians. Such a change would not be inconsistent with the four major goals enumerated in the ACRL Activity Model for 1990.⁴⁰

Mind versus the Entertainment-Technology Complex

Librarian of Congress Daniel J. Boorstin has recently thrown some bright light upon the confusion between information and knowledge. Decrying the public's constant need to be "entertained" by canned software or "informed" by the latest news, he suggests that what any free country needs is a knowledgeable citizenry. We can be entertained, we can be informed, says Boorstin,

But we cannot be knowledgeable! We must all acquire knowledge for ourselves. Knowledge comes from the free mind foraging in the rich pastures of the whole everywhere-past. It comes from finding order and meaning in the

whole human experience. The autonomous reader, amusing & knowing himself, is the be-all and the end-all of our libraries.⁴¹

The excitement of entering the "information age" is not unlike that which the U.S. experienced with the space age and the *Apollo* trips to the moon. Exciting new technologies, whether in rocketry, telecommunications, or computers, can be seductive and cause us to forget that the mind, not the instrument, should control society's purposes and goals. Undue preoccupation with technology increases the risk that technology will come to drive its beneficiaries rather than stimulate them to devise new ways of achieving purpose and goals through control of that technology. It is the impact of new technology on the quality of our daily, workaday lives and the impact upon the knowledgeability of the citizenry that needs to be kept in focus. Academic librarians have an important role to play in realizing the goals articulated by the Librarian of Congress; they cannot permit their critical senses and goal-oriented behavior to be dulled by the excitement of technology and innovation, nor by preoccupation with hardware and devices.

To conclude, I doubt if I can improve on a remark articulated by Maurice Line almost a generation ago. As early as 1968 Line warned librarians to "be prepared for radical changes in the structure of knowledge, in means of storing and transmitting information, and in the actual needs of users."⁴² And he added:

We should be in the thick of all discussions about information and communication—if possible we should initiate them. This may mean the death of libraries as we know them—but if we want to keep libraries as we know them it may be the death of us.⁴³

To sum up, ACRL should, above all, lay heavy stress upon academic librarianship as a life of the mind, a path of intellect, and a creative force in producing a knowledgeable, educated citizenry.

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APPENDIX A: RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that ACRL undertake the following actions for the 1985-95 decade:

1. Reaffirm in confident, positive tones the essentiality of the academic library as a necessary and valuable social institution and key element in higher education and scholarly communication.
2. Within the community of higher education reaffirm the essentiality of open access to scholarly materials regardless of individual ability to pay.
3. Reaffirm the academic librarian's key role as a proactive analyst, subject expert, counselor, consultant, linker, and intermediary in the cycle of scholarly endeavor and scholarly communication.
4. Redirect and redevelop publicity and public relations for academic librarianship to focus sharply on its human resources (reducing the focus on facilities and institutions), emphasizing that academic librarianship:
 - Is the life of the mind and spirit;
 - Focuses much more upon intangibles—thought, knowledge, intellect, and judgment—than it does on visible, physical processes.
5. Working with the American Council of Learned Societies and the Canadian Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council:
 - Expand its program of making the scholarly public aware of the value of Bibliographic Instruction;
 - Devise educational programs to promote awareness of the academic librarian's linking role in the process of scholarly communication.
6. Explore the feasibility of devising incentive programs in the academic community to:
 - Promote among academic librarians a spirit of constructive competition in the development of innovative applications of new technologies;
 - Encourage emerging entrepreneurial ideas and spirit to remain within the academic community;
 - Foster a spirit of collegial and community "ownership" of the profession;
 - Contribute to the upgrading of graduate education for librarianship by encouraging the membership to involve itself more actively in the accreditation process.
7. Promote development of new or alternative administrative structures responsive to current social and technical change.

8. Debate the merit of changing ACRL's name to the Association of College and Research Librarians.
9. In the area of graduate education and recruitment:
 - Communicate to the graduate library schools an accurate picture of the academic library's expectations regarding the quality of students recruited by the schools; encourage the schools to toughen both entrance and retention requirements and deny admittance to the unqualified;
 - Encourage its personal and institutional members to refuse to hire substandard applicants;
 - Work with professional societies, scholarly organizations, and college and university career counseling officers to promote the entrance of "the best and the brightest" into academic librarianship;
 - Work with ALISE and funding organizations to establish a systematic program of linking faculty and curricula to the working realities in the modern academic library.
10. Encourage its constituency to purchase standard bibliographic products and services (as a replacement for customized, in-house manufacture) and reallocate the released resources to service- and client-related functions.
11. Develop colloquia or workshops with a variety of academic constituencies to (1) convey the concept of the academic librarian's key roles in education, (2) increase institutional awareness of information systems costs and the fundamental unity of academic interests in maximizing access to information, (3) convey the essentiality of librarians' involvement in academic governance and academic program design; include constituencies such as:
 - Chief academic officers;
 - Directors of computer centers;
 - Academic planning officers;
 - Institutional business officers.
12. Promote cooperation among bibliographic and computing programs, resources and personnel; where possible, promote ultimate convergence and unification.
13. Maintain formal, active, direct liaison with organizations and societies having similar or related interests; for example:
 - American Federation of Information Processing Societies (AFIPS);
 - American Society for Information Science (ASIS);
 - Association for Image and Information Management (AIIM);
 - The Association for Information Management (ASLIB);
 - EDUCOM;
 - Office of Scholarly Communication and Technology (proposed as part of ACLS);
 - Society for Scholarly Publishing;
 - Standing Conference of National and University Libraries (SCONUL).
14. Maintain formal "conference watches" and "technology watches" in related areas; for example:
 - Direct marketing of databases to end users;
 - Electronic mail and facsimile transmission;
 - Electronic publishing;
 - Evolution and usage of online reference works;
 - Evolution of microcomputers and telecommunications technology;
 - Expert systems and Artificial Intelligence;
 - Management software;
 - Robotics;
 - World Conference on Computers in Education, Norfolk, Va., July 29-August 2, 1985.
15. Secure board or advisory committee memberships on organizations having related interests, e.g., Society for Scholarly Publishing.
16. Take a decisive stand on the MLS as one of the key entrance requirements in academic librarianship.
17. Continue its national conferences, special workshops, continuing education and publications program, focussing on such areas as:
 - Restructuring of the academic library;
 - Development of new (and/or improvement of existing) skills, knowledge, abilities, and attitudes related to librarians' managerial responsibilities (as distinct from their specialized academic expertise), e.g., development of financial management expertise, improvement of skills in oral and written communication, greater understanding of new technology.
18. Consider how ACRL might restructure itself to streamline the organization, possibly as one constituent of a national confederation of library associations, or, alternatively, as a stronger, more independent component of a single national association.

Reactions to "1985 to 1995: The Next Decade in Academic Librarianship," Parts I and II

Jane B. Robbins-Carter, Johannah Sherrer,
Deborah Jakubs, and Charles B. Lowry

REACTION FROM JANE B. ROBBINS-CARTER

Veener, rightly, I believe, begins his paper with a "cautions" section and reminds readers, "Modern life is a perpetual ferment of paradox and contradiction" (p.4). He further reminds us that though most prophecies end up somewhat off the mark, it is often possible to forward reasonable approximations of short-term futures. I commend Veener's broad-ranging paper for the many facets of today's roiling academic and technological environment that he attempts to settle as he relates them to changes in academic librarianship in the decade ahead. I believe he forecasts a probable and desirable future. His analysis deserves broad distribution and reasoned response. As but one reader, I have found very much in his paper about which to comment; however, I will limit my response to but two areas that he has addressed. The first is that of new or alternative administrative structures for academic library management, and the second is education for academic librarianship.

Governance in Academic Libraries

Veener correctly points out that many management scholars, consultants, and

practitioners believe that changes in the social and technological fabric of society, i.e., the developing information society, are signaling, if not requiring, that bureaucratic functional/hierarchical governance structures *must* be redesigned. Required are organizational structures that begin with a focus on outputs to be consumed (or even more challenging outcomes to be realized) through use of the library. Such a refocusing calls for academic librarians to boldly redesign the structures of our libraries. Many of us have blanched at criticisms laid by faculty advisory groups and public policy analysts, which inform us that from their perspectives it appears that libraries are structured principally for the convenience of librarians rather than users. (We blanch from these criticisms because we know that for the most part they contain an operative nucleus of accuracy.)

Our current functional structures organized around acquisition, cataloging, circulation, and reference, often overlaid with a form of material departmentalization, emphasize control of material over material use. We almost always argue that we must emphasize control because of future potential uses by others; we rarely place our priorities on service to those presently requiring the material. Public

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administration analysts would, I believe, argue that we have suboptimized the bibliographic control function to the detriment of the purpose of our libraries—information provision. Devising truly new organizational structures is not an easy task; however, if Veaner is right, as I fervently hope he is, that the production responsibilities in libraries will continue to be shifted to support personnel, we may somewhat more easily be released from our present organizational structures because professional librarians will no longer be doing the production work around which our libraries are focused. As Abell calls for, we should restructure our academic libraries to emphasize services related to disciplinary groupings. These groupings form the very basis of the organization of the academic environment in which the library is embedded. While academic librarians have claimed that they are closely allied with the faculty in the teaching and research mission of academe, our organizational structures have belied that alliance. We have structured our libraries more akin to the physical plant maintenance activities of universities than to teaching and research activities. The academic library structured around services to disciplines rather than around library functions would encourage the entrepreneurial attitudes claimed by Veaner to be important in the changing academic environment.

While Veaner states that "the governance issue . . . is far, far behind the role issue for librarians," I would argue that new structures may greatly facilitate, and in fact may be essential to accomplish role change for librarians. It will be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to foster productive competition and entrepreneurial attitudes if we maintain our present functional structures. Interaction with departmental faculty can be fostered by disciplinary-focused academic librarians in the area of bibliographic instruction. Such instruction should be offered through academic departments, which in my view is the *only* means by which truly meaningful bibliographic instruction can be accomplished. Librarians allied with

disciplines may also interact with faculty more readily through participation in the research process of individual faculty or faculty groups. Such interaction is presently militated against by our libraries' function-focused structures. Bold new disciplinary service organizational structures are required. It is ironic that the radical change in organizational structure that is required can be facilitated by the hierarchical bureaucracy that now permeates our libraries. What is required is the willingness of some few academic librarians to skillfully impose the needed organizational change. (This enforcement of an organizational structure, which requires team approaches to service-focused librarianship, is simply an illustration of the paradox and contradiction that Veaner claims permeates our times.)

Education for Academic Librarianship

I wish to begin this section of my response with a hearty endorsement of one of Veaner's recommendations in the area of graduate education. It calls for more open communication between teaching faculty and librarians. Veaner recommends that academic librarians work with ALISE (Association for Library and Information Science Education) and funding organizations to establish a systematic program of linking faculty and curricula to the working realities in the modern academic library. Such linkage has been addressed by ALISE through a policy statement and through an ACRL committee, but it needs to be pursued more aggressively. While I certainly understand the tension (some of which is very healthy for the profession) that arises between educators and practitioners, I believe we need to share with each other our knowledge and vision. Our dialogues need to be more clearly centered on sharing legitimate perspectives rather than casting blame for faults that are observed. Many of us are deeply committed to librarianship as a profession and I believe that with the aid of practitioners through guest lecturing, research activities, professional committee service, and a variety of other joint ac-

tivities we can make education for librarianship truly contributive to the goal of changing the practice of academic and research librarianship.

Many educators responsible for academic and research librarianship work diligently to remain abreast of the changes affecting the field. Due to the nature of the teaching profession, they are able to read extensively; further, they come into contact with a wide variety of support staff, from many different libraries, who have chosen to attend library school. They hear about the array of practices in the field as applied from the smallest academic libraries to the largest. They are, as are their practicing colleagues, frustrated by the cacophony of aspects impinging on the field and are very concerned about what is most important to teach to future professionals. The observed trend in curricular design is very much away from technique and production toward the conceptual and management concerns.

Many students come to our schools hoping to "hear the word" from the professoriate. They too become frustrated when they find that we teach for just those types of qualities that Veaner, Battin, and others call for, i.e., multiple working styles, flexibility and adaptability, knowledge of higher education, and even entrepreneurial attitudes. Some faculty plant seeds in students' minds that they might even practice academic librarianship from an academic departmental home rather than from a home in a library. (Such suggestions are embraced by very few; most of our students consider the "deinstitutionalization" of instruction, i.e., a focus on the provision of information services regardless of from where these services emerge, as rather a betrayal.) As Veaner contends, in periods of rapid change when even the short-range future is so uncertain, there is a tendency to entrench traditional views.

Despite very serious concerns related to the education of professional librarians, I believe that the most serious problem facing the field is not the education of professionals, because many changes have taken place, but rather the education of

support staff. Throughout his paper, Veaner again and again speaks of the changing nature of the work force in academic libraries:

The broad and general removal of production/manufacturing work from academic librarians is the most important change and the most valuable opportunity now before the ACRL community.

A major thrust of this paper is the contention that academic librarians' responsibilities have shifted heavily from production to management.

As technical work in library and information is increasingly offloaded to support staff. . . .

We seem to have returned in a significant way to the pre-twentieth-century condition when virtually all of the education for the *skill* level of librarianship takes place within our libraries. Surely, if professionals are no longer doing what they used to do but that related, now nonprofessional work still must be done, the professionals must be training the staff. Faculty have heard that today's academic librarians need knowledge of teaching techniques and adult learning theory in order to better design and deliver bibliographic instruction; however, little is said about these same skills in relation to the training of support staff.

ALA's "Library Education and Personnel Utilization" (LEPU) statement addresses support personnel including library associates, library technical assistants, and clerks. The category of support personnel to which growing and important work is being shifted is the library associate category. The educational requirement for this category is the "bachelor's degree (with or without course work in library science); or bachelor's degree plus additional academic work short of the master's degree." Most of our accredited educational programs are not designed to be consumed "in part" by those who do not intend to become professionals. If, indeed, our programs at the M.A. level have changed as is called for, very few of the courses should be relevant to support staff. While I have little doubt that the professional staff of academic libraries

are capable of training support staff, I fear that the time that they should be spending on interaction with faculty and students, i.e., the delivery of service, will be absorbed by the necessity to train support staff, once again turning our energies to the production function of the library, not its service function.

I believe the time has come to address seriously the question of the needed education of library support staff. Many professional fields have developed educational programs for support staff, e.g., dental hygienists, paralegals, physicians' assistants, and nurse practitioners. ALA's Office for Library Personnel Resources is presently conducting a review of the LPU statement. I trust that my concern is shared with a sufficient number of others and that educational programs for support staff will soon become a reality.

It has been said that the salutation "May you live in interesting times" is really a curse. We do live in most interesting times for librarians. Let us embrace them, take some risks, design more new organizational structures and instructional programs, and then evaluate what happens! If we do not do so aggressively, we have much to lose.

REACTION FROM JOHANNAH SHERRER

Veaner's View of the Future

Veaner's study presents provocative scenarios for academic librarianship over the course of the next ten years. His projections are low-key and somewhat conservative. The conservative tone is set by Veaner's balanced rational approach that in itself rejects wild futuristic projections. Because of this it is difficult to disagree in any significant measure with the overall content of this exploratory, broadly based composition.

Criticism could be leveled, however, at what was not examined in the study. One item absent was a reference to declining college enrollments and the effects this factor may have on the economic future of academic libraries. All change has finan-

cial implications. In libraries, the degree to which new technologies are incorporated will almost always have a relationship to the amount of available funding. The study of financial structures governing academic institutions and their libraries would be an appropriate activity in the upcoming decade. These structures vary in detail from institution to institution, and failing to address the problem at a local level will effect the thoughtful advancement of individual academic environments.

In addressing personnel issues in academic librarianship, especially those of derecruitment or outplacement, Veaner's perspective is not that of the "working librarian." Furthermore, he fails to address a growing problem throughout all of academia, specifically the declining mobility of its professional staff. The next ten years will continue to witness the lack of mobility among academic employees. Moreover, trends toward rigid tenure requirements may dissuade many from moving even when economic factors do not prohibit such attempts. Long-term employees may well be a phenomenon on the increase unless there is a significant change in economic factors such as interest rates and regular cost-of-living enhancements. Emphasis on hiring only superbly qualified individuals will not be a sufficient solution to this problem unless there is managerial talent prepared to create and monitor an environment that encourages professional growth.

Veaner states that "every institution has a social obligation to long-term employees." He goes on to imply that the principle challenge of this obligation is a financial one in terms of encouraging early retirement or other "buy out" plans. Most "working librarians" would probably disagree and assert that the principle challenge is in locating talented, creative administrators who recognize that obligations to long-term employees include creating a challenging and satisfying work environment where daily problems are confronted directly. At any rate, ineffectual managers, however skilled they may be in campus politics and public relations, must be prepared to acknowledge

responsibility for creative, positive management maneuvers that enhance productivity rather than stymie it.

Veaner's emphasis on derecruitment of "deadwood" presents a rather flippant analogy to weeding personnel as one would weed books. Veaner states that the profession has no mechanism in place for derecruitment or outplacement and further suggests that it would be difficult, perhaps impossible, for ACRL to enter into this area. Mechanisms, however, do exist for this problem but, as in other areas of academe, they are rarely employed. The mechanisms are routine evaluation procedures, and ACRL could be of enormous assistance by providing written guidelines that define levels of performance in academic librarianship.

Successes and Difficulties in Academic Librarianship

The key to success in librarianship rests in the ability to be flexible, objective, and comfortable in continually reassessing decisions and professional commitments. These components will permit the widest possible margin of success. Veaner's view that academic librarians have embraced innovations far more rapidly than other members of academe is an accurate one. The real challenge lies in persuading academic administrators that the viability of their libraries is dependent on change and the wise incorporation of appropriate technological innovations. While university administrations strive to endorse funding for research and development, endorsing the same concept in the development of library services has not been eagerly embraced. Because of these factors, only a few institutions will progress successfully to the fullest extent possible during the next ten years. Yet, as we have seen in the previous ten years, the practical assimilation of computerized bibliographical utilities and products will progress steadily in all academic libraries. Examples of additional successes will be continued efforts at networking, technology adaptation, and increasingly effective marketing of library services. Failures in academic librarianship will continue in the same areas that have always been weak or

ambiguous. The areas of faculty status, the role of the academic librarian, and personnel management may well go unresolved.

In summary, Veaner suggests that achievements in academic librarianship will continue to occur in those areas that have a history of success. He is less sanguine about areas that are currently weak or ambiguous. In fact, his reluctance to postulate a resolution on issues such as faculty status and role clarification is an acknowledgment not only of the difficulties inherent in the issues themselves, but also an acknowledgement of concern as to the probability of ACRL successfully grappling with these significant problem issues in the near future. How truly significant it would be if academic librarianship could gain measurable strides in just one of these weak or ambiguous areas. To succeed in areas of strength is usually far less significant than succeeding in areas of known weaknesses.

The Knowledge Role

The "knowledge role" has always existed among academic librarians. It has been most visible among librarians engaged in reference services and collection development activities. It has gained recent status in the professional literature primarily due to the decrease of professional involvement in technical service activity. Is the "knowledge" role *more* important in the upcoming decade than in past decades? I think not. It has always been acutely important, but its function is perhaps now more noticeable and professionally attractive to promote.

Current Functions and Future Requirements

Academic librarians will adjust easily and eagerly to the new skills and requirements needed for the successful implementation of improved library services. The structure for such an occurrence is already in place. We have a body of literature that can be expanded, tightened, enhanced, or revised as we wish. The key issue is that a body of literature does exist and its writings do project an image and to

a great degree reveal our own perception of our role.

Our professional association is a vocal one and one that endeavors to appeal to the working librarian. With this orientation it has the ability to garner strong grass-roots support and represent a wide, all-encompassing base.

ACRL's strong stand on quality continuing education provides a mechanism for professionals to acquire needed skills or information pertaining to new trends in the field. This emphasis also serves as a constant reminder that we each have a professional obligation to continually enhance our own professional growth and development.

We have a body of literature, a strong professional association, an acknowledged dependence on quality continuing education, and a belief that collegial communication through meetings, workshops, and informal get togethers can foster continued growth and development. We will be held in check primarily by the cumbersome, broader organizational framework that generally characterizes academic institutions of higher education. This check should serve also as our challenge. The ability to persuade our academic colleagues that they need access to creative library services will help. Our ability to justify this role will depend entirely on those of us working directly with the library users. We need to present the working librarian as a broadly educated, well-read, articulate professional with sound communication abilities.

REACTION FROM DEBORAH JAKUBS

Librarians are facing a crisis and a challenge in the decade ahead. Changes in our environment are forcing us to do what Allen Veaner has done: to look long and hard at our goals and our roles in order to seize the opportunities that technology and changes in patterns of scholarship and the organization of knowledge are offering. It is a critical time to aim to improve our image and status as individuals and as a group. We are faced with an opportunity

to innovate, to add layers of complexity to our tasks, as well as to reaffirm our traditional role, thus renewing the spirit of the profession.

Allen Veaner's article provides much food for thought. I agree generally with his view of the future for librarians, but I would like to stress that most of his conclusions are predicated on a few very basic changes that must come about before we are able to accept the new responsibilities he foresees for the coming decade. I will focus my comments on those fundamental changes. The first and most important change must take place in the internal and external image of the librarian. We must clarify our identity, as individuals and as a profession, if we are to meet the approaching challenges. If we are to expand our skills as Veaner suggests, we must welcome innovation in both the technological and organizational spheres of our professional lives and call attention to our ability to handle it. This implies that we must, in effect, do more than keep up with change; we should anticipate it and initiate it.

Veaner calls attention to the "fuzzy image" of librarians. I would add that we are often taken for granted within the university, where the primary players are generally perceived to be faculty and students. We are partly at fault for this low visibility. It is significant that we find it necessary to compare ourselves with faculty. It is as if we had no internal model, no professional definition (other than the M.L.S., and that degree is not always a consistent criterion), for what it takes, what it means to be a librarian. I would venture to say that it is a lack of confidence—maybe not always overt, perhaps only nagging, but persistent nonetheless—in our role and worth in the research community that drives us to seek our model in the faculty. We must, in the decade ahead, give ourselves credit, make it clear first to ourselves, then to others, that we *like* our jobs, we have chosen to be librarians, and we have important skills to share. We do not wish to be compared with faculty (though we may envy their economic benefits and summers off), nor should we be. While our jobs both require serious intellectual effort, they are also very different. As a colleague put it,

"If we wanted to be faculty, we would *be* faculty." The fact is that we have chosen to be librarians, and although faculty are our closest models, it does not benefit us to be compared to them or to imagine ourselves to be in their shadow.

Publishing serious scholarly work should continue to be an important factor in evaluating librarians, but again, our situation differs significantly from that of faculty. Most of us hold full-time jobs and are not expected or encouraged to carry out research and writing on "company time," whereas writing is a part of a professor's daily routine. How can we incorporate research and writing officially into our positions? What about allowing sabbaticals for librarians, or making formal acknowledgement of the need to publish? Perhaps we should review the criteria we use to determine the quality of a librarian's performance to determine the importance of publishing as compared with other standards.

Work on changing our self-image should begin in the library schools. I wholeheartedly agree with Veaner that there must be improvement in graduate library education before we will be up to meeting the challenges of the next decade. The library profession should be concerned about attracting bright and dynamic individuals with well-developed interpersonal skills who are seeking a library degree because they are actively attracted to the job of librarian, not merely because they like to read or "enjoy books." Ours should not be perceived as a passive profession. Similarly, the library school curriculum should be revised to reflect the "competencies" Veaner has emphasized, incorporating the rigor necessary to make it a truly professional program of study. We should stress management and analytical skills as well as technological foresight, all of which will be required of successful librarians in the future.

To change our external image successfully will require the education of faculty and administrators. Let's face it: many, if not most faculty members have but a slight grasp of the complexity, bibliographic and otherwise, of library work. Their main concern when it comes to the

library is that the librarians have anticipated their research needs, already have ordered the appropriate materials, and have them available on the shelf. This is, of course, a legitimate desire and one that a good collection development librarian should aim to fulfill. But those research needs are rapidly changing and are no longer restricted to books. Librarians have a larger role to play (as Veaner indicates) as intermediaries, teachers, and interpreters. We should turn the needs of our patrons to our advantage and equip ourselves with the knowledge to satisfy their demands. The process of educating faculty must be conducted one-on-one. Few faculty members are interested in attending meetings to learn about the library's functions. They are primarily interested in what can help them specifically, in learning what they need to know to take the next step in their research, to get books ordered for reserves, etc. Our goal then is to accept both the "traditional" and "knowledge" roles (as Veaner describes them) with confidence. It is to understand and anticipate patrons' needs and to display our knowledge and abilities as part of our job. Faculty respond well to librarians they respect and trust to interpret their work, and news travels fast within academic departments. Patrons, especially faculty, can be both our worst detractors and our most loyal and vocal supporters. In the chain of educating the university community about the library and librarians, this kind of direct communication with faculty, whether it involves consulting on the value of adding a periodical title to the collection or discussing the features of a new database, is the strongest link.

One further point on our image: the library and the librarian are more constant than the faculty in the life of the university. It is not true that librarians do not teach useful skills. In many cases, in fact, students learn from librarians skills upon which they will rely throughout their lives (in contrast with some of what they may learn in class). Thus, the librarian can play a critical role in the university and should be encouraged to pursue broader involvement in the institution. This may include participating in university-wide commit-

tees, not only those with direct relevance for the library. We are in an excellent position to learn daily about the educational process at our respective institutions through formal and informal relationships. We must take the initiative to make worthwhile contributions of our ideas and energy to the university.

Consistent external support is another precondition for the implementation of Veaner's ideas and predictions. If we succeed at educating faculty and administrators, we are opening lines of communication that will facilitate our securing that support. Without that assistance, librarians will have a difficult time adapting to what will be required of them. Librarians have many good ideas; many may already have anticipated Veaner's predictions, at least in their minds or even on paper. But these ideas will not reach fruition and will result only in frustration if the university administration is not sympathetic to them and convinced of the necessity of their implementation. A good example is the closer relationship Veaner envisions between the library and the university computation center. It is almost certain that many of the same questions are debated and discussed across campus in different forums. If it were possible to forge the links Veaner describes and coordinate the efforts of various groups, foremost among them the library, much energy could be re-directed and the library would be drawn into university decision making, as it should be.

Just as educating faculty and administrators is not an easy task, Veaner's call to "restructure the academic library" will take time. If it is true that change comes slowly to the university, it comes even more slowly to the library. We have a lot of organizing to do in our workplaces to devise and agree on joint goals and to convince our colleagues throughout the library of the need for restructuring. Overcoming departmentalization will not be easy. Veaner's article might have benefited from more attention to technical services librarians and what they can expect during the next decade. Except for a few references to catalogers, his "academic librarian" seems to resemble more closely

an individual working in public services. Additional discussion of the necessary interaction between technical and public services in meeting the challenges of the future would have clarified the specifics of the challenge he foresees. Shared goals, improved communication, and an open attitude toward change are only a few of the prerequisites for the adaptations Veaner has identified as likely to face us in the coming decade.

In short, we are facing a set of challenges that require that we overcome what might be called an "identity crisis" if we are to meet them. The preconditions for our succeeding are few but critical. Librarians must work to become more confident as individuals and as a profession. We must forge direct, collegial relationships with faculty, administrators, and other patrons, educating them to the problems and potential of the library. At the same time, we must seek tangible support for the technological growth and staff training that will be required. It is not only the library but the university as a whole that will be experiencing change, and librarians have a large and critical role to play in that process. We should begin now to organize ourselves to meet the challenges that Veaner has described.

REACTION FROM CHARLES B. LOWRY

In the welter of concern about the role of academic librarianship in the "electronic" libraries of the future, Allen Veaner identifies the extreme positions and provides a balanced and insightful analysis of the forces that we face. He rightly rejects what might be called the "Jeremiah position" that librarianship is doomed as a discipline and profession or the "Pollyanna position" that we shall move into the future by just doing the same old things better. He provides a concrete set of actions to be taken by individual academic librarians and in concert through their primary professional organization, the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL). This is not some middle-ground compromise but a lucid vision for action. The fact

remains that this is an important paper that should be read again and again. Moreover, it should be acted upon.

Veaner's paper is divided into two parts and includes a series of recommendations to ACRL. Part I deals with the context, fundamental changes, and possible futures for librarianship and Part II with the knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes that will be required of individual librarians over the decade from 1985 to 1995. One should remember that the context of the paper is the academic library, and that many of its prescriptions are relevant only in that context. Nonetheless, the analysis is frequently applicable to librarians in other types of libraries.

Veaner's premise is that libraries will continue to exist, whatever they are called, and will house both print and electronic formats. But fundamental changes occurring in information technology will dictate a transformation. In some ways the electronic information of the future will be more difficult for the end user to access because of its "invisibility," its technological base requiring systems knowledge, its quality of being reorganizable, and its costliness. Given these conditions, librarians, by whatever name, will be the "expert intermediaries in the research process." They are "capable of complementing faculty through several invaluable roles: research colleague, bibliographic expert, system manager, and information system instructor."

Veaner touches on the need for the librarian to develop links between information systems by working with technologists. There is great opportunity here. For instance, some of the best integrated library automation comes from systems developed in academic libraries. Because technologists who develop information systems rarely have the background to deal with the world of researchers who use those systems, academic librarians must associate themselves as closely as possible with technologists, especially in the computer center, and librarians will perforce continue playing the key role of interpreting those systems to end users who are unlikely to develop the requisite expertise.

The related question of whether new information technologies are available for free is really a straw man issue. Of course they are not, but the issue is whether cost will be directly charged to patrons or budgeted in some other way. A new kind of financial accountability will arise from these circumstances. However, Veaner does not adequately address the conundrum that results when the network or commercial vendor tries to secure its fiscal future through attempts to control information by controlling the "package" it is in. For instance, OCLC's copyright does not apply to the data itself but to the format. ALA has appointed a task force on this issue. ACRL should likewise take concrete action with regard to the uses of copyright.

Librarianship is above all an intellectual enterprise involving people, physical resources, and a communication system. As such it is a discipline unlike others in academe. Given this fact, its role in academe must be articulated and secured. In part this can be accomplished by enhancing the value of the MLS through several measures: strengthening curricula, recruiting the "best and brightest" students, and expanding study to two full years. However, this work will not be successful unless the image, status, and pay of academic librarians is commensurate with their role, and Veaner prescribes steps which we must take to achieve this end. Among these, cooperation with other learned societies is an excellent idea, but changing attitudes at grass roots, especially those of our local faculty, are essential. Likewise, programs to educate academic administrators are essential to combat misperceptions of librarians. The *Alliance for Excellence* pointed to this need in the K-12 sector. It is equally important in postsecondary education. In higher education, administrators generally are trained in specific subject disciplines and rise through the professorial ranks to administrative positions. It is not surprising then that their view of what a library is or should be is largely determined by the experiences they had in graduate school or as an academic teacher and researcher. The work of broadening this perspective will fall most heavily on

the chief library administrator. But individual librarians must act in ways that are proactive and demonstrate the value of their role while understanding that library faculty will be distinguished by the very nature of their activities from their teaching colleagues.

The idea that management is supplanting production in librarianship is a key idea in Veaner's analysis and is probably correct. He believes that the application of technology (particularly automation) and standardization in libraries transforms the work of librarians in two ways. The traditional "production" work is "off-loaded" to clerical staff simply because it has become routine. This trend will continue and accelerate, leaving librarians the dual responsibility of managing the use and development of information systems that will require both intellectual and fiscal management skills. Equally important will be the management of staff who are assuming the more routine but technology-based work of libraries. However, the paper is too sanguine in its estimates of the effects this will have on the profession. It will take longer than ten years for library schools to transform curricula and provide the "intellectual" skills and training required and even longer for the job advertisements for library faculty to reflect these requirements instead of "production" skills.

Veaner has prepared eighteen well-constructed recommendations for ACRL that provide a plan of action designed (1) to assure that the role and status of librarians are clearly understood in the academic community, (2) to provide the "best and brightest" librarians to fulfill that critical role, and (3) to ensure the centrality of librarianship to the teaching and research missions of postsecondary education. Certainly, each of these recommendations can be effective if supported by an appropriate plan of action. However, it will be no easy task for ACRL to secure organizational and fiscal support for this agenda. Veaner has in fact pointed out a serious obstacle. "In many ways ACRL represents the ultimate in professional fragmentation so characteristic of librarianship. The *ALA Handbook of Organization*

for 1983-84 reveals that ACRL is comprised of nearly 250 separately identifiable units."

This commentary has supported Allen Veaner's assessment of our present situation, vision of the future, and recommendations for action. In concluding, the author would suggest several additional but related recommendations for ACRL: (1) Centrifugal forces have been unleashed by the database copyright issue. ACRL should actively participate in this debate and develop a coherent position that does more than merely state the problem. The ACRL position should be aimed at defusing the copyright issue in order to maintain the invaluable resource-sharing system represented by networks. (2) Veaner emphasized the need to diversify and strengthen graduate training in librarianship. ACRL should also find ways to encourage the retraining of librarians in the field. Workshops and symposia are important in this process, but library schools can play a significant role as a resource for retraining. (3) Veaner wishes librarians to increase their research and publication activity. Similarly, he has called for them to involve themselves with technologists in providing innovation in information systems. It is clear that grants are the lifeblood of research and publication in many subject disciplines. Significant resources for research need to be available to librarians as well. ACRL should find ways to provide grant money for original research that will help librarians to develop new information delivery systems and interfaces between those that do exist (whether manual or electronic). (4) Veaner suggests that ACRL should change its name to the Association of College and Research Librarians. This he rightly believes will place the organization in the same stance as the scholarly associations in the subject disciplines. This recommendation arises from the fact that librarians are too often associated with buildings, equipment, and collections rather than librarianship. True though this may be, academic libraries will continue to be the vehicle through which librarianship supports the research and teaching functions. It is important that ACRL support adequate funding of li-

braries by setting in motion a mechanism for continued revision of the standards for college and junior college libraries. Moreover, these standards should be seriously adopted by higher education in general as benchmarks of library service and should result in funding when they reveal inadequacy. ACRL should also encourage regional accrediting agencies to use such standards or develop standards of their

own. We should not underestimate the significance of the effect that standards can have on the debate over resource allocation in our colleges and universities. It is clear that academic administrators take seriously the requirements of accrediting agencies in the subject disciplines, and ACRL standards may do the same for libraries.

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Memory Skills: Whose Concern?

David Fraser

Educators are now concerned that modern generations of students are not yet prepared with the memory skills for processing aural and visual information, let alone the information contained in books. Research on various memory skills when tried with various media may reveal effective ways to transfer not only fleeting aural and visual information but the time-honored printed word as well. The question is, "Which strategies are the most effective in processing which media?" Since a great deal of memorizing takes place in libraries, librarians are in a good position to study this question and, perhaps, to contribute to what little is known about the effectiveness of individual memory strategies during the transfer process. The author suggests that librarians extend their interests beyond material and electronic processing to include the processing of information in human memory.



Who should be undertaking scientific research on memory skills? First of all, who might be helped by the results of such research? Students and professional scholars, of course, ought to be helped by the results. Findings may suggest new and improved ways to present, study, and mentally process information. Whose concern is it, then, to conduct the research that might help people improve their mental information processing skills? Educators? Psychologists? Communications experts? Yes, all of them, and one more group—librarians. Why librarians?

Traditionally librarians are seen in our society as responsible for material information processing, even though admittedly we do little more than store and retrieve information.¹ Yet, despite the outward success of librarians in the practice of information processing, the profession has been roundly criticized over the years as lacking in theories of processing.² In answer to this criticism, scholar Manfred Kochen has maintained that "a new intellectual discipline seems to be in the making: it is the study of processes by

which knowledge grows."³ Regrettably, this engaging concept has not been articulated much beyond the suggestion that it is "concerned with the lawful regularities governing the acquisition of information and its transformation into knowledge."⁴ Kochen has called this fledgling discipline "Epistodynamics," presumably, "ways of knowing." Another prominent thinker, Jesse Shera, caught a glimpse of the same concept when he introduced his theory of "Social Epistemology," which has as its focus "the production, flow, integration, and consumption of all forms of communicated thought."⁵ Not until the recent emergence of "The Information Society," have academicians recognized that the information professions are based upon a concrete body of theory, albeit one shared by other disciplines. This body of theory consists of what we know (and have yet to find out) about the various processes information undergoes, including its initial expression, its presentation through diverse media, its physical and intellectual control, its dissemination and accessibility, its comprehension by the curious, its acquisition and retention in hu-

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man memory, and its persistence over time.⁶ Theories about information processing, both material processing and mental processing, are the very bases not only of education, psychology, and communications but of librarianship and information science as well. Yet, while librarians seem versed in material processing (classifying, indexing, and searching), it is hard to imagine librarians as theorists in mental information processing—unless one considers the librarian's counseling function.

Counseling mental information processing, however, has long been thought the province of educators, psychologists, and communications experts. And with good reason. These practitioners boast good track records in helping people find ways to improve their abilities to process information. Educators, for instance, are presently raising questions about the effects of individual differences on the mental approach a person might bring to information processing tasks.⁷ Among psychologists today, fresh interest in the mysteries of the mind has fostered a new branch of investigation, one which unreservedly opens the "black boxes" of our brains to speculate how they work—how they acquire, organize, and process information, how they commit material to memory.⁸ Communications experts have long shown an interest in improving the processes by which information reaches people's memories. They are concerned that if the medium through which a particular message is presented turns out to be hard to process, the message may never reach its intended audience.⁹ Are librarians also in a position to counsel people on ways to process information mentally? Are we librarians needed in the investigation of problems related to mental information processing?

Problems today may require "team" solutions. Concern over the flagging ability of today's students to process and retain information has led to studies of our educational system, particularly regarding its effectiveness in preparing students to cope in an "information society." Critic Neil Postman observes that "schools are still promoting the idea that the main source of wisdom is to be found in li-

braries."¹⁰ From this assumption follows that the main *medium* for conveying wisdom is still the written word, and, further, that the main *process* for acquiring wisdom is still, of course, reading. Yet recent research indicates that the vast majority of young generations in this country demonstrate "very few skills for examining the nature of the ideas they take away from their reading," and investigators are urging educators to begin preparing students to function in a society where information and its management are linked to spoken and pictorial media as well.¹¹ Most teachers, however, still seem to be convinced that literacy is the richest source of information, even in face of the fact that modern generations are spending billions of dollars a year on radios, records, and videos, and spending equal billions of hours in front of TV sets. Both formal surveys and casual observation confirm that enormous numbers of Americans today obtain their daily information *not* primarily from reading, but rather from tuning into the aural and visual sources of radio and television.¹² In a given day, for example, most people devote from 42 to 48 percent of their time to listening and viewing, and only 10 to 15 percent to reading.¹³

If it is true that we modern generations obtain much of our information from sources other than printed media, then what skills do we have at our disposal for remembering aural and visual information? How do we *learn* to listen, and how do we *learn* to observe? Does today's student know how to "memorize" such information as might be contained in "that required 'Cosmos' episode on last night?" Many of us are seemingly so inept at aural and visual retention that we are unable to remember last night's TV program the following day—even if we wanted to.¹⁴ Each medium of communication, written, spoken, or pictorial, contains a unique metaphysic—each medium makes special kinds of claims on our senses and, therefore, on our various processing skills.¹⁵ If we were to discover what we do wrong in the listening and viewing processes, if we were to develop specific memory skills to strengthen our listening and viewing comprehension, perhaps then we would

have a better chance of recalling last night's fleeting aural and visual information.

Reading itself, when one comes to think of it, is really an aural process.¹⁶ Most of us deal with written information by *speaking* the words to ourselves internally as we read along.¹⁷ (Right now, if you are saying these very words silently to yourself, you are living proof that at least some of us subvocalize as we read.) So, since some of us convert the sight of a word to its corresponding sound before processing it, the act of reading should probably be studied as a form of *listening*. Perhaps our brains prefer to deal with the *sounds* of words (either sounds heard aloud or sounds reported silently), and may have difficulty processing written information from just the *sights* of words alone.¹⁸ Our memory for written information, then, might actually be *aural* memory! That this could be possible is the subject of continual debate, especially among teachers of elementary reading.¹⁹ Presently the swing between theories of early reading seems to be away from the "whole-word" sight method back towards the "letter-by-letter" phonic method, so that listening skills are now being emphasized by some teachers more than visual recognition skills.²⁰ Another instance of our apparent reliance on listening skills is the common phenomenon of near-deaf persons' speaking loudly. Perhaps they do so *not* because they think others are unable to hear, but rather because they have trouble *listening* to their own voices. Carrying this line of speculation further, if we do not possess strategies for listening to what our subvocal voices recite as we scan the printed page (if we are in fact capable of reading and listening at the same time), our chances of remembering what we have read may be very slim indeed.

There must be ways to form durable remembrances of information even when it is only quickly read or momentarily heard or seen. By designing experiments to test the effectiveness of various strategies for processing various media, we may strike upon new models for mastering information, not only when it is presented through written texts, but also when it ap-

pears in the increasingly popular, but inherently ephemeral, spoken and pictorial forms.

One approach to exploring how people might create "durable remembrances of information" whether presented in writing, speech, or picture, is to review what we know about the development of memory and to rethink the basic principles of successful memorization. What is it that makes a piece of information "stick" in memory? How does one go about developing "a well-stocked mind?" Too often we hear college graduates say they wish they could go back to school. They say that with what they know now, they would get *more* out of college. What do they know now that they didn't know before? One explanation is they simply know more about how their memory works.²¹ Perhaps over the years they have acquired a variety of memory techniques and strategies that had not occurred to them earlier in life. Psychologists say that "the main difference between young children and mature memorizers is the tendency to employ a variety of mnemonic strategies whenever feasible."²² When most of us are confronted by the task of studying and memorizing an entirely new piece of information—for instance an historical event, or a scientific formula, or the elements of a literary plot—we apparently either search in prior memory for something similar with which to associate the new information, or we concoct some kind of memory strategy, verbal or visual, clever or mundane, by which that unfamiliar new material can not only be initially processed, but be "permanently" retained and readily recalled.²³ Mature learners realize how to improve memory by linking new information to old information already stored in long-term memory.²⁴ Quite simply, they have developed what Alfred Binet (of Stanford-Binet-aptitude-test fame) calls "mnemonic virtuosity." A person who has built a repertory of mnemonic strategies can probably memorize information faster and remember it longer than a person to whom the thought of using memory strategies has never occurred. And it stands to reason that certain memory strategies might work better

than others in memorizing information from certain kinds of media. That these simple but intriguing phenomena may be true is a presumption requiring investigation.

"No two people think alike." This may be just another way of saying not everyone approaches the acquisition of information in quite the same way. We all seem to have our own processing preferences and rely on those preferred ways out of habit.²⁵ Persons who can readily process everything they read, for example, may have difficulty processing information they either hear or observe. And vice versa. Are the memory strategies we employ for processing textual information the same ones we should actively use when we want to remember what is being said in an important meeting or to recall the images we are watching in a special TV program? When we set out to commit material to memory, what are the memory strategies we might apply to the challenge? Do some strategies work for us individually while other strategies fail? Could there, in fact, be certain "right" types of memory strategies that would be particularly effective for us when matched to particular media—one group of strategies, perhaps, for verbal media and another type for pictorial media? If so, can these "right strategies" be articulated and classified for discussion and testing?

More importantly, why is it that, even when we think to employ memory strategies, not all of us experience improved memory performance?²⁶ Could it be we sometimes select an inappropriate memory strategy for the medium at hand? Can our information processing abilities be enhanced, perhaps, by our knowing which memory strategy to employ for the particular medium we are faced with? For example, when it comes to written media, one person may read a paragraph of text and *vocalize* the material either aloud or silently, thereby fixing the information in mind as a series of mental phonemes. This act of rehearsing is still the most common strategy for rote memory work from written media.²⁷ A second person may read the same information and choose instead to *visualize* pictures from the written mate-

rial in order to represent them in memory as a series of mental images.²⁸ Many artists report a facility for creating mental pictures from words. A third person might process the same information by forming images of the words and sentences themselves. This seems to be a popular choice of speed-readers, note takers, and people with "photographic memories."²⁹ If the target information were to have been presented through either a spoken or pictorial medium rather than a written one, the choice between processing strategies, either vocalizing or visualizing, would have been the same. The key question is worth repeating: "Which set of strategies, vocalization or visualization, might be the most effective for the medium at hand?"

Discovering the whole answer, if there is one, would involve isolating and testing all the independent variables that affect human cognition and memorization, including not only various memory strategies and media, but also variations in the meaningfulness of target information, differences in sensory astuteness from one individual to another, the influence of settings other than the laboratory, and the choices resulting simply from personal preferences. Isolating two sets of variables, "different kinds of memory strategies" and "different kinds of media," however, may be a good way to begin.

Perhaps the first step in investigating the relationships between memory strategies and media would be to explore people's memorizing behavior while they are in the process of mastering information from different modes of presentation. The hope would be to identify unusual strategies of individual invention (which might later be classified into distinct categories along with strategies already known). Then we might test these categories of memory strategies in experiments designed to determine their relative effectiveness on human memory when information is presented through various written, spoken, and pictorial forms. The significance of this kind of research lies in the chance we might discover which combinations of memory strategy and medium *facilitate* the transfer of information into memory and prolong its retention

there. Correlations of memory strategies with media could point up unusually effective processing combinations, or what might be called "distinctive styles of studying." For example, one style of studying might be to apply a visualization strategy in memorizing information from a written medium. Another possibility would be to employ a vocalization strategy with certain pictorial media. And so on. Our eventual ability to recommend alternative styles of studying to individual learners promises to give new importance to the counseling of study habits.

Still, what does all this have to do with librarians? Some library educators have realized that counseling study habits is one of the fundamental concerns of the profession.³⁰ This impression has been substantiated by research in the field.³¹ A recent survey conducted at Haverford College, for example, shows that the library there functions primarily as a study hall!³² Of the 761 users in the Haverford sample, 425 entered the library for the express purpose of studying their own books. This should come as no surprise. After all, scholarship begins with study and memory work, and libraries are generally conducive surroundings for those purposes. The use of libraries for memory work has gradually placed a special educational responsibility on librarians—that of "tutor" or "learners' advisor."³³

Why should we librarians be concerned

about the development of memory skills? Research on memory skills involves asking not so much about *how* the mind works (this question is being addressed by cognitive scientists), but rather about *what makes* the mind work, a question for information scientists. Call it "epistemodynamics," or "social epistemology," or "information science," we librarians should be as much concerned about people's abilities to process information as we are about people's abilities to find it, especially if we intend to tutor and advise learners on their approaches to studying. If we are to help people develop effective study skills, we too should join in the research on human information processing and experiment with various vocalization and visualization memory strategies ourselves.³⁴

In a larger sense, if information professionals are able to teach students how to try different memory strategies with different media on their own until they strike upon the most effective combinations for themselves in particular, then at least we shall have helped them become aware of the range of studying styles at their disposal. Perhaps if they reach this stage of self-awareness they will be demonstrating the very skills our nation's educational watchdogs sense are necessary for "examining the nature of ideas," whether those ideas come from books or from the more popular media of radio and television.

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Humor in the Classroom: Implications for the Bibliographic Instruction Librarian

Barbara MacAdam

As the theoretical foundations of bibliographic instruction are examined increasingly in the context of learning theory and teaching methods, comparisons with the classroom environment found in academic settings are inevitable. The specific role of humor in the college classroom and its effect upon both learning and the communicative climate has been of interest to educational researchers, producing a concomitant body of literature. Characteristics peculiar to the bibliographic instruction classroom suggest that humor may have special benefits when employed by the librarian involved in user education. However, research studies indicate the need to take a second look at assumptions about the results of humor in the college classroom, particularly in the context of bibliographic instruction program objectives.



The role of user education programs in academic libraries of all sorts has become so soundly advocated and widely analyzed in recent years that bibliographic instruction as a concept hardly needs defending. Further, in actual practice, it would probably be difficult to find an academic library in the United States that was not presently engaged in some activity falling under the broad umbrella of user education. Literature, however, dealing specifically with teaching methods and learning theory as they relate to the librarian in the classroom has been less widely available until recently. The landmark work of Oberman and Strauch, *Theories of Bibliographic Education*, surveyed and analyzed, for the first time in depth, the theoretical foundations of bibliographic instruction in relation to conceptual frameworks of learning and teaching.¹

Still virtually unexamined in any detail are the personal characteristics of the

teaching librarian as they come into play in the classroom, and how these characteristics influence learning. Humor as an acceptable tool in teaching carries the advantage of expressing the personality of the teacher as well as functioning as a method of communication. Further, certain elements peculiar to the bibliographic instruction classroom combine with an increasingly substantive body of research on humor in teaching to make an analysis of the role of humor in library instruction both interesting and timely.

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION IN THE ACADEMIC SETTING

To accept the validity of the humor-related educational literature applied to user education, one must understand the role of the teaching librarian and how it is both similar and dissimilar to the situation encountered by the nonlibrarian faculty. Beaubien, Hogan, and George describe the classroom lecture as the most common

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form of bibliographic instruction with its foundations in academic tradition:

The single live lecture is by far the most prevalent form or mode of bibliographic instruction in an academic setting. No doubt this is due to the age-old prevalence of the lecture in education generally as the traditional method of group instruction.²

They continue to emphasize that "ease in designing and delivering an effective single lecture is one of the most important skills needed for any public service library professional."³

The implication is clear that the teaching librarian shares the classroom experience with his/her nonlibrarian faculty counterpart and needs similar teaching skills. However, the emphasis on the single live presentation, christened the "one-shot," distinguishes in a fundamental way the difference between bibliographic instruction and the normal college course. In a one-hour presentation there is no period of adjustment for the librarian and student to form an ongoing relationship of mutual trust and rapport. Opportunity for follow-up on the material presented is limited or nonexistent, and the instructional objectives must be accomplished within a single, fifty-minute block of time. Paradoxically, however, the librarian who is likely to have only one opportunity at this single encounter with students probably has concrete goals for the class session in order to rate it a success. So in a sense the teaching librarian is under even greater pressure than the history professor to create in short order a communicative environment that will enhance learning while having a much more limited opportunity to do so.

Additional burdens may hamper the librarian teaching one-shot lectures. In the context of pressure to meet self-imposed standards requisite for a productive class session, the librarian may find tension created from continuously teaching "strangers" intensifies as the number of classes increases in the successful bibliographic instruction program. Further, if a bulk of classes are taught to similar groups of students (i.e., freshman English), the poten-

tial is high for a sense of stressful tedium or burnout. These pitfalls for the teaching librarian argue all the more for teaching methods outside of sheer content that aid both the librarian and student in creating a positive and interesting learning environment. Of the many devices a teacher can employ to add interest, spontaneity, enjoyment, and warmth to the classroom, few are as widely palliative for both teacher and student as humor.

OBJECTIVES OF BIBLIOGRAPHIC INSTRUCTION IN THE ACADEMIC SETTING

Working within the constructs described above, the bibliographic instruction librarian practices his/her craft with certain generally accepted goals:

- Providing students with an introduction to the basic principles of library research;
- Introducing students to the range and utility of the resources available in the academic library;
- Orienting students to the organization and physical plant of the library in terms of the principles of research;
- Inculcating a positive attitude on the part of students toward the library, the research process, and the librarian as professional.

With these objectives in mind, we can categorize them more generally as: (1) transmission of specific information, (2) increase in cognitive skills, and (3) attitude change or formation. Expressed in this fashion, humor can be analyzed in terms of its facilitating effect in accomplishing these objectives. Thus the questions the librarian who intentionally or spontaneously finds him/herself using humor in the college classroom will want to answer are:

1. Does humor have a positive or negative effect on the learning environment?
2. To what extent is humor employed in the college classroom?
3. Does humor enhance or impede retention of information?
4. What effect does humor have upon the listener's perception of the speaker?

POSITIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND THE BIBLIOGRAPHIC INSTRUCTION CLASSROOM

Since Aristotle, thinkers and writers exploring the nature of communication have examined the elements that create an environment conducive to effective communication. Gilbert Highet, describing humor as one of the most important qualities of a good teacher, explains its relation to creating an atmosphere in which teacher and student work in unity toward the goals of thinking and learning:

When a class and its teacher all laugh together, they cease for a time to be separated by individuality, authority, and age. They become a unit, feeling pleasure and enjoying the shared experience. If that community can be prolonged or reestablished, and applied to the job of thinking, the teacher will have succeeded.⁴

Later researchers, hoping to establish empirically the factors determining an effective communicative climate, worked from the premise that communication is more efficient in classrooms in which the environment was perceived by students to be supportive rather than defensive. A supportive communicative climate is one in which students feel comfortable, feel safe in expressing their opinions, and do not feel their egos threatened. In such climates students feel more positive about both teacher and subject matter and retain significantly more information than in defensive settings.^{5,6} If we recall that the bibliographic instruction librarian is generally teaching a one-shot lecture, the need to create a positive classroom climate and a rapport with students becomes all the more obvious. Humor can be a natural ice-breaker and stress reliever, breaking down the ingrained social barriers between teacher and student in the college classroom.

While the intuitive benefits of humor seem obvious, recent research studies indicate some surprising results of the effects of humor in the college classroom. Darling and Civikly⁷ discovered that teachers are perceived by students as being more straightforward and honest

when they use *no* humor of any sort. Use of both tendentious (hostile) and nontendentious (nonhostile) humor increased students' perception that the climate was more defensive than supportive. Further, in sex-related findings, female teachers using tendentious humor and male teachers using nontendentious humor are both perceived as being more defensive than supportive by students. These findings are interesting in that they seem to contradict general perceptions of the effect of humor on the communicative climate. In addition, they point out that students judge men and women teachers differently. The researchers suggest that college instructors employing humor in the classroom contradict student expectations of just how a college teacher is "supposed" to act. Possibly since females are "expected" to act more nurturing and males aggressive and domineering, use of inverse concepts of humor conflict with these expectations. The authors indicate, "The results suggest that a teacher, whether male or female, using no humor is perceived as more neutral and detached than a teacher using either tendentious or nontendentious humor."⁸ They attribute this reaction to students' perception that *deliberate* humor is a sign of a teacher's intent to control the classroom and conclude, "Humor that is not perceived as being open, honest and spontaneous may be more destructive to the communicative climate than an absence of humor."⁹

The practical implications of these results encourage librarians to question the standard assumption that any use of humor automatically enhances the communicative environment. Though the above research findings are only preliminary, they do suggest that the use of obviously planned jokes or attempts at levity may have precisely the opposite effect upon a classroom climate. Common sense alone should warn the bibliographic instruction librarian who teaches several times a week that stock bits of humor used over and over will seem stale and hardly spontaneous. Further, the sex-related findings suggest that student perception of tendentious or hostile humor is espe-

cially negative when the instructor is a woman. The implications for a predominantly female profession cannot be ignored.

PREVALENCE OF HUMOR IN THE COLLEGE CLASSROOM

Study on the extent and nature of humor employed in the classroom is particularly interesting in light of the above findings. Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann¹⁰ discovered that while 20 percent of the faculty at the University of Massachusetts reported no use of humor in their classes, 80 percent indicated the use of humor averaging 3.34 times per class. Further, 48 percent reported use of humor "tendentious" in category with tendentious defining humor that is hostile, sexual, or both in nature. Keeping in mind the sex-related findings of Darling and Civiky, consider the following:

An astonishing disclosure for those who tend to stereotype females as timid and submissive is that female professors tended to utilize a substantially greater proportion of tendentious humor than their male colleagues (62 percent versus 43 percent). . . . Whereas males utilized a sexual theme in 12 percent of their readily classifiable humor, females used it 16 percent of the time. . . . female teachers have even more of an 'edge' in using nonsexual, hostile humor (45 percent versus 31 percent).¹¹

Data related to "spontaneity" indicates, however, that most (65 percent) of the incidences of humor were perceived to be spontaneous. Moreover, in unexplained results, 83 percent of female humor was judged to be spontaneous by students as opposed to only 62 percent of the male humor. While the authors conclude, "at present there is no evidence for the effects of perceived spontaneity of humor either on perceptions of the teacher or on learning," the later research of Darling and Civiky supported the positive effects of spontaneity.

For bibliographic instruction librarians, two points of note emerge. First, the use of humor per se in the classroom will not put the librarian at odds with teaching practices of other academic instructors. Rather, a total absence of humor would

distinguish the bibliographic instruction class. Second, spontaneous rather than belabored or artificial use of humor appears to be a significant element in creating a positive communicative climate.

HOW CLASSROOM HUMOR AFFECTS STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF COLLEGE TEACHERS

As mentioned previously, bibliographic instruction librarians expend an exceptional amount of energy, commitment, and ego each time they enter the classroom. They are concerned not only with the student absorption of the information presented, but probably also with the impression they are making on the student or faculty member. As Beaubien, George, and Hogan indicate:

The public relations value of the one-shot lecture cannot be overstated, both in terms of the visibility of the professional librarian within the user community and in terms of the library's willingness as an institution to cater to the specific needs of its clientele. The library should be able to provide on demand, cogent, interesting, perhaps even entertaining lectures that highlight the library's resources and the processes to exploit it.¹²

This position suggests that both the library's image and that of the librarian are at stake in a certain sense when the librarian enters the classroom, the more natural turf of the nonlibrarian faculty. This pressure, coupled with the librarian's instinctive need to be recognized as a professional and the fairly general student attitude that neither libraries nor librarians are especially interesting, presents a special conundrum. The fine line between creating interest and appearing suitably "academic" may encourage the librarian to use humor, all the while fearing it might look unprofessional.

A significant body of research provides some reasonable indication of how humor affects college students' perceptions of classroom teachers. The research can be divided into two areas:

1. How humor affects perception of the teacher as a *person* (warmth, intelligence, etc.);

2. How humor affects perception of the *credibility* of the teacher, or the reliability of the information being presented (ethos).

Teacher Perception

Bryant and others¹³ found that when students were asked to evaluate college teachers on the basis of their appeal, method of delivery, competence, and overall teacher effectiveness, male and female professors were judged differently when they used humor. For male teachers, use of humor was related to higher positive evaluations than those using no humor, regardless of the particular type of humor employed (hostile, nonhostile, sexual, nonsense, etc.). Female teachers who used humor, however, generally received lower evaluation scores on competence and delivery as well as on the measure of overall teaching effectiveness. Most interesting of all, positive correlations for females were limited to the appeal factor alone and, surprisingly, were associated *only* with the frequent use of hostile and sexual-hostile humor; females employing any other type of humor (such as nonsense or self-disparagement) suffered a loss of appeal. The researchers hypothesize

Another, and perhaps more convincing explanation of the apparent sex differences in humor use is sex stereotyping by students. Students may expect, accept, and even appreciate an occasional joke coming from a male professor. The joking female professor, in contrast, may be perceived as a person breaking an unspoken rule of 'appropriate' classroom conduct. Loss of appeal and related aspects of teacher evaluation may result, in turn, from this perception of unfitting behavior (or 'misconduct').¹⁴

Commenting on the seemingly contradictory findings that female teacher appeal was actually enhanced by use of aggressive and hostile humor, the authors suggest, "It may be that the use of hostile humor by female professors exhibits a degree of aggressiveness that grants them assertiveness and 'authority' and makes them the equal of their male colleagues."¹⁵ Female teachers employing hostile humor seem to be allowed such conduct because they are perceived as more authoritarian

or "malelike" and hence are permitted corresponding classroom behavior.

Attempting to correlate college students' perceptions of teachers with sex of student, sex of teacher, and type of humor employed, Tamborini and Zillman¹⁶ established four categories of teaching style: no use of humor, use of sexual humor, use of other-disparaging humor, and use of self-disparaging humor. Male and female students were asked to rate teachers on measures of appeal and intelligence. Lecturers employing self-disparaging humor were given higher ratings of appeal when lecturer and students were of the same sex. Inversely, teachers using sexual humor were found to be less appealing to members of the same sex but more appealing to students of the opposite sex.

Accordingly, male professors using sexual humor may find that any increase in their appeal to female students comes at the expense of appeal to male students; and for female professors using sexual humor, any increase in their appeal to male students will likely be offset by a decrease in their appeal to female students.¹⁷

Variations in humor, or complete absence of humor, however, had no measureable effect on the perception of the lecturer's intelligence.

Teacher Credibility (Ethos)

The willingness of the listener to accept the message of the speaker based in large part on the perceived character of the speaker (ethos) has been studied in limited fashion related specifically to humor. Kennedy was able to conclude, "The ethos of the source who employed humorous content in a persuasive message will be regarded more favorably four weeks later than the ethos of the source who presented the serious persuasive message."¹⁸ For short-term reactions, lecturers employing humor were perceived higher in ethos scale only in regard to the dynamism factor (dynamism implying the speaker as aggressive, emphatic, bold, active, or energetic rather than meek, hesitant, timid, passive, or tired). Humor had no effect on evaluations of ethos of a speaker in terms of safety (safe, just, kind, friendly, honest) or qualification (trained,

experienced, skilled, qualified, informed).

EFFECT OF HUMOR ON LEARNING

Beaubien, Hogan, and George indicate, "Humorous or offbeat examples can highlight student interest and—in theory—retention."¹⁹ Kaplan and Pascoe confirm that, while immediate comprehension was not facilitated by the use of humorous examples, "Upon retesting, however, retention of concept humor materials was significantly improved by viewing a lecture with humorous examples illustrating concepts."²⁰ Their research further indicated that the material retained was that specifically illustrated by humorous examples; there was no increased comprehension or retention for material unrelated to the humorous examples. Kennedy also found that the use of humorous content in the persuasive message did not increase the overall recall of information contained in the message.²¹

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In light of research that is contradictory or inconclusive in supporting humor as a facilitating tool in college classroom teaching, what role should the bibliographic instruction librarian assign humor in his/her teaching tools? If the librarian is female, she may well want to consider that the type of humor she employs may make her appear less effective and competent than her male counterpart, and that student expectations may allow her considerably less latitude than male librarians in the classroom. She may further face the quandary of trying to enhance appeal through use of aggressive hostile humor, which many teachers of both sexes may find uncomfortable or inappropriate for the library instruction setting. On the plus side,

any librarian using humor can be assured that most other college teachers do so in fairly liberal doses. Use of humor will not make a librarian appear less intelligent or less "academic." In addition, there is some evidence that the character perception or ethos of the teacher may actually be enhanced by use of humor in a presentation.

Since any librarian involved in user education must be concerned about student absorption or retention of information, knowing that use of specific humorous examples may actually increase retention for that particular material is a reassuring reinforcement of the beneficial effects of humor. Library instruction, in fact, lends itself ideally to creative examples. However, the use of forced or obviously staged bits of humor may actually have a negative effect on the communicative and learning environment. Beaubien, Hogan, and George warn that "serious students and faculty members who attend your lectures are likely to be turned off entirely by what they perceive as a sideshow act without substance."²²

Ultimately, however, the art of the practitioner replaces the intellectual vision of the theoretician in the classroom. While empirical results can help the librarian validate or question assumptions, there comes a time when teacher faces students and common sense, instinct, experience, personal style, and professional conviction must temper research findings. Bibliographic instruction librarians willing to examine their teaching methods seriously and to develop a foundation in learning theory can comfortably use humor in the classroom if it suits them and probably find that the overall results will conform to the objectives of their user education program.

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Production of Scholarly Articles by Academic Librarians and Library School Faculty

Paula D. Watson

Eleven major journals in the field of librarianship were examined for the period 1979 through 1983 to determine the affiliation of authors of substantive articles. Findings indicate that requirements for academic librarians to publish affect publication productivity. Results concerning the productivity of library school faculties are fairly consistent with the findings of an earlier quantitative study. Suggestions for further analysis are included.



There have been studies done in several disciplines, which rank academic departments at various institutions in terms of their contributions to a selected group of major journals in their field.¹ Such studies are generally conducted to provide some measure of the excellence of the academic programs in question on the presumption that faculties that are productive in publishing will provide a high-quality educational program for students. The presumption that excellence in teaching is tied to excellence in research is widespread in the American higher education community.² Comparative studies of faculty publication productivity therefore claim to provide guidance for graduate students who want to identify the best schools in their field. Also, the studies purport to provide information to young academics who are seeking jobs in departments likely to have a high status in the field and to provide a stimulating intellectual atmosphere conducive to professional growth. Publication output studies also examine "the sociology of the literature"³ in a particular discipline by deter-

mining who publishes where and what they publish.

The primary purpose of the research reported in this article was to examine the affiliation of authors of articles published during the period 1979 through 1983 in eleven major library science periodicals. The reasons for undertaking the study are related to those described above for similar studies in other disciplines. First, since library school faculty are included in the study, the results may provide some measure of the excellence of library school programs and, thus (as is claimed for studies in other disciplines), may supply some guidance to both prospective students and faculty job seekers in library science. Almost half of the authors of articles in the eleven journals selected for analysis are practicing academic librarians. Since many of the articles written by academic librarians are descriptions and/or evaluations of innovations in the practice of librarianship, it might be argued that libraries with a high rate of publication productivity provide a stimulating work environment in which experimentation with new approaches and techniques is

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encouraged. Librarians seeking such work environments might refer to the results of this article in a job search, although innovations in librarianship are not limited to those libraries that encourage librarians to publish. A third potential use of the findings is as a measure of the degree to which librarians with faculty status are successful in meeting standards for research and subsequent publication productivity applied to faculty in other fields. Obviously, the selection of journals to be analyzed is, to some degree, subjective (see below for selection criteria). Also, the writing of articles in the general library journals chosen for this study constitutes only one of the publication opportunities available to both librarians and library school faculty. The study ignores the publication of books, chapters in books, reports, and articles in more specialized journals either in librarianship or in other subject fields. In a study of the publication output of librarians at ten academic libraries during the period 1969/70 through 1973/74, Watson found that, "If book reviews are discounted, it is evident that the librarians surveyed publish at least as frequently in journals outside the field of library science as they do in journals in the field."⁴

METHODOLOGY

The journals chosen for analysis were *College & Research Libraries*, *Information Technology and Libraries* (formerly *Journal of Library Automation*), *Journal of Academic Librarianship*, *Journal of Library History*, *Library and Information Science Research* (formerly *Library Research*), *Library Journal*, *Library Resources & Technical Services*, *Library Quarterly*, *Library Trends*, *RQ*, and *Serials Librarian*. Four are the official journals of American Library Association divisions and are therefore of obvious centrality to the literature. The others have all been published during the entire survey period and some are among the best-known and most well-established journals in the field. They provide an outlet for the ideas of a very broad range of librarians and library educators and deal with many of the predominant concerns in the field. All are refereed journals or contain articles by invita-

tion, both stringent methods of article selection that carry with them an indication of recognition for the author and for the institution with which he or she is affiliated. Of course, as was indicated earlier, focusing on the journals of more general content to some extent ignores the contribution of the specialist to the overall publication productivity of library school faculties or academic library staffs.

Each article was coded for the institutional affiliation of the author and, for practicing librarians, by type of library (i.e., public, academic, etc.). For multi-author papers, credit was assigned fractionally to each author. Therefore, for papers with two authors, each author was given .50 credits, and so on down to five-author articles, for which each author was assigned .20 credits. Institutional credit was assigned on the same fractional scale. The information on affiliation was taken from the text of the article as it appeared in the journal or from the list of contributors. If the author had moved recently, credit was given to the institution at which the work had been done if that could readily be determined. (In fact such determinations were generally quite easy to make.) Book reviews, research notes, contributions, and regular columns were excluded from consideration. No judgments were made as to the quality of the articles and no exclusions were made on the basis of length, except in cases where the journal editor seemed to be making a distinction between full-fledged research articles and "notes" or "contributions." Editorships of journal issues and papers presented at conferences and reprinted in journals were counted as articles.

Libraries were coded by type as follows: public, special, academic, state, national (including the national libraries of foreign countries), school, and other library-related organizations. The latter category included staff of networks and consortia and organizations such as the Council on Library Resources or the Association of Research Libraries. Other categorizations for authors were teaching faculty and graduate students in other fields (e.g., economics, marketing, business administration, English, etc.), members of the cor-

porate sector (e.g., booksellers, information industry personnel, and library consultants), and a general category for "others," which included, for example, free-lance writers and government officials. Library school professors were coded by academic rank whenever this information was provided; students and emeritus professors were counted separately. Despite the difficulty of determining exactly what work individuals do based on their titles as recorded in the credits of journal articles, the positions held by working academic librarians were also recorded for use in a possible future analysis to involve examination of correlations between article subject content and the job held by the author.

FINDINGS

Publication Productivity by Journal and by Type of Author's Institutional Affiliation

The study analyzed a total of 1,537 articles that appeared in the eleven selected journals during the period 1979 through 1983. Table 1 illustrates the distribution of the articles by journal and by the institutional affiliation of the authors. The most productive class of authors is that of academic librarians followed by library science faculty. Olsgaard and Olsgaard found similar results in their study of the contributions during the ten-year period 1967 through 1977 to five library science journals: *College & Research Libraries*, *Library Journal*, *Library Quarterly*, and *Library Trends*.⁵ The Olsgaards point out that library science faculty publish more in proportion to their numbers than do academic librarians. This is not surprising since not all academic librarians (even those with faculty status) are required, nor do they have the incentive, to publish; whereas, presumably research and publication is a duty implicit in the job definition of most library science faculty. They are also encouraged by benefits gained (e.g., tenure, salary raises) to publish. A 1980 study by Rayman and Goudy found (based on a 72 percent response) that librarians at only 15 percent of Association of Research Libraries "are required to publish."⁶ This finding is consistent with

TABLE 1
INSTITUTIONAL AFFILIATION OF AUTHORS: IN ELEVEN LIBRARY SCIENCE JOURNALS 1979-83

Journal	Academic Libn. (%)	Public Libn. (%)	Special Libn. (%)	State Libn. (%)	National Libn. (%)	School Libn. (%)	Other Libn. (%)	Library Science Faculty and Students (%)	Other Faculty (%)	Corp. Sector (%)	Others (%)	Unspecified affiliation (%)	No. of Articles
C&RL	65.4	.2	2.1	.3	1.1	.5	2.9	11.6	9.4	2.1	4.4	0.0	190
ITAL	41.7	6.8	0.0	0.0	7.2	0.0	30.3	3.0	3.7	5.1	0.0	2.2	76
JAL	83.4	.8	0.0	.8	0.0	1.1	.8	8.7	1.5	1.1	1.4	.4	132
ILH	28.6	2.3	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.8	42.3	16.1	1.7	3.6	0.0	84
LISR	23.2	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	55.1	4.2	7.2	0.0	6.0	83
LJ	32.2	26.4	1.6	0.4	0.0	0.6	4.9	16.6	2.3	7.8	6.3	1.0	256
LQ	21.9	.6	2.4	0.0	3.6	0.0	2.4	48.8	12.8	3.6	3.6	0.0	82
LRTS	57.3	5.8	2.0	0.6	6.8	0.0	6.1	16.9	0.0	3.2	1.4	0.0	139
LT	21.3	9.3	5.8	1.6	4.7	0.5	5.1	28.9	8.4	4.4	9.8	.2	215
RQ	44.0	10.4	3.5	2.6	2.3	0.7	3.5	19.3	2.8	5.1	5.3	.5	142
SL	58.9	3.6	3.7	1.4	4.3	0.0	2.5	5.8	2.2	13.0	2.9	1.4	138
Avg.	44.2	8.2	2.3	.8	2.5	0.4	5.0	20.9	5.2	5.1	4.3	0.8	1537

*This category includes a few coding errors.

results of a later study of ARL members by English. Based on a 100 percent response, English found that librarians at only fifteen (16.9 percent) of ARL libraries are evaluated through the "use of traditional faculty criteria" and that at almost all these institutions a "blend of professional and faculty criteria" are employed in evaluation.⁷

Table 1 shows high concentrations of articles from particular types of institutions being published in particular journals. Not surprisingly, academic librarian authors are the primary contributors to *College & Research Libraries* and to the *Journal of Academic Librarianship*. On the other hand, library school faculty predominate as authors of articles in the *Journal of Library History*, *Library and Information Science Research*, and *Library Quarterly*. Many articles in *Information Technology and Libraries* are written by personnel from "other library-affiliated organizations," the staff of library networks, consortia, and bibliographic utilities. Some of these authors are not librarians, but are programmers or other technical specialists. Direct comparison of the present results for the five journals examined in the Olsgaard study is difficult because those authors used a different method for assigning publication credits, giving all authors on multi-authored papers full instead of partial credit. However, a few divergences from the findings of the earlier study for specific journals may be significant. Olsgaard and Olsgaard found that academic librarians accounted for 18.9 percent of the contributions to *Library Journal*, while the present study found they accounted for a much higher proportion (32.2 percent) of the articles. Another potentially significant difference is that library science faculty and students increased their contributions to *Library Quarterly* from the 34.4 percent found by the Olsgaards to the 48.8 percent found in the present study (seemingly largely at the expense of faculty in other fields).⁸

Publication Productivity of Libraries

Two hundred and ninety-two academic libraries were represented in the sample,

but few had many published authors. The vast majority of libraries were represented by only one article in the sample. Table 2 lists the twenty most productive institutions. For academic libraries, the table also shows the status, benefits, and privileges enjoyed by librarians at those institutions that may encourage research and publication. This information was derived mainly from English's excellent and painstaking study of librarian status at eighty-nine U.S. members of the Association of Research Libraries.⁹ As a check on the effect of size on the productivity of various libraries, per capita production is also included in column 2 of table 2. At twelve (63 percent) of the twenty most productive libraries, librarians have faculty status, according to English, as well as the major benefits and privileges that encourage research and publication, namely, eligibility for indefinite tenure, access to funds in support of research, access to travel funds, and eligibility for both sabbaticals and research leaves. What is perhaps more surprising is the high percentage of institutions listed in appendix B¹⁰ of the English article (i.e., those whose administrators claim that their library faculty are judged using the same criteria used to judge the teaching faculty) that appear among the twenty most productive publishers in this survey. English states that fifteen libraries in the ARL (or 16.9 percent) "claimed that the criteria used for evaluating librarian performance were the same as those used for the regular teaching faculty."¹¹ However, careful analysis of the criteria provided by the responding libraries (listed in English's appendix B) indicates that only ten of the fifteen actually specify that research and publication are included in the performance evaluation criteria used in evaluating librarians, and one of these (Tennessee) implies that either "scholarship, research, creative accomplishment, or professional development" (emphasis is the author's) are acceptable.¹² (English's information for Illinois is, incidentally, incorrect. Illinois has stressed research and publication in its standards for judging librarians since 1977.) Oregon, which undoubtedly once would have made an eleventh library in-

TABLE 2
 TWENTY MOST PRODUCTIVE LIBRARIES: STATUS, BENEFITS, AND PRIVILEGES OF LIBRARIANS*

Library	Number of Publications (1)	Per Capita Productivity† (2)	Faculty (F) or Professional (P) Status (3)	Faculty Rank (4)	Indefinite Tenure (5)	Continuing Appointments (6)	Research Funds (7)	Travel Funds (8)	Research Leave (9)	Sabbatical Leave (10)	Criteria Same as Teaching Faculty (11)
1. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	52.30	.43	F	x	x		x	x	x‡	x	x‡
2. Library of Congress	22.70	.008									
3. Ohio State	17.16	.16	F	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
4. Oregon	13.00	.28	F(1)	x		1	x	x	x	x	x
5. Pennsylvania	12.00	.13	P	n			x	x	x		
6. California-Berkeley	10.50	.07	P	e			x	x	x		
7. New York University	10.33	.12	F	e	x			x		x	x
8. Northwestern	10.00	.09	P	n		x	x	x	x		
9. Purdue	10.00	.13	F(2)	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
10. Southern Illinois	10.00	.16	F	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
11. Michigan	9.33	.07	P	e		x	x	x	x		
12. University of Illinois at Chicago	9.00	.12	F	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
13. Pennsylvania State	9.00	.09	F	e	x		x	x	x	x	
14. SUNY-Albany	8.66	.17	F	e	x		x	x	x	x	
15. SUNY-Buffalo	8.33	.09	F	e	x		x	x	x	x	
16. California-Los Angeles	8.00	.05	P	e		x	x	x	x		
17. Minnesota	7.70	.06	F(2)	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
18. New Mexico	7.66	.17	F	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
19. Iowa State	7.50	.15	F	x	x		x	x	x	x	
20. Virginia Polytechnic	7.16	.13	F§	x		x	some	x	x		

Explanation of symbols: x = yes; e = equivalent rank; n = numerical ranks; 1 = librarians are placed in two, distinct faculty categories; 2 = mix of faculty and professional positions.

*The information in columns 3 through 11 for all universities except the University of Illinois at Chicago and Virginia Polytechnic and State University is derived from Thomas G. English, "Librarian Status in the Eighty-Nine U.S. Academic Institutions of the Association of Research Libraries: 1982," *College & Research Libraries* 44: appendixes A and B (May 1983). Information on the remaining two universities was obtained by telephone conversation with administrative officers of the libraries.

†Per capita productivity for ARL libraries was computed by dividing the quantities in column one by the number of professional librarians listed in Carol A. Mandel and Alexandr Lichtenstein, comps., *ARL Statistics: 1982-3* (Washington: Association of Research Libraries, 1984). The figures for Virginia Polytechnic and the University of Illinois at Chicago were computed by dividing the quantities in column 1 by the number of professional librarians listed for each institution in the *American Library Directory*, 36th ed. (New York: Bowker, 1983).

‡Librarians at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign are eligible for research leave, even though English's article referred to above does not so indicate. Research is also among the criteria used to evaluate UIUC librarians even though it is not mentioned in English's appendix B.

§Until 1983 librarians had full faculty status and were eligible for indefinite tenure. In 1983 librarian status at VPI was redefined as "noncollegiate status." Librarians no longer stand for tenure review, but are eligible for continuing appointments.

||Sabbaticals do not exist in the traditional sense for any faculty at VPI.

cluding research and publication in its performance standards, did not provide a list of criteria to English. This library has undergone a change in librarian status and presumably research and publication criteria no longer apply.¹³

It is a striking fact that seven of the ten ARL members found by English to be employing research and publication criteria in judging library faculty are among the top twenty most productive academic libraries in terms of publishing. An eighth (not an ARL library) that employs true faculty performance criteria in judging librarians is the University of Illinois at Chicago. Including this library, 42 percent of the academic libraries among the top twenty most productive publishers provide not only the benefits of faculty status to librarians but also impose its requirements upon them. It might be noted in passing that English finds a large number of ARL librarians have the benefits that are conducive to doing research and yet do not seem to be required to do so: 46 percent have what is called faculty status, 42.6 percent are eligible for indefinite tenure, 64 percent are eligible for research leave, 50.6 percent are eligible for sabbatical leave, 93.2 percent have access to research funds, 100 percent are eligible for travel funds.¹⁴ Yet librarians from most of these libraries are not heavily represented as authors in the present sample.

It should be noted that eleven of the top twenty in publication productivity either do not have faculty status at all or, if they do, they do not have the incentive of evaluation according to true faculty criteria. Except in the case of Illinois (Urbana-Champaign), there is not a marked difference in productivity between those who must meet true faculty standards (including research and publication) and those who need not.

The Illinois situation is by any measure unique. Illinois is far and away the most productive of the academic libraries in the top twenty, even though analysis by per capita productivity provided in column 2 of table 2 does bring Oregon closer to it in relative standing. (Otherwise, the spread in productivity increases somewhat, through the introduction of the size factor,

but not dramatically, except in the case of the Library of Congress.) The University of Illinois has a strong commitment to the involvement of librarians in scholarly pursuits, strives for a truly collegial milieu, enforces stringent evaluative criteria, and gives heavy weight to research and publication in its evaluation of librarians both for promotion and tenure and for annual salary increases.^{15,16}

Publication Productivity of Library School Faculty

Although the primary focus of this paper was to be on the publication productivity of academic libraries, results for library school faculty were also tabulated. Eighty library schools were represented in the sample (including schools in foreign countries), but 61 percent of the articles contributed to the journals in the sample were written by library educators at fifteen schools. Table 3 lists in rank order these fifteen most productive schools and the number of articles each contributed to the sample. In his review of studies ranking professional library schools, Danton¹⁷ found that only one, by Hayes,¹⁸ relied on quantitative data. Although Hayes' methodology is completely different from that employed in the present study and his sample is also considerably different, eleven of the same schools appear among the top fifteen producers in both the Hayes and the present study. They are in

TABLE 3
FIFTEEN MOST PRODUCTIVE
LIBRARY SCHOOLS

Library School	Number of Publications
1. Chicago	21.00
2. Columbia	18.50
3. Indiana	15.00
4. North Carolina	13.45
5. California-Berkeley	12.50
6. Illinois-Urbana/Champaign	11.70
7. Wisconsin-Madison	10.50
8. Kentucky	10.00
9. California-Los Angeles	10.00
10. Minnesota	9.50
11. Maryland	9.00
12. Toronto	8.50
13. Drexel	8.33
14. Michigan	8.00
15. Rutgers	8.00

different rank-order except for the University of Chicago, which is number one on both lists. Table 4 presents library school article productivity by academic rank. The results are somewhat skewed since one journal, *Library and Information Science Research*, in which library educators publish frequently, chooses not to include rank in its descriptions of authors in almost every case. Individuals in the "unspecified rank" category also frequently include deans, since their academic ranks are often not supplied. An article by Bidlack, which gives the percentage distribution of lecturers, instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors and lists deans and directors separately, is used to establish norms for the populations in the various ranks for purposes of comparison with their productivity.¹⁹ Associate professors are publishing in proportion to their numbers, but assistant professors and full professors, at least based on this sample, appear to be doing somewhat less than might be expected.

Discussion

The study was undertaken to identify academic libraries and, to a lesser extent, library schools at which significant amounts of publication are taking place. Publication by librarians at academic libraries is seen as an indication of an innovative, progressive library environment. The identification of libraries in which it takes place may therefore serve as an aid to job seekers in the academic library market. Similar but more modest claims for the usefulness of the data on library schools to prospective students and job seekers may also be made. However, for both types of institutions the publication outlets studied represent only a portion of the publication opportunities available to librarians and library school faculty, and this limitation may have even more significance for library school faculty than for librarians.

As to the findings on the publication productivity of academic libraries, it is clear that the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign occupies a unique position in terms of output relative even to institutions that claim to be meeting the

TABLE 4
LIBRARY SCHOOL ARTICLE PRODUCTIVITY BY ACADEMIC RANK

Journal	Inst./ Lecturer	Asst. Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Full Prof.	Total, Standard Academic Ranks	Emeritus	Student	Total ranked	Unspeci- fied Rank
C&RL	—	5.5	5.00	6.50	17.00	—	4.00	21.00	1.00
ITAL	—	—	2.25	—	2.25	—	—	2.25	—
JAL	—	1.0	4.50	4.00	9.50	—	1.00	10.50	1.00
ILH	3.0	11.0	12.50	6.00	32.50	—	1.00	32.50	2.00
LISR	—	1.0	1.00	—	2.00	—	—	2.00	43.70
LJ	.5	6.5	12.00	13.50	32.50	—	1.50	34.00	8.50
LQ	3.0	8.0	10.50	9.50	31.00	2.0	2.50	35.50	4.50
LRTS	—	2.5	11.33	8.66	22.49	—	1.00	23.49	—
LT	1.5	6.0	15.50	15.50	38.50	5.5	3.00	47.00	15.16
RQ	3.5	7.0	5.69	4.50	20.69	—	2.83	23.52	4.00
SL	1.0	1.0	1.00	1.00	4.00	—	1.00	5.00	3.00
Total	12.5	49.5	81.27	69.16	212.43	7.5	17.83	237.76	82.86
%	5.9	23.3	38.3	32.5					
Bidlack's norms for rank population*	6.5	34.1	35.6	24.8					

*Russell E. Bidlack, "Statistical Survey of 67 Library Schools, 1978-79," *Journal of Education for Librarianship* 19:321 (Spring 1979).

same level of performance criteria. Among the most productive libraries, librarians who do not have faculty status seem to publish at about the same rate as librarians at institutions where librarians do have faculty status. Still, based on English's data on criteria, it appears that the requirement to publish serves, not surprisingly, as a strong incentive to do so.

Further work on the data collected for this study will include an analysis of au-

thor characteristics by gender, age, professional experience, position held, and the subject content of articles published. The degree to which librarians with less than six years of professional experience are successful in breaking into print is clearly central to the true success and equity of a full faculty status system for librarians in which both the benefits and the requirements of such a system are completely embraced.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

1. Examples of such studies include: Karin McCallum, "Research/Publication Productivity of U.S. Speech Communication Departments," *The Southern Journal of Speech Communication* 49:135-42 (Winter 1984); Lawrence C. Soley and Leonard N. Reid, "Advertising Article Productivity of the U.S. Academic Community," *Journalism Quarterly* 60:464-69, 542 (Autumn 1983); L. Barker and others, "An Investigation of Articles Produced in the Communication Discipline by Institution: 1970 through 1978," *ACA Bulletin* 30:18-22 (Oct. 1979); W. M. Cox and V. Catt, "Productivity Rankings of Graduate Programs in Psychology Based on Publication in Journals of the American Psychological Association," *American Psychologist* 32:793-813 (1977); C. West, "Productivity Ratings of Institutions Based on Publication in Journals of the American Educational Research Association: 1970-1976," *Educational Researcher* 7:11-14 (1978); Richard R. Cole and Thomas A. Bowers, "Research Article Productivity of U.S. Journalism Faculties," *Journalism Quarterly* 50:246-54 (1973); L. S. Lewis, "On Subjective and Objective Rankings of Sociology Departments," *American Sociologist* 3:129-31 (May 1968).
2. Representative of this viewpoint is the following quote from an internal University of Illinois document concerning criteria for promotion and tenure at that institution: "A teacher with little or no record of scholarship or creative endeavor will rapidly grow stale. . . . The best teacher should be one who is aware of the leading edge of a field, and the most effective way to be aware of the leading edge is to be a part of it." University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Office of the Vice-Chancellor for Academic Affairs. 1978-79 *Academic Affairs Communication*, no. 9 (mimeographed, 1978), p.5.
3. Cole and Bowers, "Research Article Productivity of U.S. Journalism Faculties," p.246.
4. Paula De Simone Watson, "Publication Activity Among Academic Librarians," *College & Research Libraries* 38:375-84 (Sept. 1977).
5. John N. Olsgaard and Jane Kinch Olsgaard, "Authorship in Five Library Periodicals," *College & Research Libraries* 41:49-53 (Jan. 1980).
6. Ronald Rayman and Frank W. Goudy, "Research and Publication Requirements in University Libraries," *College & Research Libraries* 41:43-48 (Jan. 1980).
7. Thomas G. English, "Librarian Status in the Eighty-Nine U.S. Academic Institutions of the Association of Research Libraries," *College & Research Libraries* 44:203-4 (May 1983).
8. Olsgaard and Olsgaard, "Authorship in Five Library Periodicals," p.51.
9. English, "Librarian Status in the Eighty-nine U.S. Academic Institutions," p.199-211.
10. *Ibid.*, p.211.
11. *Ibid.*, p.207.
12. *Ibid.*, p.211.
13. To quote English, "According to the administrator at the University of Oregon, a significant number of librarians were placed in increasing jeopardy because of the difficulty of meeting faculty tenure requirements. Consequently, in 1980, . . . librarians . . . were presented with the choice of remaining officers of instruction, the same personnel category as the teaching faculty, or becoming officers of administration, a second faculty category; according to officials at the University of Oregon, 'The purpose of the shift was to remove from professional librarians some of the burden of research and publication required by those teaching faculty seeking promotion and tenure'. . . . According to the University librarian, roughly 50 percent of the library staff at Oregon elected to

switch to the officer of administration category. At the same time, it was concluded that all new librarian appointments would be placed in the latter classification. . . . [It] was projected that, by 1990, the conversion to officers of administration would be complete." English, "Librarian Status in the Eighty-Nine U.S. Academic Institutions," p.206.

14. *Ibid.*, p.201, 204.
15. For a more complete discussion of the development of faculty status at the University of Illinois, see Robert G. Sewell, "Faculty Status and Librarians: The Rationale and the Case of Illinois," *College & Research Libraries* 44:212-22 (May 1983).
16. English gives no attention to the weighting of the various factors in evaluation (e.g., job performance, professional service, research and publication). In an as yet unpublished survey of ARL reference departments, this author queried respondents as to the weighting of the various factors in both promotion/tenure decisions and annual salary determinations. Twenty-eight institutions with faculty status replied to these questions. Only four reported that publications were weighted from 30 to 50 percent in promotion/tenure decisions; only two (Illinois and Michigan State) reported significant weighting (at least 33 percent) in decisions concerning annual salaries. (This study was primarily concerned with the organization and functions of reference departments in the academic members of the RASD Discussion Groups on Reference Services in Large and Medium-Sized Research Libraries and was pursued under the auspices of both discussion groups.)
17. J. Periam Danton, "Notes on the Evaluation of Library Schools," *Journal of Education for Librarianship* 24:106-16 (Fall 1983).
18. R. M. Hayes, "Citation Statistics as a Measure of Faculty Research Productivity," *Journal of Education for Librarianship* 23:151-72 (Winter 1983).
19. Russell E. Bidlack, "A Statistical Survey of 67 Library Schools, 1978-79," *Journal of Education for Librarianship* 19:321 (Spring 1979).

Selected Reference Books of 1984-85

Eugene P. Sheehy



This article continues the semi-annual series initiated by the late Constance M. Winchell more than thirty years ago. Although it appears under a byline, the list is a project of the reference departments of Columbia University's Butler and Lehman libraries, and notes are signed with the initials of the individual staff members.¹

Since the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and general works of interest to reference workers in university libraries, it does not pretend to be either well balanced or comprehensive. A brief roundup of new editions of standard works, continuations, and supplements is presented at the end of the article. Code numbers (such as AE213, CJ34) have been used to refer to titles in the *Guide to Reference Books* and its supplements.²

ARCHIVES

National Inventory of Documentary Sources in the United States. Teaneck, N.J., Chadwyck-Healey, [1983]- . Pt. 1- . (In progress)

The *National Inventory* is not a list of archival materials themselves, but consists of microform reproductions of published and unpublished "finding aids, registers, indexes and collection guides" available for collections in the participating repositories. The inventory is being published in

four parts, each covering a different type of archive: (1) Federal records (National Archives, Smithsonian Institution archives, and presidential libraries), (2) Manuscript Division, Library of Congress, (3) State archives, state libraries, and state historical societies, and (4) Academic libraries and other repositories. All four parts are being issued on microfiche in storage binders; printed indexes will accompany parts 1 and 2, and computer-produced microfiche indexes parts 3 and 4. Libraries may purchase whichever parts are of interest to them. An updating service is available for parts 1 and 2. The medium used is silver halide positive reading microfiche at a nominal reduction of 24 times.

The portion under consideration here is "Part 2: Manuscript Division, Library of Congress," issued on approximately 900 microfiches in three storage binders, with a printed index (219p.) compiled by Victoria Agee; cost of the unit is \$2,750. Some 792 registers or finding aids are reproduced on the fiches, and they are listed alphabetically (i.e., by surname of individual, name of committee or organization, etc.) at the front of the index volume, together with indication of extent of each collection, a reference to *NUCMC* as applicable, and the number of the fiches on which the finding aid appears. Indexing is by names and subjects mentioned in the finding aids and, in most cases, there are "double postings" of index terms: as general topics, and as more specific subdivi-

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1. Mary Cargill, Anita Lowry, Eileen McIlvaie, Louise Sherby, Sarah Spurgin, Junko Stuveras; Lehman Library: Laura Binkowski, Diane Goon, Debi Hassig.
 2. Eugene P. Sheehy, *Guide to Reference Books*, 9th ed. (Chicago: American Library Assn., 1976); *Supplement* (Chicago: American Library Assn., 1980); *Second Supplement* (Chicago: American Library Assn., 1982).

sions under a topic (e.g., "volcanoes" has a geographic subdivision "Nicaragua," and the term "volcanoes" appears in turn as a subdivision under "Nicaragua"). This makes for easy subject searching, although some inconsistencies were noted.

A great advantage of the *National Inventory* is that it will enable researchers to consult finding aids at their home institutions, leaving their time free for working with the actual manuscripts during visits to archives.—J.S.

PERIODICALS

Brady, Anna, Wall, Richard and Weiner, Carolyn Newitt. *Union List of Film Periodicals; Holdings of Selected American Collections*. Westport, Conn., Greenwood Pr., [1984]. 316p. \$35. LC 83-22585. ISBN 0-313-23702-6.

To my knowledge this is the most comprehensive bibliography of film periodicals that has been published, and as such it constitutes a valuable research tool for film studies. Furthermore, it is not only a bibliography but also a union list showing the holdings of thirty-five libraries selected for the significance of their film periodical collections, among them the Library of Congress, New York Public Library, Museum of Modern Art, UCLA Theater Arts Library, University of Southern California Library, Anthology Film Archives Library, and American Film Institute Library, to name a few of the better known. Although some libraries were unable to participate fully in providing complete lists of titles or volumes held, this list indicates locations for many titles not previously reported to *Union List of Serials* or *New Serial Titles*. Interlibrary loan librarians will be especially grateful for the detailed indication of volumes held or lacked.

The compilers tackled the thankless job of verifying the information for countless obscure and ephemeral publications so that each entry would, in so far as possible, include the following information: title, country of publication (city or place when necessary), language (if different from official language of country of publication), ISSN, publication dates, former

and subsequent titles, notes (e.g., variant forms of title), library location codes, and detailed holdings notes. Cross-references are provided for title changes, and there is also an index of title changes. The geographic index, showing entries for fifty-six countries, is a welcome addition for the purposes of film scholarship.—A.L.

Danky, James P., ed. *Native American Periodicals and Newspapers, 1828-1982: Bibliography, Publishing Record, and Holdings*. Maureen E. Hady, comp. Westport, Conn., Greenwood Pr., 1984. 532p. plates. \$49.95. LC 83-22579. ISBN 0-313-23773-5.

Native American Periodicals is a "guide to the holdings and locations of 1,164 periodical and newspaper titles by and about Native Americans."—*Introd.* More comprehensive than other such lists currently available, the bibliography includes both current titles and those that have ceased publication. Subject coverage is broad; emphasis is on literary, political, historical, and general newspapers and magazines. The information included was gathered by examining each issue of each title that was available in cooperating libraries throughout the United States and Canada, particularly the holdings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin (823 titles). The work is arranged alphabetically by title, with cross-references from earlier titles. Each entry includes as many of the twenty-two data elements as could be verified. Some of the more important elements included are: most recent title and variant titles, publishing history, frequency, price, current editor and address/phone number, ISSN, LC card number, OCLC and/or RLIN control number, where the title is indexed, its availability in microform, subject focus, and library holdings information. Adding to the usefulness of the bibliography are indexes to subjects, editors, and publishers, a geographic index, and title, catchword/subtitle, and chronological indexes.—L.S.

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

Garner, Diane L. and Smith, Diane H. *The Complete Guide to Citing Government Doc-*

uments: *A Manual for Writers & Librarians*. Comp. for the Government Documents Round Table, American Library Association. Bethesda, Md., Congressional Information Service, 1984. 142p. \$12.95. LC 84-11357. ISBN 0-88692-023-X.

Designed to "supplement, not replace, standard style/citation manuals" (*Pref.*), this volume presents in detail the important elements necessary for citing United States, state, local, regional, and international (United Nations, Council of Europe, etc.) documents. The authors assume that a bibliographic citation has four purposes: to (1) uniquely identify the item, (2) indicate to some degree its intellectual quality, (3) give credit to the ideas of the original author, and (4) help locate the item being cited. Chapter 1 is a brief introduction to what a government document is and the purposes and mechanics of bibliographic citation. Subsequent chapters deal with the citation problems presented by each type of government document; the U.S. *Constitution*, *U.S. Code*, and the *Congressional Record* are dealt with specifically. Formats such as microforms and computerized files are also given special treatment. Examples are plentiful, and the detailed table of contents and an index enhance the usefulness of the *Guide*. It is recommended for all libraries with government document collections of any size or where students write reports and papers using government documents as bibliographic sources.—L.S.

BIOGRAPHY

Dictionary of American Medical Biography. Martin Kaufman, Stuart Galishoff, Todd L. Savitt, eds. Westport, Conn., Greenwood Pr., [1984], 2v. (1,027p.) \$95. LC 82-21110. ISBN 0-313-21378-X.

As the editors frankly state, the major contribution of this work "is the inclusion of biographical sketches representing developments which occurred after the publication of Kelly and Burrage [i.e., the 1928 *Dictionary of American Medical Biography* (*Guide* EK135)]."—*Pref.* That is not to say that this is meant simply as a supplement

to the earlier work; rather, it is intended as a well-balanced biographical dictionary of the field, with representative names from all the fifty states and the District of Columbia, and including not only physicians and public health workers, but relevant educators, hospital administrators, and even some figures "outside the mainstream of American medicine . . . whose major role was to provide alternatives to traditional medicine." Moreover, an effort was made to include blacks and women "whose contributions have often been overlooked in the past." Only persons who died before 1977 are included.

Signed articles follow a uniform pattern, giving personal information (dates of birth and death, parentage, occupation or specialty, etc.), summary of career, and notes on particular contributions to the field. Bibliographies of the biographees' writings are each limited to five significant works (but any existing bibliography is noted) and references are given to other sources of information, including standard works such as the *D.A.B.* or Kelly and Burrage. Nearly 100 pages of appendixes list biographees by date and place of birth, by state where prominent, by specialty or occupation, by medical school attended, and there is a list of women. There is also an extensive index.—E.S.

Palmer, Gregory. *Biographical Sketches of Loyalists of the American Revolution*. Westport, Conn., Meckler, [1984]. 959p. \$225. LC 83-12137. ISBN 0-930466-14-4.

Despite the "cip" information and the note on the Library of Congress card, this is not really a revised edition of Sabine's *Biographical Sketches of Loyalists of the American Revolution* (2d ed. 1864; *Guide* AJ47). Sabine used interviews, newspaper accounts, tombstones, U.S. and Canadian court records, etc., to identify and describe some nine thousand Loyalists. Palmer, on the other hand, has mined the Loyalist Claims Commission records (A012-13) in the Public Record Office in London to produce this new source of information. While checking, revising, and adding to the biographical records he found that "a good deal of what Sabine

wrote in his biographical articles still stands," and he decided that "the most appropriate way of presenting this revised and extended edition is to publish a supplement to the original text."—*Introd.*

There are three kinds of names in Palmer's compilation, each marked accordingly: (1) names in Sabine's main sequence for which there is new or amended information; (2) names in Sabine's supplementary "fragments" section to which new information could be added; (3) names not in Sabine, but which Palmer has identified from the Loyalist Claims Commission records and for which, in some cases, he could add a brief note. Each entry gives the exact PRO reference for anyone wanting to use the records. Researchers should be aware that Palmer has not made cross-references from variant forms of a name; for example, Sabine gives "Brokenborough," which Palmer cites as "Brockenburg or Brockenborough," the two forms being several pages apart in the alphabetical sequence.

A chapter on using the Loyalist Claims Commission records, and an interesting discussion of the life and research methods of Lorenzo Sabine precede Palmer's main text. All in all, this is a very useful compendium for scholars of the period.—*E.M.*

LITERATURE

Dictionnaire des littératures de langue française. Jean-Pierre de Beaumarchais, Daniel Couty et Alain Rey, eds. Paris, Bordas, 1984—. v.1—. il. (In progress) ISBN 2-04-015333-0.

Contents: v.1, A-F (860p. 340Fr.F.).

As the title suggests, this dictionary covers French-language literature worldwide from the Middle Ages to the 1980s. Any encyclopedia that surveys a broad subject area such as this tends to be criticized for omissions or excessive coverage of one sort or another, and a French reviewer (*Bulletin critique du livre français*, août-sept. 1984) has already questioned the *Dictionnaire's* practice of allotting so much space to classic authors. The entries in this first of the projected three volumes are, indeed, more comprehensive for estab-

lished authors who figure in school and university courses of study—owing, perhaps, to the fact that a good many of the contributors were drawn from university faculties. There is, however, fair coverage of twentieth-century writers: not only internationally recognized literary authors such as Camus, Céline, and Duras, but also writers such as Georges Batailles (two pages) and contemporary critics Jacques Derrida and Michel Foucault (half a page each).

Articles tend to the "medium" and "long" rather than a multiplicity of very specific entries. A considerable part of the book is concerned with a broad range of cultural topics from teaching of literature in schools to "communication," "bibliothèque," and the historical school of the *Annales*. And, of course, there are articles on psychoanalysis and auxiliary tools of literary criticism. For each major author there is an extensive article on the life and works, a chronological table listing biographical data and literary activities in parallel columns, and an extensive bibliography of editions, bibliographies, critical studies, etc. A few principal works are discussed (and synopses given) within the author articles rather than under separate title entries. A general index is to include entries for individual works and for some authors discussed as a group in articles such as that for Swiss literature. The numerous illustrations are well selected and nicely reproduced, but they are often not well coordinated with the text, sometimes appearing pages away from the relevant article; it is hoped that the index will mitigate this problem.—*J.S.*

Handbook of Russian Literature. Ed. by Victor Terras. New Haven, Yale Univ. Pr., [1985]. 558p. \$35. LC 84-11871. ISBN 0-300-03155-6.

"Dictionary" or "encyclopedia" rather than "handbook" might better describe this compilation, but the important thing is that here we have a useful single-volume, English-language reference source for the field of Russian literature. Intended for the student of that literature, for scholars in related areas, and for the general reader, this is the work of 106

scholar contributors, each of whom was asked to write one or two major articles and a number of briefer ones from his/her general area of specialization. Articles on individual writers (including a few prominent living persons) predominate, but the nearly one thousand entries encompass literary terms, genres, societies, periodicals, and important anonymous works, together with useful form headings such as "Film and literature," "German-Russian literary relations," and "Scholarship, literary." Related areas are also dealt with in entries such as "Folklore, study of" and "Wedding ritual songs."

The work assumes that many of its users do not read Russian. Therefore names are given in familiar spellings (e.g., "Dostoevsky" rather than "Dostoevskii") and titles of literary works are given in translation, usually followed by the transliterated Russian title; periodicals, however, are identified by their Russian titles to avoid confusion. In the bibliographies appended to most articles, secondary literature in languages other than English is usually cited only when it contains information not available in English. Regarding those bibliographies, the preface states—almost apologetically—that they are meant "to give the reader a head start, no more." Yet they are so much more ample than those often found in a work of this kind that no apology is needed. Finally, there is a general classed bibliography (p.535-41), cross-references appear in the text, and (an unexpected bonus in view of the dictionary arrangement) an index is provided.—E.S.

Natoli, Joseph and Rusch, Frederik L. *Psychocriticism: An Annotated Bibliography*. Westport, Conn., Greenwood Pr., [1984]. 267p. (Bibliographies and indexes in world literature, 1) \$35. LC 84-4689. ISBN 0-313-23641-0.

In their preface Natoli and Rusch address the issue that their main "competitor" is Norman Kiell's *Psychoanalysis, Psychology, and Literature* (2d ed. Metuchen, N.J., Scarecrow Pr., 1982. 2v.). Reviewing the bibliographies in this field, they point out that Kiell is unannotated, and that the impetus of the first edition of his bibliogra-

phy (1963; *Guide* BD10) was the "development and acceptance of Freudian theory." Unlike Kiell, they have restricted coverage "to articles and books in which a fairly recognizable school or method of psychology is applied to literature. Many studies indexed by Kiell . . . have not been annotated here because we have discovered them to be in a broad, colloquial domain of psychology which has been prevalent in literary studies before the advent of formal psychology."—*Pref.* A long introductory essay discusses some of the contributors to a more "formal" psychological approach to literature: C. G. Jung, Carl Rogers, Rollo May, Karen Horney, and Erich Fromm, among others.

Within the context of "formal" psychology 1,435 English-language books, articles, and essays have been selected from critical and scholarly secondary works published 1969-82. An introductory chapter on general studies and essay collections is followed by chapters on chronological periods; each chapter begins with a list of general items, followed by items on specific authors. Annotations are generally a sentence or two in length. There are subject and author indexes. This contrasts with Kiell's 19,674 citations grouped by literary form, selected from the international secondary literature published 1900-1980, with subject (but not author) index. While Kiell may remain the first choice for broadly interpreted literature searches on psychology and literature, reference collections strong in literary criticism should also include the Natoli-Rusch work.—D.G.

Weiner, Alan R. and Means, Spencer. *Literary Criticism Index*. Metuchen, N.J., Scarecrow Pr., 1984. 685p. \$49.50. LC 84-1371. ISBN 0-8108-1694-6.

This is a kind of index to indexes. The compilers have indexed the contents of eighty-seven indexes and bibliographies of literary criticism, from such standard works as *Poetry Explication* and *Magill's Bibliography of Literary Criticism* to more unusual titles such as *West Indian Literature* and *Scottish Literature in English*. The work appears to cover nearly every literary volume in Gale's "Guide to Information

Sources" series and could be useful for locating material in that eclectic collection. Arrangement is alphabetical by author, then by title. Quotation marks are used for titles of short stories and poems; novels and plays are entered without quotation marks, and there is no other indication of the genre to which a title belongs.

Literary Criticism Index seems designed for librarians. Its somewhat confusing format and the number of steps needed finally to locate the actual criticism (six, by my count) appear to preclude its being used by the typical student looking for literary criticism.—M.C.

PERFORMING ARTS

Bordman, Gerald. *The Oxford Companion to American Theater*. Oxford & N.Y., Oxford Univ. Pr., 1984. 734p. \$49.95. LC 83-26812. ISBN 0-19-503443-0.

In this addition to the Oxford Companions, the author has tried "to give a broad picture of the popular American stage."—*Pref.* Emphasis is on popular theatrical entertainment rather than drama as literature, so the guide includes entries for such popular entertainments as circuses, minstrel shows, and vaudeville.

Unlike the *Oxford Companion to the Theatre*, this work has several hundred entries for individual plays. Popularity (established by the number of performances) as well as literary merit was used to determine the plays to be included, so the reader can find the plots and performance histories of many popular nineteenth-century melodramas of minimal literary worth, such as "The Black Crook," one of the major contributors to the development of burlesque. Non-American plays which were popular in the United States have also been included; thus, there are entries for Shakespeare's plays, with brief histories of their major American productions. The entries for major actors, playwrights, and producers also include many non-American figures; these entries contain brief biographical information consisting mainly of names and dates of major performances; in some cases representative reviews are quoted. Occasionally other sources are cited, but this practice seems erratic and incomplete. The work also con-

tains brief essays on general topics such as economics of the theater, censorship, and drama criticism. Newer off-Broadway plays and younger actors were consciously omitted as not yet being part of the theatrical mainstream. The many plot summaries and the concentration on popular theater make this publication a useful introduction to the theater Americans have attended.—M.C.

International Index to Television Periodicals. 1979/80-. London, International Federation of Film Archives, [1983]-. Biennial. £30. LC sc83-7592. ISSN 0143-5663.

Like its companion, the *International Index to Film Periodicals* (Guide BG124), this index is produced as a cooperative effort of archives and libraries around the world; also like the *IIFP*, it originated as a subscription card service that is now being published in book form. Since the production of the two indexes is coordinated, the *International Index to Television Periodicals* includes articles on television and video that appear in film periodicals as well as television periodicals.

Four separate indexes—general subjects, individual programs and TV films, biography, and authors—make up the volume; users must keep this division in mind so as not to overlook relevant material. Further difficulties are caused by the lack of adequate cross-references among subject headings. For example, under the heading "Censorship" there are cross-references to "Freedom of Communication" and to "Government Control" but not to "Internal Censorship" (a heading that one is not likely to think of on one's own), while under the last heading there are no cross-references at all. Similarly, there are separate entries, without cross-references, for "Archives and Institutes," "Libraries, TV," and several individual television archives. Thus, this index must be used with care. In spite of this caveat and in spite of the fact that television articles are also included in the *Film Literature Index*, this new publication is a useful source for libraries serving students and scholars with research interests in television and video, especially since its cita-

tions are annotated. It would be even more useful if it could maintain a more current publishing schedule.—A.L.

The New York Times Encyclopedia of Film, 1896-1979. Gene Brown, ed. N.Y., Times Books, [1983-84]. 13v. \$1,500. il. LC 81-3607. ISBN 0-8129-1059-1.

This "encyclopedia" is actually a compilation, in chronological order, of *New York Times* articles on moving pictures and the moving picture industry. From the tiny advertisement on April 23, 1896, announcing the showing of "Edison's Marvel, the Vitascope" to an article of December 31, 1979, reporting on a reunion in Los Angeles of people involved in the making of "Gone With the Wind," the news reports, interviews, commentary, and analysis (but not film reviews) reproduced here present a fascinating if unsystematic chronicle of the history of the movies. The volumes are eminently browsable and will appeal greatly to the movie fan in all of us; one can just pick a year and start reading. Students and scholars will find a unique and convenient overview of the economic, social, political, and, occasionally, aesthetic issues that movies have raised in the popular consciousness.

The index "offers references to the *most significant* people, places, things, and themes" (emphasis added) presented in the encyclopedia. While the index is much clearer and easier to use than the many annual indexes to the *New York Times*, it is too selective in its choice of "significant" items"; to give only one example, an article from 1963 discussing the continued existence of the blacklist from McCarthy days does not appear in the index under "blacklist." This weakness is particularly unfortunate since the cumulated index is the primary reference feature of this compilation of media views of the movies.—A.L.

PHOTOGRAPHY

ICP Encyclopedia of Photography. N.Y., Crown, [1984]. 607p. il. \$50. LC 84-1856. ISBN 0-517-55271-X.

At head of title: International Center of Photography.

Photography enthusiasts will welcome this handsome volume almost as much for its wealth of illustrations as for its factual content. Designed "to give the general reader a comprehensive view of the medium in a single volume" (*Pref.*), it offers some thirteen hundred entries which describe "the current state of the aesthetic, communicative, scientific, technical, and commercial applications of photography," indicate how the medium developed, and provide information about important figures in the field—scientists and inventors as well as photographers. Biographical entries (about 350 of them) characterize the work of the photographer or other practitioner, highlight achievements, and trace the development of a career. Photographs usually appear in close proximity to the relevant articles or, when placed elsewhere (as with the groupings of color plates), reference is made from the text. Articles on photographic processes and equipment are often accompanied by charts or line drawings. A "Biographical Supplement of Photographers" briefly identifies some two thousand photographers not accorded articles in the main text, and there is a classified bibliography, p.600-607. Articles are unsigned and the list of contributors offers no credentials; an "International Board of Advisers for Photographer Inclusion" is named.

Although the work was planned for "the general reader" one cannot but regret the lack of bibliographies for individual articles: many of the biographical articles in particular clearly required a good deal of research, and it seems unfortunate that the major sources of information are not cited. Books by an individual are mentioned (with dates), but exhibitions are referred to by title without indicating whether there are published catalogs thereof. Such reservations aside, this is a welcome reference work in a field of steadily increasing interest.—E.S.

SOCIAL SCIENCES

Bowman, James S., Elliston, Frederick H. and Lockhart, Paula. *Professional Disent: An Annotated Bibliography and Research Guide.* N.Y., Garland, 1984. 322p.

(Public affairs and administration ser., 2; Garland reference library of social science, 128) \$39. LC 82-48768. ISBN 0-824-09217-1.

Frank Serpico. Daniel Ellsberg. Deep Throat. Karen Silkwood. These people risked careers and even lives to call to public attention acts of mismanagement, illegality, or corruption. To some, they are considered heroes. To all, they are examples of "whistle blowers," employees who disclose any wrongdoing by their employer and chance the consequences. A substantial literature on "professional dissent" has accumulated over the past few decades, and the authors of this work have grouped the material in eleven categories. The initial sections deal with corruption in business, government, science, engineering, law, and other selected professions. A separate chapter is devoted to the philosophical and theoretical issues of professional conduct, ethical standards, and responsibilities. Newspaper stories and popular magazine articles are listed together; congressional documents, court cases, legal analyses, and federal/state employee protection statutes constitute another chapter. Additional bibliographies, indexes, directories, and audiovisual sources suggest further avenues for research. Guidance to would-be whistle blowers and personal accounts of prominent dissenters are included. Finally, a list of key organizations and telephone hotline numbers are provided. An author index concludes the work, but a subject index is regrettably absent.

Within each chapter of the bibliography, current through 1982, the citations are arranged alphabetically by author. Many have brief, descriptive annotations, and the seminal works are starred. The range of material includes the scholarly literature as well as sensationalized case histories, polemics, legal reports, popular accounts, and organizational responses. This compilation will be important to anyone concerned with dissent in organizations.—L.B.

Bogue, Donald J. *The Population of the United States: Historical Trends and Future Projections*. N.Y., Free Pr.; London, Col-

lier Macmillan, [1985]. 728p. \$55. LC 84-18688. ISBN 0-02-904700-5.

The present work is an extension of the author's 1959 *Population of the United States* (Guide CG65) and concentrates on analyzing the data from the years since 1960. Thus the earlier work will still be useful for "more detailed data and interpretation for the years preceding and immediately following World War II."—*Pref.* Both volumes are intended for "all who find they need to know the fundamental facts of population growth, its composition and distribution in the United States and to understand the implications of these facts for the present and the future." Presentation is through some twenty chapters within five broad topics: overview, population change, social characteristics, economic characteristics, special topics. (This last section includes chapters on religious affiliation, the population of Puerto Rico, etc.)

The strength of the compilation lies in the clear and careful statistical tables and graphs, but each chapter also offers discussion of the details, a "definition box" for basic concepts under consideration, a subsection on updating the information, and lengthy bibliographies. Many chapters include a "Technical Appendix" which describes the means of gathering information. There are also several appendices at the end of the volume concerning age and sex of the population, 1940-80, and several tables of demographic data for cities. A detailed subject index is provided.

Although most of the tables are from published government documents or data files, the compiler has assembled and summarized admirably. The volume could be useful at almost any level of research.—E.M.

Carroll, Berenice A., Fink, Clinton F. and Mohraz, Jane E. *Peace and War: A Guide to Bibliographies*. Santa Barbara, Calif.: ABC-Clio, 1983. 580p. (War/peace bibliography ser., 16) \$42.50. LC 81-4980. ISBN 0-87436-322-5.

The "War/Peace Bibliography Series" comprises information guides in the area of social and political conflict with empha-

sis on historical development, the search for solutions to current issues, and effects on society. This sixteenth volume in the series focuses on works primarily concerned with abolishing war and establishing a peaceful world society. It is an annotated guide to bibliographies published as books, articles, pamphlets, or as sections of nonbibliographic works, 1785 through 1980. Some unpublished material is also included. The 1,398 entries are mostly English-language publications and show a geographical emphasis on the United States and Western Europe. Part 1 lists general bibliographies relevant to both peace and war in such subject areas as international relations, international law, and religion. Part 2 is devoted to bibliographies on peace, the peace movement, and related topics. Part 3 focuses on the causes and consequences of war.

The three parts are divided into thirty-four subject categories including armament and disarmament, social movements, peace plans, international organization, history of war, and psychological aspects of war. Within each subject category entries are listed chronologically, then alphabetically by author. (Since the emphasis is on promoting world peace, works on military strategy, deterrence policy, etc., receive only a sample listing in part 1.) An excellent feature of the work is its extensive annotations. Also, the chronological arrangement of material is extremely useful for those interested in the history of the field or in locating the most recent materials. Author and subject indexes are included; however, the computer-produced subject index contains too many broad terms with long and virtually useless lists of entry numbers.

This bibliography fills a gap and serves its prescribed purpose as a timesaver and "a reliable guidepost" for students, researchers, librarians, and the general public.—D.H.

Hall, Kermit L. *A Comprehensive Bibliography of American Constitutional and Legal History, 1896-1979*. Millwood, N.Y., Kraus Internat. Pubns., [1984]. 5v. (3,443p.) \$650. LC 82-48983. ISBN 0-527-37408-3.

"Comprehensive, not complete" is the way the compiler characterizes this bibliography. But faced with 68,063 numbered entries, one is not likely to plead for exhaustiveness. Moreover, limits have been carefully set: "books, journal articles, and doctoral dissertations in history published in English in the United States" (*Introd.*) are the stated province; published primary sources are cited only when they are accompanied by significant introductory or explanatory material; and writings that deal with the theoretical issues of law and constitutionalism are excluded. Articles gleaned from about 750 journals account for a high percentage of citations, for, as the preface states, "Far from being a concentrated body of knowledge, the history of American law and constitutionalism has been sprinkled through a significant number of law, political science, sociology, economics, criminal justice, criminology, and local and state historical journals."

Citations are grouped in topical subdivisions within seven chapters: (1) General surveys and texts; (2) Institutions; (3) Constitutional doctrine; (4) Legal doctrine; (5) Biographical; (6) Chronological; (7) Geographical. Rather than relying on *see also* references, Hall has entered citations in more than one section (e.g., an entry from one of the topical sections is likely to be repeated in the chronological and/or geographical sections) and has used boldface item numbers to denote primary entries, italic numbers for secondary entries. This use of boldface and italic numbers is carried over into the author and subject indexes and is particularly welcome in subject entries with extensive lists of reference numbers ("Constitution" runs to eight columns). Monumental as it seems, the work is termed a "pioneering effort" and the compiler promises to follow it up with supplements.—E.S.

Oberg, Larry R. *Human Services in Postrevolutionary Cuba: An Annotated International Bibliography*. Westport, Conn., Greenwood Pr., 1984. 433p. \$45. LC 83-26527. ISBN 0-313-23125-7.

"Human services" as defined in this significant bibliography include educa-

tion, public health, housing, and sports. The provision of such services and their impact on youth, women, families, and minorities are also dealt with. But education is the major theme: research pertinent to all levels of formal and informal educational programs, teacher training, school administration, student movements, and the socialist, military, and political aspects of learning form almost two thirds of the volume. Particularly notable is the section on the famous "Literacy Campaign of 1961," postrevolutionary Cuba's major cultural accomplishment.

The scholarly literature of Cuba, the rest of the Americas, and Europe has been culled through 1982 for relevant books, book chapters, pamphlets, journal articles, government and international agency publications, dissertations and encyclopedia entries. Bibliographies abound. General, theoretical, and historical works are included when deemed important for introduction, background, or comparison. Great care has been taken in regard to both content and presentation. The topical chapters are subdivided into more specific sections in which references are arranged alphabetically by author. Annotations vary from brief descriptions to lengthy comments on intellectual content, flavor, author bias, strengths, or weaknesses. Author, title, and detailed subject indexes facilitate access.

This bibliography will be important to researchers whose field work is hampered by travel restrictions, scholars investigating Cuban social systems as possible models, and anyone interested in the current social developments of a country that is so close but still so very far away.—L.B.

HISTORY

Encyclopedia of American Political History: Studies of the Principal Movements and Ideas. Jack P. Greene, ed. N.Y., Scribners, [1984]. 3v. (1420p.) \$180. LC 84-1355. ISBN 0-684-17003-5.

The *Encyclopedia of American Political History* follows the pattern set by the *Encyclopedia of American Foreign Policy* (Suppl. DB37) and the *Encyclopedia of American Economic History* (Suppl. 2CH22): that is, large

topics treated by prominent scholars, good bibliographies appended to each article, and the whole intended for the student or lay reader. Greene recognizes that "political history has had to share the attention of historians along with intellectual, cultural, economic, and social history," yet feels that "political history has continued to exert a powerful hold upon the imaginations and loyalties of the American historical community, and it remains at the core of the structure of the history of the United States."—Pref.

Articles treat political events, major documents, and "major issues, themes, institutions, processes and developments as they have been manifest throughout the whole of United States history, from the decision for independence to the present." The first topic covered is "Historiography of American political history," after which the presentation is alphabetical from "Agricultural policy" to "Women's rights." The articles are well written and many make very interesting reading, for each author was encouraged "to take a strong personal line of interpretation." A list of contributors and a topical index complete the set. The editor and his advisory board have produced a very useful compilation for both public and academic libraries.—E.M.

The Frontier Experience: A Reader's Guide to the Life and Literature of the American West.

Ed. by Jon Tuska and Vicki Piekarski with Paul J. Blanding. Jefferson, N.C., McFarland, [1984]. 434p. \$29.95. LC 84-42611. ISBN 0-89950-118-4.

The "reader's guide" of the subtitle is not to be taken lightly in the sense of merely a broad-ranging list of relevant readings. The bibliographic essays that make up this volume tend to be highly opinionated, firmly pointing out shortcomings of the works discussed, comparing differing accounts, and recommending preferred versions. Emphasis is on the American West, but the entire American frontier experience is considered and is dealt with in two main sections, "The Life" and "The Literature." Attention is given to women, native Americans, Mexican-Americans, trappers, cowboys,

outlaws, etc., and to religion, the fur trade, transportation, and communication. In addition to literature ("Western Fiction" constitutes one of the longest sections), considerable space is devoted to films and, to a lesser degree, television. Chapters (by half a dozen contributors, with the work of Tuska and Piekarski predominating) follow a similar pattern, but are varied to accommodate the specific material or topic; usually there is a brief introductory essay followed by an annotated list of studies, anthologies, or outstanding examples of a genre, with lists of suggested fiction and suggested films as appropriate. Name and title indexes complete the volume.—E.S.

Gephart, Ronald M. *Revolutionary America, 1763-1789: A Bibliography*. Washington, Library of Congress, 1984. 2v. (1672p.) \$38. LC 80-606802. ISBN 0-8444-0359-8.

Compiled over ten years as a Library of Congress "bicentennial" project, this bibliography "is a guide to the more important printed primary and secondary works in the Library's collections."—*Introd.* Included are monographs, dissertations, collected works, festschriften, serial publications, and selected pamphlets published through December 1972. The 14,810 entries are arranged in twelve topical-chronological chapters ranging from "Research Aids" and "The Colonies on the Eve of the Independence," to "Economic, Social, and Intellectual Life in Revolutionary America" and "The Making of the Constitution." The final chapter, by far the largest section of the work, contains biographies and personal primary sources for more than two thousand individuals of the period arranged in alphabetical order by subject, together with many regional biographical directories. Entries include a full bibliographic citation, with physical description, Library of Congress location and call number, and, in most cases, a brief annotation. There are no cross-references except in the index, although the citations in the biographical section include references to the *Dictionary of National Biography* and the *Dictionary of American Biography*.

Unfortunately, the bibliography lacks a good index. "The index is limited, for the most part, to proper names (authors, editors, compilers, historical figures, corporate bodies, geographic locations, etc.) with descriptive subdivisions."—*Index.* This will aid the researcher studying a specific area or battle, for example, but the scholar seeking information on a general subject like "midwives during the revolutionary period" must go through all of the many geographic headings looking for the subdivision "midwives." Nevertheless, the bibliography will be very useful in academic and public libraries of many sizes, and will complement *Manuscript Sources in the Library of Congress for Research on the American Revolution* (1975; Suppl. DB21).—S.S.

Goehrlert, Robert U. and Martin, Fenton S. *The Presidency: A Research Guide*. Santa Barbara, Calif., ABC-Clío, [1985]. 341p. \$28.50. LC 84-6425. ISBN 0-87436-373-X.

Although this work lists many secondary sources, it is most useful as a guide to the many published and unpublished primary sources for studying the U.S. presidency. Some fourteen hundred entries, many of them annotated, are listed in four sections. Part 1, "The Presidency as an Institution," discusses the many congressional, legal, and executive documents that contain information on the presidency, as well as the bibliographies, indexes, and handbooks which provide secondary source material. Part 2, "The Oval Office," deals with individual presidents and includes guides to archives and manuscript collections, the published writings of each president, sources for radio and television coverage, and bibliographies. Part 3, "Running for Office," identifies tools for studying campaign finances, interest groups, media, conventions, primaries, and election results. "Researching the Presidency," the final section, includes a six-page essay on research strategy and twenty-six appendixes providing charts and tables designed to help the user identify research tools. There are name and title indexes, but the guide's major flaw is the lack of a subject index;

this is only partly compensated by the appendixes and the extensive table of contents.—S.S.

Kaplan, Jonathan, ed. *International Bibliography of Jewish History and Thought*. München, K. G. Saur; Jerusalem, Magnes Pr., Hebrew Univ., 1984. 483p. \$41. LC 84-188389. ISBN 3-598-07503-0.

The first volume of a new bibliographical project sponsored by the Rothberg School for Overseas Students of the Hebrew University, this bibliography has as its aim to list the major works in the field of Jewish studies whether published in Hebrew or in various European languages. Because the subject areas of Jewish history and thought are so vast, the number of works included had, of necessity, to be limited. The approximately two thousand volumes listed were considered to have value for scientific study and represented, in most cases, the most up-to-date research available. The bibliography is divided into six sections: General Works; The Biblical Period; The Period of the Second Temple, the Mishnah and the Talmud; The Medieval Period; The Modern Period; and Jewish Communities. Sections are further divided either by date, topic of interest, or geographic area. Within sections the works are entered alphabetically by author, editor, or title (when no author is known); there are separate listings for books written in Hebrew and for those in European languages; and a book is always listed in the most specific category possible. In the case of translations or multilingual volumes, cross-references are provided between the Hebrew and the European-language sections. Each entry includes only that information essential for identifying it, plus a brief note on the contents. Completing the volume is an index of authors, editors, translators, and people to whom festschriften or memorial volumes were dedicated.—L.S.

NEW EDITIONS, SUPPLEMENTS, ETC.

Nearly 1,200 bibliographies published as books, parts of books, or as periodical

articles during the 1980-83 period are cited in Yvette Scheven's *Bibliographies for African Studies, 1980-1983* (München, Hans Zell/K. G. Saur, 1984. 300p. \$36). It continues the compiler's earlier listings covering 1970-75 (*Suppl.* DD14) and 1976-79 (*Suppl.* 2DD14).

The second edition of *A Dravidian Etymological Dictionary* by Thomas Burrow and Murray B. Emeneau (Oxford, Clarendon Pr.; N.Y., Oxford Univ. Pr., 1984. 853p. \$74) incorporates the fruits of new scholarship with the material published in the 1961 edition of the dictionary (*Guide* AD233) and its 1968 supplement.

To a large extent, the second edition of *The Oxford Russian-English Dictionary* by Marcus Wheeler (N.Y., Oxford Univ. Pr., 1984. 930p. \$34.95) is a reprinting, with corrections, of the 1972 edition (*Guide* AD596), but some new entries and additional meanings have been inserted. There is also a new appendix of Russian geographical names with their English equivalents. The volume has been joined by a complementary work, *The Oxford English-Russian Dictionary* edited by P. S. Falla (N.Y., Oxford Univ. Pr., 1984. 1052p. \$60). Like the companion work, "it is intended mainly, though not exclusively, for English-speaking users at university or similar level."—*Pref.*

Latin America and the West Indies are the areas covered by V.4 of the *Historical Periodicals Directory* (Santa Barbara, Calif., ABC-Clio, 1985. 157p. \$89). It provides information on more than thirteen hundred periodicals relating to history and allied fields.

Prepared in the Serial and Government Publications Division of the Library of Congress, the fourth edition of *Popular Names of U.S. Government Reports* (Wash., Lib. of Congress, 1984. 272p. \$12) updates the 1976 edition (*Guide* AG29), providing useful links between the corporate and institutional forms of entry used in most library catalogs and the popular names of reports used in the media and by library users. Bernard A. Bernier, Jr., and Karen Wood are the compilers.

The new index volume for the *National Cyclopedia of American Biography* (Clifton, N.J., James T. White & Co., 1984. 576p.)

supersedes the 1979 index (*Suppl.* 2A16), providing personal name and topical indexing of all volumes published 1891-1984. That is, it covers "Permanent series" volumes 1-62, "Current series" volumes A-M, plus volume N-63 (publ. 1984), which carries both a number and a letter designation to indicate that it includes biographies of both deceased and living persons.

Although textual changes have been affected without resetting, and the maps have not been redrawn, the third edition of the *Oxford Bible Atlas* (N.Y., Oxford Univ. Pr., 1984. 144p. \$18.95; 2d ed. 1974; *Guide* BB187) as revised by John Day exhibits numerous changes throughout. Some new illustrations have been inserted and map colors have been changed or shadings intensified to provide greater clarity.

The Crown Guide to the World's Great Plays by Joseph T. Shipley (N.Y., Crown, 1984. 866p. \$24.95) is a revised and updated edition of Shipley's *Guide to Great Plays* (1956; *Guide* BD163). Revision involved not merely deleting old titles to accommodate newer ones, but reconsideration of various plays not included in the first edition. While much of the text is unchanged from the earlier volume, new critical notes and information about significant revivals of the last decades have been added to many of the existing articles.

For many of the playwrights dealt with in Floyd E. Eddelman's *American Drama Criticism; Supplement I to the Second Edition* (Hamden, Conn., Shoe String Pr., 1984. 255p. \$29.50) a "general" section is included preceding the entries for individual plays. Cut-off date for the supplement appears to be 1982, with a few 1983 items listed.

"Hamlet," "Timon of Athens," "Twelfth Night," "The Comedy of Errors," and "Henry IV, Parts I and II" are the plays under consideration in the first volume of *Shakespearean Criticism*, edited by Laurie Lanzen Harris (Detroit, Gale, 1984. v.1: 683p. \$72). As stated in the subtitle, this new series—similar to the publisher's *Twentieth-Century Literary Criticism* and *19th-Century Literature Criticism*—offers "excerpts from the criti-

cism of William Shakespeare's plays and poetry, from the first published appraisals to current evaluations." Four more volumes (of which each will, presumably, offer a similar mix of major and minor tragedies and comedies, and the histories) are to be devoted to the individual plays, while additional volumes on performance criticism and other special topics are also planned.

Twentieth-Century Short Story Explanation; Supplement II to Third Edition by Warren S. Walker (Hamden, Conn., Shoe String Pr., 1984. 348p. \$35) extends coverage of the work (*Guide* BD202) through 1981, adding another 246 authors to the total number of short story writers cited.

Although designated "revised" on the title page, the new V. 2 of *A Critical Bibliography of French Literature: The Sixteenth Century*, edited by Raymond C. La Charité (Syracuse, Syracuse Univ. Pr., 1985. 847p. \$34.95) is "neither a revised edition of the 1956 publication [*Guide* BD708] nor a mere supplement to it. It is an entirely new and comprehensive work. The 1956 publication is not to be dismissed, however. Numerous entries in this volume refer specifically by number to assessments in the 1956 volume, and readers will no doubt profit from cross-references and comparisons that are both explicit and implicit."—*Introd.* There has been some reorganization of content; cut-off date is 1981; sections are again the work of single contributors or teams of scholars.

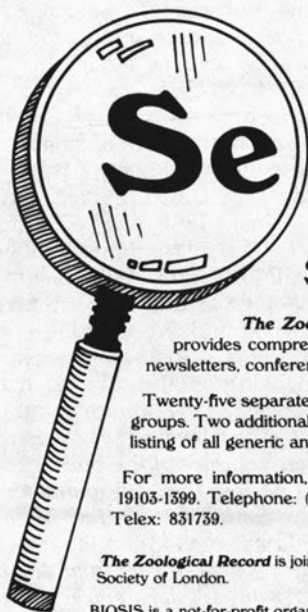
Arctic, edited by David Damas (Wash., Smithsonian Inst., 1984. 829p. \$29) forms V.5 of the *Handbook of North American Indians* (*Suppl.* CD25, 2CD13). With major sections on peoples of the Western Arctic, Canadian Arctic, and Greenland, this volume will be the principal source for information on Eskimos and Aleuts in the *Handbook* series, but the preface points out that a number of relevant topics are dealt with in other volumes of the set.

Issued as no.8 in the "Supplement series" of the *Statistical Abstract of Latin America* (*Suppl.* CG43), Richard W. Wilkie's *Latin American Population and Urbanization Analysis: Maps and Statistics, 1950-1982* (Los Angeles, UCLA Latin American Center Pubns., 1984. 433p. \$65)

"attempts to assemble the most recent population data on the twenty Latin American republics" (*Introd.*), presenting the information through charts, maps, and photographs. Data for Latin America as a whole precedes that for individual countries. Major sources for the tables of statistics are cited.

Population Index Bibliography, Cumulated 1969-1981 by Authors and Geographical Areas (Boston, G. K. Hall, 1984. 4v. \$310) reflects the move toward increased computerization of the work involved in preparing the *Population Index (Guide CG21)*. Volume 1, an author index for the

1969-74 period, provides photographic reproduction of the bibliographic citations found in the quarterly issues of the *Index*, presented alphabetically by author in much the same manner as the 1935-68 cumulation. Volume 2, covering 1975-77, represents the first stage of computerization; it is again an alphabetical author arrangement, but subject and geographical indexes have been added. Finally, volumes 3-4 cover 1978-81 and show a more advanced stage of the computerization process, still offering the author/subject/geographical approaches of the preceding section.—E.S.



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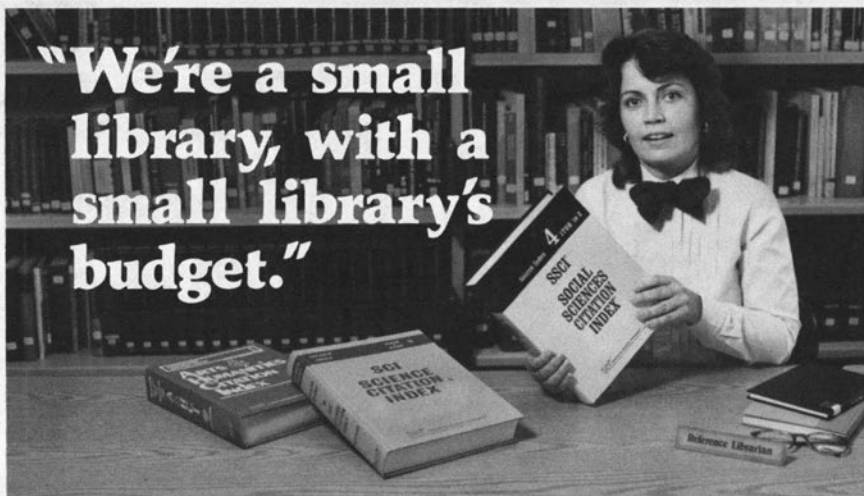
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Letters

To the Editor:

In his *C&RL*, (Mar. 1985) article "Book Selection Policies in the College Library: A Reappraisal," Charles Gardner makes at least two important claims, one of which is true and the other false. Neither is well documented.

The first is that faculty dominate book selection in small undergraduate institutions. I found this to be true in 1979, when I did a study, "Collection Development in Ten Small Academic Libraries: A Report to the Council on Library Resources" (ERIC ED 190 074). Further, I expect it is still true, though less so than it used to be and not for the same reasons reported by Gardner.

A second claim made by Gardner is that the first claim is the prevailing opinion of college librarians and that there have been few dissenters. Please count me, and a host of other college collection developers, as dissenters. Many of us have argued that material's budgets should be allocated by subject rather than by department precisely in order to make it clear to everyone just who has responsibility for and control of the book budget. I might point out that this has been argued ad nauseam in print and out.

Mr. Gardner may think he is alone in his reappraisal. He is not. Rather he joins a large, established, and distinguished group of college librarians interested in collection development.

WILLIAM E. HANNAFORD, JR.,
College Librarian, Castleton State College, Castleton, Vermont

To the Editor:

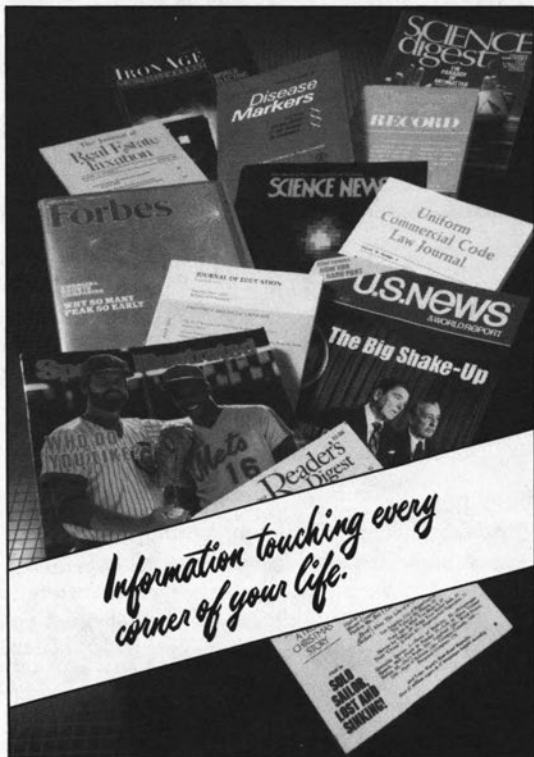
The paper of Kohl and Davis, "Ratings of Journals by ARL Library Directors and Deans of Library and Information Science Schools" [*C&RL* Jan. 1985], is clear with respect to directors, deans and truly general journals. However, its treatment of specialty journals (e.g., excluding *Notes* and *BMLA* but including *Law Library Journal* and *School Library Media Quarterly*) is confusing. And the claim that it represents a dialogue between educators and practitioners may require an important qualification. There must be—in studies like this and in tenure and promotion decisions—a better distinction made between truly general journals (e.g., *Library Quarterly*, *Library Trends*, *Library Journal*), which deans and directors can judge as well as anyone else, and those journals specialized by librarian function (e.g., *RQ*, *Reference Services Review*, and *Reference Librarian*) or subject area (e.g., *Notes*, *BMLA*, *Science and Technology Libraries*) best judged by instructors and practitioners in those specialties. The authors acknowledge limitations in the scope and nature of this study, but suggest that it might well be extended to school or public librarians. May I suggest that any extension be in a way of perhaps greater interest to readers of *C&RL*: the consensus of professors and practitioners of public and technical services, and humanities, social science, and scientific literatures, about the journals (both general and within their specialty) that they regard as prestigious.

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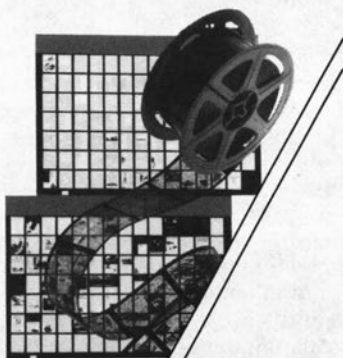
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BOOK REVIEWS

Libraries and the Learning Society: Papers in Response to A Nation at Risk. Chicago, Ill.: American Library Assn., 1984. 151p. \$9. LC 84-11163. ISBN 0-8389-3313-0.

The five papers included in the work under review here constitute the first step in the response to the failure of the commission responsible for *A Nation at Risk* to acknowledge adequately the role of libraries in the educational program of our country. In addition to this title, sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education but issued by the ALA, the Department of Education has also published *Alliance for Excellence: Librarians Respond to A Nation at Risk* (64p.), which contains thirteen recommendations for action on the part of librarians, parents, educators, and citizens, by which "Libraries, newly organized, freshly chartered, can become centers of the learning society." This publication is now out of print at the Government Printing Office but has been reprinted and is being distributed through the good offices of World Book Inc. In addition, ALA has published *Realities: Educational Reform in a Learning Society*, a statement by ALA's Task Force on Excellence in Education (13p. single copy, free; 2-10, 50¢ each; 11-99 copies, 30¢ each). The latter publication is intended to be used as a basis for study and discussion by groups of citizens and others concerned. With these resources, 1985 is obviously the "Year of Dissemination" for libraries and the learning society.

Libraries and the Learning Society presents analyses by five leaders of the profession that were used as the basis of five seminars held at the invitation of the U.S. De-

partment of Education in as many localities around the country during the months of January through March 1984.

Readers of this journal may be most interested in Richard Dougherty's thoughtful analysis, "Stemming the Tide of Mediocrity: The Academic Library Response." He provides a survey of the seminal studies on use of academic libraries whose "lessons and recommendations have gone largely unheeded." Patricia Knapp, Louis Shores, and E. J. Josey are among those whose work he cites. Dougherty's major recommendation for improving the impact of academic libraries is one that has been urged for years, one might almost say for generations: "There should be a logical progression in the teaching of library strategies beginning with primary schools, and continuing steadily through college." Among problems that must be met by academic libraries, Dougherty cites the need for more effective programs for educationally disadvantaged students and recognition of the need to involve librarians more actively in the educational role of institutions of higher education, which he says is not "just a matter of status but also a matter of turf and roles." He notes especially the need for state agencies and tenure and promotion committees to be willing to alter academic reward systems. It is no criticism of this author's work to say that his paper has little in it new or original; rather it is a further evidence of organizational resistance to change in academic institutions.

Douglas L. Zweigig, in his paper "Public Libraries and Excellence: The Public Library Response to A Nation at Risk," emphasizes throughout the importance of

the public library's role in eradicating adult functional illiteracy, although he points out at the same time that "public libraries themselves have yet to play a major role in the achievement of adult literacy." Zweizig is concerned also with the continuing constriction in economic support for public libraries and notes the growing tendency in public libraries to eliminate young adult services. He elaborates on the increasing sameness of available information and, as a result, the obligation of the public library to enhance the diversity of information available to the general public. His emphasis on this increasing sameness is of particular interest but contrasts with the fact that the *amount* of information has tripled in the number of titles published annually in the past twenty years. His recommendations include several mentioned in other papers: diversification of content, longer hours, joint planning with community schools for the information requirements of students, and more active planning between teachers and librarians. Zweizig's discussion of the public library's role in planning points up, as Dougherty did, the need for cooperation and coordination of programs and services between school, academic, and public libraries.

Peggy Sullivan's paper, "Libraries and the Learning Society: Relationships and Linkages among Libraries," brings out a number of points already mentioned. In discussing the role of library instruction, she claims that "School and public libraries probably do their most effective job in this area at the elementary level." Access to computers, the function of libraries to serve as bridges to the English language for new residents in the U.S., and the formation of library networks to provide better service are among the special points she makes. She notes, however, that "school libraries are traditionally the last type of library to be included in any multi-type cooperative (although there are some indications, as in New Jersey and New York, that this condition is changing)." Sullivan makes special mention of the fact that two stereotypes still exist and continue to delay the incorporation of school libraries into networks: the no-

tions that all "school library collections are alike so they won't have much to offer, and school libraries are self-sufficient because of the limited demands made upon them." Sullivan, like other authors in this series, promotes the role of library education in providing leadership in developing the function of libraries in a learning society. In discussing the role of library schools in higher education, she points out that library schools are "lacking in the numbers and clout that would make their institutional integrity clearer and their existence more secure." She questions the wisdom of returning school library education programs for housing exclusively in schools of education.

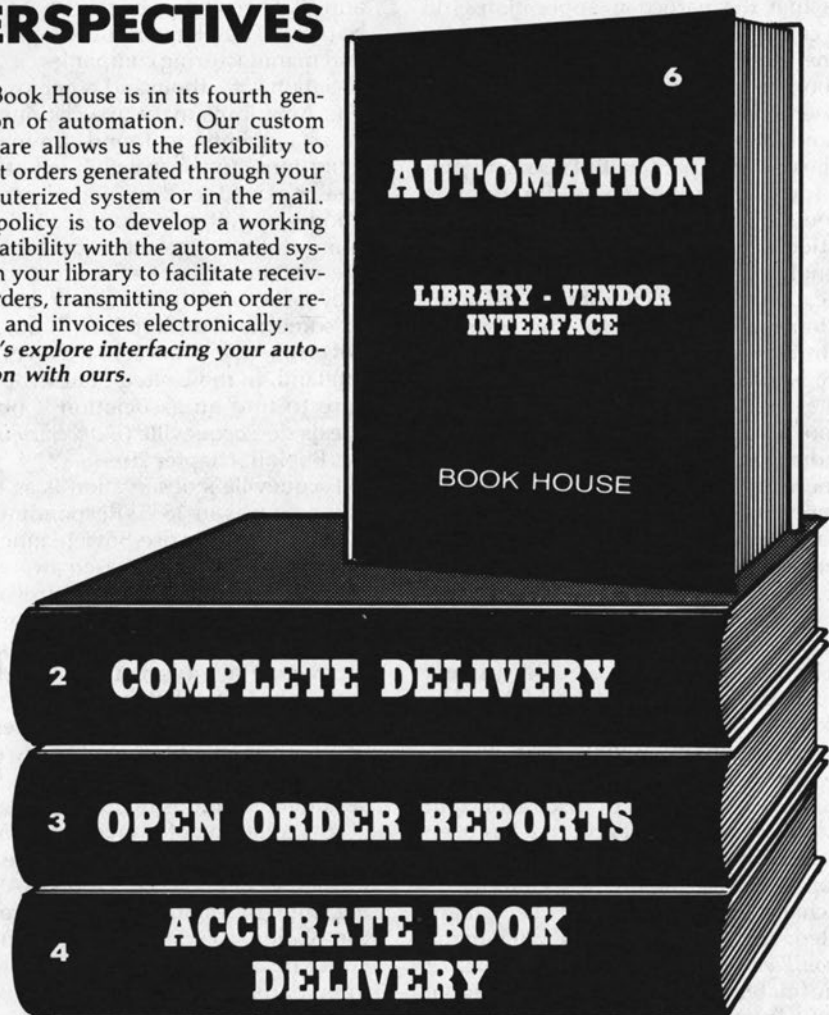
This is one of the many recommendations made by Jane Hannigan in her wordy and discursive paper, "Vision to Purpose to Power: A Quest for Excellence in the Education of Library and Information Science Professionals." In discussing a "Specialty Scenario: School Library Media Education," Hannigan states forthrightly, "I would move all educational responsibility for this profession to schools of education," basing her argument on the assumption that "school library media specialists are properly a part of schooling and their allegiance should be primarily in education." Other aspects of library education discussed by Hannigan include the need for curriculum planning, increased faculty productivity, and continuing education for faculty members, as well as deans!

The paper by James Liessner on "School Library Media Programs in an Information World" is based on a thorough exposition of the research that has been done in this field in recent years and emphasizes (like Dougherty and Zweizig) the need in both teaching and testing for library instruction programs to concentrate on higher levels of skills as well as on basic skills. His discussion of the role of information use and users in school media centers and its relation to the reference function in schools, leads to his assertion that "School library media programs need to be brought into the main stream of library information activity." He believes that all professional education should be moved to the gradu-

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ate level and that the "discipline of the library media specialist is the discipline of any library and information specialist except that the particular application is in this case in the school."

The question of library education for school media specialists seems to this reviewer to be the most important, and apparently the most controversial, discussed in these five papers, with Hannigan opting for putting the school librarians in schools of education and Sullivan, but particularly Liessner, coming down strongly for graduate level professional education as a part of the library and information specialist program. This reviewer is strongly in favor of Liessner's stand. Here is where the customers are, and, as in the past, this is where the leaders in the school library field have been and should be educated.

These five papers present a variety of assessments of librarianship today and an equal variety of recommendations for the achievement of excellence in the learning society. We owe a special debt not only to the authors of these papers but also to the staff of the Center for Libraries and Education Improvement in the U.S. Department of Education, as well as to the ALA and its Task Force on Excellence in Education. The three publications that have been produced provide a wealth of opinion and data for use as a basis of discussion. But they will be worth the effort that has been put into them *only* if the profession takes action to correct the problems and meets the challenges that have thus been highlighted. As Norman Stevens wrote in the *Wilson Library Bulletin* (Nov. 1984, p.221): "The material should be of substantial benefit in awakening our consciousness and in teaching us how to present our views to others in a forthright fashion."—*Mary V. Gaver, Past President, ALA, and Professor Emeritus, Rutgers the State University of New Jersey.*

Abstracting and Indexing Services in Perspective, Miles Conrad Memorial Lectures. Ed. by M. Lynne Neufeld, Martha Cornog, and Inez L. Sperr. Arlington, Va.: Information Resources Pr., 1983.

312p. \$27.50. LC 82-084484. ISBN 0-87815-043-9.

"Americans of all ages, all conditions, and all dispositions, constantly form associations. They have not only commercial and manufacturing companies . . . but associations of a thousand other kinds. . . . The Americans make associations to give entertainments, to found seminaries, to build inns, to construct churches, to diffuse books, to send missionaries to the antipodes. . . . If it be proposed to inculcate some truth, or to foster some feeling by the encouragement of a great example, they form a society. Wherever, at the head of some new undertaking, you see the government in France, or a man of rank in England, in the United States you will be sure to find an association," observed Alexis de Tocqueville (*Democracy in America*, Book II, chapter 29).

Tocqueville's observation is as true today as it was in 1835. Responding to the shock of the surprise Soviet launching of *Sputnik* and to the increased awareness of the value of bibliographic control over scientific and technical research, representatives of fourteen American indexing and abstracting services met to establish a federation in 1958. They intended to cooperate in order to resolve inadequacies in the coverage of scientific literature, to explore applications of mechanization, and to seek joint solutions to other problems.

This collection of essays commemorates the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the National Federation of Abstracting and Information Services (formerly the National Federation of Science Abstracting and Indexing Services). The three parts of this volume are (1) papers detailing the history of the federation written by current and past officers, (2) brief personal statements by past presidents and executive directors of NFAIS on the silver anniversary of the organization, and (3) the fifteen Miles Conrad lectures. Miles Conrad (1911-64) was director of *Biological Abstracts* and a founder and first president of NFAIS. Since 1968, an expert in indexing, abstracting, or information service has been invited to address the annual meeting to honor Conrad. These lectures

form the heart of the book. They range widely from Phyllis Parkins' history of the professional climate in the 1950s to Dale Baker's contrast of information systems in the USSR and the USA, to Frederick Kilgour's comparison of cooperation in library book cataloging and the abstracting and indexing industry, to Donald King's diagnosis of the crisis in the information community.

One could quibble about two faults of the book: ironically the index is an afterthought, printed separately and tucked into a pocket. The bibliography, reflecting the wide scope of NFAIS issues—thesaurus construction, coordinate indexing, content analysis, weighted term searches—suffers from lack of a statement defining its purpose.

These oversights do not diminish the intellectual and social contribution of the book. Most librarians have been affected by the activities of the NFAIS members and all librarians will recognize that many information issues of the past twenty-five years continue as challenges we must meet. Libraries that have been relatively uncoordinated have begun formalized cooperative ventures to solve problems of finding money to automate large enterprises, or to design systematic coverage of materials without impinging on local prerogatives. Individuals and associations in the library and information professions share common problems and solutions. This book reminds us of how recently we have defined these technical and social problems in information service and how much has been accomplished in the past quarter of a century. Looking back gives another perspective on what lies ahead.—*Marcia Pankake, University of Minnesota.*

Tanner, Terence A. Frank Waters: A Bibliography with Relevant Selections from His Correspondence. Glenwood, Ill.: Meyerbrooks, 1983. 384p. \$45. LC 83-209590. ISBN 0-916638-07-3.

Frank Waters has spent virtually all of his long career (he was born in 1902, began writing in his early twenties, and, presumably, is still at work) learning and writing about the people, locales, events,

and heritage of the American Southwest. He has won a coterie of admirers—some half-dozen scholars who, during the last fifteen years or so, have devoted much time and effort to studying the author and his works and trying to gain for him the wider audience and recognition they are certain he deserves. Their names appear repeatedly in the brief bibliography of Waters' criticism. Terence Tanner's name has not been among them until the appearance of this descriptive bibliography, and yet, without the research grants, sabbatical support, and other publishing incentives of the academically affiliated scholar, Tanner has written the work that surely will be the starting point and measure for future Waters scholarship.

Tanner's extraordinary accomplishment, however, is in producing in the unlikely genre of bibliography, a real "page turner." This aspect of the book's appeal is due to the inclusion of generous "relevant selections" from Waters' correspondence and to Tanner's own notes. Adher-

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ing to the purposes of descriptive bibliography and publication history, Tanner selected for inclusion "only those letters written prior to publication of the book in question" and assiduously avoided any emphasis on biography beyond these purposes.

Still, the selections of prepublication correspondence are ample, often lengthy, and fleshed out and made coherent by Tanner's commentary. Thus, we have the opportunity to study in some detail the give and take between author and prospective publisher from first submitted manuscript (or, in some cases, simply a book idea) to publication. We are allowed to overhear, as it were, Waters do battle for the souls of his books against editors and publishing house readers whose inner eyes, naturally enough, are fixed on established editorial standards and projected public reception (i.e., sales). With what must have been frustrating frequency, Waters would have a book or book idea accepted only to find himself subsequently having to expend much energy and persuasive imagination defending basic elements of structure, length, characters, and the inclusion of "too much" mining or Indian lore.

Since postpublication correspondence is excluded here, it is left to Tanner's own notes to record with relentless regularity the commercial failure of title after title. "None of my books," Waters acknowledges in the foreword to the book, "was initially successful. One after another were immediate flops and let go out of print." So how, then, account for the fact that the current *Books in Print* lists fifteen of the twenty-two books Waters has written during his sixty-year writing career? In answer there are several nonfiction titles that provide unique information on significant subjects: *Masked Gods: Navajo and Pueblo Ceremonialism*; *Book of the Hopi*, a detailed revelation, largely through information provided by tribal elders, of Hopi ceremonialism; *The Colorado*, part of Rinehart's *Rivers of the World Series*; and *Leon Gaspard*, a biography of the painter. There are also a few of Waters' novels, including *The Man Who Killed the Deer*, generally regarded as his finest work of fic-

tion. Perhaps most importantly, there was Alan Swallow, the Denver-based publisher who became a committed admirer of Waters' writings and who, from the late 1940s until his death in 1966, republished and kept in print much of Waters' earlier work and published original editions of some of his later efforts. This allowed Waters time to find and expand his audience, presumably sufficient to encourage the present Swallow Press (affiliated with Ohio University Press and now without connection to the original Swallow Press) to keep these several titles in print.

There does seem to be at least a small groundswell of new interest in the American West and particularly the Southwest and its writers, perhaps reflected or in part engendered by the publication last year of a new biography of Mabel Dodge Luhan by Lois Palken Rudnick and the unabated interest in D. H. Lawrence who sojourned with Tony and Mabel Dodge Luhan in New Mexico. Frank Waters knew Lawrence through the Luhan's, who were his close friends—especially Tony Luhan, who encouraged and provided inspiration for Waters to explore his own Indian heritage. There are no references to Lawrence, however, in Tanner's bibliography and only three to the Luhan's, though these are of some significance—particularly in correspondence concerning *The Man Who Killed the Deer*, which was dedicated to the Luhan's.

Tanner's descriptions of the various editions of Water's writings are as scrupulous and meticulous as any connoisseur of descriptive bibliography could wish them to be and cover his subject thoroughly from two pieces of juvenilia that appeared in a Colorado grade school literary magazine through all the author's books, pamphlets, periodical contributions (including the numerous pieces written for the award-winning Southwestern weekly newspaper *El Crepusculo*, which Waters edited for two years), to Waters' contributions to books and articles written by others, and even book jacket blurbs for his own and others' books.

In the last section of his bibliography Tanner has attempted to list all of the major critical writings on Waters—twenty-six

items by fifteen writers, excluding six unpublished dissertations. The index locates entries by item number rather than page number (possibly indicating it was prepared prior to printing), which makes locating some subjects in the text a matter of close-scanning several pages. The textual material is well organized and clearly presented. A few minutes spent with the introductory and explanatory paraphernalia will amply reward the user of this exemplary bibliography.—*Dale Manning, English Bibliographer, Vanderbilt University.*

Kesner, Richard M. *Automation for Archivists and Records Managers: Planning and Implementation Strategies.* Chicago, Ill.: American Library Assn., 1984. 235p. \$27.50. LC 84-6243. ISBN 0-8389-0406-8.

Hedstrom, Margaret L. *Archives & Manuscripts: Machine-Readable Records.* Chicago, Ill.: Society of American Archivists, 1984. 75p. \$6 members; \$8 nonmembers. LC 84-51383. ISBN 0-9318-2860-0.

It is no longer the question of whether or not to automate, but rather "when" and "what" to relegate to the computer. This inevitable automation offers great opportunities for management—or mismanagement. Make the wrong decision and resources are wasted to the detriment of everyone. More than a warning to archivists and records managers of the fast approaching computer revolution in their field, this work provides general and specific recommendations for analyzing needs, making choices, and implementing automation projects. Easily divided into two presentations, it can be used as a guide for step-by-step procedures or as a discussion of current trends and possible avenues for the future.

The first part, chapters 1 through 4, provides a structured and systematic approach to the task of moving archives and records management functions to a computer-based environment. Just as the project should proceed, this work guides the reader through the preplanning process, the EDP survey, the planning process, and implementation. While the matrix decision-making model may be familiar to some, Kesner cannot point to

the widespread use of the model by others. However, he has successfully used the suggested matrices in his own work at F. W. Faxon and, previously, at the Archives of Appalachia and the Archives of Labor and Urban Affairs. The material presented here is valuable because of its specific application to the archival environment.

The preplanning process analyzes the information system requirements of archival and records administration. Automated techniques within such processes as fund-raising, word processing, publication production, grants administration, financial accounting, physical control of records, collection development, and reference services are identified. Without referring to specific products, Kesner discusses hardware and software options in the EDP survey. He cannot and does not try to cover the universe of products in the space allotted this chapter. Of great value are the references to publications that inform and update those interested in new products and systems. The number and quality of references are strengths of this work. However, the chosen format of listing the notes at the end of the work proves laborious for the individual reader wanting to refer to the notes while reading the text.

The planning and implementation processes are the core of Kesner's work and are presented in chapters 3 and 4. Here he introduces his evaluation matrix for comparison of vendors, products, and services and discusses the use of consultants, the financing of equipment, the selection of software, and the most effective use of EDP industry resources.

The second part, about a third of the text, is more "futuristic" and looks at the role that archivists and records managers will play in managing and determining the disposition of the ever-increasing amount of machine-readable records. The author is emphatic, believing that archivists and records managers must be activists in their organization, asserting their influence early in the decision-making process for determining retention and disposition of machine-readable records. Kesner feels that not taking a more active

role will result in the responsibility for those decisions being assumed by others less attuned to the importance of retaining information of lasting value. This is an enthusiastic presentation that covers the span of present and developing technology, all the way from computer output microfilm to optical disks. Quite understandably the material is cursory. However, there are numerous references in the notes to more detailed sources, a characteristic of this work that adds considerably to its value.

Automation for Archivists and Records Managers is not a lengthy work, cursory in nature as the author intended, and written from the author's preference for stand-alone, small computers point of view. While the work concludes with a chapter on machine-readable records, there is only minimal discussion on the developing laser/optical technology. Likewise, very little discussion is given to description and intellectual control of records. Kesner admits in the preface that he neglects some areas due to lack of experience; these two areas may have purposely been given little attention. Notwithstanding these two weaknesses, this work will prove to be useful for the archival or records center administrator about to embark on a journey into automation.

The scope of Margaret Hedstrom's *Archives & Manuscripts: Machine-Readable Records* is best described by the definition of "machine-readable" as given in the glossary: "Information in a form that can only be processed directly by a computer, usually in the form of magnetic or electronic impulses." This manual, the latest in the Society of American Archivists' Basic Manual Series, outlines techniques and guidelines required to locate, appraise, accession, process, and preserve machine-readable records. The manual will be welcomed by archivists and others who are beginning to acquire various machine-readable files on various machine-readable media. Hedstrom assures the reader that it will not be necessary for archivists to become systems analysts, computer programmers, or experts in hardware and software in order to meet the challenges of the proliferation of machine-readable records; however, new skills and

new techniques will need to be adapted from the traditional archival principles and established practices. Hedstrom's work will assist greatly in developing these skills and techniques.

An understanding of machine-readable records must be accompanied by at least a minimal knowledge of how the computer works. In the first chapter, Hedstrom describes the components of the computer and how these components interrelate; explains the difference between systems software and applications software; and discusses the automated records system, its input and output, and the documentation essential to understanding a system and the records created by that system. The presentation is well done, and, in twelve pages, the author lays the essential groundwork for further study of machine-readable records. The archivist who has some experience with microcomputers may wonder if the system shown in figure 1-1 is a microcomputer system, or is it really a minicomputer system? The possible error is of marginal consequence, and it is easily defended as the delineation between microcomputers and minicomputers becomes less discernible.

Chapter 2 describes how records are logically arranged and physically stored on various media. The media covered are punchcards (also called IBM or Hollerith cards), tapes, disks (including diskettes), and drums. Although punchcards are fast disappearing from use with most systems, it is quite conceivable that any archival program receiving machine-readable records will be faced, from time to time, with a decision about punchcards. It is equally conceivable that an archivist may be faced with a similar decision about punched paper tape. Punched paper tape is not covered in this manual, except to say that it is obsolete. The magnetic media, which will make up the bulk of an archives' machine-readable records, are described succinctly and accompanied with illustrations. The overview of the logical organization of data files is particularly helpful in gaining intellectual control over machine-readable records and learning how to appraise them.

The usual archival activities (inventories and surveys, appraisal, accessioning and

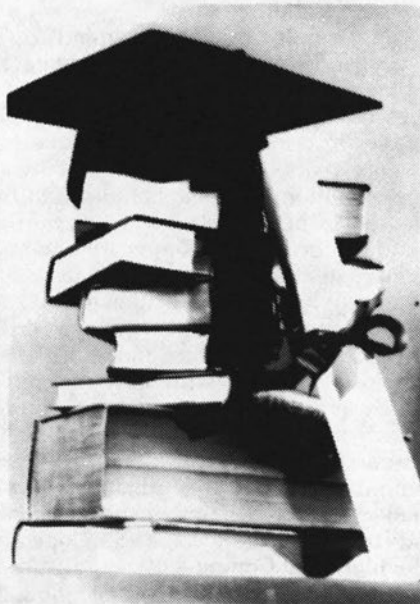
processing, records scheduling, preservation and maintenance, and access and reference services) and how they must be modified when working with machine-readable records are discussed in chapter 3. Forms, used primarily at the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, are included. Of interest to those wanting more information will be the increased number of footnotes. A significant issue with machine-readable records is their preservation and maintenance. Hedstrom warns that "under optimal conditions, tape cannot be expected to last more than twelve to twenty years." There is also associated extra maintenance such as rewinding every one or two years and rigid temperature and humidity controls. The archivist having the option to decline acceptance of machine-readable records or unable to operate within the constraints would be well advised to consult this section before making a decision to accept machine-readable records.

The final chapter discusses archives and the office of the future. As Hedstrom

states, there are major changes forecast in media storage. Currently, magnetic media do not meet all the criteria developed by archivists and records managers for acceptable archival storage media. New storage media being developed and discussed by the author are optical disks and computer assisted retrieval (CAR) of microform images. This chapter may overwhelm the archivist struggling to deal with magnetic storage media, and now another type of media is soon to proliferate. These media, particularly optical disks, will, no doubt, generate another manual in the series. But, for now, Hedstrom's manual will provide assistance to archivists and others who must meet the challenge of machine-readable records.—*Bruce Q. Frost, University of Illinois at Chicago.*

Mason, Marilyn Gell. *The Federal Role in Library and Information Services.* White Plains, N.Y.: Knowledge Industry Publications, 1983. 177p. (Professional Li-

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Why federal involvement? Mason reviews in the introductory chapter of the book the societal forces and conditions—political, economic, and technological—in which library and information services exist. She discusses individual rights, states rights and property rights, values articulated throughout our history. But she argues that “any government that expresses the principle of individual rights and freedoms without providing the means to obtain the information necessary to exercise those rights is a sham.” Within our society the library makes a unique contribution. A political as well as a social establishment, the library does more than educate and inform, it transmits ideas and provides continuity and social order. While not every voter will go to a library to research an issue or candidate before voting, every voter could do so.

Mason defines the federal role in library and information services as: (1) data collection and distribution; (2) financial support such as grants-in-aid; (3) research and demonstration; and (4) planning and policy making; a chapter is devoted to each of these. The final three chapters cover library networks, an example of how conditions combined to shape the federal role in the development of a specific type of library service; the White House Conference on Library and Information Services; and the future federal role.

More than just the collection and distribution of government information is encompassed in the chapter on data collection and distribution. Mason considers two areas, direct information services and publishing and distribution services. Direct information services include the activities of the major federal libraries—the Library of Congress, the National Library of Medicine, and the National Agricultural Library. She also notes the contributions of other federal agencies, including the preservation and publication activities of the National Archives and Records Service, and the development of information files and databases by the Census Bureau, Patent and Trademark Office, the Na-

tional Technical Information Service, the Educational Resources Information Center, etc. The second portion of this chapter provides a discussion of the federal publishing and distribution activities. The roles and responsibilities of the Joint Committee on Printing, the Government Printing Office, and the National Technical Information Service are summarized. The policy issues and conflicts arising from the relationship between these government bodies and private information firms, from the expanding role of the Office of Management and Budget in information management, and from the enactment of the Freedom of Information Act and other information-related legislation are all noted. No specific reference is made here regarding the impact that the electronic distribution of government information will have on libraries, the public, and the relationship between government and the private sector. This book was published in 1983; the Chadha decision by the Supreme Court was issued in June 1983; economic conditions have also continued to change. All the conditions that Mason has noted continue to bring rapid changes in government publishing and distribution activities. However, the basic policy issues and conflicts remain the same.

Mason notes that grants-in-aid for library services are a relatively recent development but that their development coalesced with developments in public libraries to bring rapid growth in the last twenty years. This chapter briefly traces the evolution of public libraries and the development of legislation that authorizes funding for public, elementary and secondary, higher education, and medical libraries. While this information is available in other sources, grants-in-aid are a part of the federal role in library and information services. Sometimes the only one referenced. However, Mason's chapter on research and demonstration indicates that research and development programs within the federal government also have had an impact on libraries, the most obvious being the MARC tapes developed by the Library of Congress.

The chapter on policy and planning issues considers the development of “infor-

mation policy," defined by Mason as a set of interrelated laws and policies concerned with the creation, collection, management, distribution, and retrieval of information. Here the relationship between the government and the private sector is examined in an economic context, where information becomes a commodity. Mason points out the balance that exists between subsidizing the creation of government information and establishing property rights for information.

Political, economic, and technological conditions in our society make the role of the federal government in library and information services of major importance not only to libraries and librarians, but to all citizens. Mason has drawn together in a single volume a review of the philosophical base, the historical development, and the policy issues. She then suggests appropriate roles for federal involvement in the future. This is not an in-depth analysis of each area included but gives a perspective and basis for further discussion and future policy development.—*Sandra K. Peterson, Yale University.*

Rogers, A. Robert, and Kathryn McChesney. *The Library in Society.* Littleton, Colo.: Libraries Unlimited, 1984. 285p. (Library Science Text Series) \$28.50. LC 84-15440. ISBN 0-87287-379-X.

The authors and their six contributors, who intended this work as an introductory text for library science students, state that they seek to provide a theoretical and conceptual framework that would aid in developing a better understanding of the role of libraries in society. They set out to accomplish this by presenting a view of librarianship in an international context.

The book is divided into four main parts. Part 1 attempts to encourage students to view libraries as integral parts of the societies in which they developed. Chapter 1 describes the role of the library in meeting societal needs. Philosophies of librarianship are presented in chapter 2. Chapter 3 surveys the history of libraries and librarianship from antiquity to the status of libraries at the end of World War II with an emphasis on the West. Part 2 describes the major types of libraries. There

are separate brief chapters on national libraries, school and media centers, college and university libraries, public libraries, special libraries and information centers, and other governmental and quasi-governmental libraries. Part 3 presents overviews of librarianship from various regions of the world. Basic concepts of international and comparative librarianship are presented in the first chapter, setting the stage for the slightly more detailed descriptions of librarianship in Europe, Asia, Australia and New Zealand, Africa, and Latin America that follow. Part 4 surveys the impact of professional associations on library development in the first chapter. Major professional issues in industrial and postindustrial societies as they affect libraries and librarianship are discussed in the next chapter. Problems and prospects of libraries in the Third World are presented in the last chapter. At the end of each chapter a bibliography of basic sources mentioned in the chapters for further reading are given. This is often preceded by a short list of questions for discussion and reflection—both appear to be useful to students.

The authors state in their preface that they wished to view librarianship in an international context while most "library in society" books seemed to focus almost exclusively on the United States. They have succeeded in their effort to present libraries in society in general terms in an international context; however, so much ground is covered that it seems to lack adequate depth and detail and often results in a superficial, less meaningful presentation as a whole. The textbook's tone and many generalities may be somewhat irritating to a reader seeking more detailed knowledge; perhaps it is not possible to do more with an objective of presenting an introductory survey such as this.—*Pat Kissinger, Northern Illinois University.*

College Librarianship: The Objectives and the Practice. Ed. by A. Rennie McElroy. London: The Library Assn., 1984. 447p. \$50. ISBN 0-85365-785-8. (Dist. in the U.S. by Oryx).

College Librarianship: The Objectives and the Practice belongs to the Handbook on Li-

brary Practice series, which includes monographs on serials, medical, university, and picture librarianships. Edited by A. Rennie McElroy, this collection of essays is distinctly British in content and perspective. "The Educational Environment," "Colleges and Their Libraries," and "The Librarianship" are the major headings, which correspond to the three theses stated in the introduction: (1) to contribute to the management of the parent body, (2) to understand the parent body's needs, wishes, and problems, and (3) to sell the library to its users (p.xv). McElroy maintains that this work is more philosophical than practical. He asserts that it is "about objectives and policies, rather than day-to-day practice of college librarianship" (p.xvi), yet the subtitle and the essays in the last half of the book contradict this intent.

Within the first grouping one wanders amid a plethora of acronyms for the various educational councils, committees, and governing bodies in the United Kingdom. Such dotted language necessitated a five-page glossary of abbreviations and acronyms preceding the index. McElroy's own essay, "The Library in the College: Working in Education," reflects a clear sense of direction about college librarianship and a strong commitment to its enhancement. He emphasizes the importance of the teaching role for a librarian and the need to be seen and heard on faculty boards and college committees. He contends that "college librarianship traditionally requires considerable flexibility of library management, a willingness to experiment with significant changes in major aspects of service, and the frequent absence of the librarian from his library" (p.3). As essayist, McElroy successfully touches upon the crucial issues outlined for discussion within this work.

"Colleges and Their Libraries," the second division, covers an assortment of British levels of higher education. Small libraries (20,000 volumes or less), polytechnic colleges of further education (vocational), monotechnic (navigation, art), sixth form, tertiary, and the libraries in polytechnic library schools receive consideration within the context of the oper-

ating environment for college libraries. In "Polytechnics and Central Institutions" John Cowley observes that "library, computer, and educational technology services will grow closer together as disciplines and systems converge into an integrated learning resource" (p.151). Such predictions fall close to home with the U.S. librarians' recommendations in *Alliance For Excellence*.

In the final section, and by far the longest, the essays drift from very specific, even practical, discussions of staffing patterns and duties, collection development (stock exploitation), finance, reader services, user education, and new technology to the status of libraries in North America (limited to community college learning resource centers), Australia, and Continental Europe. John Bate concludes the volume with his essay, "Some Trends in Further and Higher Education to 2000: The Libraries' Response." He expresses a realization that the future of Great Britain (and that of us all) bespeaks an increasingly leisure-oriented society with emphasis on technical, specialized training, and continuing education.

If one strips away the British slant and searches for the philosophical enlightenment of forces pressuring and motivating college librarians and if one reflects upon McElroy's proposed theses, then one can digest some worthwhile information scattered among the separate essays. The apologies of the editor for whatever faults exist in his not tampering with the selections do not alleviate the redundancy and incohesiveness facing the reader. With the potential of assessing the value of college libraries to lifelong learning in a changing society, *College Librarianship* falls short of its objectives. The whole does not equal the sum of its parts nor the purchase price.—Constance L. Foster, *Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green*.

Caputo, Janette S. *The Assertive Librarian*. Phoenix, Ariz.: Oryx, 1984. 254p. \$19.50 LC 83-43252 ISBN 0-89774-085-8.

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standing up for one's own rights without violating the rights of others. Non-assertiveness is not standing up for one's rights; aggressiveness (including passive-aggressiveness) is infringing on others' rights.

This book, written for librarians by a librarian who is also an assertiveness trainer, is practical in its focus and professional in its scope. It is intended to serve as a textbook for assertion training workshops for librarians, but should be equally useful as a self-help book. The author seems interested in assisting her colleagues in their individual professional development, and also in helping to counteract the stereotype of the nonassertive librarian.

Topics include: personal rights and responsibilities; goal setting; self-esteem and self-confidence; verbal assertion; nonverbal assertion; irrational beliefs; coping with defense mechanisms, and—by way of summary and integration—a chapter on the assertive library supervisor.

The most basic assumption of the author is the aforementioned assumption of the assertiveness training field: "behavioral responses are learned rather than instinctual and . . . we therefore have control over the responses we wish to learn, unlearn, and select for use" (p.ix). The author does acknowledge some limits to this control, as in her discussion of defense mechanisms.

Assertiveness is defined in relation to basic human rights (standing up for one's own rights) and corresponding responsibilities (respecting others' rights). The author enumerates five such basic rights: to be respected; to have and express feelings; to make mistakes; to say "no"; and to ask questions. She also considers some specific situational rights and responsibilities of librarians, library users, and the governing bodies over libraries.

The Librarian's Discomfort Inventory is included to help the interested reader establish a baseline before setting assertiveness goals. The inventory helps one identify what nonassertive or aggressive behaviors are characteristic of oneself; with

whom and under what circumstances assertive behavior is difficult, and what topics are personally unpleasant to discuss.

The chapter on self-esteem and self-confidence includes exercises for measuring the former and enhancing the latter.

The chapters on verbal and nonverbal assertion are at the heart of the how-to features of the book. Drawing widely on the relevant literature, the author here presents substantial material for self-help.

The treatment of irrational beliefs, à la Albert Ellis, reinforces the basic premise of conscious rational choice of one's behaviors. The chapter on coping with defense mechanisms includes useful material related to general stress management.

Finally, the chapter devoted to the assertive library supervisor applies all of the foregoing principles to conduct in the managerial role.

The book is researched and written well. Although it is practical, rather than theoretical, it is nonetheless scholarly, with numerous, meticulously documented references and a good index (the latter compiled by Linda Webster). It is admirably suited to its purpose.—M. J. La Plante, *University of Illinois at Chicago*.

Intner, Sheila S. *Access to Media: A Guide to Integrating and Computerizing Catalogs*. New York: Neal Schuman, 1984. 309p. \$35. LC 84-1035. ISBN 0-918212-88-X.

An expansion and revision of the author's doctoral thesis of similar title (*Access to Media: An Investigation of Public Librarians' Practices and Attitudes Toward Access to Nonprint Materials*, Columbia Univ., 1982), the current *Access to Media* "is intended to be used as a handbook for change from manual, nonintegrated bibliographic systems to integrated and automated systems as an ultimate goal."

Leaving largely intact the basic chapters of the original thesis, reworked from the language of the graduate school to the practicality of "Can I understand this even if I'm not a librarian?" test, it is the author's intent that "Reading this book should provide an overview of the current state-of-the-art as well as the components necessary for changing a library's proce-

dures and implementing more valuable ones capable of giving better service."

In Intner's straightforward, no-nonsense approach, the reader is seldom in any doubt as to what the text is concerned with. She tells at the outset what each chapter is about, reinforces her chapter objectives by reminding the reader at frequent intervals what the basic argument and direction is, and concludes with summary statements and a list of selected readings. In its teaching approach, *Access to Media* would appear to be an ideal text for library science students and innovative librarians exploring the sometimes never-never lands of nonprint and computer technology.

For many years, the library science student and the inquiring librarian found in the literature books and articles strongly espousing either the preeminence of books, on the one hand, or the communication advantages of audiovisual or non-book materials, on the other. Dispassionate or ecumenical accounts were hard to come by. *Access to Media* is one of a growing number of publications putting all kinds of media under the library's service umbrella, and Sheila Intner's new book not only provides an excellent orientation to all kinds of media but to the field of library computer technology as well. It may be that *Access to Media* will help academic librarians to look beyond the printed word to the benefits of including nonprint in the library's collections.

In part one, "A History of Media Collections," the author provides an overview of the book in which she stresses that "This book is concerned with the contents of a library's main public catalog." Intner goes on to point out that "the purpose of access is the eventual use of collections, . . . both cost-conscious administrative and service-oriented bibliographic goals have to be considered, (and) . . . plans must be tailored to individual budgets and timetables."

In the chapters that follow are described the current situation with regard to bibliographic access and how it developed in public and other libraries; and a study of attitudes of public librarians toward me-

dia, in terms of organization of materials and bibliographic access.

In part two, "A Rationale for Change," are a summary of available computer programs and the desirable characteristics of computerized catalogs; a discussion of the skills needed for the use of automated, integrated catalogs in libraries; integrating manual, computer-assisted manual, and online catalogs; and the results of new access systems in providing improved patron benefits and serving patrons more effectively.

Following the main body of the text are appendixes providing chronological "Highlights of Professional Media Activities, 1940-1965" and publication dates of "Multimedia Cataloging Codes," and the survey questionnaire used in the author's study of public librarians.

A list of acronyms, a glossary of terms, and a subject index complete this practical and readable work.—Robert E. Schreiber, Northern Illinois University.



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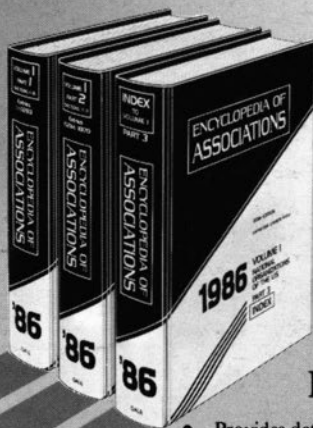
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