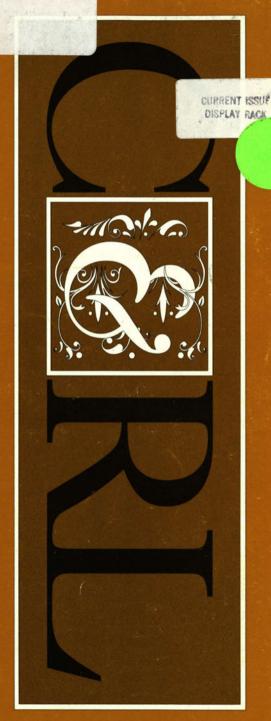
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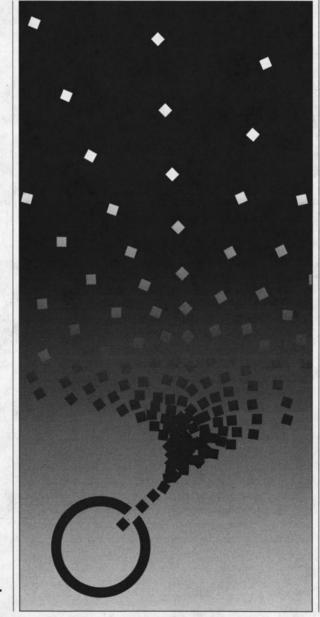
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Editorial

The Future of Scholarship

One of my editorial themes over the last five years has been the need for librarians to change to meet the challenges of a significantly different future for scholarship and thus for library service. Last May, the Research Libraries Group sponsored a small symposium entitled "Scholarship in the New Information Environment" at Harvard Law School. The speakers at this conference inspired me to comment again about the new environment for scholarship.

Scholarly information: Stanley Chodorow, provost of the University of Pennsylvania, predicted the continuation of print for a long, long time, but the end of an era when scholarly text was fixed. He believes that multiple versions of scholarly works with annotations of different scholars will exist simultaneously. Scholars, with the help of specialist librarians, will have to select among them. Toni Carbo Bearman, dean of the School of Library and Information Science at the University of Pittsburgh, also envisioned a hypertextual form where fixity no longer operates. She thinks that the idea of literacy will have to be replaced by mediacy, an understanding of thought through media other than the printed page. Hal Varian, Reuben Kempf professor of economics at the University of Michigan, outlined the advantages of price discrimination in valuing information; he predicted that scholars will pay for information but that the costs for text will be negligible. Douglas Greenberg, president of the Chicago Historical Society, predicted a continuing expansion of scholarly interest with an increasing range of methodological approaches. Supporting all these new methodologies challenges libraries and societies that store source materials. More and more institutions will begin to charge for the use of their unique resources.



Library roles: As the library presents itself on each scholar's desk top, its need for a central geographical place on campus vanishes. Chodorow thinks materials not converted to electronic form can be stored anywhere and made available only as needed. Ross Atkinson, associate university librarian for collection development, technical services, and preservation at Cornell University, described the paper library as a drought with librarians as children of the drought in comparison with the electronic library which will provide a flood of unmanaged information. He reconceptualizes the library as an institution that identifies materials along a source/needs continuum. The library will ensure access to all materials, but the speed of delivery to the patron will vary. The library will add value to certain materials by creating a control zone in which some materials are available locally, some are quickly produced for less frequent use, and others take even longer to access.

Librarian roles: Chodorow believes that librarians will be recognized as information specialists; they will be jointly trained in information retrieval and in a subject discipline to navigate through the broad electronic information landscape. Atkinson reiterated his idea that the library should become a scholarly publisher for nontrade monographs, and Csewlaw J.Grycz, executive director of the Wladyslaw Poniecki Charitable Foundation, noted the need to add value, rather than just cost, in both the editing and review process and in the storage and

retrieval process. Bearman and Atkinson both discussed the continuing need for filtering and quality control. Varian viewed the librarian as the person making the decisions about how to maximize the amount of quality information that could be purchased with the materials budget.

Library cooperation: Atkinson allowed his Doppelgänger to speak to the less idealized explanations for the failure of efforts at cooperation. Head librarians flourish by maximizing the libraries' share of the academic institution's budget, and collection managers measure success through maximization of local holdings, which has been a key determiner of large library rankings. In this environment, spending local monies to meet national needs is virtually impossible. Similarly, the university sells itself on the reputation of its faculty, who are often more concerned with their own prestige than with dissemination of information. The current system supports all these agendas excellently. In this environment, talk about cooperation is far more effective than real cooperation. Atkinson noted that the Association of Research Libraries' directors could end the serials cost crisis by each requesting a thirty percent reduction in materials budget and five years of flat funding. The faculty would be in an uproar because of the potential damage to their reputations, and all the directors would be fired.

Other realistic observations: Chodorow, a scholar of medieval canon law, spoke about writing books for nine or ten or perhaps only six colleagues. Such works, which have always been subsi-

dized by library purchases, should not be produced in the same way as the works of Danielle Steele. Grycz and others noted the probable triumph of the entertainment industry in determining the intellectual property laws of the United States and hoped for some special provisions for the scholarly communications system. In response to Paul Mosher's question about the continued viability of the Chatauqua model (lifelong learning for the common person), the panel questioned whether states are willing to fund a first-class educational institution. As education competes with prisons and health care, support is eroding.

Libraries and librarians are part of a system designed to serve a lifelong learning model for higher education. The ideal behind that model was a democratization of learning; knowledge was a public good that should be made freely available to all. Now that whole system and its underlying ideal are being challenged. Librarians must make a stronger commitment to their role in the creation of scholarship-as scholarly publishers, organizers, indexers, and information specialists. Further, students are accustomed to doing research in a collection that has been screened. As these students begin to use resources on the Internet and to work with multiple versions rather than with a fixed text, the library's instructional responsibilities intensify and proliferate. The digital library may cede its place in the geographical center of campus but specialist librarians should not cede their place at the center of the production and interpretation of scholarly information.

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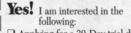
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Maybe the 55 Percent Rule Doesn't Tell the Whole Story: A User-Satisfaction Survey

Carolyn W. Jardine

For many years the evaluation of reference service has focused on the accuracy with which patrons' questions are answered. It has been suggested that an area that needs further study is the behavioral aspect of reference service, i.e., the interaction between reference librarian and patron. Patrons will judge the service they receive not only on whether or not they get what they came in for, but also on the reference librarian's attitude, behavior, interest, and enthusiasm. This paper discusses a survey done at the University Library of the University at Albany as a study of reference success based solely on users' satisfaction with librarians' behaviors and, most important, users' willingness to return to the same librarian for help another time. Results of this survey indicate that users' satisfaction with reference service does depend on more than the accuracy with which their questions are answered.



recently went into a local drugstore for some cough syrup. I wasn't sure what would be the best kind and had to rely on

the pharmacist, whose job it is to know about such things, for help. I eventually did get what I needed, but I had to wait for the pharmacist to notice I was there. He didn't really seem to know much about what was available, and he was less than enthusiastic if not downright surly. Was my need—the right cough medicine—satisfied? Yes. Would I return to that particular pharmacist for help again if I had a choice? Probably not. Was the encounter successful? Well, it depends on how you define success. Strictly speaking, it could be considered successful be-

cause I got what I wanted. From a behavioral point of view, however, I was less than satisfied with the service I received and will think twice before returning to that drugstore in the future—something the manager should keep in mind when evaluating that particular pharmacist's job performance.

And so it is—or should be—with libraries. Probably since the beginning of libraries, people have questioned the effectiveness of the services they provide and how to make them better. This is especially true of reference services, since the Reference or Information Desk is, in a way, the liaison between the library and the clientele it is there to serve; reference librarians can provide (or fail to provide)

Carolyn W. Jardine is a reference librarian at the Newburgh Free Library, Newburgh, New York. This article is adapted from the author's M.L.S research project while at the Rockefeller School of Information Science and Policy at the University at Albany, Albany, New York. Special thanks to David Tyckoson for his support and encouragement with this project.

patrons with access to the information they expect to find. There has been much research into the accuracy with which reference librarians answer questions, and this is an ongoing concern of the library community. But there is a consensus among experts that there needs to be more emphasis on reference service as a whole,

There is a consensus among experts that there needs to be more emphasis on reference service as a whole, not just how accurately patrons' questions are answered.

not just how accurately patrons' questions are answered. Or, in the words of one Reference Department head, "We must evaluate not only the answer, but the process as well."

Research suggests that one area of the reference process which needs further study is the interaction between reference librarian and patron. The question of success rests not just upon "Did the patron get the correct information?" but also upon "Would the patron return to that librarian for help?" Did the librarian's attitude, behavior, interest, enthusiasm, etc., leave the patron with a good impression of the library's service, and of that librarian in particular, so that the patron would feel confident about approaching that librarian for help another time? Particularly in academic libraries, where often reference questions are not of a strictly factual nature, users' satisfaction with the service may depend as much or more on librarians' attitudes and behavior than on whether or not the librarian answered the question successfully. This paper discusses the design, administration, and results of a survey done at the University Library at the University of Albany as a study of "reference success" based solely on users' satisfaction with librarians' behaviors and, more importantly, users' willingness to return to the same librarian for help another time.

Literature Review

Research into the literature on evaluating reference service has revealed that (1) there is an enormous amount of it, and (2) very little of it relates specifically to evaluating service based primarily on users' satisfaction with librarians' attitudes and behavior. Many studies that have evaluated reference service based on the percentage of questions answered correctly have been done. So many, in fact that the "55 percent rule," which states that barely more than 55 percent of guestions asked at a reference desk are answered correctly, has become somewhat of a cliché in library literature.2 As previously stated, experts seem to agree that more qualitative research into reference effectiveness needs to be done; quantitative evaluation, which tends to focus on numbers of reference questions asked and answered (successfully or unsuccessfully), does not reflect the whole picture of reference service, particularly with regard to academic libraries. The need for a more qualitative approach to evaluation of reference services is well documented in the literature: "the correct answer fill rate appears to be a useful, but [an] extremely limited, measure of reference performance"; "One needs to study the interaction between user and librarian"; "To provide a complete picture of the effectiveness of the reference librarian, any accountability measures need to evaluate . . . behavioral factors along with the accuracy of the final response"; and, "The most promising methodologies for evaluating reference service librarians are those that focus on what reference librarians do and how they do it, the evaluation of behaviors" (emphasis added).3-6

The need for qualitative research in the area of reference effectiveness appears well established and accepted. However, a search of recent literature turns up very little in the way of studies which focus on user satisfaction based primarily on "the evaluation of behaviors" by the users themselves, independent of whether

their questions were successfully or unsuccessfully answered. In a 1984 article reviewing research in reference effectiveness, Ronald Powell found that, "Few studies that have focused on the patron as the primary source of data on reference effectiveness have been reported in the literature."7 In the nearly ten years since then, little seems to have changed. A few studies incorporated user evaluation of behaviors and attitudes of reference librarians as part of a larger overall analysis of reference effectiveness. These include: a comprehensive study of user satisfaction with reference services at the University of South Africa; a study in which videotapes of reference transactions were watched and evaluated by public library users; Linda Olson's study of academic library reference services; and the work of Marjorie Murfin and Gary Gugelchuk on the development and testing of a "reference transaction assessment instrument" in fifteen academic libraries (especially worth mentioning in this context because their results showed a relatively high degree of user satisfaction).8-11 However, while these studies can all provide helpful insight into the evaluation of user satisfaction, as well as some concrete hints and models for testing methods, for the most part their hypotheses and methods are not directly relevant to this study because they include variables (such as number of questions answered correctly, or gender of librarian and observer) which this study did not. Recently, Patricia Hults cited a "study done in Maryland [which] concluded that the highest predictive factor of success is the individual librarian's behavior such as reference question negotiation skill, librarian interest and comfort with the question and perhaps most importantly, follow up"; but a study reported in 1989 by Joan Durrance is probably the most relevant to the survey discussed in this paper both in method and in emphasis on behavioral factors.12 Although it was done unobtrusively and on a much larger

scale (data were gathered by M.L.S. graduate students who posed as reference patrons in a variety of libraries and then filled out a questionnaire based on the reference transaction), Durrance's study is particularly worth noting because "the measure chosen [to measure reference success] is the willingness of the inquirer to return to the same staff member at a later time," and because she also reported a high degree of "patron" satisfaction: between 60 and 64 percent said that they would be likely to return to the same librarian for help another time.¹³

Method of Investigation

Survey Design

In an attempt to determine the level of user satisfaction with reference services at the University at Albany University Library, based strictly on behavioral factors, the researcher surveyed patrons during the fall 1993 semester. Several considerations went into the design of this survey. First, the questions had to relate solely to the user's appraisal of the librarian's attitudes and behaviors during the reference interaction, with ultimate success or failure measured as the user's willingness to return to that librarian in the future. The survey placed emphasis on behavioral characteristics of the librarians, such as interest, confidence, friendliness, and enthusiasm, as well as

The survey placed emphasis on behavioral characteristics such as interest, confidence, friendliness, and enthusiasm, as well as on the patrons' degree of ... overall satisfaction with the librarians.

on the patrons' degree of comfort and overall satisfaction with the librarians. A ratings scale of 1–5 was used, with one being high and five low. The variable "Was your question satisfactorily answered?" was included in the survey, not as the primary issue but as one of several

factors to be considered when analyzing responses to the main question, "If you had a choice, would you return to this librarian for help another time?" Environmental considerations, such as number of librarians on duty, number present at the desk, and amount of time it took to be helped, were included in the survey as factors which certainly influence users', as well as librarians', attitudes. Less critical but still important, the physical design of the survey kept it as short as possible, to encourage maximum participation and completion, while still incorporating all questions considered necessary for the patron to give an accurate, as well as fair, evaluation of the librarian's service. In addition, the design of the survey purposely avoided any items that would encourage identification or make it possible to identify individual librarians. The intent of the survey was to evaluate behavioral aspects of the reference service as a whole rather than of any particular staff member. The design of the survey and some of the questions included were modeled in part on the previously cited work by Olson, Durrance, and Murfin and Gugelchuk.

Data Collection

A graduate student who was stationed behind the reference desk handed out the surveys and approached patrons upon completion of a reference transaction, asking for voluntary participation in the survey. Patrons who asked questions such as "Where is the restroom?" were not surveyed, nor were those who left the building or went to another floor of the library before they could be approached. Other than that, the student attempted to ask as many patrons as possible to participate in the survey, making no distinctions between short and long questions, which librarian was asked, or patrons who "seemed" satisfied and those who didn't.

Originally, the researcher intended, based on the size of the student population at the University at Albany, to collect approximately 200 completed surveys for this research. Ultimately, because of time constraints on the project, it was not possible to distribute that many surveys. At the end of the two-week time period allotted for data collection, 111 surveys had been distributed. Six were not returned and five were returned incomplete, invalidating them, which resulted in a total of 100 completed surveys. This is admittedly a statistically suspect number but, while it did simplify analysis of the results, it was purely coincidental. The surveys were distributed at times scheduled to represent all operating hours of the reference desk (i.e., both busy and quiet) and all staff as equally as possible. People were surprisingly cooperative; less than ten percent of those asked to fill out a survey refused and those who did almost all cited lack of time as the reason.

Data Analysis

Initial returns showed a high degree of user satisfaction as measured by this survey. Results continued to be high and, by the completion of the administration of the survey, fully 99 percent of the respondents had said they would return to the same librarian for help another time—impressive results, especially as that particular question was considered the most important of the survey. (A sample survey, with a breakdown of the raw data, is available from the author.)

Although 99 out of 100 respondents said they would return to the same librarian and all other results were very favorable, it is worth looking at how patrons' satisfaction and comfort ratings compare with their ratings of the behavioral traits. That is, how did a patron who was only marginally satisfied overall (a 3 or 4 rating) rate the librarian as far as knowledge, friendliness, etc.? Conversely, how did those very satisfied and comfortable patrons rate the behavioral traits? Tables 1 and 2 show, for each of the ratings (1–5, with 1 being high and 5 being low) on the Degree of Comfort and Overall Satis-

4.16	De	TABLE 1 egree of Com	ıfort		Service of
(Nu	(Number of patrons responding in each category [1=High, 5=Low] on Question 6)				
	1 (69)	2 (24)	3 (6)	4 (1)	5 (0)
Knowledgeable	1.2	1.4	2.2	4	N/A
Self-confident	1.3	1.6	2.3	4	N/A
Helpful	1.1	1.3	1.5	4	N/A
Friendly	1.2	1.7	1.5	4	N/A
Patient	1.1	1.6	1.7	4	N/A
Interested	1.3	1.8	1.8	4	N/A
Enthusiastic	1.7	2.0	2.0	4	N/A

Numbers in the Table represent average behavioral trait ratings given by category respondents

TABLE 2 Degree of Satisfaction					
(Nu	mber of patro	ons responding	g in each cate	egory	
	[1=High, 5=Low] on Question 7)				
	1 (73)	2 (22)	3 (3)	4 (2)	5 (0)
Knowledgeable	1.2	1.7	3.0	2.5	N/A
Self-confident	1.3	1.8	3.0	2.5	N/A
Helpful	1.1	1.5	1.6	2.5	N/A
Friendly	1.2	1.6	1.6	3.5	N/A
Patient	1.2	1.6	2.0	3.0	N/A
Interested	1.3	1.9	2.0	3.5	N/A
Enthusiastic	1.5	2.0	2.7	4.0	N/A

Numbers in the Table represent average behavioral trait ratings given by

category respondents

TABLE 3 Overall Average for Beha	vioral Traits
(1=High,	5=Low)
Knowledgeable	1.4
Self-confident	1.5
Helpful	1.2
Friendly	1.4
Patient	1.3
Interested	1.5
Enthusiastic	1.8

faction questions (#6 and #7 respectively), the average ratings given by those patrons to the behavioral traits.

As would be expected, lower degrees of comfort and overall satisfaction are reflected in lower ratings for most behavioral characteristics. Obviously, a patron's perception of a librarian's knowledge, interest, and enthusiasm will affect how satisfied a patron feels with that librarian's service. On the whole, however, overall ratings for the behavioral traits (from question #5 on the survey) were very high, as indicated in table 3. It is also possible, based on this table, to rank these traits from highest to lowest, to see what the patrons considered the strengths and (relative) weaknesses of the reference librarians.

Further analysis of data gathered by this survey reveals some other information. Interestingly (although not terribly relevant to this study), by far the largest number of questions asked were for research guidance (see Question #9). Also, although nearly one-third of the people surveyed were not encouraged by the librarian to ask for further assistance if it was necessary, this seems not to have been very important to those patrons since 90 percent of them indicated that they were satisfied or very satisfied overall with the

librarians who helped them. As for the four people who responded that their questions had not been answered satisfactorily, three of them said that they were "very satisfied" and "very comfortable" with the librarian who helped them, and indicated in the comments section that the fault was not with the librarian but rather because the information they sought was unavailable. Conversely, 94 patrons did have their

questions satisfactorily answered but only 72 patrons said they were "very satisfied" overall.

The Results

Obviously, we could not have asked for better results, with a 99 percent success rate and very high ratings for the behavioral traits and overall satisfaction. This does, of course, bring up the question of the Hawthorne phenomenon. Did these librarians, who were certainly aware of the survey being done, change their normal behaviors so that the study would reflect only positive opinions about them? The researcher addressed this concern during the planning stages of this project, when the merits of a study of this type were weighed against the possibility of unrealistic results. The department head, knowing the professionals on the staff, felt that although they might initially be aware of the survey being done, they would not consciously alter their behavior, and believed that this survey would give an accurate picture of the reference service provided by the staff. It is thought that this was in fact what happened—that the librarians, serving patrons at a busy reference desk and not able to be sure which patrons would participate in the survey, were too absorbed in their work to be artificially helpful, enthusiastic, or friendly. However, whether or not any of these librarians did treat patrons differently because of the survey being done, the effect on the patrons remains the same. The central question of this study focused on patrons' satisfaction with librarians' behaviors, regardless of the motivation behind those behaviors.

The averages for the behavioral characteristics-which all fell between the highest and next highest possible rating show that patrons gave the librarians the highest marks for helpfulness and patience, and the lowest for self-confidence and enthusiasm. In fact, one patron noted, "I don't believe I've ever met an enthusiastic librarian," and the ratings seem to show that her fellow patrons shared her view. Enthusiasm received by far more middle-to-low ratings than any of the other behavioral characteristics on the survey. However, as the overall average rating for enthusiasm was still better than two, on a scale of 1-5, this is hardly cause for serious alarm—just something to keep in mind.

Overall, it seems safe to say that users of the University Library reference service

are remarkably satisfied with the service. It also is safe to say, based on this survey, that patron satisfaction does indeed rest on more than simply answering questions correctly. Fewer than 75 percent of the patrons who indicated that their questions were answered correctly said they were "very satisfied" overall with the librarians who helped them, so slightly more than 25 percent of the patrons who had their questions correctly answered were still not completely satisfied with the service they received. Conversely, of the six patrons who did not indicate that their questions were answered satisfactorily, five of them still were "Very Satisfied" (the highest rating) with the librarian who helped them. Obviously, things like patience, friendliness, and enthusiasm do influence a patron's overall impression of a librarian. From table 4 it can be seen that of the ninetyfour patrons whose questions were satisfactorily answered, those who were most satisfied with the service they received gave higher overall ratings to the behavioral traits than those who indicated that they were less than completely satisfied. Since all of these patrons said they did receive the information they were looking for, it can be inferred that the differences in their overall satisfaction were because of their perception of the librarian's knowledge, interest, friendliness, etc.

It will be noted that there is no discussion of the results with regard to the time of day the surveys were filled out, number of librarians on duty, how long a patron had to wait, etc. This is primarily because these factors had little influence on patrons' overall satisfaction. Re-

TABLE 4
Comparison of Behavioral Trait Ratings*

	0	
	Less than "Very Satisfied"	"Very Satisfied"
Knowledgeable	1.2	1.8
Self-confident	1.3	1.9
Helpful	1.1	1.6
Friendly	1.2	1.8
Patient	1.2	1.7
Interested	1.4	2.0
Enthusiastic	1.6	2.2

*Of all patrons who said their questions were satisfactorily answered

sponses did not differ statistically for different times of day; patrons seemed equally satisfied whether the desk was quiet or busy, and whether they had to wait a short time or not at all (no patrons said they had to wait a "long time").

Conclusion

It should be remembered that this was a very small study, with a very narrow purpose. We wanted to find out how satisfied patrons are, based on behaviors, with the librarians who staff the reference desk at the University Library, so we asked them. And what they told us is, "We are very satisfied (but you could be a little more enthusiastic)."

It is thought that ... the librarians, serving patrons at a busy reference desk, ... were too absorbed in their work to be artificially helpful, enthusiastic, or friendly.

It is hard to say whether the impressive results of this survey would be duplicated elsewhere or even whether the results would be the same were the identical survey to be done again in this library. For our purposes, it can be considered successful in that (1) it gave us a good indication of how patrons feel about the reference librarians, and (2) showed that patrons do, indeed, take attitudes and

behavior into account when assessing their overall satisfaction with those librarians. For others interested in evaluation of reference service and personnel, a survey of this type can provide valuable information from the patron's point of view. If it is true that "library users are . . . almost invariably satisfied with reference service" (and what is wrong with that?), it still is worth looking at why.¹⁴

There are probably those who would be tempted to discount the results of a survey that shows a 99 percent satisfaction rate with reference librarians, especially a survey such as this which is based on evaluation of the librarians by the patrons themselves. It has been suggested by more than one writer in the area of reference evaluation that patrons are not reliable judges of the services libraries provide and that "library users seldom possess the expertise to evaluate the quality of reference service."15 There are others, however, who would agree with George D'Elia and Sandra Walsh, who wrote in their article "User Satisfaction With Library Service" that "the user, as the ultimate consumer of these services, is most qualified to evaluate the performance of these services."16 Patrons will judge, and obviously do judge, the services librarians provide, and the library profession as a whole needs to acknowledge its clientele's judgment and be responsive to it.

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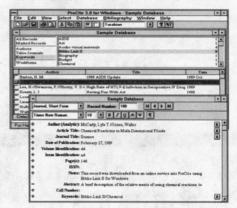
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Collection Development Strategies for a University Center Library

Charlene S. Hurt, Laura O. Rein, Maureen S. Connors, John C. Walsh, and Anna C. Wu

Building a new library and developing an entirely new collection is always a daunting task. When the intent is to make that library a uniquely integrated component within a university center for student life, and to make the collection a pioneering one combining multiculturalism, diversity, and core texts, the task becomes even more challenging. This paper examines in detail the processes, policies, and procedures used to develop the collection of just such a library.



n 1990 the librarians of George Mason University (GMU) accepted the challenge to develop a unique collection of

materials for a new kind of library. The university proposed to build a combined library/student center which would both literally and figuratively become the center of campus. The University Center Library (UCL) would combine a state-of-the-art electronic library and media center with a teaching library focused on resources for the general education requirements of the undergraduate curriculum. This centrally located new building would sit just a block away from the existing main library.

GMU is a state-supported graduatelevel university with nearly 24,000 students, more than 7,000 of whom are graduate students, and has more than 100 degree-granting programs. It is the only state-supported university in northern Virginia, which has a large, well-educated, suburban population and a significant information industry base, as well as strong ties to the nation's capital. The university, founded as a branch of the University of Virginia in 1957 and chartered as an independent university in 1972, is developing campuses with defined centers of excellence in the three largest counties in northern Virginia. The library system supports all of the campuses, primarily through provision of a wide variety of electronic resources and specialized librarian reference/research assistance at each site.

Given the rapid growth of its parent institution and the need to serve multiple campuses with limited resources, the library system emphasizes access to information and provision of electronic, networked sources of information. It also

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avoids duplicating the collection strengths of its various sites or of libraries with which it has resource-sharing agreements. The library system is a founding member of the Washington Research Library Consortium and the Virginia Academic Library Consortium.

A primary goal for the new library is the relief of overcrowding in the main campus library, Fenwick, as well as the expansion of Fenwick into a more research-centered library. The UCL would provide an attractive alternative for library users not needing extensive access to print collections. The decision was made to design a library that combined elements of an undergraduate library, a media center, and an electronic library. Early in the design process, the largest part of the library became a "library without walls," a place where users could freely move among food and other auxiliary services, student organization offices, library stacks, and seating. The guiding principle was that of providing an envi-

A faculty task force on the library of the 21st century had recommended that the library system pursue a vision of an electronic library while simultaneously developing a library that could serve the needs of a growing research program.

ronment in which students might experience something of a microcosm of their lives at GMU. While there are many studies on the development and administration of undergraduate libraries, there are no existing models for designing a university center library, which will attempt to bring together all the various components of the college experience under a single roof.^{1,2}

Concurrent with the planning of the University Center was a re-examination of the general studies curriculum of the university, which led to the development of a set of core courses emphasizing interdisciplinarity and diverse cultural perspectives. Librarians served on each of the curriculum development committees, and helped identify materials in all formats necessary to support the core curriculum. Ultimately, this core curriculum was not adopted across the entire campus, but the principles that went into its formation continued to illuminate collection development decisions for the UCL. There were many factors considered in deciding what kinds of materials to collect for the UCL. The most important of these were that the materials:

- support the general education component of the undergraduate curriculum;
- be consciously selected to support the growing tendency toward interdisciplinary and multicultural curricula;
- support the increasingly active role the library was playing in the development of courses using technology and multimedia;
- be electronic and networked whenever possible;
- not needlessly duplicate the holdings of the main library but could do so when multiple copies were likely to be needed by patrons; and
- mirror in format and content, whenever possible, the overall ambiance of the building: casual, multicultural, and student centered.³

The general description of the collecting philosophy became "what you would buy for the library of a 21st-century citizen of the world if you could create a library of approximately 100,000 volumes." Additionally, a decision was made not to view the library as an archival collection, because security in the building would not support such a view and because that function would continue to be performed by the main library. On occasion, the phrase "disposable collection" has been used in order to emphasize the commitment of librarians and the university administration to the development of a working collection that would evolve with the needs of the university's programs.

Faculty of the university were involved in planning for the new library, even in its early, preconceptual stages. A faculty task force on the library of the 21st century had recommended that the library system pursue a vision of an electronic library while simultaneously developing a library that could serve the needs of a growing research program. Faculty have served on committees that developed the building program for the new structure, and continue to play an active role in decisions regarding the University Center's programming, organization, and mission. The library system was eager to bring faculty into the collection development process because there was substantial expertise available, and because the enthusiastic support of the work of the library by faculty would be key to its success.

Collection Development Plan and Strategies

With support from the provost, the director of libraries chartered a faculty task force in 1992 to advise the library on the formation and implementation of a collection development policy. Faculty members were chosen based on their knowledge of various cultural areas and their expertise on regions of the world. A task force of librarians, with subject expertise from the humanities, social sciences, and physical sciences, was also appointed to serve as a working group for the actual drafting of the policy and the development of the collection. Soon after the formation of the faculty committee and working group, the head of collection development, who chaired both, determined that both groups would function more effectively as a joint task force. The joint task force meets regularly throughout the academic year to discuss collection development strategies, while the working group of librarians meets frequently to monitor the process.

Collection Development Policy

Formation of the actual collection development policy statement began in the initial meetings of the faculty advisory committee and the working group. Utilizing both recent and current undergraduate education curriculum initiatives at the university, the working group drafted a preliminary document to share with the faculty advisory committee. This was a thorough presentation of the initial goals, detailing all of the areas of diversity, multiculturalism, core and foundation texts, and general education guidelines that were pertinent. After two planning meetings with the faculty advisory group, the librarians decided to distill the official policy statement down to its essentials. This would avoid any possible misconceptions that the collection would target any particular areas or disciplines. Through three or four subsequent drafts, the task force pared down the "Collection Strengths" section to its essential two components: 1) representative original texts and secondary materials that reflect North American, global, and thematic diversity; and 2) foundation texts in primary fields of study. (Complete policy statements are available from the authors.)

Instead of itemizing diversity by type or theme, or listing multiculturalism by regional ethnicity, the task force decided upon the first statement listed above. Similarly, the task force chose "foundation texts in primary fields of study" rather than list such areas as introductory texts, general education, and classic texts. The more detailed documentation, however, still provided working guidelines for the task force.

The "General Selection Guidelines" section of the policy was less difficult to conceptualize and included several components. The task force decided that original texts should comprise the majority of the collection. Languages taught at GMU would be well represented in the collection, mostly in literary works, to comple-

ment the university's new initiative of teaching foreign languages across the curriculum. Strong emphases are being placed upon multimedia, including film and interactive discs, and upon electronic resources, particularly those that are full text. In fact, when the full strength of 100,000 volumes is reached by the end of the decade, it is envisioned that although the collection will continue to expand greatly, it will do so mainly in electronic formats.

Faculty Involvement

A key strategy in building a collection is, of course, to involve faculty as much as possible. First, the task force sent memos to all faculty requesting reading lists to allow selectors to benefit fully from the instructors' subject expertise and knowledge of sources. The task force encouraged faculty to add or delete items and to make notes regarding materials. In addition to reading lists, it was helpful to examine reserve lists from undergraduate courses to identify titles for purchase, since these items already had been deemed core items. A similar strategy is planned to examine supplementary readings for sale in the bookstore for undergraduate classes and to collect those that fit the collection emphases. These strategies closely involve faculty, either directly or indirectly, in the selection of materials and ensure that the collection is relevant to university teaching. The task force also wanted to seek input from other campus groups, including students and committees concerned with undergraduate education.

Foremost of the groups currently involved with expanding undergraduate educational options is a zero-base curriculum task force. This task force is charged with totally redesigning the undergraduate learning environment, beginning with 200 students in a self-paced learning track. Composed of three divisions, this program will offer units on higher education, the tangible world, society, and the

individual and self. In addition, learning communities will be formed to study and teach various themes, e.g., utopias, violence. A final division will be closely tied to the majors and involve internships and cooperative and site-based learning. The UCL will offer integral support to this new program, through both its collection and its teaching mission. The collection will be augmented and changed as the curriculum changes, and staff will offer intensive bibliographic instruction to help students meet their research requirements. As noted earlier, a great many teaching faculty and librarians were involved in a former general education task force, identifying several hundred core titles appropriate for undergraduate study. All of these items are now part of the main library's collection and are likely candidates for transfer to the new library. Other campus groups representing curricular innovations such as the PAGE (Plan for Alternative General Education) Program and Mason Scholars (program for exceptionally gifted students) will also be consulted.

In addition to faculty reading lists and input from other campus groups, core bibliographies need to be examined in order to build up a strong retrospective collection. Books for College Libraries is still the most important single source for undergraduate collections. It does have limitations in that it is dated and somewhat weighted toward the humanities, but it can also be very useful in identifying core foundation works that may then be purchased in their latest editions. Faculty involvement in the process ensures that selections are relevant. A recent, extensive bibliography for ethnic studies collection development is the Choice Ethnic Review Series, including African American Studies, Latino Studies, and Native American Studies. More reviews are slated for publication and should prove beneficial. Multicultural Review is also useful, as are such various handbooks as African American Masterpieces and The Reader's Adviser, to help identify ethnic literature and regional or country studies. In combination with other strategies, selections from basic bibliographies fulfill an important role in developing a balanced collection.

Key Series and Sets Identification

Another excellent strategy is the identification of key series and sets. Series and sets may be customized to the collection development policy, but might include such standards as the Cambridge history sets; Cambridge thematic, literary, and philosophy sets; the PBS NOVA videotape collection; Great Books of the Western World; Encyclopedia of World Cultures; Library of America; Annals of America; and Modern Library. Series may include such titles as Feminist Press's Cross-Cultural Memoirs, Smithsonian Studies in the History of Film and Television, MacMillan Modern Novelists, G.K. Hall's Critical Essays on British Literature, Hill and Wang's Critical Issue Series, and the Virago Press series of women writers.

A particularly interesting project for this collection was the collecting of works of all Nobel Peace and Literature Prize winners in both the original language of the author and the English translation. For many of the most significant literature prize winners, this included all currently available works. The task force treated other writers somewhat more selectively, though usually including a large majority of their works. Unfortunately, for many of the early prize winners, there is very little still in print. For the Peace laureates, there is much less available, since many had not written for publication or had published research too advanced for undergraduate study. However, there is still a rich body of literature to choose from, and the resulting collection is an excellent selection of culturally diverse works of literature in several languages that encourage independent and collaborative study, as well as both breadth and depth of research. Similar projects could be undertaken to identify groups of great thinkers/writers of certain areas of the world, both past and present.

Approval Plans

To capitalize on the collection development efficiency of approval plans, the task force looked at the possibility of using approval plans in the initial planning stages. Though the efficiency of approval plans was appealing, there were legitimate concerns about the limited subject terms in existing plans, particularly in the areas dealing with diversity. At the outset, several questions arose. Should approval plans be used at all? If so, would more than one vendor be used? Would the vendors be willing to use GMU-selected subjects rather than limit the selection to their subject terms? Key to the decision was the determination that librarians, rather than the vendors, would select the gen-

Faculty involvement in the process ensures that selections are relevant.

eral areas and the specific subjects of any possible approval plan. The task force explored two components of a potential approval plan. A cultural diversity component of the plan would ideally include literature; political, social, cultural, and economic issues; geographic areas; and thematic studies.

The task force's vision of the literature collection is one of original works of authors representing North American cultural diversity as well as authors representing world cultural diversity. The political, social, cultural, and economic issues of diversity include collecting works on cultural studies, ethnic relations, civil rights, human rights, racism, sports and leisure studies, separatist movements, genocide studies, and intercultural relations. Wide representation of geographic areas including North America, Africa, the Middle East, Asia, the Pacific, Europe, Latin America, the Caribbean, Russia, and Eastern Europe is a major tenet of the collection. However, the overall emphasis of the collection will be on works representing North American cultural diversity in all of its multicultural and multiethnic facets. Thematic studies include works on indigenous peoples, gender studies, and religions of the world, as well as other themes relating to the multifaceted subject of cultural diversity.

The challenge for the task force involved translating its vision of these themes to the vendors of approval plans. Representatives of two approval plans met with the committee to outline their proposals. During the course of these meetings, the task force began to focus on which vendor could 1) best match the criteria for both the general themes and specific subjects, and 2) provide a person who would supervise the assessment and evaluation of titles selected. Both vendors presented attractive plans, and the task force considered a combination of plans

In the case of multimedia, new and different criteria and selection sources will need to be established and consulted to ensure coverage of this rapidly developing and proliferating medium, especially in the area of full-text materials.

by using the best of each alternative. However, chiefly because of the real possibility of much duplication, the task force decided to use one vendor. The guarantee of personal supervision of the plan and flexibility in meeting the request for titles matching the general thematic approaches convinced the collection development committee that a unique approach to collecting for the UCL was possible, and an approval plan was implemented. The diversity portion of the plan provides the titles envisioned by the collection development task force to form the basis of a unique collection based on the many facets of cultural diversity.

A second component of the approval plan was necessary to cover the founda-

tion or "core" texts in the major disciplines of the undergraduate curriculum. For the purpose of focusing the approval plan, the task force consulted with selectors to arrive at a working definition of core texts: foundation or core texts are books that have generally been recognized or accepted as providing fundamental knowledge about a discipline or part of a discipline, giving interpretation and context. They may be written by theorists, practitioners, or key writers, and should be appropriate for nonspecialist readers, specifically undergraduates. Foundation texts in the fields of science, engineering, and technology may or may not include problem sets and exercises.

This plan was set up to include introductory titles such as Introduction to Computer Engineering or Elementary Differential Equations. With this definition, a copy of the course catalog, and a copy of the collection policy statement, the vendor started sending slips for selection, which initially included retrospective titles dating back to 1990. The working group as a whole reviewed the forms, and support for the approval plan has been overwhelmingly positive. The working group quickly remedied a few minor problems, such as elimination forms for children's titles.

The foundation text portion of the plan has been instrumental in building up core titles from 1990 to the present. Procedures have also been implemented to coordinate the library's main approval plan with the smaller plan. Subject specialists routinely review books on the main plan to determine whether a foundation text belongs in the UCL or in Fenwick Library. In many cases, a title may be chosen for both libraries, and procedures for this are in place.

Duplication

The issue of duplication between the two collections arose early in the deliberations and generated much discussion. A certain

amount of duplication is both necessary and desirable, but these considerations must be made at each step in the process. Initially, with limited funds, the task force focused on ordering unique titles for the UCL. As more funds became available, however, the task force developed guidelines for the selectors to help them decide when to order duplicates. It was decided that Fenwick Library, as the archival research library, should have a copy of all titles most appropriate for advanced undergraduate and graduate research study. The UCL would be the choice for all titles that fall within the scope of its collection development policy and are expressly targeted to beginning researchers. In the many cases that are not clear cut or may overlap, selectors are instructed to choose the title for Fenwick Library and to order a second copy for the UCL if the title is deemed important. The notable exceptions to these guidelines are the UCL's massive reserve component and certain areas of literature, which will be largely composed of duplicate titles. To take advantage of existing duplicate titles within the Fenwick collection, the systems office generated a list of titles in the collection that have two or more copies. This list, divided by call number, was reviewed by the selectors, who selected titles to be tagged and transferred to the new collection. In addition to using existing resources, this strategy has the advantage of mitigating space problems in the main library. A closely related strategy involves reviewing books that are donated to the library for possible addition to the new collection.

Media Selection

Another strategy involves selecting media resources. Though the entire media collection will move from the main library to the UCL, it will still be necessary to ensure that the new library has a balance of formats covering those areas outlined in the collection development policy. Selectors chose hundreds of films from na-

tional and oppositional cinemas throughout the world for purchase in VHS or laser disk format, as well as many documentaries and experimental films dealing with areas of diversity. Recordings of ethnic and indigenous music and dance, representing cultures around the world, are being identified for purchase as well. In the case of multimedia, new and different criteria and selection sources will need to be established and consulted to ensure coverage of this rapidly developing and proliferating medium, especially in the area of full-text materials.

A final strategy involves selecting electronic databases and full-text resources for the UCL, which means that the new library must keep abreast of the many text-encoding initiatives and projects rapidly developing and proliferating today. Most, if not all, of the selected databases would duplicate what is already available in the main library, and the task force plans to expand existing networking licenses to include the new library. These electronic resources will include a variety of bibliographic, full-text, and image databases that will make the integrated scholar workstation a reality.

Statistical Profile

To monitor the selection process and ensure balance among subject areas and formats, the working group developed a detailed record-keeping system in order to provide an accurate, ongoing statistical profile of the collection. The working group assigned each item ordered to one of eighteen categories within North American, global or thematic diversity, or to one of three areas under foundation texts. Each item then was also assigned to either humanities, social science, or science materials, and listed as either book or nonbook. Large sets of materials in paper (Great Books of the Western World) or in electronic format (Library of the Future) were counted as many individual works. Keeping this snapshot view of the collection allows the committee to concentrate on the development of certain areas of the collection from year to year.

After developing initial strategies, setting priorities, and putting policies into place, collection development for a new library is easily incorporated into existing procedures. It was recently decided, after much discussion among the librarians in the working group (particularly with the newest member, the University

While the real test will occur only after the library opens, the collection development plan appears to support the library's response to the new educational challenges of the 21st century.

Center librarian) to mesh much of the selection process with that of the main library. This would allow the bulk of the selection to be done by the subject specialists, many of whom are part of the working group. The selection areas that remain separate from the main library's collection development process include the diversity approval plan and a media fund.

Conclusion

This paper outlines the basic strategies that a task force developed to build a core collection of multicultural, foundation, and multimedia materials for a state-of-the-art electronic University Center Library. The basic strategies pursued by the task force in designing and implementing the collection development plan can be summarized as follows:

- drafting a collection development policy that lays out the fundamental objectives and sets up essential guidelines for the collection,
- involving faculty members in the collection process to guarantee that the collection meets the demands of university curriculum and campus teaching needs.
- examining core bibliographies to construct a solid retrospective component

of the collection, especially in the humanities and social sciences,

- identifying key series and sets to keep the collection up to date and to purchase the most relevant new publications, and
- establishing an approval plan to take advantage of subject profiling and timely notification.

Planning a collection for a new library requires a full and thorough understanding of the mission of the new library and the clientele it will serve. Preliminary use of the collection indicates that the initial collection development policy and procedures have been successful. According to a recent ARL study, "seventy-four percent of responding libraries said that ethnic materials are in demand."5 Both the multicultural and foundation portions of the collection are currently stored in closed stacks until the opening of the library. Statistics for patron requests, which are filled within twenty-four hours, indicate that a large portion of the collection is heavily used. While the real test will occur only after the library opens, the collection development plan appears to support the library's response to the new educational challenges of the 21st century.

As Larry Hardesty and Collette Mak point out in "Searching for the Holy Grail," there is little consensus among libraries on core undergraduate collections.6 However, thanks to the joint efforts of the task force and faculty members, and the full support of the library administration, the collection development strategies mentioned above are working very well for the new University Center Library at George Mason University. These strategies could be customized to meet the needs of other institutions undergoing similar developments. Preparing for the future in higher education is always a challenging and intricate process, but with careful planning and widespread involvement of the campus community, it may be a rewarding one as well.

Notes

1. For additional information see, Roland Conrad Person, A New Path: Undergraduate Libraries at United States and Canadian Universities, 1949–1987 (New York: Greenwood Pr., 1988); Patricia Tarin, "The Good, the Undergrad, and the UGLi," Library Journal 115 (Oct. 1990): 51; Carla Stoffle, "A New Library for the New Undergraduate," Library Journal 115 (Oct. 1990): 47–50; and Larry Hardesty, Faculty and the Library: The Undergraduate Experience (Norwood, N.J.: Ablex Publishing, 1991).

 For additional information on the University Center Library, see Charlene S. Hurt, "A Vision of the Library of the 21st Century," Journal of Library Administration 15 (Mar./Apr. 1991):

7-10.

3. See for example, Otis Chadley, "Addressing Cultural Diversity in Academic and Research Libraries," College & Research Libraries 53 (May 1992): 206–14; Karan Parrish and William Katz, Multicultural Acquisitions (New York: Haworth Pr., 1993); and Donald Riggs and Patricia Tarin,

Cultural Diversity in Libraries (New York: Neal-Schuman, 1994).

4. See the following for more information on similar efforts to restructure the curriculum: Paul Astin, Interdisciplinarity: Education for Social Consciousness, ERIC Document Reproduction Service, no. ED 283450 (1986); Leon Botstein, "Structuring Specialization As a Form of General Education," Liberal Education 77 (Mar./Apr. 1991): 10–19; Renewing Undergraduate Education: Recommendations from the Irvine Group, ERIC Document Reproduction Service, no. ED 328194 (1990); and William Toombs and William Tierney, Meeting the Mandate: Reviewing the College and Departmental Curriculum ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, no. 6. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, no. ED 345603 (1991).

5. Chadley, "Addressing Cultural Diversity," 211.

 Larry Hardesty and Collette Mak, "Searching for the Holy Grail: A Core Collection for Undergraduate Libraries," Journal of Academic Librarianship 19 (Sept. 1993): 362–71.

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Destruction of Knowledge: A Study of Journal Mutilation at a Large University Library

Constantia Constantinou

Book and journal mutilation is a problem for libraries. The rising cost of replacing mutilated books and journals and the availability of out-of-print materials concerns many librarians. This paper examines one type of mutilation—the removal of pages from journal titles at the Elmer Holmes Bobst Library of New York University. The study reviews the related literature; it discusses the methodology of the descriptive study on journal mutilation at Bobst Library; it analyzes and interprets the results of the study, makes suggestions that could help reduce the problem, and proposes other topics for additional research.



ot long ago, an e-mail message circulated among library collection staff which discussed the increasing prob-

lem of book and journal mutilation. The message outlining these issues read as follows:

This past term our library staff noticed an increase in the number of books and journal issues that are being damaged, e.g., pictures razor[ed] or torn out [and] entire contents removed with only the covers left on the shelves or in nearby garbage cans. So far, we have not been able to identify any particular subject area or collection that has been victimized more than another. In a time where our collections budget cannot keep pace with purchasing

new publications, the cost of replacing older, heavily used material is a real concern. As well, several of the items are no longer in print and we are unable to replace them. . . . I would appreciate hearing any ideas for preventing, minimizing or coping with the situation.¹

Review of Related Literature

Libraries realize that book and journal mutilation is a growing problem that simply does not go away. It is costly and disruptive for both libraries and library users. Book theft and mutilation are certainly not new developments of our time. Such acts can be traced as far back as 539 B.c. in Egypt when the Persian conquerors removed rolls of papyri from the library of Ramses II. Around 41 B.C. Anthony, emperor of Rome, raided the

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Pergamon Library and gave all its contents to Cleopatra. During the Middle Ages, librarians chained library books in order to ensure that no one would steal them. Later, during the Renaissance, Pope Nicholas V issued a statute excommunicating anyone who did not return books belonging to the church. Unfortunately, the problem of mutilation still exists. Articles and case studies are continually written that explore the psychological and sociological aspects of the phenomenon of book and journal mutilation.

The Motive

It has been documented that motives to perform library violations are commonly attributed to sociological, psychological, and situational factors.² Such library violations by users include:

- eating and drinking inside the library building,
 - · disfiguring text and illustrations,
- purposely misshelving items in order to deny access to them by other library users, and
 - overborrowing library holdings.

The first step in attempting to understand the nature and the magnitude of the problem of book and journal mutilation is to recognize these actions as acts of disruption and vandalism.

Clyde Hendrick, a professor of psychology, and Marjorie Murfin, a reference librarian at Kent State University, approached the problem by studying their student population.³ The results of their survey showed that fourteen (8.3%) of the 168 students who participated in the survey admitted mutilating journals. Their statistical data showed no significant differences in the attitudes of mutilators and nonmutilators.

A year later, Hendrick and Murfin published a study based on the interviews that they conducted with the three individuals who admitted having ripped out pages. The purpose of the interviews was to examine the reasons and motives that drove the students to mutilation. They

discovered that hostility toward the library played a significant role in the mutilators' acts of vandalism. The misconception that unbound journals are cheaper than books also contributed to mutilation. In addition, the students' attitudes toward mutilation changed when they learned how difficult and costly it was to replace pages.

Academic pressure is a strong motive that can easily drive a person to misshelve books on purpose or to tear out pages. A student under pressure may hide the books and magazines in a particular area so that upon his or her return, he/she can locate the needed books or magazines quickly. This escalating problem of mutilation, as it relates to academic pressure, is also visible in professional schools. As one medical librarian stated, "The surgeons of tomorrow are practicing their technique on our magazines today."⁵

The results of Dana Weiss's study showed that academic pressure motivates students to mutilate books and journals, regardless of the quality of library services.6 Contrary to Hendrick and Murfin's findings, the Weiss study showed that the attitudes of students toward library services have no relation to book theft or journal mutilation. Weiss believes that people who steal and mutilate library materials do so for sociological as well as psychological reasons. She attributes mutilation to sociological factors such as the environment: "Because this study was done in an urban university library, it could be said that the 'toughness' of the city life causes the theft. However, I believe a case could be made for 'danger' on a rural college campus. . . . "7

Conversely, Terri Pedersen showed that "situational circumstances" led students to mutilate and steal.⁸ Mutilating journals and stealing library books were not viewed as expressions of hostility toward the library or the university. Instead, such acts were viewed as inconsiderate acts toward the needs of their fellow students:

Because Emporia is in a rural area, the "toughness of the city life" is not a cause of mutilation and theft. The fault does not appear to lie with the library being unfriendly, cold, and anonymous. Students did not view the theft and mutilation problem as an expression of hostility toward the institution but instead felt that their fellow students were selfish and did not consider the needs of others.9

Hendrick and Murfin suggest that libraries eliminate frustrating situations that can lead library users to act desperately. Theodore Hines, Thomas Atwood, and Carol Wall entertained the same theory. 10,11 Their studies showed that broken copy machines, confusion, lack of time or easy access, uncaring library staff, lack of efficient directional signs, and unfamiliarity with the library environment and services generate frustration. Subsequently, anger builds up and library users take it out on library materials.

Assessing Mutilation

Carroll Varner suggests that by measuring journal mutilation, librarians are a step closer to preventing it.¹² Mutilation can be detected in the circulation department, the bindery (the University of Nebraska at Omaha estimates that 50 percent of its mutilation is discovered from the bindery department), or by library users who report the incidents to the library staff.^{13,14} At the Pullen Library of Georgia State University, the Serials and Acquisitions unit is responsible for keeping track of journals with missing pages.¹⁵

Descriptive inventory is another highly methodical technique used to assess mutilation. Descriptive inventory is tedious and time-consuming but is one of the most systematic and reliable ways to assess the full extent of mutilation. The feat of conducting a descriptive inventory for the entire collection is almost impossible. Librarians prefer to examine designated areas of the collection, such as ref-

erence collections. ¹⁶ It is recommended, however, that if losses are above eight percent in any area of the collection, a full inventory must be taken. ¹⁷

The Elmer Bobst Study

The purpose of this study was to identify the extent and rate of mutilation at the Elmer Holmes Bobst Library of New York University during the years 1990–1994. The study also attempted to identify titles and subject areas of the collection that are more vulnerable to mutilation than oth-

Hendrick and Murfin suggest that libraries eliminate frustrating situations that can lead library users to act desperately.

ers. In addition, the study investigated the possible relationship that exists between the availability of indexing and abstracting services on CD-ROM and the changes in the amount of journal mutilation.

The Elmer Holmes Bobst Library of New York University is located in Greenwich Village. It is New York University's main library. Bobst Library is the centerpiece of the New York University library system that includes four other specialized libraries which are located in the School of Law, the School of Medicine and Dentistry, the Institute of Fine Arts, and the Courant Institute of Mathematical Science. New York University is also a member of the Research Library Association of South Manhattan, a consortium that includes libraries such as the Cooper Union Library, the New School for Social Research Library, and the Parsons School of Design Library. The students of the consortium libraries share the same online public catalog, circulation system, and other library resources. Bobst Library is fully automated and houses approximately 2,505,182 book volumes, 2,361,025 microfilm units, and 19,375 serial titles.18

Methodology

At the Bobst Library, mutilated items are

identified in several ways: by the circulation department, the conservation laboratory, and the library users themselves. When the mutilated journal titles reach the collection services office, two employees assume responsibility for replacing the missing pages. The two employees examine each title using the method of page-by-page count and record all the pages that are missing. In addition to missing pages, they also record bibliographic information regarding the journal title in a log. The bibliographic profile contains information such as title, call number, year, volume, and issue number. When the count is completed, the information is transferred to an interlibrary loan (ILL) request and submitted to the Interlibrary Loan Office. The journal is then returned to the stacks with a note that the missing pages are on order. As the pages arrive from the Interlibrary Loan Office, the Collection Services employees retrieve the journal volumes from the stacks, inspect the ILL pages for completeness, photocopy the pages on acidfree paper (double-sided), and send them to the conservation lab to insert the pages in the bound volume. For the purpose of the study, the researcher collected all ILL requests submitted by Collection Services over the past five years (1990-1994). The researcher arranged 1,264 requests in chronological order, first by year and then by title.

Findings and Analysis

The first group of data corresponding to the year 1990 revealed the following: 102 titles suffered some type of mutilation, 142 volumes of the journal titles suffered damage, 4,370 (20.8%) pages were torn out, and 204 incidents of mutilation occurred. During 1991, the figures had dropped significantly: mutilation affected fifty-eight titles and one hundred volumes, 2,410 (11.5%) pages were torn out, and the incidents of mutilation dropped to 152. By 1992, fifty-five journal titles suffered mutilation, eighty-nine volumes

were mutilated, 2,038 (9.6%) pages were ripped out, and 109 incidents of mutilation occurred. In 1993, the numbers in volumes, pages, and incidents suddenly increased: 102 titles suffered mutilation, 218 volumes were mutilated, 6,987 (33.1%) pages were torn out, and 545 incidents of mutilation occurred. In 1994 (January–October) the numbers slightly decreased from the year before with eighty-four titles suffering mutilation. In addition, 167 volumes were mutilated, 5,256 (25%) pages were torn out, and 254 incidents of mutilation occurred.

Table 1 demonstrates and summarizes the mutilation history of the Bobst Library at New York University for 1990–1994. It indicates the number of titles mutilated per year, as well as the number of volumes, pages, and incidents (number of times that each title had to be requested from the Interlibrary Loan Office). Table 1 indicates clearly that the heaviest mutilation occurred during 1993 since more titles, volumes, and pages were mutilated in 1993 than any other year. The rate of mutilation was also the highest with 545 incidents.

Possible Reasons for the Increase in Mutilation during 1993

The heaviest mutilation in terms of number of volumes, pages, and incidents occurred within the call number ranges GV1580–GV1787 (Recreation, Leisure), HQ75 (Social Science: Sociology), and PN2 (English, American, and European Literature). The call number range GV1580–GV1787 includes journals related to the Dance Collection. Titles such as Dance World, L'Avant Scène Ballet Danse, Dance and Dancers, Dance Chronicle, Dance Life, Dancing Times, Ballet News, and Ballett International endured extensive mutilation.

Among the aforementioned titles, the most heavily mutilated was *Ballett International*. Ten of its volumes suffered mutilation during seventy-four incidents, and a total of 1,027 pages were torn out.

TABLE 1 Mutilation Per Year in Titles, Volumes, Pages, and Incidents Year Number of Number of Number of Number of titles and % incidents and % volumes and % pages and % 1990 102 (25.4%) 142 (20%) 4,370 (20.8%) 204 (16.2%) 1991 58 (14.5%) 2,410 (11.5%) 152 (12%) 100 (14%) 1992 55 (13.7%) 89 (12.5%) 2,038 (9.6%) 109 (8.6%) 1993 102 (25.4%) 545 (43.1%) 218 (30.5%) 6,987 (33.1%) 1994 84 (21%) 167 (23%) 254 (20.1%) 5,256 (25%) Total 401 716 21,061 1.264

Ballett International is a German publication that consists of both articles and illustrations. The type of mutilation regarding Ballett International involved tearing out illustrations and articles.

Dance and Dancers, Dancing Times, and Ballet News formed the next group to fall into the category of heavy mutilation. In each title, mutilation occurred in approximately ten volumes and affected 720 pages from each publication. The type of mutilation was similar in all dance titles; vandals tore out illustrations, articles, and advertisements indiscriminately.

Observations and Interpretations

New York University has a large department in performing arts that supports both the undergraduate and graduate programs in dance, theater, and performing arts. Consequently, the dance collection is used heavily by a large population of students. However, close examination of the physical volumes revealed that an individual or a small group of individuals caused the mutilation of the dance collection. This speculation is based on the following findings: 1) the mutilation occurred within a period of six months, which is a very short time for a mutilation of this magnitude to take place unless someone systematically and continuously mutilated the journals; and 2) pages were simply torn out (including articles, advertisements, and illustrations) and left either inside the journal or somewhere on the shelves close by, awaiting discovery.

The second category of journals that suffered extensive mutilation consisted of two titles both in the field of Social Science, specifically in sociology, family, and marriage (HQ75). The mutilated titles were Christopher Street and Journal of Homosexuality. The Journal of Homosexuality is a scholarly journal that contains only articles, as opposed to Christopher Street, which is a popular, highly illustrated journal that deals with homosexual issues. Eleven volumes from the Journal of Homosexuality suffered mutilation and 170 pages were torn out. This type of mutilation consisted of entire articles being ripped out. Eleven volumes from Christopher Street suffered mutilation, with 488 pages being torn out. The pattern of mutilation showed that the majority of the pages torn out contained illustrations,

However, close examination of the physical volumes revealed that an individual or a small group of individuals caused the mutilation of the dance collection.

including the front covers of magazine issues. In addition, the researcher discovered defaced pages with ink writings.

During the summer of 1993, New York University offered a class through the program of Social Work that required writing papers based on extensive readings from the Journal of Homosexuality. At the same time, many students complained to librarians at the Social Science reference desk after discovering entire articles torn out of the Journal of Homosexuality. It might have been possible that their fellow classmates mutilated the journal or it might just have been a coincidence that they discovered the mutilation during the semester that they were enrolled in the course. In the case of the Journal of Homosexuality, the library purchased a copy of the title on microform and retained the print version on the shelf.

As for Christopher Street, two types of mutilation occurred. The first type of mutilation involved tearing out pages and covers whose content consisted mostly of illustrations and photographs. The second type of mutilation involved alternating the text and illustrations. Apparently, individual(s) decided to deface some of the journal's pages as a way of expressing his or her personal beliefs on homosexuality. The person(s) quoted passages from Christian books condemning homosexuality. Even though the defaced pages were not ripped out, the collection services staff had to replace them with photocopied ones.

Mutilation by Subject Classification

In order to analyze the data by classification categories, the researcher divided titles into subject categories using the Library of Congress Classification Schedules as a consulting tool, and grouped all mutilated titles into twenty-four classification categories. Table 2 indicates the Library of Congress Classification Number (LCCN) for each subject category, the different classification categories that were affected by mutilation (in certain subject categories where mutilation was heavily detected, the categories break down to smaller subdivisions), the number of volumes affected by mutilation for each of the classification categories, the percentage of the mutilated volumes for each of the subject areas, the number of mutilated pages per category, the percentage of page mutilation, the number of incidents per subject category, and the corresponding percentages.

Table 2 lists the affected subject categories. The five most affected categories were History, Recreation and Leisure, Social Science and Economics, Social Science and Sociology, and General English, American and European Literature. The area of History (D) suffered the heaviest mutilation in terms of number of pages, with 3,918 pages torn out and 138 ILL requests submitted during the past five years (1990–1994). The researcher detected a significant portion of the mutilation in this area, specifically in the titles *Orbis, Past and Present* and *Journal of Contemporary History*.

In the area of Recreation and Leisure (GR-GV) 3,790 pages were torn out and 288 incidents of mutilation occurred. As discussed earlier, the titles that suffered most of the mutilation in the Dance Collection were Ballett International, Dance and Dancers, Dancing Time, and Ballet News. Social Science and Economics (H-HJ) contained 3,311 mutilated pages with 192 incidents of mutilation. Damaged titles that contributed to this area's mutilation were the Journal of Public Economics, Politics and Society, and Review of Economic Studies. Social Science and Sociology (HM-HX) was the fourth highest affected area with 2,445 mutilated pages and 197 incidents of mutilation. Christopher Street, Journal of Homosexuality, and Children Today sustained the most mutilation in this category. The fifth group of journals that falls into the heavy mutilation category is the classification area of General English, American and European Literature (PN-PS). The researcher discovered 1,666 mutilated pages and counted eightyseven incidents of mutilation. Among the titles most affected were Boundry 2, Literature Film Quarterly, and Wide Angle.

Rate of Mutilation

As seen in the analysis of table 2, the

estruction of Knowledge 50

TABLE 2 Subject Categories, 1990–1994

LCCN	Subject	Volumes	% of All Vol.	Pages	% of All Pages	Incidents	% of All Incidents
A	General Works	10	1.40	316	1.50	11	0.87
B-BF	Philosophy/Psychology	47	6.56	1,014	4.81	51	4.03
BJ	Psychology-Ethics	1	0.14	25	0.12	1	0.08
BL	Religion	9	1.26	108	0.51	13	1.03
C	Auxiliary Science	5	0.70	115	0.55	5	0.40
D	History	81	11.31	3,918	18.60	138	10.92
E-F	History (American)	29	4.05	647	3.07	35	2.77
G-GR	Geography-Anthropology	30	4.19	439	2.08	27	2.14
GR-GV	Recreation, Leisure	73	10.20	3,790	18.00	288	22.78
Н-НЈ	Social Science: Economic	128	17.88	3,311	15.72	192	15.19
НМ-НХ	Social Science: Sociology	73	10.20	2,445	11.61	197	15.59
J	Political Science	13	1.82	335	1.59	19	1.50
L	Education	26	3.63	712	3.38	34	2.69
M	Music	17	2.37	335	1.59	22	1.74
N	Fine Arts	14	1.96	131	0.62	17	1.34
P-PA	Gen. Philology & Linguist.	19	2.65	471	2.24	26	2.06
PB-PJ	Modern Euro. & Orient. Lang.	10	1.40	212	1.01	12	0.95
PN-PS	General Literature	68	9.50	1,666	7.91	87	6.88
Q	Science	6	0.84	136	0.65	7	0.55
R	Medicine	34	4.75	766	3.64	41	3.24
T	Technology	17	2.37	115	0.55	35	2.77
U	Military Science	1	0.14	11	0.05	1	0.08
V	Naval Science	1	0.14	7	0.03	1	0.08
Z	Bibliography, Library Science	4	0.56	35	0.17	- 4	0.32
Total		716		21,060		1,264	

mutilation of pages is not always analogous to the rate of mutilation incidents. Table 3 lists the top four classification categories based on the number of incidents arranged in descending order. Even though the category of Recreation and Leisure (GR-GV) ranked second in terms of number of mutilated pages (3,790), it still had the highest rate of mutilation incidents with 22.78 percent. The Social Science and Sociology (HM-HX) category ranked fourth in terms of smallest number of mutilated pages, but in terms of the rate of mutilation, it ranked second with 15.59 percent. The number of mutilated pages paralleled the rate of mutilation in the area of Social Science and Economics. In terms of pages and incidents, this category ranked third with 15.72 percent of mutilated pages and 15.19 percent of incidents. The last category, History (D), ranked fourth in number of incidents. Even though History had the highest number of mutilated pages (3,918), the rate of mutilation was only 10.92 percent.

Possible reasons for this high rate of mutilation in the categories of Recreation and Leisure (GR-GV) and Sociology (HM-HX) may stem from the nature of some of these journal titles. Titles from the GR-GV classification category, such as *Ballett International*, *Dance and Dancers*, *Dancing Times*, *Ballet News*, and *Christopher Street* (HQ) are highly illustrated journals. Illus-

trations, especially color ones, turn titles into prime targets for mutilation.

As stated above, the area of History suffered the heaviest mutilation with 3,918 pages missing, even though the rate of incidents (138) is the lowest. This type of asymmetry can be attributed to mutilation of titles such as *Orbis* (1,740 pages missing), *Journal of Contemporary History* (618 pages missing), and *New York History* (177 pages missing) that contain lengthy articles and no illustrations. Thus the person(s) who mutilated these journals ripped out long articles, which increased the number of pages torn out.

Relationship Between the Availability of CD-ROM Indexing Services and the Changes in Mutilation

In order to find out if a relationship between the availability of indexing services on CD-ROM databases and the changes in the amount of mutilation at the Elmer Holmes Bobst Library exists, the researcher organized the data in the following manner: titles with 500 or more missing pages (Christopher Street included with 488 missing pages) and organized the raw data in a table. In this way, the researcher could establish whether highly mutilated titles are affected by title availability on a CD-ROM database (see table 4). Table 4 indicates the classification number of the mutilated title, the journal title, the number of missing pages for each

			BLE 3 Mutilation		
LCCN	Subject	Pages	% of pages	Incidents	% of incidents
GR-GV	Recreation Leisure	3,790	18.00	288	22.78
НМ-НХ	Social Science: Sociology	2,445	11.61	197	15.59
н-нј	Social Science: Economics	3,311	15.72	192	15.19
D	History	3,918	18.60	138	10.92

of the titles, the CD-ROM indexing database for each of the corresponding titles available at Bobst, the starting year of the CD-ROM database coverage for each of the titles, the year that each of the CD-ROM databases became available to Bobst Library users, the year in which mutilation occurred, and the number of missing pages from the volumes whose years were covered by a CD-ROM database.

Analysis and Interpretation

As seen in table 4, three out of the eight journals are indexed by a CD-ROM database available to Bobst Library users. These titles are Orbis (ranked first in terms of number of pages missing with 1,740), World Politics (ranked third with 1,010 missing pages), and Journal of Contemporary History (ranked seventh with 618 missing pages). The other five journals-Ballett International, Dance and Dancers, Dancing Times, Ballet News, and Christopher Street—were either not indexed by a CD-ROM database or, if they were, the database was not available at the Bobst Library at the time that the library staff detected the mutilation.

In the case of Orbis, which is the most heavily mutilated title, the library staff discovered the mutilation in 1994, a year when Periodical Abstracts, Predicasts, and PAIS were available on CD-ROM. The 453 missing pages were detected in volumes from 1976 to 1982. Periodical Abstracts and Predicasts began their CD-ROM coverage in 1989 and 1991, respectively. The only CD-ROM indexing source that covers mutilation of volumes from 1976 to 1982 is PAIS, which began its coverage in 1976. It is possible that the 453 missing pages from Orbis (out of a total number of 1,740 pages) is a result of the availability of the CD-ROM indexing database. In all the other titles, the library staff discovered the mutilation in the volumes not included in the years the CD-ROM databases cover. It is clearly shown in table 4 that no relationship exists between the availability of indexing and abstracting services on CD-

ROM databases and the changes in the amount of mutilation at the Elmer Holmes Bobst Library.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Frances Meals said that it is a real challenge for libraries to be able to give the user the best possible service. Such service involves preserving the collection so that what the user wants is always there and is conveniently available for use for as long as he/she needs it. ¹⁹ It is clear that journal mutilation affects students' education. Students cannot use the library's resources to their fullest because they cannot find articles in mutilated journals. They often have to wait for days to get replacement pages through ILL services.

The findings of this case study indicate that the problem of journal mutilation is disruptive to the library and its users. Although book and journal mutilation continues to be a problem, it is not an incurable one. In fact, public campaigns have proven effective in combating book and journal mutilation. Such campaigns emphasize educating users on the difficulties of obtaining replacements. These antimutilation campaigns also can involve:

- Posting signs with the warning that mutilation is a punishable crime.
- Creating awareness of the problem by utilizing the campus newspaper and media outlets.
- Providing an adequate number of photocopiers, change machines, and vendor card machines to dissuade users from mutilation.
- Announcing the closing times in order to give students a chance to complete their photocopying.
- Encouraging faculty to place an adequate number of required readings on reserve, especially during exam periods.
- Encouraging users to report immediately any missing pages from the stacks.
- Involving librarians more in maintaining and reviewing the physical condition of titles.

Title Number CD BOM Date of Vers of Mutilation			Mut	TABLE 4 Mutilation of Titles Indexed by a CD-ROM Database	TABLE 4 ndexed by a	CD-ROM	Database	
missing bases for each coverage at Bobst of the titles	LCCN	Title	Number of pp. missing	CD-ROM indexing databases for each of the titles	Date of CD-ROM coverage	Year of avail. at Bobst	Mutilation discovered	Pp. missing from vols. with yrs. indexed on CD-ROM database
1989- 1992 1994 1991- 1993 1976- 1988	D410	Orbis	1,740	Period. Abstr. Predicasts PAIS*	1989- 1991- 1976-	1992 1993 1988	1994	453
GV1787 Ballett 1,027 X** Inter- national	GV1787	Ballett Inter- national	1,027	**				
D410 World 1,010 Period. Abstr. 1989- 1992 1994 0 Politics	D410	World Politics	1,010	Period. Abstr.	1989-	1992	1994	0
GV1580 Dance 722 X and Dancers	GV1580	Dance and Dancers	722	×				
GV1580 Dancing 720 X Times	GV1580	Dancing Times	720	×				
GV1787 Ballet 720 X News	GV1787	Ballet News	720	×				
D410 Jour. of 618 Period. Abstr. 1988- 1992 1990 0 Contemp. History	D410	Jour. of Contemp. History	618	Period. Abstr.	1988-	1992	1990 1994	0

Additional Areas of Study

In an attempt to gain better understanding of the problem of book and journal mutilation, researchers suggest studying additional areas. For example, very few studies report on the cost associated with mutilation. Therefore, there exists a need for researching and documenting such costs that can reveal further the extent and magnitude of the problem. Whether it

involves in-house treatment, commercial binding, and ILL service expenses, the cost of replacing articles and out-of-print monographs is very high.

Another area to investigate is the extent of mutilation of monographs. This investigation can be taken a step further by comparing mutilation of monographs with mutilation of journals. Such an investigation could elicit interesting results

if it found a correlation between mutilation in the monograph collection and the journal collection in similar subject areas.

A study needs to be undertaken that examines the areas of a library's collection that were subject to budgetary cuts, and then investigates mutilation to see if a relationship exists between such cuts and the amount of mutilation. Research has shown that the problem of book and journal mutilation does not have a permanent solution, but ignoring the issue is certainly not the answer. For the sake of knowledge, truth, and the people who

seek them, the conscientious librarian has to make a choice: he or she can chose to work in silence or to protect the library

Research has shown that the problem of book and journal mutilation does not have a permanent solution, but ignoring the issue is certainly not the answer.

collection from mutilators, thieves, and vandals by confronting the problem of mutilation and actively reacting to it.

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Minorities and the Symbolic Potential of the Academic Library: Reinventing Tradition

Camila A. Alire and Frederick J. Stielow

Mainstream American colleges and universities face a series of challenges over the recruitment and retention of their minority students. In a theoretical essay with practical examples, a Hispanic library dean and the executive director of one of the nation's largest African American archives argue that the academic library has a special and all too often overlooked role to play in resolving a portion of these difficulties. While acknowledging prior good intentions, they ask the reader to add critical and semiological perspectives of their institutions to this equation. The university and its library are signs of advancement, yet they can also project an alien, elitist, and previously forbidden goal to minorities. The academic library's potential may actually rest on an understanding of its own symbolic power and the librarian's proactive willingness to reinvent tradition to include minorities and their heritages as an integral part of the academic environment.



ffirmative action," "Afro-centric," "cultural studies," "diversity," "multiculturalism"—the terms pour on librarians

from the literature, conferences, and interminable meetings. Mainstream colleges and universities are embracing a wave of minority recruits and interests. The reasons are easy to discern. In the decades since *Brown v. Board of Education*, America has attacked the visible patterns of Jim Crow. While problems remain, prior admission hurdles have been attacked, and academia has awakened to a complex problem with a long history.

Economics and numbers also tell an inevitable tale. Even with admitted

undercounting, the 1990 U.S. Census reported that of the two largest minorities, African Americans increased by 13.2 percent and Hispanics by an exceptional 53 percent since 1980. By the turn of the century, one-third of the country will be minority with the highest concentration among the young—the main academic student pool. Indeed, minorities have the potential to become the majority of college students.¹

Ethnic or racial awareness units, student organizations, and special studies programs are now ubiquitous. Recruiters for students, faculty, and staff scramble for the best and brightest. Campuses across the nation recognize the need to

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fight against racial slurs and sensitize their communities. Yet, the new awareness and infrastructure have frequently come up short. Minority students often remain apart. They continue to complain against the weight of perceived paternalism. Matters are further complicated by the Byzantine administrative reality of modern higher education. On the one hand, some may resist any change as an affront to the sacred past. They view ethnic studies programs and minority affairs offices as mere tokens and not worthy of integration with the tried and true mission of the school. On the other hand, academic departments and disciplines wrangle over who is actually or spiritually qualified to teach and decode discourse for the student. Indeed, the new programs and offices may guard their turf against other possible contributors on campus.2

To Cornell West and other modern Black intellectuals, the drive for a safe and humane nation has encountered potholes and the mixed legacy of the Civil Rights Movement. As concerned academic librarians, scholars, and representatives of a minority and a minority institution, the authors suggest that the campus library provides exceptional opportunities for repaving and reinventing. Given the complexities, campus politics, and occasionally the vituperative nature of the debate, they must warn the reader that such a task is not easy and may prove disconcerting. Librarians will need to be proactive to market this potential and circumvent potential bureaucratic roadblocks. Success may depend on an ability to understand and manipulate one's institutional heritage and symbolism-a willingness to reinvent tradition.3

Cannibals and Tartans

There are a number of lessons to be learned from the disciplines and clientele that librarians serve. Semiologist Roland Barthes shows how everyday activities, institutions, and vocabulary hide the most crucial insights to human behavior. To Barthes, the obvious factors are often the most difficult to understand or deconstruct and may contain their own mixed legacies. Only after decades of struggle and education, for instance, are people able to comprehend the damages of racial stereotyping. Once fashionable minstrel shows and pickaninny lawn statues are no longer acceptable. Yet, people all still live with their residues and other deeply imbedded misconceptions. How many are aware of images and stories of ritual cannibalism in Africa, but can anyone name an African tribal group that actually practiced such rites?4

The power of the cannibalism metaphor is hard to dismiss but equally difficult to overcome. Interpretations of the same events may lead to confusing struggles between those who defend their traditional beliefs versus those with very different viewpoints. Critical theorists and postmodernists are joined by minorities in combating what had been accepted as neutral and normal. Consequently, the names of school mascots devolve into controversy; and the quincentenary of Christopher Columbus becomes a battleground over discovery versus conquests and genocide.5 In the words of Native American historian Donald Grinde Ir., minority people have the right to question the established perspective. He states:

With this mentality, Native American people often find their history imprisoned by the rhetoric and scholarly inventions of empire. As technicians of American nationalism, many American historians consciously and unconsciously perpetuate these conceptual "truths" and inventions of empire in their discourses on United States history. Much of the tension surrounding the emergence of American Indian studies and history in the academy is the product of an intellectual tradition that rationalized and "legalized" European conquest. Thus these invented intellectual realities of the last five centuries stand in the way of the creation of a meaningful discourse between Native and non-Native peoples in the Americas.⁶

The entire Western canon is under attack and has only recently expanded to acknowledge contributions from Islam, sub-Saharan Africa, the Chinese court, and the Incan and Aztec civilizations.

Even a simple review of older American textbooks will confirm that American students were force-fed anti-Spanish black legends and tales of evil Mexicans. These helped justify our Manifest Destiny. Although often subtle, the forces of perverted traditionalism have played devastating roles from the deliberate manipulations of cultural icons and institutions in Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union to the struggles in Yugoslavia today. As the great Marxist thinker Antonio Gramsci and historian/philosopher Michel Foucault argue, even seemingly benign cultural agencies may be party to distortions and a "history of details" of state power.7

These external voices call us to examine the history and image of the library across time. There is some good news. From the beginning of written time, the library has served as a mark of wisdom, civilization, and tradition. This institution played, and continues to play, a positive role as a mark of culture and advancement.

With the rise of the printing revolution and concomitant western expansionism, the institution of the library took on different functions and notions. State libraries and archives began to appear and signaled the advances of their civilization. The Vatican Library and Spanish Escorial set the original tone, but the crucial erabegan with the French Bibliothéque Nationale and the wave of nationalism released by Napoleon in the early nine-

teenth century. Such institutions emerged as physical monuments in grandeur and scope—part of a celebratory craze in the West.

Americans took this one step further and democratized the symbol. Melvil Dewey and Andrew Carnegie helped create the new public library as a municipal icon—one which came to denote the arrival of a truly progressive municipality.⁸

Library historian Michael Harris, however, demonstrated that even the saintly American public library movement can be viewed through the lenses of paternalism and social control. While certainly a civic good, the public library was nevertheless part of a general effort to Americanize new immigrants and make them better workers. From ongoing research, the authors can also establish the rise of state archives and other cultural agencies in the South. Their establishment was part and parcel of memorializing the Confederacy and coincided with the rise of Jim Crow.

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The problem, too, is what was left out. It is difficult to identify nationally significant African American or other minority library monuments outside of the historically Black colleges and the Schomburg of the New York Public Library until very recent times. Additionally, the Amistad Research Center is acknowledged as a pioneer but was only founded in 1966 as part of a minor wave of similar recognition.⁹

American universities and their libraries were included in nationalistic campaigns. As revisionist historians have documented, these bodies were tools in the general push to indoctrinate African Americans, Hispanics, and other immi-

grants—to bring them up to the American standard. Academic libraries could do no better than reflect the paternalism of their institutions and the seemingly racist scholarship of the era. In 1886, for example, Herbert Baxter Adams argued for an expanded view of the academic library as:

Part of a great democratic movement belonging to the 19th century; it is an organized effort on the part of university men to raise, uplift the masses, to carry out from academic cloisters the fruits of higher learning.¹¹

Despite the best of all intentions, Adams's American universities enforced, and some continued to champion, a very narrow canon from that era—a canon that whitened or ignored non-WASP contributors. Consequently, minorities who were considered outsiders trying to achieve the American Dream through mainstream education had to pass through doors that implicitly alienated them from their cultural traditions. Can anyone question the discomfort of such individuals who enter the hallowed halls of the library? It is clear why such facilities were often the targets for radical takeovers in the 1960s. ¹²

Minorities and those championing the entrance of different viewpoints focused on the emblematic role of the library. This focus makes for some interesting possibilities. Historically, they are quite accurate about the symbolism. Colleges and universities literally took root from their libraries. Libraries provided the first permanent infrastructure and names like the Sorbonne and Harvard.

The academic library emerged as the psychological soul of the university. However, the institution itself was not set in stone. Traditions changed and were created. The sacred temples of classicism that excluded undergraduates gave way to the student laboratory and research center which occurred largely within the last

hundred years. The academic library was part of this new university movement toward practical training and empiricism. As exemplified by the University of Illinois and replicated elsewhere, the academic library emerged as a prerequisite sign in this transformation.¹³

In 1902, James Hulme Canfield, one of the great popularizers of the academic library movement, argued that the library had become the "heart" of a massive change:

The changes which have come in all phases of college life during the last half-century constitute almost a revolution. But of all these, the changes in library constituency and in library management are the most notable. Fifty years ago the college library was almost an aside in education. Indeed, it was like the sentence which we enclose in brackets: to be read in a low tone, or to be slurred over hastily, or even to be entirely omitted without making any serious change in the sense.¹⁴

History reveals that many of our hallowed academic traditions are less than sacrosanct and often of quite recent vintage. Even the medieval caps, gowns, and hoods seen at graduation ceremonies were generally adopted in their present forms only earlier in this century. As Eric Hobsbawn demonstrates in The Invention of Tradition, other traditional signs of identity and advancement were actually created at roughly the same time as library and racial myths took hold. For example, the sacred Scottish tartan emerged only in the eighteenth century as part of a deliberate sales campaign by textile manufacturers.

Unlike the implicit denigration of cannibalism, the tartans became powerful and lasting symbols that helped affirm both individual tribal identity and a national identity for a country in turmoil.¹⁵ The success of the tartans and the impor-

tance of graduation regalia are appropriate metaphors and precedents for the active creation of new traditions—traditions that need to be expanded to respect and include minorities. These symbols can be models in a drive to reinvent tradition to encompass minority perspectives through the academic library.

Practical Applications

Given the practical considerations and the historical legacy, how should librarians in traditionally White institutions act? Some of the answers are obvious and have been around for some time but can take on new possibilities with a different viewpoint. For example, the authors agree with the importance of hiring minority librarians. They applaud the field and its longstanding attempts to increase the number of minority professionals. Efforts, while not a total success, certainly leave libraries better off than many other fields in academe. However, does not this very success provide libraries with a bargaining chip for administrations searching for diversity in the general faculty? Couldn't this effort also provide vital role models for minority students?16

The hiring of minority student workers provides another illustration of a practical vehicle. At the University of Colorado-Boulder, library dean Jim Williams called on university officials for an increase in the library's student budget specifically to hire minority students as reference assistants in the library. The program demonstrated a commitment to minority student retention on the library's part and also on the campus administration's part. Not only has the library become more receptive to minority students, but these students are also being recognized as a valuable resource on campus. In turn, those minority students with minimal prior exposure to libraries and study skills seem to have benefited by becoming better prepared for college studies. In addition, the library faculty and staff gained valuable experience in establishing a workplace that is sensitive to serving the needs of minority users.

Library management should be especially proactive in campus efforts to recruit minority students. The University of Colorado's system has very successful precollegiate programs on three of its campuses. The university brings economically disadvantaged minority high school students on campus each summer from their sophomore year until graduation.

The Auraria Library serving the University of Colorado at Denver offers a specialized library instruction course designed to prepare these students for success in high school and prepare them for

In addition, library faculty and staff gained valuable experience in establishing a workplace that is sensitive to serving the needs of minority users.

collegiate work. Efforts like this serve as a strong recruiting mechanism. Tracking suggests that minority students who are treated well and respected are very likely to choose the institution where they are welcomed and valued.

A good first impression may be the deciding factor that prospective students use to make their college or university selections. One of the author's personal experiences as a first-generation matriculant certainly indicates that first-generation and/or minority students may feel estranged from even entering the doors of most academic libraries.

What clues can minority students and their parents use to indicate that they are welcomed in the library? Federal legislation forces libraries to deal with the physically handicapped minority, but what do they do for those with English as a second language? Are there other hidden barriers to minority use? How do these tie to the frequently overlooked, yet vital goals of minority student retention and

the making of a pool of satisfied alumni and potential donors?

Positive endeavors call for a sensitized staff-a group which can give up paternalism or strict adherence to past traditions for a dialogue with those bringing new cultures and vistas to campus. Exhibits, bibliographic instruction, and other outreach efforts, for example, are necessary components that may call for tailoring. Bibliographic instruction may require sensitizing in terms of its language use and sample subjects.

The same is true of exhibits. Libraries must be willing to take risks in hosting exhibits that could spark intellectual debate relative to the treatment of minorities on and off campus. The Amistad Research Center, for example, joined Tulane University's Office of Multicultural Affairs in a celebration of the thirtieth anniversary of Tulane's desegregation. To do this meant exposing the racism that preceded 1963 and may still exist on campus. To do any less would have trivialized the celebration.

Librarians should also understand that they will incur new and equally essential services for minority clientele. Multicultural outreach is not only necessary, but can also be viewed as a marketable contribution toward the university's teaching mission. The burgeoning number of minority studies and cultural awareness programs obviously need to be supported by library collections. The questions for collection development, however, are heightened because of a likely pattern of historical oversights that may call for redress.17

Library management is well advised to see the potential in recognizing other minority efforts and should not view such efforts as an extra burden or game-one which takes away from sanctified tradition and essential services. Prior academic traditions and the current canon are not sacrosanct or absolute truth. They arose from a particular time and set of constantly changing standards, but they do not escape the prejudices of the past. Again, libraries do not need to strike the earlier standards; they need only to include some additions and different viewpoints. For instance, can twentieth-century art be appreciated or analyzed without acknowledging its ties to African models? The same could be said about dance, music, and literature.

Libraries cannot afford to ignore the power and symbolism afforded by the ongoing information technology revolution. As the American Library Association and other concerned groups have indicated, it is vital that minorities not be left behind on the information highway. Minorities are actively seeking remedies. For example, the recent Africana libraries represented at the Information Age Conference held at the Schomburg Library underscored the need and ongoing efforts for the minority community to be included in the national information infrastructure. However, historically Black colleges and universities and most minority cultural institutions are underfunded and not linked electronically.

Only because of its position within a mainstream university, the Amistad Research Center succeeded in leading the way using technology. The center launched its gopher in mid-1994 and has gone into Mosaic. The design of these resources includes a consciousness of symbolism. The selection of icons used in the screen presentation is drawn from and reflects African American and African art. The use of these icons will serve only to promote the self-esteem of African American users of the collection no matter their age.18

Service to minorities simply implies a proactive stance and the need for some redress for at least a century of oversights. The authors maintain that good intentions alone will not suffice. The psychological impact of the library and librarians as cultural stewards cannot be ignored. A clientele, previously denied its monuments and intimidated with thoughts that it could not compete, may need extra attention to know that it is welcomed. Academic librarians may have to reach out to minority students and alumni groups. They must be willing to work with and inform them about the new commitment.

Reference and bibliographic instruction librarians should be major players, but one of the keys may be in special collections departments. The last are the most semiologically intense arenas and the primary bastion of the traditions that have ignored minorities in the past. Yet, special collections also provide the easiest target to focus management attention and to garner positive publicity. Some might even follow the lead of Harvard University in creating its W. E. B. DuBois Center, or Tulane University in offering to house and partially underwrite the Amistad with its 10,000,000-document collection. Most will settle for smaller concentrations and/or renamings in the university archives, special collections department, or perhaps an area reserved for a specific ethnic/racial book collection.

However, even on the most practical level, how will library managers deal with an expanded role for special collections, which are themselves often ignored and considered peripheral in modern academic libraries? Does a library want to bring a potentially competing body, like the Amistad, to campus? More importantly, where can a library find the additional expertise and budget to address programmatic development? How can a library avoid censorship and, at the same time, avoid the faux pas of uninformed paternalism?

Salvation will not be instantaneous, and problems obviously can arise from such extensions. Libraries must deal with entrenched forces and symbols. Diversity training, especially that which includes a semiological component, is a partial solution. Staff—minorities and nonminorities alike—should also be involved in the planning for multicultural programs as a

recognized part of the library's basic mission.

Suggestions for Action

Throughout this article, the authors have referred to possible ways for proactive action by academic libraries and librarians. Additional concrete suggestions for

Successful mentoring of minority library faculty can make the difference in their success not only in their primary job but also in their research and service requirements.

library action include, but are not limited to, the following.

In the area of bibliographic instruction, the librarians could specifically design instruction for minority-related programs such as ethnic studies, minority precollegiate, and ESL. In addition, multicultural courses that are designed for specific subject disciplines could benefit from a library instruction component. No matter the program or the format, library instruction should include vivid examples in the program that reflect an integration of cultural awareness, sensitivity, and appreciation.

Other suggestions for academic library action relate to personnel. Libraries must aggressively hire minority librarians, staff, and student workers. Diversity training of staff is a must to prepare them better to work effectively with students, faculty, and coworkers who are different from them. However, attempts by the academic library should be made to integrate diversity throughout the library's operations—policies, procedures, collections, and services. How many academic libraries have adopted a policy statement that deals specifically with services to their minority constituents?

Mentoring is another suggestion for action. Successful mentoring, formally or informally, of minority students can keep them in college; recruit them into the library profession; and retrain those who are already working in academe. Successful mentoring of minority library faculty can make the difference in their success not only in their primary job but also in their research and service requirements.

Another suggestion for action relates to programming. The academic library should take the lead in hosting campus programs, colloquia, or author series that deal directly with minorities and minority issues. Related to this is the possibility of the academic library hosting minority-related exhibits, art displays, and book/poster displays.

Finally, developing an academic library collection which reflects diversity in the academy—students and faculty, curriculum, research, special collections, and so forth—should not be the exception but the rule. Academic library collection policies should include a statement that demonstrates an intent to collect in support of diversity throughout the academy's curriculum.

Conclusions

Problems aside, minority students are here, and vocal minority student bodies will speak out. They need to know that the library is also theirs. They need to be convinced that what was seen as an exclusively white domain can be a people's institution.

The new student demographics demand that they have materials that speak to both their cultural and educational needs. Libraries content on resting on the status quo are not only failing their mis-

sion, but are also likely to create a point of contention for their universities in the future. If ignoring the question is not the answer, perhaps librarians might follow normal management principles and plan to meet the challenge. Such exploration can also prove a valuable selling point when pleading the library's fiscal case with university administrators.

The library stands as a universal symbol of knowledge. This symbol can speak to people of all races and creeds. This institution can play a unique role in reinventing tradition.

Practically, most libraries can and should insure that their collection policies reflect and champion a minority presence. Librarians also have a cultural stewardship. They need to deal with the symbolic and practical roles of their institution as they relate to the socialization and recruitment for a new minority-conscious academy. Indeed, increasing staff diversity and developing the potential for minority students to excel within the key traditional symbol of the university should be trumpeted.

In sum, the authors hope to have raised some questions, provoked some thought, and provided some historical context. Academic and other librarians need to prepare for coming demographic inevitabilities. What began as White, elitist institutions will require rethinking and a reworking of their images. Libraries and librarians cannot rest on their past laurels. Librarians must address the symbolic and actual state of their facilities and try to reinvent a positive tradition for a burgeoning minority clientele.

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and uniting a disparate people over time.

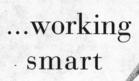
16. Kristin H. Gerhard and Jeanne M. K. Boydston, "A Library Committee on Diversity and its Role in a Library Diversity Program," College & Research Libraries 54 (July 1993): 335–43; or the coverage in "Racial and Ethnic Diversity: Information Exchange," College and Research Libraries News; Final Report of the Association of College and Research Libraries Task Force on Recruitment and Retention of Underrepresented Minorities (Chicago: ACRL, 1992), provides a solid overview of practical measures, but essentially overlooks the semiological issues.

17. Daryl G. Smith, *The Challenge of Diversity: Involvement or Alienation in the Academy* (Washington, D.C.: School of Education and Human Development, George Washington Univ., 1989); "The Luring of Black Students," U.S. News & World Report (March 15, 1993), is an example that speaks in generally deprecating tones about perceived excesses in the recruitment of Black col-

lege matriculants.

18. The need for including electronic technology and the leadership role the Amistad played in adapting the technology for its users were discussed at the Africana Libraries in the Information Age Conference hosted by the Schomburg Library, New York City, January 1995.

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Comparing Libraries of Public Historically Black Colleges and Universities with Their White Counterparts

Jim Gravois

As one element in the effort to desegregate public institutions of higher education, federal courts have mandated the upgrading of libraries at public historically Black colleges and universities. This preliminary study compares the libraries of public HBCUs with those of traditionally White public colleges across eighteen states, mostly in the Southeast. By analyzing number of volumes, staff, and salary totals, the study identifies states that have made efforts to upgrade their HBCU libraries and those that have not.



n the years following the 1954 ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*, public colleges throughout the southern and border

states opened their doors to African American students. As a result, young African Americans wishing to attend a state college now have a choice between historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs) and the former all-White colleges and universities (non-HBCUs). However, despite the open doors of non-HBCUs, 107 HBCUs—two-year and four-year, public and private—continue to thrive.¹

Federal courts approached racial segregation in higher education in two ways. The obvious way involved abolishing admissions policies that prohibited Blacks from enrolling at public non-HBCUs. The second mandated the upgrading of curricula, facilities, and libraries at public HBCUs to attract White students to those schools.² Have the various states dedicated the funding needed to improve their public HBCU libraries? Would a snapshot comparison of public HBCU libraries with public non-HBCU libraries verify such improvement? This question motivated the author to undertake this preliminary investigation.

Literature Review

In a 1985 study of HBCUs by the U.S. Department of Education, Susan T. Hill explained that the libraries of public four-year HBCUs held sixty-five volumes per student compared to sixty-two volumes

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for other public four-year institutions.³ Although Hill's study examined many other areas of information about HBCUs, this was the only comparison made between the libraries of HBCUs and traditionally White colleges.

In an attempt to update and broaden Hill's work on libraries of public HBCUs, this author conducted a thorough search of library literature. Although several investigators, including Jessie Smith and Robert Molyneux, have published good studies of these libraries, no one appears to have made an effort to compare the libraries of public HBCUs with their non-HBCU counterparts either generally or on a state-by-state basis.4 In addition, even though Molyneux's survey is more detailed than this one, he did not include all the public HBCUs in the country and made no comparisons at all with non-HBCUs.

Methodology

In contrast to Molyneux's 1989 study, this study aims to gather published library statistics and arrange them so that comparisons can be made between public HBCU libraries and public non-HBCU libraries. The first step involved identifying all the public four-year HBCUs and all the public non-HBCUs in the same states. The U.S. Department of Education provided this information.5 The author then compiled a list of thirty-eight public four-year HBCUs and 186 corresponding non-HBCUs. The study dropped West Virginia's two HBCUs because of their dwindling Black enrollment-about ten percent of the student body-perhaps indicating a successful effort by West Virginia to comply with court orders.6 A complete list of the thirty-six remaining HBCUs in this study, the degree level, and the percentage of Black students attending appears in table 1.

The primary source of library data was Bowker's *American Library Directory* 1993–94.⁷ A quick perusal of this directory showed that many libraries failed to

report all items of data. The author chose those categories of information which were most widely available: student enrollment, total number of volumes, total library salary expenditure, total library staff, and the breakdown of professional and nonprofessional staff. Staff totals include only full-time equivalent library employees. Items not reported enough in order to make valid comparisons for this study included total library budget and expenditures for new materials. Using the six categories above, the author entered the data into a PC-SAS database and manipulated the data to produce the following areas of comparison:

- · volumes per student,
- salary expenditure per student,
- salary expenditure per library staff member,
- total library staff per hundred students,
- professional library staff per hundred students, and
- professional librarians as a percentage of the staff.

When a particular piece of information was not available in the *American Library Directory*, 1993–94, the author consulted *The College Blue Book*.8 Three HBCU libraries directly supplied missing data (Alabama State University, Mississippi Valley State University, and Alcorn A&M). Finally, the author decided to use the Molyneux figures for two nonresponding HBCUs (Albany State and Central State).

Results

The study looked at 222 public four-year colleges in eighteen states, including thirty-six HBCUs and 186 non-HBCUs. The eighteen states, with number of HBCUs in parentheses, are: Alabama (2), Arkansas (1), Delaware (1), Florida (1), Georgia (3), Kentucky (1), Louisiana (3), Maryland (4), Missouri (2), Mississippi (3), North Carolina (5), Ohio (1), Oklahoma (1), Pennsylvania (2), South Carolina (1), Tennessee (1), Texas (2), and Virginia (2).

TABLE 1 HBCU Colleges

College	State	Degree Level	Percentage Black
Alabama A & M	AL	M	79.0
Alabama State	AL	M	98.0
Albany State	GA	M	84.7
Alcorn State	MS	M	94.2
Arkansas-Pine Bluff	AR	В	81.0
Bowie State	MD	M	67.2
Central State	ОН	В	88.2
Cheyney University	PA	M	94.1
Coppin State	MD	M	91.5
Delaware State	DE	M	62.1
Elizabeth City State	NC	В	73.7
Fayetteville State	NC	M	62.6
Florida A & M	FL	D	88.4
Fort Valley State	GA	M	92.8
Grambling State	LA	M	94.5
Harris-Stowe State	МО	В	75.3
Jackson State	MS	D	94.0
Kentucky State	KY	M	49.7
Langston University	OK	В	51.3
Lincoln University	PA	M	92.2
Lincoln University	МО	М	25.8
Maryland-Eastern Shore	MD	D	68.9
Mississippi Valley St.	MS	M	99.4
Morgan State	MD	D	92.8
Norfolk State	VA	M	83.9
North Carolina Central	NC	D	83.6
North Carolina A & T	NC	M	84.6
Prairie View A & M	TX	M	86.5
Savannah State	GA	M	89.7
South Carolina State	SC	D	93.6
Southern-Baton Rouge	LA	D	93.9
Southern-New Orleans	LA	M	93.8
Tennessee State	TN	D	63.0
Texas Southern	TX	D	83.0
Virginia State	VA	M	90.2
Winston-Salem State	NC	В	77.9

Sources: State Higher Education Profiles: 1992 and Chronicle of Higher Education, Feb. 23, 1994.

General Comparisons

This section examines the averages for all the HBCUs as a group, compared to the non-HBCUs as a group. Following Hill's approach, the first area of comparison is volumes per student. In this category, the non-HBCUs hold 66.22 books per student, slightly ahead of the HBCU average of 64.81. (See table 2 for the figures cited in this section.)

The next two measurements examine salary. Six non-HBCUs gave no data on salaries, leaving a total of 216 libraries. Because of the inconsistency of data in the American Library Directory 1993-94, it is not possible to compare salaries paid to librarians directly. But figures for total salary expenditures by each library make it possible to calculate some indirect comparisons. The comparisons used are total salary expenditure per enrolled student and total salary expenditure per full-time equivalent library staff member. Because the Directory's total includes the salary expenses for student workers, the averages for salary per staff obtained in this study will be higher than the true average salaries paid to library staff. In this salary area, the study finds a pronounced difference between HBCUs and non-HBCUs. The two figures for non-HBCUs are \$144.46 per student and \$26,625 per staff member, compared with \$128.84 and \$23,548, respectively, for HBCUs.

TABLE 2

Results by Ty	pe of Libra	ry
	HBCU	Non-HBCU
Volumes per Student	64.81	66.22
Salary per Student	\$128.84	\$144.46
Salary per Staff	\$23,548	\$26,625
Staff per Hundred Students	.547	.544
Professionals per Hundred Students	.226	.196
Professionals as Percent of Staff	41.2%	36.0%

The next three comparisons examine staffing. Are HBCU libraries able to hire staff at an equitable level with non-HBCU libraries? Because staffing data were lacking for one of the non-HBCUs, there are only 221 colleges in this set. In the first measurement, staff per student, the average for non-HBCUs is .544 and for HBCUs it is .547 staff per hundred students.

The second staff measurement is professional librarians per student. The non-HBCUs have .196 professionals per hundred students, compared to .226 for the HBCUs.

The last measurement in this staffing category is professional librarians as a percentage of the staff. Here the HBCUs seem to have an advantage. Professionals make up only 36.0 percent at non-HBCUs, while the HBCUs have 41.2 percent of their staff as professional librarians.

Comparisons by Degree Level

Because it is reasonable to expect a doctorate-granting institution to have a library larger or more extensive than one at an institution that does not grant doctoral degrees, the author has broken down his analysis to compare the libraries of like institutions. Among the 222 colleges in this study, twelve non-HBCUs and six HBCUs grant the bachelor's degree as their highest degree; ninety-one non-HBCUs and twenty-one HBCUs

grant the master's degree; eighty-three non-HBCUs and nine HBCUs grant the doctoral degree. The same six measurements will be used to compare non-HBCUs to HBCUs, only this time by highest degree offered. For the numeric comparisons, the reader should consult table 3.

As evident in table 3, the HBCU and non-HBCU doctorate-granting schools are just about even in volumes per student. Conversely, in both the bachelor's and master's degree colleges, the HBCUs have more books per student than do the non-HBCUs.

The next two areas of comparison by degree level relate to library salary expenditures. Table 3 indicates that non-HBCU doctorate-granting institutions far outpace their HBCU counterparts in the measure of library salary expenditure per student. However, the HBCUs have a higher salary at the master and bachelor levels.

The following comparison, salary expenditures per library staff member, tells a different story. As might be expected from the last measurement, there is a higher dollar total for the non-HBCU doctorate-granting institutions. But at the bachelor's and master's levels, where HBCUs have a higher salary figure per student, the HBCUs fail to keep pace. Table 3 reveals a higher dollar figure at the non-HBCU bachelor's level and a slight advantage at the non-HBCU master's level. All three levels show lower totals for the HBCUs in salary per staff.

The next three comparisons involve library staffing levels. In considering the number of library staff members per hundred students, table 3 shows that the non-HBCUs at the doctoral level have higher staff numbers compared to doctorate-granting HBCUs. However, HBCUs have higher staff numbers at the bachelor and master levels than do similar non-HBCUs.

When looking at comparisons of professional librarians per hundred students, the HBCUs show consistently better numbers. At all three degree levels, the HBCUs have a greater proportion of professional librarians per student (see table 3).

The third staff comparison relates to the measure of professional librarians as a percentage of the total library staff. Here again, table 3 demonstrates that HBCUs outpace non-HBCUs at all three levels.

			Re	TABLE 3 Results By Degree Level	E 3 gree Level		
Degree Level and Library Type	el and	Volumes Per Student	Salary Per Student	Salary Per Salary Per Student Staff	Staff Per Hundred Students	Professionals Per Hundred Students	Professionals as Percent of Staff
Doctorate:	Doctorate: Non-HBCU HBCU	73.95	\$155.58 \$125.87	\$26,100	.598	.209	34.9% 41.5%
Master's:	Master's: Non-HBCU HBCU	48.56 58.47	\$117.99	\$28,406	.544	.166	39.9%
Bachelor's:	Bachelor's: Non-HBCU HBCU	51.32 67.48	\$132.68	\$27,476	.483	.192	39.8% 40.2%

Comparisons by State

Although it is informative to compare the libraries of HBCUs with those of non-HBCUs across the eighteen state totals, it is far more important to measure the totals within each state. After all, the courts aimed to promote equal access to higher education within each state. Therefore, this final section allows the reader to draw some conclusions about the equality or inequality of public academic librar-

... HBCUs have higher staff numbers at the bachelor and master levels than do similar non-HBCUs.

ies within each of the eighteen states. The reader should consult table 4 and the six figures to follow this discussion.

The first measure of comparison is volumes per student. A glance at figure 1 makes it obvious that three states—Kentucky, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania—have greater book totals per student for their HBCUs than for their non-HBCUs. An analysis of the numbers in table 4 indicates that Arkansas, Delaware, Florida,

Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, and Texas also total greater scores for their HBCUs. Mississippi shows a virtual tie, but the remaining states—Alabama, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia—all show totals indicating a sizable advantage for the non-HBCUs. The greatest disparities occur in Pennsylvania and Ohio. In Pennsylvania, the two HBCUs average 138.39 books per student, compared to 69.62 books for the seventeen non-HBCUs. Conversely, in Ohio the single HBCU has only 36.88 volumes per student, while the twelve non-HBCUs average 76.97 books.

The next two comparisons examine salary: total library expenditure per student and total library expenditure per library staff member. A cursory inspection of figure 2 shows that HBCUs have much higher salary-per-student totals than the non-HBCUs in Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania. A closer review of the numbers in table 4 indicates that Arkansas also has a much higher salary per student at its single HBCU than at its eight non-HBCUs, and that Alabama has no notable

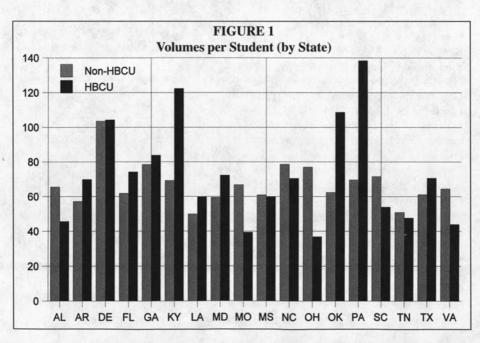


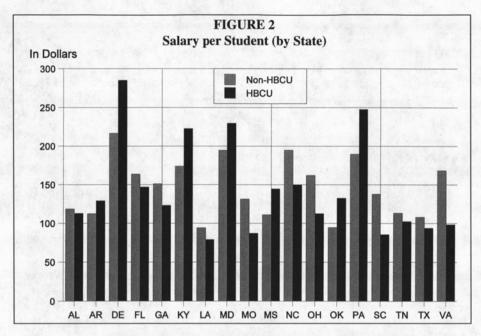
TABLE 4
Results by State

State and Type of College	Volumes Per Student	Salary Per Student	Salary Per Staff	Staff Per Hundred Students	Professionals Per Hundred Students	Professionals as Percent of Staff
AL Non-HBCU	65.55	\$118.60	\$25,120	.472	.190	40.3%
AL HBCU	45.65	\$112.84	\$22,369	.504	.202	40.0%
AR Non-HBCU	57.20	\$112.49	\$24,910	.452	.165	36.7%
AR HBCU	69.86	\$129.12	\$17,935	.720	.239	33.3%
DE Non-HBCU	103.52	\$216.65	\$27,081	.800	.255	31.9%
DE HBCU	104.28	\$285.19	\$31,998	.891	.401	45.0%
FL Non-HBCU	61.84	\$163.70	\$27,728	.590	.223	37.8%
FL HBCU	74.17	\$147.00	\$24,501	.600	.233	38.9%
GA Non-HBCU	78.46	\$151.20	\$24,417	.619	.217	35.0%
GA HBCU	83.85	\$123.18	\$23,742	.519	.187	36.1%
KY Non-HBCU	69.22	\$173.93	\$26,931	.646	.239	37.0%
KY HBCU	122.42	\$222.88	\$26,003	.857	.381	44.4%
LA Non-HBCU	49.90	\$94.29	\$25,965	.363	.148	40.6%
LA HBCU	59.76	\$79.01	\$20,718	.381	.183	48.1%
MD Non-HBCU	59.43	\$194.62	\$31,584	.616	.235	38.2%
MD HBCU	72.31	\$229.70	\$31,553	.728	.318	43.7%
MO Non-HBCU	66.79	\$131.33	\$27,167	.483	.169	35.1%
мо нвси	39.38	\$87.18	\$23,082	.378	.189	50.0%
MS Non-HBCU	60.95	\$111.07	\$21,296	.522	.221	42.5%
MS HBCU	60.06	\$144.61	\$23,305	.621	.230	37.1%
NC Non-HBCU	78.60	\$194.78	\$25,695	.758	.258	34.1%
NC HBCU	70.47	\$149.58	\$21,478	.696	.313	45.0%
OH Non-HBCU	76.97	\$162.06	\$29,285	.553	.206	37.3%
он нвси	36.88	\$112.63	\$27,942	.403	.147	36.4%
OK Non-HBCU	62.38	\$94.74	\$26,301	.441	.174	39.4%
ок нвси	108.66	\$132.60	\$24,000	.552	.184	33.3%
PA Non-HBCU	69.62	\$189.76	\$35,147	.535	.202	37.8%
PA HBCU	138.39	\$247.65	\$28,242	.877	.386	44.0%
SC Non-HBCU	71.58	\$137.82	\$26,918	.512	.190	37.2%
SC HBCU	53.96	\$85.52	\$23,643	.362	.191	52.9%
TN Non-HBCU	50.85	\$113.27	\$22,414	.505	.170	33.7%
TN HBCU	47.60	\$102.41	\$19,004	.539	.229	42.5%
TX Non-HBCU	61.11	\$108.02	\$22,207	.488	.158	32.4%
TX HBCU	70.62	\$93.92	\$20,489	.458	.148	32.4%
VA Non-HBCU	64.44	\$168.37	\$26,019	.647	.218	33.6%
VA HBCU	43.93	\$98.50	\$22,688	.434	.150	34.6%

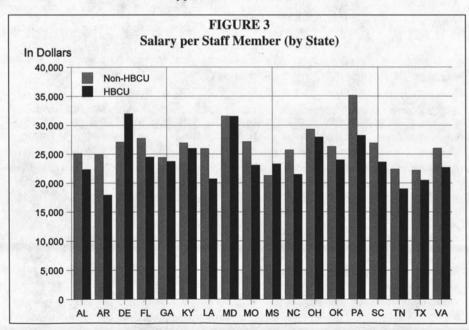
difference between the two. By this measure, however, all of the other ten states have a higher salary per student at their non-HBCUs. The greatest margins of difference are found in Oklahoma and Virginia. Oklahoma's single HBCU has an average salary per student of \$132.60,

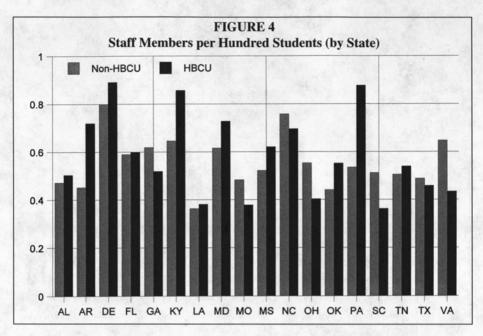
compared to \$94.74 for its six non-HBCUs. Conversely, Virginia has an average of \$168.37 for its thirteen non-HBCUs, compared to only \$98.50 for its two HBCUs.

The next category is salary per staff member. Figure 3 suggests there might be



more equity in the eighteen states by this measurement, because only two or three states show obvious differences at first glance. An analysis of the numbers in table 4, however, indicates that only two states, Delaware and Mississippi, have higher salaries per staff member at their HBCUs. Four states—Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, and Ohio—are nearly equal. That leaves twelve states that have a much higher average of salary per staff member at the non-HBCUs than at the

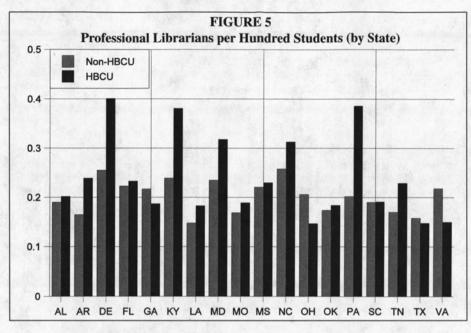




HBCUs. The greatest differences on both ends of the spectrum are in Delaware and Arkansas. Delaware's HBCU averages \$31,998 of salary per staff member, while its single non-HBCU averages only \$27,081. In Arkansas, the contrast is greater. Its eight non-HBCUs have an average salary per staff member of \$24,910, compared to only \$17,935 for its only HBCU.

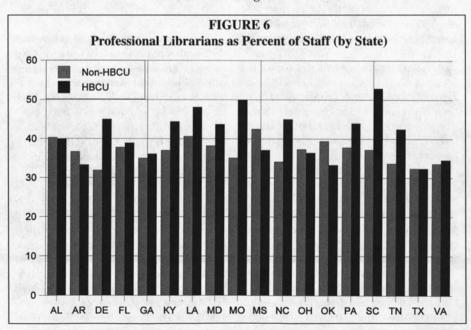
The next issue concerns the size of library staffs at HBCUs and non-HBCUs. Figure 4 illustrates the comparison of fulltime equivalent staff members per hundred students. Again, certain states stand out as having a higher total of staff per student in their HBCUs. These states include Arkansas, Kentucky, and Pennsylvania. Other states that also measure more staff at their HBCUs are Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Tennessee. However, seven states-Georgia, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Texas, and Virginia-show better staff-to-student ratios at their non-HBCUs. The greatest disparities occur in Pennsylvania and Virginia. Pennsylvania's two HBCUs have .877 staff members per hundred students, compared to an average of .535 at the seventeen non-HBCUs. In Virginia, the reverse is true. Virginia's two HBCUs have only .434 staff members per hundred students, compared to .647 staff members for the thirteen non-HBCUs.

The next staffing comparison involves the number of professional librarians per hundred students. A quick glance at figure 5 shows that Arkansas, Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee have more professional librarians per student in their HBCUs than in their non-HBCUs. Although not so obvious, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Oklahoma, and South Carolina have a slight advantage for their HBCUs in this category (see table 4). The only states that measure a distinct advantage for their non-HBCUs in this category are Georgia, Ohio, Texas, and Virginia. The greatest disparities are again found in Pennsylvania and Virginia. Pennsylvania's two HBCUs have an average of .386 professional librarians per hundred students,



compared to .202 professionals for the seventeen non-HBCU colleges. Meanwhile, Virginia has .218 professionals in its thirteen non-HBCU colleges, compared to an average of only .150 in its two HBCUs.

The final staffing comparison is the measure of professional librarians as a percentage of the total library staff. This is the measure that shows the greatest advantage for the HBCUs, as indicated in figure 6 where the black bars seem taller



than the white in almost every state. In fact, the numbers in table 4 indicate that non-HBCUs have a greater ratio of professional librarians in only three states: Arkansas, Mississippi, and Oklahoma. Six other states—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Ohio, Texas, and Virginia-show results within approximately one percentage point. The remaining nine states have a higher percentage of professional librarians on staff at the HBCUs. In this category, the greatest disparities occur in South Carolina and Oklahoma. South Carolina's lone HBCU has a percentage of 52.9 professional librarians on staff, compared to 37.2 for its ten non-HBCUs. In Oklahoma, the figures are 39.4 percent for the eight non-HBCUs and only 33.3 percent for the single HBCU.

Discussion

In general, using the data for all the HBCUs and all the non-HBCUs, there appears to be no notable difference between HBCUs and non-HBCUs in the measurements of volumes per student, library staff per student, and professional librarians per student. However, the HBCUs have an advantage in the measure of professional librarians as a percentage of the staff, while the non-HBCUs outpace the HBCUs in salary per student and salary per staff member (see table 2).

When comparisons are broken down by degree level, the doctorate-granting institutions score higher than master's and bachelor's institutions in all measures except professionals as a percentage of the staff. In the HBCU comparisons with non-HBCUs, HBCUs equal or surpass non-HBCUs on all levels in volumes per student, professional librarians per student, and professionals as a percentage of the staff. HBCUs also score higher on the bachelor's and master's levels in the measures of staff members per student and salary per student. On the doctoral level, the non-HBCUs are ahead in these two categories. When salary per staff member is analyzed, however, the non-HBCUs are far ahead on all levels (see table 3).

At this juncture, the reader can draw some general conclusions when comparing HBCUs and non-HBCUs: the two are fairly equal in volumes per student, HBCUs are usually superior in library staffing measures, and the non-HBCUs are generally ahead in salary measurements. However, the courts are not interested so much in general averages across state lines as they are in direct comparisons between HBCUs and non-HBCUs within each state. The question remains: have the states upgraded their HBCU libraries? The earlier discussion of the data contained in figures 1-6 and table 4 can lead the reader to some general conclusions about the states.

In general, . . . there appears to be no notable difference between HBCUs and non-HBCUs in measurements of volumes per student, library staff per student, and professional librarians per student.

Based on the general averages, most of the states have strong scores for their HBCUs in volumes and staffing, but weak scores in salary measurements. However, the totals for certain states merit closer scrutiny. Delaware is the only state in which the HBCU library scores higher than its non-HBCU counterpart in every category (see table 4). Kentucky, Maryland, and Pennsylvania are states where HBCU libraries score higher in every category but one-salary per staff member. Interestingly, while the scores in that category are just about equal for the HBCUs and non-HBCUs of Kentucky and Maryland, non-HBCUs in Pennsylvania score much higher in salary per staff member.

The states that appear to support their non-HBCU libraries more than their HBCU libraries are Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Ohio, South Carolina, and Virginia. This conclusion is based on the fact that not one of these states produces a better result for its HBCUs in more than one category (see table 4). In fact, the HBCUs of Ohio and Virginia do not score better than their non-HBCUs in any of the categories, suggesting that these two states have the most work to do in bringing about equity.

Conclusion

Before pointing fingers at individual states and allowing others to rest on their laurels, it is important to emphasize the limitations of this study. The American Library Directory's data are only as accurate as the reporting libraries make them. Furthermore, no attempt was made to measure microform holdings, to examine the condition of library buildings, to analyze the progress of automation, to survey the age of book collections, or to examine interlibrary loan activity. Besides, the raw numbers tell us nothing about patron satisfaction levels, which may be the most important measure of all. Even so, despite the limitations of this study, the data presented here appear to demonstrate unequal treatment of HBCU libraries in several states.

In the end, this preliminary investigation has only scratched the surface and suggests many areas for further research. Is there a correlation between library strengths and the number of non-Black students enrolled at HBCUs? For example, does Kentucky State University score well in these comparisons because its student body is less than fifty percent Black? Would an analysis of the Hispanic and/or Native American enrollment in Texas and Oklahoma cast new light on these findings?

What is the reason for the uniformly lower salary figures at HBCUs? Do these states have standardized pay grades at all public colleges? Do pay grades vary by type of institution or regional location within the states? Why do Pennsylvania's HBCUs compare so well in every category except salary per staff? Why does Ohio, another northern state, have such low numbers for its HBCU?

In sum, this author can only conclude that each state must take a closer look at the results of this study and make similar studies of its own. By doing so, states can determine what steps will be necessary to equalize or enhance the libraries of HBCUs. Other researchers, too, it is hoped, will use data generated by their local educational agencies to improve upon the results of this study.

Notes

- 1. Historically Black Colleges and Universities and Higher Education Desegregation (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 1991), 8.
 - 2. Ibid., 6.
- 3. Susan T. Hill, *The Traditionally Black Institutions of Higher Education*, 1860–1982, U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1985), 73.
- 4. See Jessie Carney Smith, Black Academic Libraries and Research Collections: An Historical Survey (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Pr., 1977), and Robert Molyneux, ACRL/Historically Black Colleges and Universities Library Statistics, 1988–89 (Chicago: ACRL, 1991).
- 5. Charlene Hoffman, Thomas D. Snyder, and Bill Sonnenberg, Historically Black Colleges and Universities, 1976–90, U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1992); Samuel F. Barbett, Roslyn Korb, MacKnight Black, and Martha Collins, State Higher Education Profiles, 4th ed., U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1992).
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African American Male Library Administrators in Public and Academic Libraries

Patricia Ball

This study is designed to investigate the status of African American male library administrators who occupy administrative positions in academic and public libraries. African American male library administrators have distinctive demographic characteristics, educational backgrounds, professional characteristics, career patterns, and perceptions. A total of sixty-five African American male administrators were identified and mailed questionnaires. Race was identified in previous studies as a perceived barrier to professional advancement. The findings of this study corroborate earlier studies of African American professionals.



n many professions, White males dominate at the executive and management levels. This pattern is also prevalent

in the executive suites of librarianship. Since the early 1930s, studies relating to characteristics of library administrators have been conducted. Gender-based studies in library science conclude that men are the basic beneficiaries in the profession and have the most prestigious jobs; however, the results give no indication as to whether these characteristics apply to minority men, in particular, African American men.

Many studies examine the gender of library administrators and directors in both public and academic settings. The same conclusions are drawn from the majority of these studies. Basically, in librarianship, men have benefited with regard to salaries and managerial positions.

Previous studies indicate that women directors are found in greater numbers at smaller, private institutions. Male directors are usually younger than female directors. Male directors display a trend of high mobility, which is viewed as a vehicle to becoming directors at an earlier age than females become directors. Females, because of family responsibilities, are not as mobile. However, research shows that females have a better chance of becoming directors of libraries if they have been employed internally at the same library for a number of years. Investigations show that the salaries of women directors, on average, are much lower than those of their male counterparts. Statistics also point to the fact that White females have benefited the most from programs such as affirmative action.

For the most part, administrative positions in librarianship are distinguished as positions of high status and power, with the director or chief of the library being at the apex. According to Stanley Eitzen, one of the characteristics of status that has an important influence on social identity, is the tendency for positions in

Basically, in librarianship, men have benefited with regard to salaries and managerial positions.

organizations to be differentially rewarded and esteemed.¹

African American males, as well as other minorities, have both ascribed status and achieved status. Ascribed status is defined by Eitzen as a social position based on such factors as age, race, and family over which the individual has no control. Achieved status is a position in a social organization attained through personal effort.2 According to Eitzen, this is status inconsistency: A Black physician, for example, has high occupational status in American society but ranks low on the racial dimension of status. Such individuals are accepted and treated according to their high status by some, while others ignore the occupational dimension and consider only their race.3

The structure of social institutions plays an important part in determining African Americans' status. Their status results from race relations that have developed within social institutional structures. Beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions are products of the structure of society and its race relations, as well as determinants of those relations.⁴

African American Male Librarians

African American males have long been participants in the library profession. Although the literature does not provide a composite profile of Black male library administrators, it does chronicle the path of African American males into executive suites of librarianship. Librarians such as Daniel Alexander Payne Murray, S.W. Stark, Daniel A.P. Murray, George Wash-

ington Forbes, Edward Christopher Williams, J. Arthur Jackson, Richard T. Greener, and Thomas Fountain Blue are some of the historical ground breakers for African American males in library administration. Black men have risen to positions of accomplishment in the library profession despite enormous social obstacles.

More recently in the twentieth century, the author finds numerous African American males who have made significant contributions to librarianship. In 1932, Arthur A. Schomburg was named curator of the New York Public Library research collection, which later was named for him. Arna Bontemps was appointed in 1943 as university librarian of Fisk University. He was the first African American to serve in this position. In 1968 E. J. Josey became chief of the Bureau of Academic and Research Libraries of the New York State Education Department and the first elected Black male president of ALA. Hardy Franklin, director of the District of Columbia Public Library, was elected president of ALA for the 1993-1994 term, becoming the second African American male to be elected to that position.5 The literature documents event after event of African American males who crossed over into the executive suites of librarianship.

Research Design

Using descriptive, analytical, and survey methods, the author conducted this study to ascertain the status of African American male administrators in academic and public libraries. To identify the population for the study, The American Library Directory, The Directory of Ethnic Professionals in Library and Information Science, and The Black Caucus of the American Library Association Membership Directory were used. 6-10 The author identified sixty-five African American male administrators for the study, and verified their current positions and places of employment by telephone.

In an effort to gather information on the status, demographic characteristics, and perceptions of African American male library administrators, the survey instrument addressed three major questions: 1) What characteristics describe African American male administrators in the profession? 2) What is the status of African American male administrators in the profession? and 3) Are there perceptions of discrimination among African American male administrators in the profession?

Demographic Characteristics

Sixty respondents returned their questionnaires, for a total return rate of 92.3 percent. The majority of African American male library administrators (45.5%) responding to this survey were born in southern states. The majority (44.4%) of African American male library administrators are between forty-six and fifty-five years of age, married (53.9%), and have no children (42.3%). However, it is interesting to note that none of the respondents was under twenty-five years of age or over sixty-six years of age. The average number of children for the group as a whole is 1.4, with the total number of children ranging from one to five.

African American male library administrators are basically from middle-class to lower-middle-class backgrounds. A total of 31.5 percent of respondents categorized their mother's occupation as "homemaker." The majority of the respondents' fathers (48.1%) were employed in a blue-collar profession. "Service worker" was listed as the second largest category for mothers (18.5%). "Other" is the way many respondents described their fathers' professions (25.5%).

The majority of African American male library administrators participating in the survey attended predominantly Black undergraduate colleges (63.6%) in a southern state (40%). Morehouse College (36.3%) was the most frequently cited un-

dergraduate institution. Respondents attending non-Black institutions comprised 36.4 percent of responses to this item on the survey. Social sciences (25.5%) was the field that the majority of respondents listed most frequently as their undergraduate major. Fewer of the respondents majored in law (1.8%) or in a physical science (1.5%).

Career Patterns

For the majority of African American male library administrators in this survey, librarianship was not the first career choice (75.9%). Librarianship was the first career choice for only 24.1 percent of respondents. Teaching was the career of choice for the majority of respondents (16.4%), followed by medicine (12%). Respondents participating in this study attended a variety of library schools. Twenty-four different library schools were listed. However, the most commonly listed library school was Clark Atlanta University, with 30.9 percent of respondents having received their master of library science there. The Universities of Pittsburgh and Illinois were the library schools listed most frequently after Clark Atlanta. The decision to attend library school was made immediately by 44.4 percent of the respondents. Only one respondent did not go to library school.

Administrators responding to the study were highly educated. A large percentage (41.8%) of the respondents pos-

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sessed earned doctoral degrees. A larger percentage (45.5%) had earned a master's degree and three (9.1%) have two master's degrees. Only two of the respondents (3.6%) stated that their highest degree was a baccalaureate degree. Thirteen (23.6%) of the respondents returning their

questionnaires indicated that they had advanced degrees in other fields.

The salary for the majority of respondents fell into two categories. Most respondents listed their salaries as either \$35,001–\$40,000 or over \$65,000 (20.4%). The salary range listed most often after the previously mentioned two ranges, was that of \$40,001–\$45,000, with 14.8 percent of the respondents listing this category. This category was followed by \$45,001–\$50,000 (13%) and \$55,001–\$60,000 (13%).

Based on this study, African American male library administrators have remained in their current positions for an average of 8.6 years (the median is five years, and the mode is one year). Over half of the respondents (twenty-nine total) had been in their present positions for one to five years (53.8%). At least seven (13.1%) respondents said that they were in their current positions for six to ten years. Only one (1.9 percent) respondent marked the twenty-six-to-thirty-year category.

African American males became administrators at an average age of 29.8 years. The mode was twenty-eight years of age and the median was twenty-nine years of age. The majority of respondents, twenty-five (46.3%) in all, responded that they first became administrators between the ages of twenty-six and thirty. The majority of African American male library administrators (72.3%) responding to this survey held other administrative positions in the profession. Only thirteen (25.9%) had not held other library administrative positions. Prior to their current positions, study participants had held, on average, 2.5 administrative positions.

Respondents who had occupied other administrative positions in librarianship had been in a variety of positions. Some had occupied more than one administrative position. Others had worked at several of the same types of positions; for example, one respondent had previously occupied two positions as dean of the li-

brary, and one as head of an undergraduate library, associate director, and director of library services. Positions held by these administrators also ranged over a number of years, with the least amount of time at a previous position being one year and the most time fifteen years. Respondents participating in this study had held an average of 2.5 administrative positions in librarianship before being appointed to their present positions.

Many African American males in the profession had occupied other top positions in other fields. Of the respondents in this study, twelve or 22.2 percent were in administrative positions in other professional fields. A total of fifty-four respondents answered this question on the questionnaire. The majority of respondents, forty-two total (77.7%), had not worked in administrative positions in other fields.

Librarians have most influenced African American males to pursue librarianship as a career. Fifty-one respondents responded to this item on the instrument. Of those responding, eleven listed "selfinitiative" in response to this question. Respondents listing "other" to this question totaled 15.7 percent. "Friends" (9.8%), "relatives" (3.9%), and "teachers" (7.8%) were listed as also having influenced career choices. The majority of respondents, thirty-six total (65.5%), had been employed in libraries while attending college. Of the respondents who had worked in a library while attending college, twenty-five (46.3%), had been employed in an academic library. A smaller portion of respondents, seven (13%), had worked in a public library, and three (5.5%) had worked in a special library while attending college. None of the respondents had been employed in a school library while in college.

African American males had high career expectations. The questionnaire asked respondents attending library school to describe the position they hoped to obtain. The responses were divided

into two categories: administrative and staff. A total of fifty respondents answered this question on the questionnaire. Of those, twenty-nine (58%) responded that their goal was to obtain an administrative position, while twentyone (42%) responded that their goal was to obtain a staff position. The majority of the respondents, forty-three (79.6%), received some type of financial assistance while attending library school. "Enjoyable" and "a noble profession" are the words African American males used in describing their love for librarianship. "It is a field that empowers people through providing information," said one respondent. Another stated, "I love it!" Item 24 on the questionnaire asked respondents, "If you were to make the initial career decision again, would you choose librarianship?" Over half of the respondents, forty-five (81.8%), said they would choose librarianship as their first career choice. Only six (10.9%) of the respondents replied no.

African American Male Library Administrators' Status

What is the status of African American male library administrators in the profession? Despite the low number of African American males in the profession, those in administrative positions are considered to be in top administrative positions. The majority of respondents participating in this study are directors of libraries. Over half of the respondents, twenty-eight (51.9%), are in this position. The second largest category was that of "other." Fourteen (16.7 percent) administrators responded to this category. There were two respondents who are presently in the position of associate director (3.7%), one assistant director (1.9%) and nine branch heads (16.7%). The fourteen respondents who categorized their positions as "other" listed their current titles as the following: head librarian and assistant director of Learning Resource Center; head librarian; branch manager; executive director; regional librarian; administrative services librarian; deputy director; state librarian; dean of libraries; area administrator; assistant dean of instructional resources; dean; assistant deputy director; and director and professor of law.

African American male library administrators were asked to rate their perceptions of opportunities in the profession for African American males. Space was provided on the questionnaire for respondents to make additional comments. A total of twenty-five (45.45%) of the re-

... although some respondents rated opportunities... as being "good" for African American males, their comments underscored racial prejudice as a problem in the profession.

spondents made additional comments. Most African American males perceived opportunities to be "very good" or "fair." The total number of respondents who rated opportunities as "fair" or "very good" was sixteen for each category (29.1%). An interesting observation is that although some respondents rated opportunities in the profession as being good for African American males, their comments underscored racial prejudice as a problem in the profession. For example, one respondent who described opportunities for African American males as "good" commented: "Related to communities with significant percentage of minority population, racism will continue to restrict opportunities." Only eight (14.5%) of the fifty-five respondents described opportunities as "excellent" for African American males. Other respondents listed opportunities in the profession as "very good" (29.1%); "fair" (29.1%); "good" (21.8%); or "poor" (5.5%).

Comments made by the majority of respondents centered on four issues in librarianship. The first issue involved sexism. Respondents made several comments that described the sentiments of this minority in the profession. One respondent said: "Opportunities always exist for outstanding professionals, regardless of sex; although males often rise disproportionately to administrative positions." A similar comment was made by another respondent who indicated that, "In the current job market, African American males must compete with well-prepared, highly competent black and white females for scarce administrative professional positions. . . ."

A second issue addressed by many of the respondents involved racial prejudice and discrimination in the profession. To better illustrate what the general consensus is pertaining to this issue in librarianship, one of the respondents summed it up by stating: "African Americans still face institutional racism toward blacks in upper management in some areas of librarianship." A similar comment by a respondent also reflects this sentiment: "Racism and prejudice still exist but are much more subtle now." One respondent said, "In general, this profession gives a lot of lip service about affirmative action and equal opportunity, but . . . for African American males there are still many barriers to advancement, especially rapid advancement."

A third issue that surfaced from the comments made by respondents centered on limited opportunities within the profession for African American males. This was expressed by one respondent when he said, "Advancement up the ladder is too slow. African American males are not provided the opportunities offered to their non-Black colleagues, i.e., Librarian of Congress, Librarian-Kennedy Center, Pentagon Librarian, etc." This sentiment was expressed differently by another respondent who said, "They seem to be nonexistent." Along these same lines, another said, "I would argue that opportunities are limited," while another respondent commented that "Within the right environment there are a number of opportunities."

A fourth issue that surfaced from the respondents' comments involved recruitment and retention. Several respondents expressed their concern about the recruitment and retention of qualified African American males within the profession. One respondent stated, "Now that HEA Title II B Fellowships are funded again, recruitment of minorities, especially of black males could and should be intensified." Another respondent discussed the lack of African American males in librarianship, saying that because of "the fact that not many African American males exist in the profession period, those that are seeking advancement face racial attitudes, location problems and other deterrents in seeking opportunities." One respondent stated, "... I am the only male Black Branch Manager in my Library System." Such comments seem to illustrate the need for better recruitment methods and retention devices.

African American males possess varied skills, and their opinions about what factors have influenced their professional advancement are even more varied. Section four of the instrument asked African American male library administrators to place a value on identified factors in regard to their importance to professional advancement. The ratings reflect that numerous factors have affected professional growth for respondents to this survey. This fact is also reflected in many of the comments made by African American males. For instance, one respondent said, "All these skills are important and affect the performance level of all administrators including African American males."

The scale for this section of the questionnaire was 5) very important, 4) important, 3) moderately important, 2) of little importance, and 1) not at all important. The questionnaire first asked respondents to rate several factors: communication skills, organizational skills, having political connections, willingness to relocate geographically, having someone as a mentor, having a strong academic back-

ground, having problem-solving abilities, possessing a varied background of experiences, having a willingness to take risks; and having knowledge of the dynamics of library services. Space was provided at the end of this section for respondents who might want to make comments. A total of twelve respondents made comments in regard to factors that have influenced professional growth (see table 1). The highestrated factor is communication skills. Respondents' average response to this factor on a scale of one to five was 4.69. The importance of this factor to professional growth among this minority in the profession is reflected in this com-

ment by one of the

study's participants: "All other skills hinge on my ability to write and speak effectively..."

The second most important factor was organizational skills. The average rating for this factor was 4.49. Table 2 provides an illustration of the ranking of these factors by participants in descending order, by mean.

The lowest-rated factor for the group is political connections. Its average for the group was 2.40. Although rated low, it sparked the following comment by a respondent: "An African American male must be aware that he has to be more astute, more competitive, and more politically aware than his white colleague." A similar comment in regard to risk taking

TABLE 1
Factors Related to Professional Advancement

Factors	N %	NI¹	LI	MI	I	VI	Mear
a) Communication	N	0	0	0	17	38	4.69
Skills	%	0	0	0	30.9	69.1	
b) Organizational	N	0	1	3	19	32	4.49
Skills	%	0	1.8	5.5	34.5	58.2	
g) Problem	N	0	0	6	24	25	4.35
Solving	%	0	0	10.9	43.6	45.5	
f) Academic	N	0	0	10	25	20	4.18
Background	%	0	0	18.2	45.5	36.4	
h) Varied	N	1	1	8	26	19	4.11
Experiences	%	1.8	1.8	14.5	47.3	34.5	
i) Take Risks	N	4	3	14	20	14	3.67
	%	7.3	5.5	25.5	36.4	25.5	
d) Relocate	N	10	3	5	18	19	3.60
	%	18.2	5.5	9.1	32.7	34.5	
e) Mentor	N	6	4	24	10	11	3.29
	%	10.9	7.3	43.6	18.2	20.0	
c) Political	N	13	19	13	8	2	2.40
Connections	%	23.63	34.55	23.63	14.54	3.64	

Based on 55 responses

Note: NI=Not at all Important, LI=Of Little Importance, MI=Moderately Important, I=Important, VI=Very Important

was made by a respondent who said, "Because of the changing nature of the field, abilities such as risk-taking; adaptability and problem-solving will overcome other barriers (racism, sexism and elitism)."

The final section of the questionnaire, section five, asked respondents to rate factors that may be a problem for them in their position as African American male library administrators. Respondents rated a total of seven factors: 1) having your credibility as an administrator challenged because of your race, 2) lacking African American male librarians to serve as role models, 3) being stereotyped because of your race, 4) competing in selection processes for available positions, 5) being accepted by others as a competent

TABLE 2 Factors in Descending Order by Mean

Factors Related to Advancement	Problem Factors
Communication Skills	Selection Process
Organizational Skills	Old Boy Network
Problem-Solving Abilities	Stereotyped Because of Race
Varied Academic Background	Credibility Being Challenged
Varied Experiences	Lack of Role Models
Take Risks	Competent Administrator
Relocate geographically	Family Responsibilities
Having Someone as a Mentor	
Political Connections	

Problem Fa	actors		TABLE an Am		Male A	dministrat	ors
Factors	N %	NP¹	SP	MP	P	SRP	Mean
d) Selection	N	10	11	16	9	7	2.85
Process	%	18.9	20.8	30.2	17.0	13.2	
f) Old Boy	N	16	9	13	11	6	2.67
Network	%	29.1	16.4	23.6	20.0	10.9	
c) Stereotyped	N	13	14	16	10	1	2.48
Race	%	24.1	25.9	29.6	18.5	1.8	
a) Credibility	N	10	20	17	7	0	2.39
	%	18.5	37.0	31.5	13.0	0	
b) Lack of	N	19	18	11	4	3	2.16
Role Models	%	34.5	32.7	20.0	7.3	5.5	
e) Competent	N	16	20	14	4	1	2.16
Administrator	%	29.1	36.4	25.5	7.3	1.8	
g) Family	N	40	6	8	0	0	1.41
Responsibilities	%	74.1	11.1	14.8	0	0	

Based on 55 responses Note: NP=Not a Problem, SP=Small Problem, MP=Moderate Problem, P=Problem, SRP=Serious Problem

administrator, 6) being accepted into the "old boy network," and, finally, 7) having family responsibilities. Space was provided for additional comments. A total of ten respondents made comments (see table 3). The data for this section of the questionnaire are divided into two sections. The first part presents the results of the total population, while the second section divides the responses in accordance with which type of library currently employs the respondents. Three library categories were created: Historically Black/Academic Institutions, Non-Black/Academic Institutions, and Public and Other Institutions (state libraries, etc.). The overall responses to these factors are reflected in table 4 in descending

Study participants rated the selection process for available positions as a factor causing the most problems for them. Problem as defined by the Merriam-Webster Dictionary is "a source of perplexity or vexation."11 The average for this factor for the overall group was 2.85. However, this factor was a problem to some degree for 81.2 percent of respondents. Only 18.9 percent of those responding rated this factor as "not a problem." This factor was followed in its rating by acceptance into the "old boy network." It was rated by 70.9 percent of respondents as posing some degree of problem. The factor that was rated the least problematic for this group involved family responsibilities. The average for this factor was 1.41, and it was not a problem for 74.1 percent of the study population.

Most African American male library administrators are employed by public libraries. A total of 27.3 percent are employed by historically Black academic institutions. This may account for the lowest overall mean of the factors that may be problems for this group. This fact is also reflected in comments made by several of the respondents. For example, one said, "My responses might be somewhat different if I did not work at a black insti-

tution. Although I am confident that I would succeed anywhere." Another respondent made a similar comment, saying, "I have worked as a library administrator for the most part at historically Black universities." Of the remaining respondents; 29.1 percent were employed in non-Black academic institutions; 40 percent in public; and 3.6 percent in other types of institutions.

When responses to problem factors are differentiated by type of institution, the average for administrators employed at the different types of institutions is significantly different. Overall, with the exception of two factors, the average for those administrators at historically Black academic institutions is lower than at other types of institutions.

For most African American males employed by non-Black academic institutions (for the purposes of this study, a non-Black academic institution is defined as a predominantly White academic institution) or at public and other institutions, having your credibility as an administrator challenged because of race is a problem to some degree for most of the respondents. For all of the respondents at non-Black academic institutions this factor presents a problem to some degree. For 60 percent it is a small problem. For 31.25 percent of respondents it is a moderate problem, and for 12.5 percent it is a problem. For respondents employed at public and other institutions this factor is to some degree a problem for 82.1 percent of the study population. It is a small or moderate problem for 30.43 percent for each category and a problem for 21.74 percent of respondents at public and other institutions.

Lack of African American male librarians to serve as role models is the only category where the average is higher for historically Black academic institutions than for non-Black academic institutions. This factor is more of a problem for administrators serving in public and other institutions than for those in academic

TABLE 4
Percentage of Responses to Factors by Type of Institution Presently Employed

Factors	N	NP	SP	MP	P	SP	Mean
a) Credibility							
His. Black	15	40	26.6	33.33	0	0	1.93
Non-Black	16	0	60	31.25	12.5	0	2.56
Public and Other	23	17.39	30.43	30.43	21.74	0	2.56
b) Lack of Rol Models	e						
His. Black	15	40	33.33	13.33	6.7	6.7	2.1
Non-Black	16	43.75	25	25	6.25	0	1.93
Public and Other	24	25	37.5	20.83	8.33	8.33	2.37
c) Stereotyped	Race						
His. Black	14	42.85	21.42	14.28	21.42	0	2.15
Non-Black	16	31.25	25	31.25	12.5	0	2.25
Public	24	8.33	29.17	37.5	20.83	4.17	2.83
and Other		0.55	27.11	37.3	20.03	4.17	2.03
d) Selection Pr							
His. Black	15	26.7	33.33	20	6.6	13.33	2.47
Non-Black	15	13.33	20	40	20	6.67	2.87
Public and Other	23	17.39	13.04	30.43	21.74	17.39	3.09
e) Competent Administrate	or						
His. Black	15	33.33	40	6.67	20	0	2.13
Non-Black	16	12.1	62.5	25	0	0	2.13
Public	24	37.5	16.67	37.5	4.17	4.17	2.21
and Other							
f) Old Boy Network							
His. Black	22	46.67	20	6.67	26.67	0	2.13
Non-Black	16	12.5	18.75	18.75	31.25	18.75	3.25
Public and Other	24	29.17	12.5	37.5	8.73	12.5	2.62
g) Family							
Responsibilit	ties						
His. Black	15	66.67	26.67	6.67	0	0	1.4
Non-Black	16	75	0	25	0	0	1.5
Public	23	78.26	8.69	13.04	0	0	1.29

Based on total number of responses to each factor.

NP=Not a Problem, SP=Small Problem, MP=Moderate Problem, P=Problem, SP=Serious Problem. His. Black=Historically Black Academic Institutions, Non-Black=Non-Black Academic Institutions, Public and Other=Public Libraries and Other.

institutions. In response to this factor, one respondent made the following statement: "... I worked with a long-time male administrator on some professional mat-

ters (we worked in different libraries). It's amazing how much you can learn just being in the vicinity. Unfortunately, I have not experienced much in the way of Afri-

can American male or female role models while on the job. Therefore, for the most part, I have not found a zone of comfort in personal interactions with colleagues." This reflects the need for recruitment and retention of qualified African American males in the profession.

Respondents who marked the category of "Public and Other" have more of a problem with being stereotyped because of race than respondents at non-Black academic institutions and those at historically Black institutions. The mean for respondents at historically Black institutions is lower than the other two categories. Generally, the character of comments made by respondents suggests that race is perceived as a problem for African American male administrators. For example, one respondent said: "All too often black males are regarded as having only a limited aspiration level in terms of higher administration. At the Deputy and Director level they become viewed as unwanted competition by females and white male administrators." Another respondent made a comment that helps to illustrate these sentiments further, "Subtle and even unconscious racism is still widespread in the profession. It has to be confronted and exposed at every opportunity, but can never be used as an excuse for not accomplishing one's goals."

The selection process for available positions is little more than a moderate problem for administrators employed by public and other institutions. This factor's average for administrators at public and other institutions was higher than for the other two categories. The mean for this factor for administrators employed at historically Black institutions is the lowest, 2.47. In relation to this problem, one respondent commented, "In the current job market, African American males must compete with well-prepared, highly competent black and white females for scarce administrative positions. This is also true for non-administrative positions. . . . "

The mean (2.21%) for African American males at public and other institutions for the problem factor of being accepted as a competent administrator was the highest of the three types of institutions (2.13% for both historically Black institutions and non-Black institutions). The extent of the impact of this factor is described by one respondent as follows: "Being accepted as a competent administrator is not a problem. The problem

Lack of African American male librarians to serve as role models is the only category where the average is higher for historically Black academic institutions than for non-Black academic institutions.

when you are extremely competent is 'you expect too much,' 'you are hard to work for,' 'your management style is intimidating,' etc. These are ways of saying 'you are good and we can't let you be perfect.' Racism is a factor and you have to constantly be aware of this."

Acceptance into the "old boy network" for administrators at non-Black institutions had the greatest mean for all factors. This factor averaged 3.25 for this group. It poses more of a special problem in librarianship. This is reflected in one comment made by a respondent: "In the library profession instead of the 'old boy' network it's the 'old gal' network. Fortunately, [sic] my supervisors are veterans and tested; our focus is to provide library services where few black and white librarians dare or want to go. Politics beyond providing services to children is the area we want to be part of. We want more for them."

Administrators at historically Black academic institutions have less of a problem with this factor than their other peer colleagues. The fact that this is a serious problem is also reflected in this comment made by one participant: "Being director of my hometown public library has helped to overcome some of the 'barriers;' i.e., acceptance into the 'old boy network' but I still feel the need to be 'twice as good.'"

The factor dealing with family responsibilities causes the fewest problems for this minority. For administrators at all types of institutions this factor ranged between "not a problem" and a "small problem." The lowest mean was for administrators serving currently at public or other institutions. Overall, the two greatest problems for administrators in the profession are acceptance into the old boy network and the selection process for available positions.

Comparison of Factors

When looking closer at factors rated by respondents as related to professional advancement and factors identified as problems by respondents, an interesting phenomenon is observed. There is an inverse relationship between the two groups of factors. Of relevance to these findings is a body of research in social psychology on how people explain a social phenomenon. In *A Common Destiny: Blacks and American Society, David Jaynes and Robin Williams explain this phenomenon in the following way:*

Attribution theory focuses primarily on how people develop explanatory accounts of interpersonal behavior. The two major types of causes are external, such as an environmental constraint or pressure to behave in a particular way, and internal, indicative of the underlying dispositions of the individual. Of course, many behaviors involve combinations of the two kinds of causes. The way in which a phenomenon is explained largely determines the meaning it has for a person. An outcome lacking a systematic, controllable cause differs from an outcome for which a clear social process or individual action can be

pinpointed as the cause. Furthermore, outcomes rooted in a social force have different implications for ameliorative efforts than those rooted in a personal intention. The views of both whites and blacks may reflect what has been termed the 'fundamental attribution error.' Experimentally controlled studies of the attribution process routinely find that observers systematically overestimate the extent to which an actor's behavior is attributable to internal causes and systematically underestimate the importance of external causes. This tendency to over attribute to internal causes and to be especially likely when judging a disliked out-group. . . . 12 This general psychological bias toward dispositional attributions when joined with possible self-interest motivations to protect a historically privileged group status may reflect a reasoned opposition of some whites to black advancement.13

When observing factors in relation to their means in descending order, the range for factors related to professional advancement is from abilities or perceived events that are considered to be in a person's control (internal) to events that individuals have little control over (external) (see table 5). For example, communication skills and organizational skills are abilities a person has some control over. However, factors such as whether one has a mentor or whether one can develop political connections are not in one's own control. For instance, Herbert Lefcourt notes:

... perceived control is referred to as a generalized expectancy of internal or external control of reinforcement. The formal terms, the generalized expectancy of internal control refers to the perception of events, whether positive or nega-

Factors	Means
Old Boy Network, Non-Black Academic	3.25
Selection Process, Public and Other	3.09
Selection Process, Non-Black Academic	2.87
Stereotyped Race, Public and Other	2.83
Old Boy Network, Public and Other	2.62
Credibility, Non-Black Academic	2.56
Credibility, Public and Other	2.56
Selection Process, His. Black Academic	2.47
Lack of Role Models, Public and Other	2.37
Stereotyped Race, Non-Black Academic	2.25
Competent Administrator, Public and Other	2.21
Stereotyped Race, His. Black Academic	2.15
Competent Administrator, Non-Black Academic	2.13
Competent Administrator, His. Black Academic	2.13
Old Boy Network, His. Black Academic	2.13
Lack of Role Models, His. Black Academic	2.1
Credibility, His. Black Academic	1.93
Lack of Role Models Non-Black Academic	1.93
Family Responsibility, Public and Other	1.29
Family Responsibility, Non-Black Academic	1.50
Family Responsibility, His. Black Academic	1.40

tive, as being a consequence of one's own actions and thereby potentially under personal control. The generalized expectancy of external control, on the other hand, refers to the perception of positive or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behavior and therefore beyond personal control.¹⁴

When the same observation is made of factors that are problems for respondents the same phenomenon is observed. The relationship is the inverse of those related to professional growth. These factors range from events that are not in a person's control to those that a person does have some control over. This phenomenon is referred to in the discipline

of social psychology as the psychology of control. Scales have been developed to ascertain the degree to which people perceive control over events in their lives. This area in social psychology is called the "locus of control." It originally consisted of two main areas of control: internal (person feels control of events) and external (person feels no control over events). The literature in this area asserts that many minorities feel that many events in their lives are in the control of powerful others or are external.15-18 Perceived control, according to Lefcourt, is associated with access to opportunity. Persons who are able, through position and group membership, to attain more readily the valued outcomes that allow them to feel personal satisfaction are more likely to hold internal control expectancies. Minority groups, such as African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Native Americans, who do not enjoy as much access to opportunity as do the predominant Caucasian groups in American society often feel in less control of events in their lives.¹⁹

Factors rated by the respondents as causing problems for them are factors that are also documented in the literature as being problems for minorities. In 1990, Jaynes and Williams reported that the quality of employment African Americans obtain is correlated with the racial composition of their social networks. Not being accepted into the old boy network leads to poor-paying jobs, and integrated networks lead to better-paying, less segregated work.²⁰ Stereotypes, according to

Factors rated by the respondents as causing problems for them are also documented in the literature as being problems for minorities.

Richard Lippa, unjustly portray outgroups more negatively than they portray in-groups, exaggerate group differences, and lead to unjust underestimates of the variability of people within other groups. Ethnocentrism, the belief that one's own group is superior to other groups, is frequently the root of such stereotypes.21 When factors are observed by mean in descending order by type of institution, the same pattern is prevalent. The factors range from factors in one's control to those that are not in one's control. Table 5 lists problem factors in descending order. When factors are listed in descending order it appears that administrators at historically Black academic institutions have fewer problems than those at public or non-Black academic institutions. Doris Price, in her study "The Academic Environment As Perceived by Professional Black Personnel in Predominantly White Institutions," found that African Americans at predominantly White institutions had perceptions of isolation and alienation.²² Therefore, African American library administrators at public and non-Black academic settings have perceptions that are consistent with this finding.

Summary

Evidence found from this study can be used to provide a basic profile of African American male library administrators. The study also provides basic demographic information that characterizes this minority in the profession. It chronicles the career paths to current positions for these administrators. The study explores the decision to become a librarian and the factors that influenced the decision. Finally, it gives this minority the opportunity to document its perceptions of opportunities for African American males in the profession.

Race relations and opportunities for African Americans and other minorities in the United States have greatly improved. However, many of the respondents identified race as a factor continuing to hinder professional advancement. In their comments, many of the respondents also made reference to racism as a problem when asked to rate factors that may have affected their professional advancement. The identification of racism as a problem by those who participated in the study is a manifestation of how pervasively racism affects these professionals. There is a need for more awareness of this problem. Therefore, there is a need for more programs to ensure equal opportunity for all African American males because they represent a distinct minority within the profession. These fifty-five African American librarians represent the gender that occupies the most prestigious positions within the profession. However, they also represent a racial minority of an underrepresented group in the profession. There are characteristics that are unique to this minority in the profession. This study makes a

beginning attempt at identifying some of the distinctive career patterns, demographic characteristics, and perceptions. Additional studies should focus on this group and other racial minorities within the profession.

In the early 1970s, the recruitment and retention of minorities in the profession of librarianship was a top priority. However, this is no longer the case, as other issues have taken higher priority.²³ This state of affairs is serious in light of the changing demographics of the United States. By the year 2000, more than one-third of the U.S. population will be people of color. These changing demographics

of America warrant that recruitment and retention of people of color in all professions, including librarianship, be a top priority.

Earlier efforts in the recruitment of minorities made by ALA have obviously not succeeded. Efforts, such as ALA's program of Each One Reach One, have resulted in only minuscule increases in minority recruitment to the profession.²⁴ Facilitating recruitment of qualified minorities to the profession will take a concerted effort by all elements within the profession working together with ALA, the library and information science schools, and the libraries of the nation.

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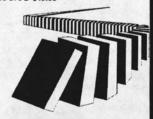
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Research Notes

Faculty Publishing Productivity: An Institutional Analysis and Comparison with Library and Other Measures



John M. Budd

This paper addresses the level of publishing productivity of faculty for the years 1991 through 1993 at institutions with membership in the Association of Research Libraries (ARL). The sources of data are the three citations indexes produced by the Institute for Scientific Information. Both raw and normalized data are presented. In addition, these measures are compared with some library-related information, as well as some other institutional data such as numbers of doctorates awarded. Rank-order correlation is employed to examine relationships between variables. In addition, goodness-of-fit tests are used to test hypotheses regarding the relationship between the publishing data and the other variables.



here is no doubt that faculty at research universities must be concerned with publishing productivity. The literature on

the subject of publishing requirements, pressure to publish, and the ties of the academic reward structure to publishing is far too voluminous to trace here. To note just one source that emphasizes the use of quantitative measures of publishing activity, an entire issue of *New Directions for Institutional Research*, entitled "Measuring Faculty Research Performance," contains several essays addressing the use of counts of various sorts in evaluating faculty publishing productivity at universities. ¹ The question remains: how much do

faculty actually publish? That question forms the basis of the present study. Beyond that, ancillary questions concern the relationship between publishing activity and other institutional variables, many of which are library based.

Faculty Publishing

The pressures exerted on faculty to publish are recognized by several writers in the library field, Charles Osburn among them. Although his substantive study was published in 1979, many of his observations still apply: faculty are part of a complex research dynamic that is also composed of the academic reward structure; a large, and mainly public, pool of

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funding is available to support research; and a multifaceted publishing industry is responsive to the need and desire for expanded outlets for the communication of research. This dynamic places pressure on libraries to both supply the raw information materials to be used in the research process and to serve as a communication medium of the products of faculty research. This further complicates an already complex set of motives underlying the phenomenon of publishing. As Herb White observes:

The purpose of publication is, after all, a twofold one. The first and the most immediately recognized purpose is the communication of findings, sometimes to an eager audience and sometimes to a disinterested one. The former is preferable, but even the latter is acceptable, because the other purpose of scholarly publication is the achievement of academic credit. Unfortunately..., credit depends less on the quality and more on the quantity of activity in today's academic market-place.³

If quantity is so important, then how much are faculty publishing? The period 1991 through 1993 is examined to determine publishing rates by faculty at institutions that are members of ARL. The sources of publishing data are the three indexes produced by the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI): Science Citation Index, Social Sciences Citation Index, and Arts & Humanities Citation Index. It is recognized that these tools are limited, that they cannot account for the totality of publications (particularly nonjournal publications), but they do cover the three broad subject areas and include the contents of approximately 5,700 journals. Furthermore, the ISI databases allow for the searching of the Corporate Index, so that publications emanating from ARL institutions can be identified.

This is not the first examination of institutional publishing patterns, nor is it the first study to employ ISI databases. In 1978 Richard C. Anderson, Francis Narin, and Paul McAllister published a comparison of ratings in ten scientific fields using the Corporate Index of Science Citation Index.4 Nine years later, John A. Muffo, Susan V. Mead, and Alan E. Bayer used the ISI databases to focus on five universities.5 The authors note that instances of multiple authorship, affiliation with multiple departments, and interinstitutional publication present some problems. Also, only the affiliation of the first author of a multiauthored work is included. They urge that readers view these data not as absolute facts, but as indicators of activity. These caveats and recommendations apply as well to the present study. This research is on a larger scale than previous studies. All ninetyfour United States universities that have membership in ARL are included.

The author searched the three databases for the time period in question, using the Corporate Index. This means that only the main campuses of the institutions are included. More significantly, in some instances, a university's medical school is included if it is attached to the main campus. Attempting to eliminate medical schools proved problematic, so they are included when they are part of the main campus. This creates some discrepancy between these universities and those without medical schools or with medical schools in locations apart from the main campus. One reason for this strategy is that ARL library statistics include medical school or health science collections when they are part of the main campus, but not when they are physically separate. Consistency of data collection allows for comparison with the library statistics. Beyond the medical school dilemma, the ARL data are accepted as presented. This may result in some inclusions of more than just the main campuses, but a reconciliation of the ARL data with information from the ISI databases is very difficult, if not impossible, due to the nature of the reporting mechanism.

At the most basic level, data are gathered on total numbers of publications. *Publication* is defined according to ISI's designation of an item as an "article." This results in the elimination of such works as book reviews, editorials, letters, and notes. Only "articles" are counted as publications in this study. The mean number of publications per institution is 4,595.8 (SD=3,089.9). The range extends from 669 publications at the low end to a high of 16,945. Table 1 presents a ranked list of institutions by number of publications.

It may come as no surprise that Harvard ranks first in total number of publications. The remaining nine institutions in the top ten are also ones that have reputations for prestige. It stands to reason that those universities with the largest faculties may produce the greatest numbers of publications. One way to normalize this measure is to compute per capita publication. The number of faculty for each university is taken from the 1991-1992 ARL Statistics.6 This source provides the head count of faculty for each of the universities. For each institution, the total number of publications is divided by the number of faculty to arrive at a per capita figure. The mean per capita number of publications is 3.56 (SD=2.48). The lowest is 0.50 publications per capita and the highest is 12.71. The universities ranked by this measure are noted in table 2.

These rankings include no surprises either, with the possible exception of the inclusion of the University of California, San Diego. Seven of the top ten universities in table 1 also appear in the top ten in table 2. Even among these top ten, however, there is some separation. There is a gap between the first four institutions and the next six. Using rank-order correlation to examine the relationship of total publications and per capita publications yields a correlation coefficient

of .793, which is quite a high positive correlation.

Publishing Output and Library Measures

While these basic measures provide general institutional comparisons, they also offer an opportunity for comparison with other factors. It is often said that faculty and librarians are in a partnership when it comes to the production of research and scholarship. There is an assumed interdependence between information collections and the services of the university and the faculty, who are both the producers and consumers of that information. The publishing activity, therefore, can be compared with some key library-related variables. These include: total number of volumes held by the institutions' librar-

It is often said that faculty and librarians are in a partnership when it comes to the production of research and scholarship.

ies, the libraries' total expenditures, materials expenditures, and the number of professional librarians on their staffs. These aspects of research libraries are chosen because they relate most directly to collections and services that may be of benefit to faculty. In addition to these library-based variables, the publishing data are compared with the number of doctorates produced by the universities in 1992. These data (library statistics and number of doctorates) are derived from the 1991-1992 ARL Statistics. The final comparison is with one subjective measure—the rating of graduate schools as published in the latest edition of the Gourman Report.7 Comparison with the Gourman ratings is not intended in any way to imply approval of his methods or ratings. In fact, many researchers frequently criticize Gourman for not being forthcoming with information regarding his methods of evaluation and for unclear

TABLE 1
Institutions Ranked by Number of Publications

Rank	Institution	Number	Rank	Institution	Number
1	Harvard	16,945	48	Princeton	3,803
2	UCLA	12,566	49	Virginia Tech	3,660
3	MIT	11,788	50	Iowa State	3,520
4	Michigan	10,907	51	Cincinnati	3,516
5	U. of Washington	10,645	52	UC Santa Barbara	3,442
6	Cornell	10,518	53	Missouri	3,439
7	UC Berkeley	10,378	54	Indiana	3,408
8	Minnesota	10,304	55	Emory	3,279
9	Stanford	9,723	56	SUNY, Buffalo	3,165
10	Wisconsin	9,663	57	Brown	3,100
11	Johns Hopkins	9,636	57	Georgia	3,100
12	Pennsylvania	8,636	59	Arizona State	3,068
13	Illinois	7,884	60	Wayne State	3,020
14	Columbia	7,824	61	Massachusetts	3,004
15	Yale	7,779	62	Louisiana State	2,986
16	UC San Diego	7,732	63	Kansas	2,974
17	UC Davis	7,621	64	Kentucky	2,953
18	Ohio State	7,155	65	Washington State	2,687
18	Pittsburgh	7,155	66	Georgetown	2,662
20	Penn State	6,925	67	Tennessee	2,638
21	Arizona	6,551	68	New Mexico	2,487
22	Duke	6,467	69	Houston	2,457
23	Chicago	6,216	70	Oklahoma	2,347
24	Southern California	6,025	71	Dartmouth	2,279
25	Washington U.	5,901	72	Connecticut	2,265
26	Iowa	5,837	73	Delaware	2,228
27	Texas	5,798	74	Miami	2,200
28	Texas A&M	5,784	75	Nebraska	2,163
29	North Carolina	5,782	76	UC Riverside	2,124
30	Northwestern	5,490	77	Temple	1,994
31	Maryland	5,475	78	Florida State	1,935
32	Purdue	5,341	79	South Carolina	1,898
33	Florida	5,335	80	Notre Dame	1,857
34	New York U.	4,850	81	Tulane	1,855
35	Virginia	4,700	82	Colorado State	1,726
36	Michigan State	4,554	83	Hawaii	1,717
37	Rutgers	4,464	84	Oregon	1,714
38	Utah	4,340	85	Syracuse	1,640
39	Case Western Reserve		86	SUNY, Albany	1,608
40	Colorado	4,241	87	Alabama	1,379
41	North Carolina State	4,209	88	Oklahoma State	1,332
42	Rochester	4,164	89	Rice	1,256
43	Boston U.	4,015	90	Georgia Tech	1,211
44	Illinois, Chicago	3,965	91	Southern Illinois	1,142
45	SUNY, Stony Brook	3,918	92	Brigham Young	1,041
46	Vanderbilt	3,853	93	Kent State	866
47	UC Irvine	3,823	94	Howard	669

TABLE 2 Institutions Ranked by Per Capita Publications

		Number	Rank	Institution	Number
1	Johns Hopkins	12.71	48	Kentucky	2.76
2	Harvard	11.46	49	Oklahoma	2.74
3	MIT	11.26	50	North Carolina	2.71
4	Washington U. (MO)	10.24	51	North Carolina State	2.68
5	UCLA	7.51	52	Vanderbilt	2.64
6	UC San Diego	7.34	53	Texas A&M	2.63
7	UC Berkeley	7.06	54	Case Western Reserve	2.52
8	Stanford	6.92	55	Massachusetts	2.49
9	Minnesota	6.90	55	Oregon	2.49
10	Cornell	6.81	57	Penn State	2.45
11	Brown	5.79	57	Wayne State	2.45
12	Princeton	5.46	59	Virginia Tech	2.44
13	Chicago	5.16	60	Indiana	2.43
14	Southern California	5.04	61	SUNY, Albany	2.42
15	UC Davis	4.96	62	New York U.	2.30
16	Virginia	4.82	63	Connecticut	2.29
17	Utah	4.79	63	Illinois, Chicago	2.29
18	Michigan	4.64	65	Florida	2.26
19	Maryland	4.61	66	Rutgers	2.18
20	Pennsylvania	4.61	66	Tennessee	2.18
21	Yale	4.57	68	Michigan State	2.17
22	UC Santa Barbara	4.34	69	SUNY, Buffalo	2.16
23	Wisconsin	4.34	70	Georgetown	2.15
24	Duke	4.27	71	Washington State	2.07
25	Arizona	4.16	72	Emory	2.02
26	Colorado	3.97	73	Tulane	2.00
27	Boston U.	3.84	74	Louisiana State	1.99
28	Illinois	3.78	75	Georgia Tech	1.97
28	Purdue	3.78	76	Miami	1.95
30	UC Riverside	3.71	77	Dartmouth	1.87
31	U. of Washington	3.68	78	Florida State	1.86
32	Columbia	3.61	79	Georgia	1.79
33	Iowa	3.42	79	South Carolina	1.79
34	Rochester	3.41	81	Arizona State	1.76
35	Kansas	3.38	82	Alabama	1.74
36	Cincinnati	3.19	83	Syracuse	1.72
37	Northwestern	3.16	84	Houston	1.60
38	UC Irvine	3.09	85	Hawaii	1.59
39	Rice	3.07	86	Nebraska	1.41
40	Notre Dame	3.05	87	Delaware	1.28
41	SUNY, Stony Brook	2.99	88	Temple	1.24
42	Pittsburgh	2.95	89	Southern Illinois	1.12
43	Missouri	2.84	90	Colorado State	1.07
44	Texas	2.81	91	Oklahoma State	1.03
45	New Mexico	2.80	92	Kent State	1.03
46	Iowa State	2.78	93	Brigham Young	0.74
40	Ohio State	2.78	93	Howard	0.74

statements of his process.8 This measure is used solely because the Gourman reports are widely read and may be seen as influential.

One set of comparisons is based on a series of hypotheses concerning the relationship between the measures of publishing activity and each of the remaining variables. It should be noted that these hypotheses are not overstated; that is, there is no pretense whatsoever that whether a hypothesis is rejected or not is an indication of a causal relationship. It is most likely that both publishing and library measures are simultaneously affected by a complex of factors that includes historical mission, administrative impetus, and legislative, governmental, or political influences, among others. This series of hypotheses has to do with the goodness of fit of the raw publishing data with each of the library and other variables, and of the per capita publishing data with the same variables. In other words, each hypothesis is focused on whether the pairs of variables are independent or not, whether the two variables in each pair vary independently of one another.

Stated as null hypotheses, there is no statistically significant relationship between the publishing measures and the other variables; the assumption is that the pairs are independent. For example, there is no significant relationship between raw publishing activity and the number of

volumes in the libraries. As part of a crosstabulation function created by SPSS/PC+, the chi-square test is performed on each pair of variables: publications by volumes, publications by total expenditures, per capita publications by volumes, per capita publications by total expenditures, etc. In no instance does the computed chisquare value result in a probability equal to or less than .05, the customarily accepted decision threshold, so none of the null hypotheses can be rejected. Stated differently, there is no statistical evidence that the pairs of variables are not independent. Moreover, the chi-square test is applied to raw publications with per capita publications. As is true of the other pairs, the null hypotheses cannot be rejected in this instance either. So, even with the two publishing measures, there is some independence.

These pairs of variables can be examined in another way. For each variable—publications, volumes, doctorates awarded, etc.—the ninety-four institutions can be ranked from highest to lowest. Because of this, the rankings can be compared. Specifically, the publishing measures can be compared with the other variables. Table 3 presents these comparisons.

Rank-order correlation is employed to arrive at the correlation coefficients. For instance, the ranked list of the ninety-four universities by numbers of volumes held is correlated with the ranked list of the

universities by raw publications. The resulting correlation coefficient is .678. The coefficients in table 3 indicate the correlation between each pair of measures (volumes with per capita publications, total expenditures with raw publications, etc.). As is evident from the table, the correlation coefficients are higher in each case for raw publications than for per capita publications. To re-

TABLE 3
Rank-Order Correlations:
Publishing Measures by Other Variables

	Raw Pubs.	Per Capita Pubs.
Volumes	.678	.416
Total Expenditures	.803	.523
Materials Expenditures	.737	.470
Professional Staff	.746	.438
Doctorates Awarded	.794	.483
Gourman Rating	.767	.754

The number in each instance represents the correlation coefficient.

iterate, comparing the two publishing measures results in a correlation coefficient of .793. While this is high, it is not a perfect direct correlation. The divergence between these two measures, along with the differences with regard to the other variables, indicates that, where the two measures are different, the difference is exacerbated when comparing the publishing measures with the rest of the variables. These data do not indicate that raw publications, as a phenomenon, provide an explanation for the rankings of library and other measures, or vice versa. It simply means that the direct relationship is stronger between raw publications and each of the other variables than it is between per capita publications and the variables. Perhaps the factors that influence the number of publications also affect the library and other measures. It is most likely that all of these variables are elements of a complex set of interrelated factors. It is interesting to note that the factor with the highest correlation with per capita publications is the Gourman rating. Because Gourman does not disclose his criteria for the determination of the rankings, there is no way to tell if the criteria include, or are related to, per capita publications by the faculty at the institutions.

A few things should be noted about rank-order correlation. First, since the data are ordered, rank-order correlation does not necessarily examine assumptions regarding linearity, as does productmoment correlation. For example, the interval between the first- and secondranked cases may be much greater than the interval between the second and third. For this reason, some measures related to product-moment correlation have no relevance to rank-order correlation. The coefficient of determination cannot be applied to rank-order correlation, since it is applied to the linearity of the relationship between variables. Next, while it is possible to apply tests of statistical significance to the results of rank-order correlation, such a measure is based on the assumption that the sample used is random and independent. These assumptions do not reflect the present sample; the data used here are purposively selected.

Summary

Although the analysis presented in this paper indicates that there are some relationships between publishing activity and other variables, care should be taken not to impart too much significance to these relationships. As is noted above, it is likely that there is a complex dynamic at work in higher education that affects faculty publishing activity. The variables examined here undoubtedly reflect that dynamic, but there is no evidence that any causal relationship exists. Rather, it is apparent that the complexity of the university manifests itself in many ways. At the

An extension of this study might explore a larger population of institutions, perhaps including ACRL's university library data, and adding other measures, such as citations and internal and external funding levels.

most basic level in the research university, the dynamic encompasses bigness; large faculties produce large numbers of publications and libraries spend large amounts of money and have large collections. Some of these variables could be seen as inputs; these include the library measures. The others may be viewed as outcomes, such as the publishing measures and the number of doctorates awarded. When these variables are examined together, as is the case in the present study, it might be expected that the relationship exhibits a relatively high correlation. With these data, the correlations are higher for raw publishing data and the other variables than for per capita publishing and the other data.

One possible explanation why the correlation coefficients are not higher for both measures is that the sources of publishing data used in this study concentrate on the journal literature. Because of this, publishing in the sciences and, to a lesser degree, the social sciences will be more heavily represented. Perhaps because of this, an institution such as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology is ranked high in both of the publishing activity categories, but its rank is lower for most of the library-related measures. A more normalized set of publishing data may help to eliminate any bias that might result from focus on the journal literature. Such an approach may affect any goodness-of-fit tests. It would further be expected that the correlation coefficients would be even higher. The conclusion that can be drawn here is that there is an interdependence among the array of inputs and outcomes in higher education. An extension of this study might explore a larger population of institutions, perhaps including ACRL's university library data, and adding other measures, such as citations and internal and external funding levels. This study is intended to be an initial investigation of how these higher education variables relate to one another. It remains to be seen if a more inclusive study will have similar results. It also must be noted that this study focuses on traditional academic publishing-that is, print publication. As electronic communication presents more possibilities, and as the reward system in higher education reacts to these possibilities, the dynamics of publishing and the relationships among variables may, in time, be altered.

Notes

1. John W. Cresswell, ed., "Measuring Faculty Research Performance," New Directions for Institutional Research 50 (June 1986): entire issue.

2. Charles B. Osburn, Academic Research and Library Resources: Changing Patterns in America (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Pr., 1979).

3. Herbert White, "Scholarly Publication, Academic Libraries, and the Assumption That These Processes Are Really Under Management Control," College & Research Libraries 54 (July 1993): 295.

4. Richard C. Anderson, Francis Narin, and Paul McAllister, "Publication Ratings versus Peer Ratings of Universities," *Journal of the American Society for Information Science* 29 (Mar. 1978): 91–103.

5. John A. Muffo, Susan V. Mead, and Alan E. Bayer, "Using Faculty Publication Rates for Comparing 'Peer' Institutions," Research in Higher Education 27, no. 2 (1987): 163—75.

6. 1991–1992 ARL Statistics (Washington, D.C.: Association of Research Libraries, 1993).

7. Jack Gourman, The Gourman Report: A Rating of Graduate Schools in the United States (Los Angeles: National Education Standards, 1993).

8. See, for instance, David Webster, "Who Is Jack Gourman and Why Is He Saying All Those Things About My College?" Change 16 (Nov./Dec. 1984): 14–19, 45–56.

IN FORTHCOMING ISSUES OF COLLEGE & RESEARCH LIBRARIES

Reference Communication: Commonalities in the Worlds of Medicine and Librarianship—Rachael Naismith

The Changing Nature of Jobs: A Paraprofessional Time Series—Carol P. Johnson

The Economics of Professional Journal Pricing—Michael A. Stoller, Michael A. Miranda, and Robert L. Christopherson

Letters

To the Editor:

I write to comment on the study by Bruce Kingma and Gillian McCombs, "The Opportunity Costs of Faculty Status for Academic Librarians" (C&RL 56 [May 1995]: 258-64). In the report's early paragraphs, definition of terms is addressed and a flawed application applied. The researchers are equating faculty status and professional activity. They do not understand fully that with or without faculty status libraries must bear the cost of sending staff to conferences, taking paid leaves, and supporting sabbaticals and professional travel. Faculty status just puts a little incentive into the mix. Where do they see the profession in the future, if indeed they see librarianship as a profession, if practicing librarians do not contribute to literature, attend conferences, and otherwise engage in activities that provide for the health and well-being of the profession? One could assume that MARC would not have been developed had not professionals stopped cataloging a few hours to talk about, learn about, write about, and travel to meetings to explore the matter of using automation to improve how librarians do their work.

This is not research on the value/cost of faculty status, it is a reckless piece that seeks to justify coping with reduced library budgets by taking advantage of a "new model" that will force librarians to be anti-intellectual, production-minded, unaware sweat shop operators urged on by unenlightened campus administrators.

Barbara J. Smith Director

Smithsonian Institution Libraries

To the Editor:

I found the article by Bruce Kingma and Gillian McCombs to be quite interesting. Not all librarians appear to be exposed to this basic concept, so this recent contribution is welcome. However, the authors suggest conclusions based on only half the story. Faculty status imposes costs, but its prevalence on many campuses indicates it also provides some value.

Taking Kingma and Mc-Combs's article as the com-



plete picture requires that we accept an argument that faculty status generates expenses, but returns no value. Instead, they imply that librarians ought to give up faculty status in favor of adopting the employee model used by computer center colleagues. This is an inappropriate conclusion since they provide no analysis to test the second premise. It may be worthwhile looking a little closer at librarianship by seeking the benefits returned the campus by the presence of faculty status.

Kingma and McCombs's vignette illustrates the potential impact of faculty status in terms of opportunity cost. However, their illustration presumes that there is more cataloging to be done than there are catalogers available to do it. They do not control budget constraints which limit the flow of new materials into the library. In those libraries that have no backlog, their point fails. No backlog occursthere is lower opportunity cost—when all the cataloging gets done in less than the time allocated. Which, of course, leaves time for faculty development and scholarship. Alternatively, it could be said that institutions should only allocate enough cataloging labor to just catalog all new items. However, this is making a judgment on the value of faculty status before it has a chance to prove itself. Extending the authors' argument to the teaching faculty suggests that they are wasting time on scholarship, another opportunity cost. Does that imply that there is no merit in return that exceeds those costs?

Additionally, their argument should be reinforced by more complete statistical

analysis. Certainly statistical techniques offer scientific methodology appropriate to the issue. The writers lack control in their data set for libraries that have collective bargaining organizations. In one article they quote, they ignore statistical analysis showing that faculty status succeeds nearly as well as faculty unions in increasing salary gains an average six percent to ten percent. Collective bargaining across all industries seldom does better than ten percent. With that control absent, a regression analysis on the presence of faculty status will yield misleading results, because there is a negative correlation between the existence of unions and faculty status in ARL libraries. A statistical analysis by another cohort has shown librarianship, strengthened by the rigorous process of faculty status, positively affects the quality of colleges.

What is most troubling about this paper, however, has to do with editorial policy of the journal itself. Two individuals, widely published and highly competent statisticians, privately indicated to me their disappointment in the lack of statistical rigor allowed by the current editorial board of *College & Research Libraries*. The editors appear to be rejecting research reports out of concern that scientific (statistical) work is too sophisticated for the readership. Rather, they appear satisfied to publish work substantiated by rhetoric, anecdote, and opinion surveys.

C&RL supposedly represents the premiere research forum for academic librarianship. Hopefully, the editors can overcome their timidity regarding methodology, proven valuable in social science research, to admit material they may be uncomfortable with, such as regression analysis. In the meantime, the journal loses credibility by publishing work with incomplete analysis.

Richard W. Meyer Director of the Library Trinity University

Statement of ownership, management, and circulation

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Book Reviews

Williams, Christine L. Still a Man's World: Men Who Do "Women's" Work. Berkeley: University of California Pr., 1995. 243p. \$40 cloth (ISBN 0-520-08786-0), \$15 paper (ISBN 0-520-08787-9).

What do librarianship, social work, nursing, and elementary school teaching have in common? All are "female professions," where men constitute less than one-third the work force and are viewed as having made "unconventional career choices." Based on interviews with seventy-six men and twenty-three women divided among these four professions, Williams explores whether the presence of men in these women's fields helps achieve gender neutrality in the workplace. She concludes that women may be worse off in these professions than in "men's" professions, such as law.

Williams's feminist inquiry focuses on the role of men "in overall pattern of discrimination against women." She asks, "Why is gender a liability for women and an asset for men?" "What are the mechanisms that propel men to more successful careers," even in these female-dominated fields where one might think women could have a gender-based advantage?

Williams finds gender "embedded" in jobs in such a way that males almost always benefit-getting the highest-paying, most interesting, and most powerful positions. In librarianship, these are in administration and automation, or in traditional library jobs such as reference when there are enough men to make the function seem not feminine. Men rise by the "glass escalator" to assume these "masculine" roles, helped by the fact that they make more hiring decisions than women. Williams argues that job descriptions, far from being gender-neutral, contain societal expectations about the personality types best suited to them, and societal ideals of masculinity automatically cast men in certain jobs.

Williams traces briefly the "rise and fall" of these four "women's" professions. They expanded and became almost exclusively female from the



late 19th century until about 1930. Women were perceived as innately domestic, maternal, quiet and orderly, nurturing, caring, and gracious-qualities society held as essential to these professions. To this day, although attitudes about women have changed, these women's professions remain tainted as inappropriate for "masculine" men. Williams documents how men in these professions have to rationalize that they are masculine despite their career choice. Many men face a societal preconception that choosing these professions means they are gay, which can lead them to "do gender" by bonding with other men and acting "masculine." Conversely, women in men's professions strive to behave like men.

Beginning about 1930, men were recruited into these professions in order to "professionalize" them—gain higher salaries and more societal respect. As men entered these fields, more administrative and supervisory roles were developed, and men tended to fill these dominant positions. Equal-pay-for-equal-work arguments resulted less in women being advanced than in "job segregation," with women concentrated in nonmasculine jobs receiving lower pay.

One of Williams's most astute insights is that men and women as gender minorities in the workplace are not treated equally. Men, composing less than fifteen percent of these four female-dominated professions, do not suffer marginalization, mockery, and ostracism from women as do women from men in men's fields. Women usually welcome men doing

"women's work." High visibility for men often results in favoritism, especially from male professors or administrators. Men's opinions are acknowledged and lead to advancement in ways that women's opinions proffered in men's professions would be ignored or seen as unduly aggressive.

To explain these phenomena, Williams turns to feminist psychoanalytic theory. Society defines masculinity as being superior to women, more powerful, phallic. Men, on the whole, are driven to do this by the conflicts and ambivalence entailed in breaking from their mothers and assuming male roles in a society where men are not nurturing. Williams espouses R. W. Connell's theory of hegemonic masculinity to explain men's compulsion to assert their difference from, and superiority to, women by often participating in the currently socially dominant ideal of masculinity (at present "physical strength and bravado, exclusive heterosexuality, stoicism, authority, and independence"). Thus, labor is always divided by gender to men's advantage. Williams quotes from interviews with men working in women's professions to illustrate her thesis. Although she found a few men exhibiting "alternative masculinities," she found no reformist "gender renegades." This chapter was often irritating for its failure to perceive the full array of motivations individual men have for pursuing careers in women's professions, as Williams's theories led her to read into interviews the desire for men to assert masculinity.

Williams concludes by cautioning that increasing the presence of men in female professions is likely to worsen discrimination against women in these fields. Before workplace equality can occur, society must cease devaluing female qualities (e.g., emotional expressiveness and empathy) in the workplace and must see them as valued job skills on a footing equal to masculine qualities. The organizational arrangements that give men privilege must be transformed, and the

psychological incentives that impel men to strive for differentiation and dominance over women must cease. Believing it will be easier for women than men to change, Williams sees positive social change and the goal of gender neutrality as more likely to occur if women infiltrate male professions.

This is a provocative and timely book, particularly in the present climate of threatened affirmative action. Williams points to academic librarianship as one field in which women may have gained leadership clout thanks largely to affirmative action. She challenges us to notice the often insidious influence of gender in job content, workplace behavior, and hiring/promotion decisions. It is unfortunate that she does not distinguish among different types of librarians, often generalizing based on school, public, or academic librarians as if they were identical. The applicability of her research to librarianship would be enhanced with a sample larger than the twenty-nine librarians interviewed and if she paid greater heed to the individual gender orientation of her interviewees. Recent theories of masculinity and femininity evolved by gay, lesbian, and other gender-focused minorities seem to have eluded Williams's attention. One wonders, too, whether Williams's theories would hold up in such new female-dominated professions as paralegalism, which postdates the Victorian era. Although meriting further inquiry, Williams's thoughts and conclusions stand up as challenging, highly readable, never dull, and worthy of debate.-Joseph W. Barker, University of California, Berkeley.

Gibbons, Michael, Camille Limoges, Helga Nowotny, Simon Schwartzman, Peter Scott, and Martin Trow. The New Production of Knowledge: The Dynamics of Science and Research in Contemporary Societies. London: Sage, 1994. 179p. \$21.95, paper. (ISBN 0-8039-7794-8). The thesis of this book, which was written by an international team of six social scientists, is that a new mode of knowledge production is evolving alongside the old one. Although it is unclear at this time whether this new mode, which the authors imaginatively label "Mode 2," will eventually displace "Mode 1," the book presents convincing arguments that the new mode is becoming increasingly prevalent. Most of the book is devoted to a discussion of the causes of this new mode of knowledge production and of its effects on research, institutions, and public policy. While the book occasionally makes assumptions that pertain more to Europe, most of the concepts presented are applicable to research conditions and conventions in North America.

Mode 1 knowledge production seems to be characterized and conditioned primarily by a network of relatively clear and long-accepted boundaries: the distinction between one discipline and another, the difference between pure and applied—or academic and industrial research, the separation of research done in different countries. The primary characteristic of Mode 2 appears to be its disregard for such boundaries; the authors argue that increasing amounts of research-knowledge production-is collaborative to a point that Mode 1 boundaries pale or disappear altogether. Mode 2 is "transdisciplinary" in that it does not even recognize traditional disciplinary divisions, drawing information as needed from many disciplines. It is performed by groups, or groups of groups, that may or may not have direct connections to the academy. It is (like this book) the product of scholars who live and work in different countries—a condition made possible especially by the ubiquity of electronic communication. Mode 2 appears also to be much more concerned with application, with responding to the need to solve specific problems, and it is generally more concerned about the social implications of its work than is usually the case in Mode 1.

By knowledge the authors mean primarily scientific and technical knowledge, although they do devote one of the best-written chapters in the book (pp. 90–110) to an heroic attempt to show how some aspects of Mode 2 are also evident in the humanities. Despite dutifully and respectfully referring to the likes of Baudelaire and Heidegger, however, the authors cannot conceal their sense that humanities scholarship, whose practitioners "stand a little aside, as quizzical commentators," is ultimately peripheral when viewed in relation to the production of scientific knowledge.

Despite its brevity, this book does not exactly "move along": it is, in fact, a hard read. Its contents are repetitive, its discussion wanders, its focus blurs, and its style is distractingly uneven-perhaps the result of joint authorship. (None of the chapters is attributed to any one author, and the authors are listed on the title page in alphabetical order.) Some of the language is impenetrably dense, and a few of the sentences read like inept, word-forword translations from some other language. The citations also leave a great deal to be desired: getting from this book to related sources will not be an easy matter. One complicated, detailed chapter ("Reconfiguring Institutions," pp. 137-54) is provided with only a single reference.

Each chapter begins with a summary, and it is in the summaries that the poorest editing will be found in this already poorly edited book. Consequently, some parts of the summaries border on the incomprehensible. ("We distinguish between three main phases, marking the transition of a policy for science towards science and policy and, during the 1980s, entering a policy for technological innovation phase" [p. 155].) Rather than serving as surrogates for the chapters, therefore, or helping the reader to make sense of the chapters, the summaries often have

the opposite effect of forcing the reader to read through the chapters—in order to make sense of the summaries.

Although few academic librarians will want to read through this book, it is nevertheless well worth reading. My advice is first to read carefully through the short glossary (pp. 167-68), and then to read the "Introduction" (pp. 1-16), which presents all of the key ideas. Depending upon one's interest or purpose, one can then read selectively from the remaining chapters. Of special interest to academic librarians will be the discussion of the shift of knowledge production away from the academy. While the research university remains the primary center for research even in Mode 2 (p. 82), knowledge production is no longer the university's exclusive responsibility. New centers of knowledge production, such as smalltechnology businesses, are rapidly evolving and contributing. One reason for this trend is the "massification" (i.e., massive growth) of higher education following World War II (pp. 70-89). This created, among other things, more people capable of knowledge production than there has been room for in the academy, so that such scholars are now finding work-and are producing university-quality knowl-

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edge-in the private sector. There are also other issues raised in the book that will be of interest to anyone trying to understand how knowledge is produced and exchanged, as, for example, the useful distinction between tacit and codified knowledge (pp. 24-26), or the discussion of the increasing "density" of scientific communication (pp. 38-40). Also of special concern to some academic librarians will be the examinations throughout the book (especially pp. 8, 31-34, 65-69, and 152-54) of how the quality control of knowledge production (and therefore presumably publication) is affected by judgment and measures that are no longer limited to the standard conventions of academic peer review.

Although a few brief case studies and other examples are presented, the content of this book is for the most part abstract: there is little detailed or extended discussion of how these new trends are affecting actual research now under way. Nor do the authors feel obliged to draw any general conclusions. The book ends somewhat abruptly with a one-page list of some "future issues." While the main purpose of the book is presumably to identify and investigate the qualities of Mode 2, the real interest of the authors seems to be not so much in the nature of Mode 2 itself as in the socioeconomic implications of the shift from Mode 1 to Mode 2. As a result, Mode 2 is defined and made understandable primarily on the basis of its difference from, or opposition to, Mode 1. In the end, therefore, this book is not so much an analysis of how research is done-or how knowledge is produced—as it is a rather rushed and somewhat disjointed commentary on currently changing social and economic values.-Ross Atkinson, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

Higher Education under Fire: Politics, Economics, and the Crisis of the Humanities. Eds. Michael Bérubé and Cary Nelson. New York: Routledge, 1995. 379p. \$55 cloth (ISBN 0-415-90805-1), \$16.95 paper (ISBN 0-415-90806-X).

In April 1993 a diverse group of academics gathered at the University of Illinois for a conference sponsored by the Unit for Criticism and Interpretive Theory. Most were left-leaning, but a few were avowedly conservative. Many taught in departments of English, but the fields of education, political science, sociology, communication, philosophy, and history were also represented. Some of the names (Gerald Graff, Joan W. Scott) are familiar to this reviewer, others may be familiar to other readers, but this was not a platform for "culture wars" superstars. A great deal of honest soul searching took place, mixing "theoretical reflection with practical advice." That higher education really was under fire may be the only opinion shared by all participants. Everything else-the canon, multiculturalism, affirmative action, identity politics, free speech, pedagogy, tenure—was subject to dispute. These candid, occasionally heated, but always civil papers and discussions are collected in Higher Education under Fire. The book should appeal to readers who have always wanted to be a fly on the wall of a faculty lounge or humanities seminar room.

There is, of course, a dated quality to discussions taking place in early 1993, before the antigovernment, antitax, antiaffirmative action, and anti-NEH initiatives of 1995. But these political initiatives were many years in the making, and by 1993 the editors of this volume had already detected a crisis of legitimacy in higher education, as in other public institutions. All debates essentially stem from one central question: What is the purpose of higher education? This formerly theoretical, even slightly rhetorical, question has taken on a frightening reality as higher education is placed on the chopping block.

Many, if not most, American parents and students view higher education as a means toward an end: expanded opportunity, middle-class respectability, or simply a decent job. Professors have traditionally been reluctant to justify themselves on these instrumental grounds, but cost-benefit analysis is often the most effective way of persuading legislators and the public to support universities, as Linda Ray Pratt shows in case studies of three successful political actions.

The utilitarian approach can be dangerously anti-intellectual, however. Jeffrey Herf maintains that universities exist to "pursue important truths" and are inherently elitist; Joan W. Scott stresses "the value of learning as critical inquiry." Meanwhile, social groups that have historically been denied both economic advancement and "critical inquiry" demand their rightful place in the academy.

For some, like Paul Lauter, the fiscal crisis and attacks on speech codes, political correctness, and multiculturalism are the means by which an entrenched establishment blocks universal access to higher education. Michael W. Apple also deplores the social and economic goals of the political right, including "the reinforcement of intensely competitive structures of mobility, the lowering of people's expectations for economic security, and the popularization of what is clearly a form of Social Darwinist thinking." In her paper "Writing Permitted in Designated Areas Only," Linda Brodkey angrily reports on her unsuccessful attempt to create a new composition curriculum at the University of Texas, "Writing about Difference." This incident became a national media event, resulting in cancellation of the new program.

More typical of this conference was a willingness to believe in the sincere convictions of one's ideological opponents, rather touchingly expressed in Gerald Graff's lament that "it seems to me in the current debate . . . we're simply operating with representations of each other that we don't recognize." This temporary cease-fire leads to the most valuable and

original insights in the book. For example, the late Barry Gross, an active member of the "conservative" National Association of Scholars, turns out to have the most experience teaching at a nonelite institution and makes some fairly radical proposals for fairness in admissions, such as the use of lotteries. Conversely, Gregory Jay and Gerald Graff, cochairs of the "leftist" Teachers for a Democratic Culture. indulge in a little self-criticism, admitting that oppositional pedagogy can be dogmatic and oppressive to students. A series of speakers tentatively explores the possibility that "difference" needs to be balanced by concern for universals. If not communion, then at least community. The last paper in the collection, Jerry Watts's "Identity and the Status of Afro-American Intellectuals," movingly conveys the devalued status of Afro-American studies, the inescapable black "fear of the white gaze."

Higher Education under Fire is a fairly sophisticated attempt to reason and delve beneath the surface of apparently straightforward issues. Although on a practical level one might wish for closure rather than deconstruction of the issues, wish for solutions rather than paradoxes, as a member of the academic community one has to respect this attempt to read the crisis of higher education as a social text.—
Jean Alexander, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Richardson, John V., Jr. Knowledge-Based Systems for General Reference Work, Applications, Problems, and Progress. San Diego: Academic Pr., 1995. 357p. alk paper, \$50 (ISBN 0-12-588460-5).

Knowledge-based (or expert) systems are computer applications developed to contain expert knowledge about a particular discipline or topic, and are used to solve problems by applying this knowledge according to programmed rules of logic. Geared to librarians with a professional interest in improving reference services as well as to public service administra-

tors who allocate resources, Richardson's book is also designed to be a text for library school instructors who wish to incorporate technology-based solutions into their curricula. The premise of the book is that the thoughtful inclusion of knowledge-based systems (referred to as KBS in the book) into the realm of networked information and on-demand reference service could benefit both library users and staff.

Richardson lays out an ambitious set of objectives. The book attempts to explain basic artificial intelligence concepts, the elements of KBS, limitations and abilities of KBS, knowledge acquisition techniques, knowledge representation methods, current KBS developments, and various implications of KBS adoption. To do all this, the author moves through expert system definitions, feasibility discussions, reference transaction modeling, development of knowledge bases, shell evaluation, discussion of user interface issues (from the view of both developer and users), and reviews of current progress in developing KBS. To provide context, lengthy analysis of the existing paradigms for learning reference work and reference research are presented. Appealing to the broadest possible audience, the book does not focus its discussion of KBS on any particular type of library, user, or need.

Despite its somewhat textbookish nature, this volume offers the academic practitioner a number of valuable tools. It provides a good introduction to KBS, though it is doubtful that a reader finishing the book could then create a simple expert system as suggested by the author. An extremely well-annotated directory and review of extant KBS systems offers an overview of most KBS work to date. An equally well-annotated list of expert system shells should be a valuable, preliminary resource for anyone thinking of developing a KBS system. Librarians seeking a fresh viewpoint for their evaluation and consideration of reference work will find Richardson's systematic view of reference work worth further consideration. Indeed, his thirty-four-plus-element flowchart model for reference work is one of the most intriguing aspects of the book. For those seeking to explore reference work in their research, especially in relation to KBS, Richardson has tucked suggestions for additional research into every chapter.

Readers should be aware of some weaknesses that diminish the work. Its organization is a bit artificial and confusing at times. For example, the first of the book's three sections, "Applications," is not the expected in-depth discussion on incorporating KBS into the library. Instead, it is a set of chapters covering a variety of topics including a lengthy overview of reference training paradigms and an historical review of artificial intelligence/expert systems developments from experiments with the game of chess. Although these help to establish the author's premise, the same point could have been made in less detail. Some topics, however, would benefit from further development. For example, in the chapter "Feasibility," the author pays scant attention to issues of intellectual property ownership. The book also suffers from being overly subdivided. A number of chapters contain four levels of subdivisions (e.g., 4.3.1.1), which can cause the reader to lose track of the overall concept under consideration. Finally, the lack of focus on a particular type of library denies the work a consistent set of examples from which to draw or extrapolate.

The possible appeal of this book to librarians lacking knowledge about KBS or to managers seeking to provide service with increasingly diminished budgets is obvious. Its price will probably mean that the most likely purchasers of the book will be those truly interested in creating their own expert systems, and library school students.—Elizabeth Blakely, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

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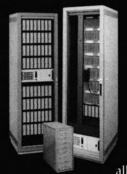
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