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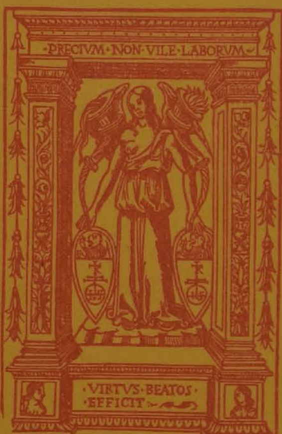

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THE SCOPE OF FACULTY BARGAINING: IMPLICATIONS FOR ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS

Margaret Chaplan and Charles Maxey

Collective bargaining contracts from four-year colleges and universities were examined for patterns in provisions, and for the method of resolution of issues. The types of subjects contained in faculty bargaining agreements are of interest to academic librarians because, if collective bargaining takes place on a campus, there is a strong likelihood that librarians will be included in bargaining units with faculty members. The factors that may determine the scope of bargaining are discussed in the first part of the paper, then an overview of the provisions regarding faculty members is presented, and a third section describes provisions in the contracts applying particularly to academic librarians. This is followed by our conclusions.

Whether or not collective bargaining is an "appropriate" form of employer-employee relations is often debated among professional employees. Many librarians apparently feel that it is. In 1974 about 20 percent of the librarians in the United States were working under the provisions of collective bargaining agreements or were otherwise involved in collective bargaining activities [1, 2, 3]. The same proportion held for academic librarians in institutions ranging from community colleges through universities.

Strong interest in collective bargaining has also been expressed by the faculty members of U.S. colleges and universities, and this interest poses a special problem for librarians in the employ of academic institutions. Faculty groups have elected bargaining representatives on 389 campuses; 154 cases are in four-year colleges and universities [4]. Only in a considerably smaller number, however, have formal collective bargaining agreements actually been signed by the parties. Our examination of forty-eight of the fifty-six actual agreements (in four-year institutions) identified in 1975 suggests a

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strong tendency for academic librarians to be included in bargaining units with the general faculty. Whereas some specialized academic professionals (for example, professors of law) have been granted separate representation, librarians typically have not.

This trend has two implications for academic librarians. The first is that the decision as to whether terms and conditions of employment will be regulated by a collective bargaining relationship will often be made on the basis of a general faculty election. Second, where such general units are created, the special interests of librarians may be in competition, *within the union,* with those of other faculty groups.

It therefore seems important for librarians to understand the implications of the emergence of faculty collective bargaining. What factors influence the inclusion or exclusion of specific issues in the bargaining agreement? What kinds of issues are generally included? How are the issues resolved? These questions are the foci of this paper. The discussion which follows will review factors which influence the range of issues that are subjects of bargaining, it will continue with an overview of the kinds of issues included in faculty bargaining agreements in four-year institutions, and consideration will then be given to contract clauses which specifically relate to the concerns of professional librarians as a unique employee group.

The Scope of Bargaining

A collective bargaining agreement sets forth the conditions of employment mutually agreed upon by employers and employees; but even where collective bargaining is firmly established, not all employment-related issues are decided jointly by the parties. Some remain within the exclusive prerogatives of management; others may be decided at the discretion of the union or association. In addition, not all issues which effectively receive joint consideration by the parties are necessarily written into the collective bargaining agreement itself. Those which are—that is, those issues which are contained in the formal collective bargaining contract—constitute the scope of bargaining as that concept is used in this paper.

Determinants of the Scope of Bargaining

Factors determining the scope of bargaining include external or environmental factors, which act outside the bargaining relationship, factors internal to the relationship, and institutional factors peculiar to colleges and universities. The effect of these factors is to increase or decrease the power of the unions versus management.

A very important external factor is legislation. Private colleges and universities with a gross annual revenue of at least $1 million are subject to federal labor legislation, which imposes on both parties a duty to bargain in good faith "with respect to wages, hours, and other terms and conditions of employment" [5]. These are mandatory subjects of bargaining and must be negotiated if either party proposes them. Other subjects, called "permissive subjects," may be bargained if both parties agree to negotiate them. There are some subjects that are illegal subjects of bargaining.

The phrase, "wages, hours and other terms and conditions of employment," is not as precise as it may sound, and, in general, over time, the scope of bargaining under federal law has broadened to the point where, if desired, almost anything affecting the welfare of an employee can be considered in some way a term or condition of employment.

A variety of state laws regulates labor relations in public colleges and universities.[1] Many of them have taken over the Taft-Hartley Act's phraseology for delineating the scope of bargaining. Some, however, have spelled out the mandatory subjects of bargaining in much greater detail.[2] Matters of policy, which are generally not subjects of bargaining in the private sector, are sometimes subjects of bargaining in the public sector, though not mandatory subjects; the language of a few state laws encourages consultation or meeting and conferring with professional employees on policy matters.[3] Some state laws specifically exclude certain subjects. For example, Hawaii insists that contract provisions be consistent with merit principles [10, sec. 89-9 (d)]. New York excludes pensions;[4] Wisconsin prohibits bargaining on the mission of the agency and civil service policies.[5]

1. New Hampshire and Washington have laws specifically covering higher-education employees. New Hampshire's law for nonacademic employees of the University of New Hampshire requires bargaining on conditions of employment, improvements in personnel policies, changes in classifications and allocations, grievance procedures, and mediation and fact-finding procedures [6]. Washington's law for community-college academic employees states that they shall "meet, confer and negotiate" on proposed "policies relating to, but not limited to, curriculum, textbook selection, in-service training, student teaching programs, personnel, hiring and assignment practices, leaves of absence, salaries and salary schedules, and noninstructional duties" [7].
2. For example, the Iowa law includes: "wages, hours, vacations, insurance, holidays, leaves of absence, shift differentials, overtime compensation, supplemental pay, seniority, transfer procedures, job classifications, health and safety matters, evaluation procedures, procedures for staff reduction, in-service training, and other matters mutually agreed upon [8]. Vermont has a very broad regulation regarding subjects for bargaining. The Vermont law requires bargaining on "all matters relating to the relationship between the employer and employees . . . except those matters which are prescribed or controlled by statute" [9].
3. The Hawaii law encourages consultation on management prerogatives: "The employer shall make every reasonable effort to consult with the exclusive representatives prior to effecting changes in any major policy affecting employee relations" [10, sec. 89-9 (c)]; while in Minnesota, professional employees "have the right to meet and confer" on policy matters [11].
4. Agreements " . . . shall not include any benefits provided by or to be provided by a public retirement system or payments to a fund or insurer to provide an income for retirees, or payment to retirees or their beneficiaries. No such retirement benefits shall be negotiated pursuant to this article, and any benefits so negotiated shall be void" [12].
5. " . . . the employer is prohibited from bargaining on: (a) the mission and goals of state agencies as set forth in the statutes. (b) Policies, practices and procedures of the civil service merit system . . . " [13].

In addition to the provisions of public employee bargaining laws, certain peculiarities of the public sector act to determine the scope of bargaining. Some argue that the principle of sovereignty, which prescribes that decision-making authority delegated from the people to their elected officials should not be shared, prohibits any kind of collective bargaining by public officials as an illegal delegation of power. It is easily seen that this interpretation of the sovereignty principle is not being strictly applied, for collective bargaining with public employees is widespread. However, about half of the state public employee bargaining laws contain provisions stating management rights (that is, functions reserved in whole or in part to the employer) and prerogatives flowing from sovereignty which thus seal off certain subjects from negotiation. These same types of provision often appear in collective bargaining agreements as well.

The merit principle, as embodied in civil service systems, is another characteristic of the public sector. This is not to say that the private sector ignores merit, but only in government is it embodied in legislation and administered by special regulatory bodies. Civil service laws and regulations govern recruiting and placement, grievance procedures, vacations, job classifications, wage and salary administration; in short, a great many of the items that are subjects of collective bargaining. Whether collective bargaining and the civil service system are compatible, or whether bargaining will reduce the activity of civil service systems to routine functions or recruitment, examination, and placement probably will depend on particular circumstances in each state or other political jurisdiction [14].

Interpretation of management rights and civil service provisions in state laws by state public employment relations boards and courts has indicated their hesitancy to compel public management to negotiate on these subjects. Nevertheless, such items continue to be subjects of bargaining.

Besides legislation, the other main external factor that helps determine the scope of bargaining is the nature and affiliation of the organization organization representing the employees. Though competition for membership among the same groups has tended to cause the policies and programs of the employee organizations to converge, historically some organizations have sought to form bargaining units comprising only certain categories of employees, and some issues are of greater importance to one organization than another.

A very important internal factor affecting the scope of bargaining is the composition of the bargaining unit. In general, the broader the unit, or the more categories of employees in it, the less attention will be paid to the demands of specific groups and the more emphasis placed on issues of concern to all members of the unit. The inclusion of more than one level of employee in a single unit—for example, the inclusion of chairmen and department heads and units containing salaried professionals—is prevalent in the public sector.

Most librarians in colleges and universities where collective bargaining is taking place are included in bargaining units with faculty or other professional employees.[6] When this occurs, librarians find themselves but one occupational group of several with a personal and professional interest in the results of the collective bargaining process. In addition, they find themselves represented by organizations which are not professional associations of *librarians,* but which are professional associations of academicians (such as the American Association of University Professors), or educators (such as the National Education Association), or which are first and foremost labor union–type organizations (such as the American Federation of Teachers). It will, therefore, be more difficult for them to attain their own specific goals. Numerically, they will be a minority, and they may have to sacrifice particular demands for the sake of attaining concessions of benefit to all members of the unit. In the few cases where librarians may be in units solely of librarians, they may still be at a disadvantage because the unit is small and may appear not to be crucial to the operation of the institution.

The inclusion of professionals in the bargaining unit may expand the scope of the issues dealt with to include professional goals and standards. This is not to say that professionals are not interested in wages, hours, and working conditions, but these issues are generally accepted as appropriate subjects for bargaining. Controversy, however, has arisen over the desire of professional employees to participate in determining basic policies. They argue that, as professionals, they have the specialized knowledge and expertise needed for setting policy. In practical terms, however, it is often very difficult to distinguish between "policy" and "working conditions."

Issues raised by professionals in collective bargaining can be broadly grouped into two categories, which Archie Kleingartner [14, 15] has labeled "Level I" goals and "Level II" goals.[7] The first-level goals are common to both professional and nonprofessional employess; Level II goals involve professional objectives. In addition to satisfying the Level I goals of improved wages, hours, and working conditions, professional employees often seek Level II goals, that is, goals related to their status as professionals, to professional autonomy, occupational identification, career development, and salaries based on the quality of the service rendered. Unlike self-employed professionals, salaried professionals can only attain these goals through their relationship with their employer. They see collective bargaining as a means of gaining both the authority to determine their own professional development and

6. The trend of National Labor Relations Board unit determinations for private colleges and universities is also toward inclusion of librarians in units of faculty and other professionals.
7. We cannot claim to have interpreted the concept of Level I/Level II goals in precisely the same way that Kleingartner would in this same research context. His ideas, however, serve as the basis of our own thinking, and are, therefore, acknowledged [14, 15].

the nature, amount, and quality of service provided to clients. In some cases Level II goals may be just as important for professionals as Level I goals (though in terms of dollar cost to the employer, Level II goals frequently are cheaper), and efforts to gain them may come into direct conflict with the employer's goals and authority.

Institutional factors peculiar to colleges and universities that affect the scope of bargaining include the policies of the faculty or professional organization touched on previously, the distribution of decision-making authority among various levels of the administration, the nature and extent of prior faculty decision making, and the extent to which individual bargaining takes place [16].

The administrative level at which decisions are made is especially important in statewide, multicampus university systems. Basically, one cannot bargain over an issue with someone who does not have the authority to make the final decision on the issue. In a statewide system, decisions made at the highest level cannot easily be affected by bargaining at the individual college or university level. The statewide authority will also tend to seek uniformity in employee-relations practices throughout the system, and this may not suit the situation on particular campuses.

If the faculty, through its governance mechanisms, has made decisions in the past on various issues, it will want to continue to do so under collective bargaining or to attempt to incorporate existing procedures into the contract.

Individual bargaining on the part of "superstar" faculty members may occur informally and can operate parallel to collective bargaining. Because of a particular faculty member's prestige or reknown and the resulting desire of the institution to retain his or her services, the faculty member may be able to bargain directly with the administration for special consideration, bypassing the faculty organization. In such a situation collective bargaining sets only faculty minima. Individual bargaining perhaps presents greater problems for the employee organization than for the employer, but there is little evidence to indicate how extensive the practice is.

The scope of bargaining is an important part of the bargaining relationship; first, because it defines the areas of joint decision making and, thereby, manifests a redistribution of authority; second, because the decisions made affect the functioning of the organization and its ability to carry out its mission; and third, because the continuing trend toward proliferation of subjects for bargaining tends to restrict management prerogatives. On the other hand, restricting the scope of bargaining through legislation or some other means may cause the employee organization to utilize political pressure to gain the benefits denied it in bargaining.

While it is possible, for the purpose of analysis, to discuss each of the factors determining the scope of bargaining separately, in practice all of them are operating simultaneously and with influence varying from place to place and from time to time. Collective bargaining agreements themselves provide one of the best formal sources for studying how these factors have operated and what subjects have been bargained about.

One of the notable features of faculty bargaining, at least at this early stage of development, is that considerable variation exists as to the kinds of issues discussed in any specific institution and also as to the way in which these issues are resolved. The diversity of determining factors we have referred to above suggests that the results of faculty bargaining on any single campus may differ considerably from those on another. Nevertheless, it is possible to observe some pattern of results across institutions.

In the following pages we will provide a picture of the kinds of results or outputs faculty bargaining has produced in a sample of four-year colleges and universities. We will discuss these results first in terms of a general overview of the provisions of the bargaining agreements, and then we will review specific provisions directly related to academic librarians.

Sample

We attempted to obtain a copy of all current collective bargaining agreements in four-year colleges and universities [17, 18, 19]. By reading and analyzing each agreement, we hoped to construct a picture of the formal scope of bargaining on college campuses. We received forty-eight collective bargaining agreements from forty-six institutions;[8] this represents about 80 percent of the actual number of agreements currently in effect.[9] Some of the agreements, such as those for the Pennsylvania state colleges, cover several institutions. Others, the majority, are for single institutions.

Included in our sample are twenty colleges or college systems, twenty universities or university systems, and eight technical institutes or systems including both colleges and universities. Of the institutions represented in the sample, twenty-five are public, twenty-three are private. Representation agents include twenty-two American Association of University Professors (AAUP) chapters, eleven American Federation of Teacher (AFT) locals, nine National Education Association (NEA) groups, two AFT-NEA coalitions, and three independents. Our sample, therefore, includes a fairly representative cross section of types of institutions and of the various organizations representing faculty.

A preliminary analysis of the data collected from the contracts was con-

8. One of the forty-six institutions, Long Island University, has a separate bargaining unit on each of its three campuses. Thus, while the number of institutions providing agreements was forty-six, the actual number of separate agreements is forty-eight.

9. All agreements used in the analysis were in effect as of April 1975.

ducted to determine the extent of participation by librarians and to measure certain other basic features of the agreements. This analysis indicated that librarians are included in 70.8 percent of the current faculty bargaining agreements. Although a few separate library bargaining units currently exist in U.S. colleges and universities, our data indicate that, if a faculty union negotiates with the school administration, the likelihood is that professional librarians will be included in the faculty bargaining unit.

An additional step in the analysis was taken to see if the probability of librarians being included in the faculty unit was affected by the bargaining agent, the type of institution (college or university), or the ownership of the institution (public or private). No statistically significant differences were found in the rates of representation of librarians based on these variables.[10]

The data were also reviewed to determine the proportion of agreements under which academic department chairmen and library heads and directors were included in the same bargaining units as faculty members. In the case of department chairmen, there is almost an even split; chairmen are excluded from the unit in 41.7 percent of the cases, but included in 58.3 percent of the agreements. Library directors, however, are most generally excluded from the bargaining units. In 75 percent of the agreements surveyed, the library director is not in the unit. They are expressly included in 10.4 percent of the cases; in 14.6 percent the contract language is ambiguous.

The future that collective bargaining may hold for librarians is, in part, dependent on the structure of bargaining units. The clearly emerging trends are (1) that librarians will be included in general faculty units where they exist, but (2) that library directors will not. Whether librarians will have an effective minority voice in such units and whether the inclusion of professional staff but the exclusion of chief administrators will damage intralibrary relations remains to be seen.

Method of Analysis

One question which frequently arises upon the introduction of faculty bargaining relates to the extent to which the union or association will act as the faculty spokesman for both nonprofessional and professional issues. Many faculty members feel that some kinds of issues, such as those involving personnel decisions or educational policy, are not appropriate for union control. Some have expressed fear that the introduction of faculty bargaining will displace previously existing systems of faculty representation in decision-making processes.

Our analysis focuses on several distinct kinds of issues and on the way in which these issues are resolved at the bargaining table. Earlier, we mentioned

10. Unless otherwise noted, tests of statistical significance were derived from computation of χ^2 statistics (χ^2 values were computed using [20]).

a rough method of classifying bargaining issues that has been introduced into discussions of faculty bargaining by Kleingartner [14, 15]. Kleingartner's distinction between Level I issues (those traditionally included in collective bargaining contracts) and Level II issues (those which pertain to the particular professional interests of some employee groups) will be useful to us here. In our analysis, we have identified five categories of potential bargaining issues. Two of these, which we have termed "economic" issues and "working-condition" issues, are within the meaning of Level I issues; three of our categories, "personnel" issues, "educational policy" issues, and "general governance" issues, are considered to be Level II issues.[11] For our analysis we selected five specific subissues for each of the five categories. For example, in the case of economic issues, we examined the contracts for clauses related to a minimum-salary schedule, cost-of-living provisions, merit-raise provisions, and provisions for health insurance and pension programs (see tables 1 and 2).

Having identified the specific subissues with which we would deal, we were interested in determining how often they appeared in the agreements, how they were resolved, and the nature of union involvement in institutional decision making concerning them. In general, we drew a distinction between situations in which the union or association and the administration resolved issues in a substantive way at the bargaining table and situations in which the contract or agreement simply specified a process by which actual decisions would be made at a later time. In the second kind of outcome, what we will call a "process" outcome, the union acts as a guarantor of a decision-making process which may involve some other formal organization (such as a senate or a committee) actually to represent faculty interests.

Level I Issues

Among Level I issues selected for study, those concerning money (salary and benefits) are usually included in more agreements than are those related to working conditions. While provisions for merit raises appear in only a minority of agreements and specific cost-of-living increments are even less frequent, such basic items as the provision of a salary schedule which provides minimum annual compensation on the basis of rank, health-insurance programs, and pension programs appear in most agreements. The most frequent mode of issue resolution is that of substantive settlement at the bargaining table; only two economic items involved process provisions—salary minima and merit raises.

11. Some readers may be troubled by the inclusion of personnel issues in the Level II category on the basis that many unions of nonprofessional employees express an obvious and intense interest in negotiating matters of personnel policy. The classification here, however, is made on the grounds that the personnel issues typically of concern to professionals (as distinct from nonprofessionals) refer to *autonomy* in the *practice of the profession* as opposed to referring to job security, etc.

The working-condition items selected for inclusion in the analysis are of the type which are generally not considered fringe benefits, although clearly they may involve direct costs to the employer. A minority of agreements have stipulations about the amount of office space to be provided for faculty members and other staff and the amount of secretarial and clerical services to be made available to individual staff members or academic units. A somewhat larger minority of agreements (about one-third) include statements of policy regarding outside employment of staff and have provisions regarding class size. A large majority have provisions regarding normal or maximum workloads. Issues which relate most closely to professional practice (class size and workload) are most frequently resolved by using postnegotiation-decision making processes.

These data suggest that unions or associations *do* tend to act as the principal faculty spokesman on wage and benefit issues. With the exceptions noted above, these appear frequently in agreements and tend to be settled at the bargaining table in a substantive way by the union or association and the administration. Working-condition issues, in general, appear less frequently and exhibit a somewhat greater use of postnegotiation processes, particularly when they are closely related to the principal activities of the profession.

TABLE 1

FREQUENCY OF PROVISION IN FACULTY BARGAINING AGREEMENTS FOR LEVEL I ISSUES, BY TYPE OF PROVISION
(N = 48)

	PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENTS WITH:			
ISSUES	No Provision	Substantive Provision	Process Provision	Mixed
Ecomomic:				
Salary minima	10.4	66.7	2.1	20.8
Cost of living	91.7	8.3	. . .	. . .
Merit raise	62.5	8.4	22.9	6.3
Health insurance	8.3	91.7	. . .	. . .
Pension program	22.9	77.1	. . .	. . .
Working conditions:				
Office space	70.8	18.8	6.3	5.2
Other employment	62.5	29.2	6.3	2.1
Secretarial assistance	81.3	16.7	. . .	2.1
Class size	66.7	12.5	18.8	2.1
Workload	20.8	52.1	10.4	16.7

Level II Issues

Level II bargaining issues relate more closely to professional standards and to the voice which the professional employees of the college or university have concerning the objectives and delivery of professional services. Level II issues may become the most controversial subjects of collective bargaining, because many professionals and many institutional administrators feel they are not appropriate issues for union involvement. Nevertheless, our analysis of existing faculty bargaining agreements indicates that issues of this kind have been firmly established as part of the formal scope of faculty bargaining.

Each of the five personnel issues selected for analysis is provided for in more than one-half of the agreements. Questions of employee evaluation and retrenchment appear least often, but still appear in about 60 percent of the agreements. Policies and procedures related to hiring of professional staff and

TABLE 2

FREQUENCY OF PROVISION IN FACULTY BARGAINING AGREEMENTS FOR LEVEL II ISSUES, BY TYPE OF PROVISION
(N = 48)

	PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENTS WITH·			
ISSUES	No Provision	Substantive Provision	Process Provision	Mixed
Personnel:				
Initial appointment	29.2	8.3	56.3	6.3
Promotion	16.7	4.2	70.8	8.4
Tenure	18.8	. . .	72.9	8.4
Evaluation	41.7	6.3	50.0	2.1
Reduction in Force	41.7	10.4	41.7	6.3
Educational policy:				
Academic calendar	52.1	14.6	27.1	6.3
Admission requirements	68.8	. . .	29.2	2.1
Graduation requirements	62.5	. . .	35.4	2.1
Curriculum content	52.1	. . .	45.8	2.1
Academic freedom	25.0	70.8	2.1	2.1
General governance:				
Management rights	25.0	75.0	. . .	. . .
Faculty role	25.0	50.0	8.3	16.7
Budget planning	68.8	. . .	31.3	. . .
Long-range planning	72.9	. . .	27.1	. . .
Administrator selection	43.8	. . .	56.3	. . .

faculty, to their promotion, and to the granting of tenure appear in 70 percent of the agreements or more.

The nature of the contract provisions for personnel issues differs markedly from those set out for most economic and working condition items; process provisions clearly predominate. One possible interpretation of these data is that in most cases the collective bargaining agreements themselves are being used as vehicles to codify or institutionalize processes and policies related to personnel matters. Faculty bargaining may not necessarily mean a new structure of the personnel system; it may mean the continuing effect of preexisting policies under the protection of the provisions of the bargaining agreement.[12]

The specific issues we have selected for inclusion in the educational policy category may not have any particular importance for academic librarians who are not engaged in teaching or research. Their import, however, lies in the indication they provide of how deeply the faculty union or association is engaged in bargaining issues which have traditionally been in the domain of faculty senates or similar representational bodies. As the data in table 2 indicate, educational policy issues are not included in a majority of agreements; nevertheless, some agreements do contain such provisions. The predominance of process provisions in agreements which include these issues indicates that faculty unions and associations are mainly negotiating the mechanisms by which a number of educational policies are determined for the institutions involved.

Our discussion of provisions related to the structure of institutional governance should be prefaced by the reminder that collective bargaining is, in itself, a modification of modes of traditional university and college governance. Even if union or association bargaining is limited to those issues relating to such traditional union objectives as wages and conditions of employment, the formal involvement of the union or bargaining agent as a third major actor in institutional decision making represents a departure from the administration-senate form. Our analysis of agreements indicates that defining the relative rights and privileges of the administration and the faculty is a common feature of bargaining agreements. Statements of management rights appear in 75.0 percent of the contracts. Discussion of the role of the faculty in governance also appears in three-quarters of the agreements, although in some cases final disposition of the questions raised is assigned to a postnegotiation decision-making process. Provision is also sometimes made for faculty involvement in budget planning and long-range institutional planning in a minority of agreements. A most interesting type of provision, which appears in 56.3 percent of the agreements, involves the faculty and

12. A subsequent analysis of the postnegotiation decision processes which were provided for in the agreements indicated that a committee elected or appointed from the general faculty (that is, whose membership was independent of union membership) to represent faculty interests was the most frequent kind of participation.

staff in the selection and appointment of institutional administrators, either at the campus, school, or department level. Illustrations given below indicate instances in which the appointment of a library director requires the advice and consent of the professional library staff.

To summarize briefly our discussion so far: Level I items are most likely to be handled in traditional trade union bargaining fashion; that is, they are likely to be resolved in a substantive way between the union and the administration at the bargaining table. Level II items, with the exceptions noted above, are more likely to be handled by using the bargaining agreement to establish or protect an ongoing process of faculty involvement in decision making which may or may not involve the union or association.

Provisions for Librarians

Thus far we have attempted to present an overview of the results of faculty bargaining in four-year institutions. Since the trend is for inclusion of professional librarians in general faculty bargaining units, these results should be of interest to many academic librarians. We now turn to a discussion of how particular institutions have handled what we have called Level I and Level II goals of librarians in their agreements. Unlike the more general data presented in the preceding section, we will deal here, not with overall tendencies or trends, but with specific examples of contract provisions from specific institutions. It should be noted that the contract provisions discussed in previous sections of this paper apply to all persons in the bargaining unit, including librarians. The following discussion considers only those clauses from the contracts which refer specifically to the Level I and Level II goals of academic librarians.

Level I Issues

Referring to our classification of the five kinds of potential bargaining issues, we do not have any specific clauses in the agreements in our sample for librarians in the Level I category of economic issues. There are, however, two working-condition items—work week and ten-month appointment.

Work week.—The question of the work week for professional librarians is one which may surface at the bargaining table. The agreement between Pratt Institute and the AFT affiliate provides a thirty-five-hour work week when classes are in session and a thirty-hour work week when they are not. The Temple University agreement provides a basic thirty-five-hour week with compensatory time at time and a half for additional time worked weekends. Under the City University of New York agreement, the normal work week for librarians is thirty-five hours; overtime pay is at a rate of 60 percent that paid to teaching faculty of the same rank.

Ten-month appointment.—Librarians in New Jersey state colleges may petition for a change from twelve- to ten-month appointments. Presumably, pay would be reduced accordingly. Employees granted such an appointment are considered to be "off the payroll" between July 1 and September 1. At Regis College librarians remain on twelve-month appointment (with one month off) but receive one-eleventh additional salary based on the academic salary schedule.

Level II Issues

In the first category of Level II issues, personnel issues, the agreements contain provisions regarding professional leave, faculty status, and evaluation and promotion.

Professional leave.—The agreement negotiated between Hofstra University (Hempstead, N.Y.) and the AAUP provides an increase in the number of professional leave days for librarians, with a graduated rise over the three-year period of the agreement. The relevant clause reads: "To encourage individual professional development, the library faculty shall receive two (2) additional paid days off in 1973–1974, three (3) additional paid days off in 1974–1975 and four (4) additional paid days off in 1975–1976" [21, p. 7]. (It is not clear from the agreement how many days were provided for professional leave prior to the contract's negotiation.) At Oakland University (Rochester, Mich.), professional development periods of up to sixteen weeks are available. Up to six such periods are available each year; they are awarded by the University Library Council.

Faculty status.—The issue of faculty status for librarians is clearly important. It also presents a number of related questions when it becomes an issue at the bargaining table. At one institution the bargaining agreement was used to establish a procedure by which the question of whether faculty status should be granted to librarians could be resolved. The agreement between Lincoln University and the Lincoln University chapter of the AAUP provides that "the Committee on Promotions, Tenure, and Severance shall investigate the professional qualifications of the librarians. The Committee shall recommend to the President for faculty rank to commence in the 1974–1975 academic year those librarians deemed qualified . . ." [22, p. 5]. Thus, the agreement suggests that some librarians will be accorded faculty status and others will not. The fact that at least some will, however, raised questions regarding the work year, salary, and eligibility for sabbaticals, etc. At Lincoln these issues were resolved by providing in the agreement that librarians should continue to work a twelve-month year with one month summer vacation; and an additional month's vacation could be taken *without* pay. No change was made in the work week. Librarians accorded faculty status under the agreement would accrue credit toward tenure and sabbatical leave, but only as of the effective date of appointment; no provision was made for retroactivity. The agreement between Ashland College and the local AAUP chapter established a special committee to study the question of whether and to what degree policies affecting teaching and research faculty should be extended to librarians.

Evaluation and promotion.—For librarians having faculty status, policies and procedures governing evaluation and consideration for promotion and tenure are extremely important. In the agreement negotiated between Rider College and that college's AAUP chapter, provision is made for an elaborate system of evaluation and review. A tenure committee at the library level (composed of the librarian, the vice-president for academic affairs, and three professional librarians), reviews each professional librarian and makes tenure recommendations to a college committee. Final decisions on promotion and tenure are made by the vice-president for academic affairs. An appeals procedure is provided. Requirements for tenure, also provided in the agreement, include a master's degree in library science. At Temple University, the agreement negotiated with the local AAUP chapter also provides an elaborate system under which evaluation and promotion decisions are made. Provision is included for a peer-committee evaluation, but final decisions rest with the library director, who is not a bargaining-unit member. Educational policy issues mentioned in the agreements deal with acquisitions, censorship, and budget.

Acquisitions, censorship, and budget.—Clearly, most references to professional librarians in faculty bargaining agreements pertain to the professional interests of the librarians themselves; that is, they are usually related to issues of status, personnel policies, compensation, etc. In a few agreements, however, provisions are found which affect other areas of professional interest, such as the quality of client services.

The agreement between the state of New Jersey and the state colleges affiliate of the AFT includes the following provision: "There shall be no abridgement of access to library collections for reasons of content or suitability. This paragraph shall not be construed to interefere with sound principles of library management, such as the protection of rare or valuable materials. Library acquisitions will be made on the basis of educational judgment and budgetary limitations and shall remain free of censorship" [23, p. 14]. The agreement between Franklin Pierce College and its AFT affiliated faculty federation contains a second illustration. Article VII of their agreement says: "1. There shall be no censorship of the Library collection. 2. The College shall grant to the Director of Library Resources $14,000.00 for library acquisitions in addition to the current library operating budget for the academic year 1974/1975" [24, p. 5]. Administrator selection and recall is an example of an item from the third category of Level II issues, general governance.

Administrator selection and recall.—Some agreements provide for the participation of librarians in the selection of library directors and for recall of administrators with whom the librarians are dissatisfied. One example is found in the agreement negotiated between Worcester State College (Mass.) and its AFT local. A general provision in the contract for election of departmental chairmen also applies to the Learning Resource Center. Under the procedure set down, the librarians, as a committee of the whole, may nominate three persons to fill a vacancy in the directorship. The college president must appoint one of the three, or ask for repetition of the nomination procedure until he can select a candidate. By a vote of two-thirds of the Learning Resource Center's professional staff, a vacancy can be declared in the position of director; a new election must then be called by the president.

Provisions such as these are clearly the exception rather than the rule. They illustrate, however, the use that some faculty unions or associations have made of collective bargaining on behalf of the professional interests of academic librarians. Collective bargaining may be a means not only for improving the employment situation of individuals, but also for providing a binding understanding between the college or university and its professional employees as to professional autonomy and the maintenance of client-oriented library service.

Conclusion

This discussion has attempted to analyze patterns in what is being bargained about in college and university faculty negotiations, in the likelihood of the inclusion or exclusion of certain provisions in contracts, and in the method of resolution of issues. We have also tried to look beyond the outcomes to see what has caused them to be what they are, though not all of the possible determinants have been related directly to the contents of the agreements that were examined. The analysis suggests that, in any particular situation, a multitude of variables is operating to produce the outcomes written into the agreements. Our analysis seems also to contradict the notion that employee organizations will deal with economic issues, and faculty senates will handle academic policymaking.

Academic librarians may find here an indication of some of the goals their unionized colleagues have achieved. Should they become part of a bargaining relationship, they may also see herein what forms their participation in organizational decision making may take. The consequences of being included in bargaining units with teaching faculty or other professional employees may also be apparent.

Based on what we have reported above, and broadly stated, academic librarians' ability to achieve their own professional goals will depend on the strength of the employee organization representing the teaching faculty and on the understanding and respect that the teaching faculty has for the problems and concerns of academic librarians.

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THE BODLEIAN CATALOGS OF 1674 AND 1738: AN EXAMINATION IN THE LIGHT OF MODERN CATALOGING THEORY[1]

Carolyn O. Frost

The Bodleian catalogs of 1674 and 1738 had a significant influence upon cataloging practice in their own day and subsequently. The preface to the 1674 catalog and the structure of both catalogs show an awareness of an important question now being raised in modern cataloging theory: the distinction between "book" and "work." The catalogs were also able to fulfill functions later enunciated in the Paris Principles of 1961. Through a complex system of cross-references and ascriptive notes, the catalogs showed themselves attentive to the needs of scholars of the time. We learn much of the way in which decisions were made from a detailed journal kept by a compiler of the 1738 catalog.

The first two printed catalogs of the Bodleian Library have secured a special place in the history of cataloging. The 1605 catalog is the first general catalog to be printed in Europe, and that of 1620 is the first alphabetical author-title catalog. After 1620, it becomes more difficult to pinpoint features in the Bodleian catalogs which are distinctively innovative. The third, printed in 1674, is renowned primarily for its preface, which contained the first detailed statement of cataloging guidelines, but the catalog itself has not received great attention in current discussions of cataloging; even less recognition is given to its successors of 1738 and 1843. Nevertheless, in their own time, the catalogs of 1674 and 1738 particularly exercised a considerable influence on cataloging practice in libraries in England, Switzerland, Germany, and Italy [1, pp. 297–306]. At Harvard and other libraries in colonial America, the Bodleian catalogs were a predominant influence [2, pp. 2, 3, 11]. A large printing of the 1674 and 1738 catalogs made possible their wide distribution, and they often served as models or ready-made substitutes elsewhere. A closer look at these two neglected Bodleian catalogs can increase our knowledge of early cataloging practice and give some indication of the kinds of bibliographic assistance provided to scholars at the time they were published.

Certain fundamental concepts in modern cataloging theory can be used as a framework from which to consider earlier catalogs. While it

1. I wish to thank Kenneth Northcott for his critical reading of the manuscript and assistance with the Latin translation. I am also indebted to Ralph Franklin, whose teaching generated my interest in this topic and provided the framework for its study.

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would be difficult to say that the Bodleian catalogs of 1674 and 1738 contain an explicit recognition of principles expressed in the twentieth century, a study of the preface of the 1674 catalog does suggest concern for some of the matters implicit in modern principles. The construction of both catalogs is often compatible with these principles, although the means by which the principles are carried out are at times markedly different from modern practice.

The Bodleian Printed Catalogs

The printed catalogs of the Bodleian Library precede most of the developments which mark the beginnings of modern cataloging theory and thus provide examples of early catalogs at a time in cataloging history when acceptable practice rather than the formulation of principle was being attempted.

The library, which opened its doors to students in 1602, was founded by Sir Thomas Bodley, who kept up an extensive correspondence with the librarian, Thomas James, while the latter was compiling the library's catalogs [3]. Manuscript versions were prepared in 1602 and 1603–4, and the printed catalog was issued one year later [4]. This catalog reflected the organization of the library's books and manuscripts. Entries were divided first according to the divisions ("faculties") of the university—Arts, Theology, Medicine, and Law. These four divisions were further subdivided by volume size, and then alphabetically by author's name for works of known authorship; pseudonymous and anonymous works were entered under the key words of their titles. An index at the back gathered all entry words into one sequence.[2]

James's next printed catalog, that of 1620 [6], provides the most significant innovation yet in Bodleian tradition: the arrangement of a library catalog by alphabetical sequence of authors' surnames rather than by subject. A step in this direction had been taken in the 1603–4 manuscript catalog, which was arranged in a rough alphabetical order subdivided according to the faculties. The 1620 catalog had been preceded by an unprinted version in 1613, which had been completed in the year of Bodley's death. Bodley, an advocate of systematic organization by subject, had exercised considerable control over the making of the first catalog. In the preface to the 1620 catalog, James defends his departure from the precedent of the 1605 catalog, pointing out that a single alphabetical sequence has the advantage of grouping together works by the same author. The catalog's construction suggests an implicit distinction between the distribution of the physical volumes in the actual library and the organization of the catalog. James did not eschew the idea of

2. This account of the early Bodleian catalogs is based on the extensive study done by Wheeler [5].

locating books according to subject, but felt that such access was best achieved for different subjects through separate catalogs, which he continued to prepare for the entire collection even after poor health forced him to retire in 1620. These extensive and intricately constructed bibliographic tools employed a subject classification far more complex and sophisticated than Bodley's four divisions by faculty.

The catalogs of 1674 [7] and 1738 [8] can be considered almost as one unit, since the 1738 catalog represents an extension and refinement of the practices introduced in 1674. Thomas Hyde, Bodley's Librarian from 1665 to 1701, compiled the catalog published in 1674 and showed himself defensive of and sensitive to the delay that had occurred in its production. He devoted no small part of his preface to explaining why the catalog had taken nine years to complete. It had been an immense labor, he said, and he lauded his own persistence in carrying out the task of compilation in the face of a variety of obstacles [7, p. 1].[3] Thomas Hearne, who worked on the 1738 catalog and was one of Hyde's detractors, claimed that the actual work of examining the volumes and writing out the 1674 catalog was done not by Hyde but by Emmanuel Prichard, the janitor,[4] and that Hyde "did not do much in the work besides writing the dedication and the preface" [9, p. 140]. Even if this is true, Hyde should nevertheless be credited with recognizing the problems and stating the principles underlying the construction of the catalog entries. Some of the principles expressed reflect practices already in use in the two earlier catalogs of 1605 and 1620, although Hyde could not resist taking a few snipes at his predecessor [7, p. ii]. The 1674 catalog is a large folio volume, more extensive and complex than the 1620 quarto, and introduced a number of improvements some of which are mentioned in the preface, some of which are not.

Prichard, the indefatigable janitor, kept up an interleaved copy of the 1674 catalog, and around the year 1686 prepared an appendix of new material for it [10, p. 85]. Soon after his election to the post of Bodley's Librarian in 1701, John Hudson assigned his assistant, Thomas Hearne, the task of making corrections and additions to the catalog. Hearne hoped to issue these changes as his own appendix to Hyde's catalog [11, vol. 6, p. 8] but the work, which was continued by several others, eventually resulted in the two folio volumes of the 1738 catalog. The handsome format of the catalog is almost exactly that of the 1674 version. The development of an elaborate system of cross-references and ascriptive notes, innovations of the 1674 catalog, is even more noticeable in the new version. Robert Fysher, who was Librarian at the time and had transcribed the catalog for the press, reprinted Hyde's preface and added a brief preface of his own.

3. [7, p. i] The preface is written in Latin and I have therefore paraphrased those sections which I use for my argument. There is no pagination for the preface; the page numbers given are my own.
4. Probably more akin to a library assistant.

Three clergymen were assigned different sections in the preparation of the next catalog, which appeared in 1843, though work had begun on it thirty years earlier. A supplement was added in 1851, bringing the completed work to four folio volumes [12]. In format and structure, some changes were made from previous editions; cross-references are fewer and more limited in function, and authors' names are listed with surname first. This catalog, which is mentioned here for the sake of completeness and is not further considered, did not enjoy as high a reputation as the earlier Bodleian catalogs. No further printed catalogs were issued. The decline of the Bodleian in cataloging history occurred roughly at the time when the cataloging policies of the British Museum and of its energetic and controversial director, Antony Panizzi, were to make cataloging a subject of public debate at hearings of a Royal Commission [13] and to usher in the beginning of modern cataloging theory.

Method of Examination

With a view to ascertaining general cataloging method at a time when the formulation of principles was often no more than a documentation of particular practices, this paper will make use of modern cataloging theory, as reflected in the *Statement of Principles* adopted at the International Conference on Cataloguing Principles at Paris in 1961 (the Paris Principles). Of particular interest is the *Statement*'s view of the functions of the catalog [14, p. xiii]. One must be cautious in applying modern theory to catalogs of an earlier period. Students of cataloging history have been aware of this. "We must take care not to approach catalogues belonging to past centuries with the principles of modern cataloguing theory," Verona has said, indicating that, "at the time when [old printed] catalogues were compiled, there did not yet exist any theory of cataloguing . . ." [15, p. 23].[5] I do not, of course, suggest that the compilers of the early Bodleian catalogs went about their work under the guidance of a clearly formulated theory of cataloging based on principles similar to modern ones. Rather, it seems to me that Thomas Hyde's statement of his objectives in compiling his 1674 catalog as expressed in its preface and the patterns of practice evident in both of the Bodleian catalogs of 1674 and 1738 often presage modern practices and objectives for which a theoretical basis has been formulated. Discussions of Hyde's 1674 preface frequently focus on the most obvious points of his cataloging "code," but one important aspect of the preface appears to have been overlooked: he goes beyond the mere provision of a list of rules and provides us with a rationale which shows the purpose of the rules and how the rules are intended to assist the reader. This paper will indicate,

5. This comment occurs in a discussion of corporate entries, a concept more peculiarly modern than those to be treated in this paper.

by means of example, bibliographic patterns in the two catalogs and the guidelines underlying their construction. It will be seen that Hyde's stated objectives and his cataloging practices produced a catalog which in many respects conforms to the principles expressed by the cataloging theorists Charles Cutter in 1876 [16, p. 10], Seymour Lubetzky in 1960 [17, p. ix], and the formulators of the Paris Principles in 1961.

The Finding Function of the Catalog

The functions of the catalog as formulated by the Paris Principles are indicated in the statement: "The catalogue should be an efficient instrument for ascertaining whether the library contains a particular book specified by (a) its author and title, *or* (b) if the author is not named in the book, its title alone, *or* (c) if author and title are inappropriate or insufficient for identification, a suitable substitute for the title . . . [14, p. xiii]."

The catalog's role as a finding device—that is, one which ascertains whether the library has a particular book already known to the reader[6]—was well established by the time of the Bodleian catalogs of 1674 and 1738. James's manuscript catalog of 1613, with its entries ordered alphabetically by author's name, had begun a development which facilitated the finding function to a considerable degree. The alphabetical index of authors' names in the 1605 catalog can be considered as a precursor of this development. However, in the Bodleian catalogs of 1674 and 1738 the two bibliographic elements, author and title, which uniquely identify a particular book, did not receive the same emphasis. Only authors' names are identified precisely, titles are not.

In the catalogs for 1674 and 1738, access points for authors' names are provided by entry headings and by cross-references. As in the 1620 catalog, both catalogs have a single alphabetical listing and authors appear in the sequence according to surname, unless the person is better known by a forename. The surname is not entered first in the heading, but it is the element which determines the place in the alphabetical sequence. It is printed in capital letters if it appears in the alphabetical sequence, and in italics if it is referred to in a cross-reference; for example:

> Claude FRANCIS
> FRANCISCUS Cremensis
> FRANCISCUS Ferrariensis. v. Th. *Aquinas.*

The vogue of latinizing names, the use of pseudonyms, and the lack of orthographical standardization all contributed to problems of identifying an author's name. The 1620 catalog had introduced cross-references

6. Cutter [16, p. 10] and Lubetzky [17, p. ix] formulated essentially the same objectives.

from one form of name to the form chosen for the main entry; for example, from Io. *Amatus* to Iean *Aimes,* and Alex. *Aphrodiseus* to *Alexander,* and from known pseudonyms to the real name, for example, from *Felinus* to Martinus *Bucerus.* The code of rules given in Hyde's 1674 preface notes the provision of cross-references for pseudonyms and for initials [7, p. iii]. Thus the reader is able to locate authors writing under assumed names or under initials, as well as those whose names appear with a less familiar spelling, for example, Philotheus PHYSIOLOGUS, i.e. Tho. *Tryon,* q. vid.; W.O. i.e. Will. *Oughtred,* q. vid.; SIMONDS. v. *Symonds.*

A further refinement of identification is achieved by the use of descriptive title to distinguish authors with the same name:

> John SMITH, Fellow of St John's Coll. Oxon and afterwards Minister at Reading.
> John SMITH, sometime Fellow of St John's in Oxford, afterwards Minister of Clavering in Essex.
> John SMITH, Captain.
> John SMITH, M.D. formerly of Brazen-Nose Coll. Oxon.
> John SMITH, Rector of St Marie's in Colchester.
> John SMITH, Philomath.
>
> [1738][7]

This practice and the provision of a number of access points for names at which entries may be found imply the recognition that a catalog has a finding function for authors' names.

Bibliographic identification by title, however, was consistently accorded a lower priority in these Bodleian catalogs. Titles are transcribed with considerable paraphrasing and abbreviation; description, rather than transcription, is very often the case. Some titles, however, are unaccountably represented without regard to economy of space:

> IRELAND.
> Strange and terrible News from Ireland, or a full and true relation of a Maid at Dublin, who, being charged with a thing, solemnly wished the Devil might burn her, if she had it, which happened accordingly. – – – – 4° E. 6. *Jur.*
>
> [1738]

When possible, a short paraphrase relates a title to a preceding title or heading:

> Simon BIRCKBECK.
> The Protestant's Evidence, shewing, That for fifteen hundred Years next after Christ, the Weighty points of Religion

7. This is only a partial listing of the John Smiths. To facilitate illustration, English examples have been preferred throughout this paper, although English works constitute a minority. Citations are frequently made from the 1738 catalog, which, though in all essentials the same as the 1674 catalog, contains more English language titles.

have by God's Church been held and taught as the Church of England now doth. *Lond.* 1634 . . .
The Same———shewing, That for sixteen hundred Years——— &c. *Lond.* 1657 . . .[8]

TOLERATION
Considerations moving toward a Toleration, &c. *Lond.* 1685 . . .
Answer to the same. *Ibid.*

Titles are sometimes augmented or actually supplied:

BIBLIA SACRA . . . ANGLICANAE.
[The Byble, but the Tit. is absent] In the Last Leaf— The Ende *of the Newe Testament and of the whole Byble fynished in November.* Anno m.c.c.c.c.c.x.l.i. . . .
[1738]

Titles in Hebrew are given in the original, with a Latin translation.

Though less precise than author identification, titles are expressed with sufficient clarity to allow identification if combined with the author's name. However, if the author is not known, title alone does not serve as a reliable means of identification, since anonymous works are usually entered not by their full title but under key words in the title:

Man in the MOON.
A Letter from the Man in the Moon to Mr Anodyne Necklace . . .

BREASTS.
Of naked Breasts and Shoulders, translated by Edw. Cooke, with a Preface by Mr Baxter . . .
[1738]

This system allows a number of titles with the same key word to be grouped together under a single heading which can then serve as a substitute subject heading; in addition, the heading may have cross-references to authors of other titles with the same key word. James in the 1620 catalog generally, but not invariably, entered anonymous titles under the first main word; thus, "The Mirrour of policie" occurs under the heading "Mirrour," but "The summe of the Conference" is under "Conference." Hyde explained in the 1674 catalog that the entry of anonymous works would be primarily "sub Titulo subjectae Materiae" [7, p. iii]. Thus, "A Warning for Tabacconists against the pernicious use of Tabacco" is entered by James under "Warning," and by Hyde under "Tabacco."

8. In this paper ". . ." indicates that the entry or heading is not cited in its entirety; other punctuation, italics, and spelling are as in the catalogs.

Works may also be found under form headings and corporate entries:[9]

LETTERS.
Five Love-Letters from a Nun to a Cavalier . . .
A Letter from Some-body, in answer to No-bodies Letter, in Vindication of Some-body . . .

OXONIUM . . .
Literae D. THOMAE BODLEIO missae MDCXII . . .
Reasons of the University against the Covenant, &c . . .

[1738]

The Gathering Function

The Paris Principles state that the second function of the catalog is "ascertaining . . . (a) which works by a particular author and (b) which editions of a particular work are in the library."[10] This function of gathering and displaying the works of a given author, and the editions of a given work, is performed with surprising vitality in the 1674 and 1738 catalogs. In order to show which works the library has by a given author, the catalog assembles the author's works in one place under a uniform heading. If a name appears in a variant form on the title page, it is made accessible through cross-references, as we have seen. Works published anonymously but with known authors appear under the author's name, with the designation "anonymous" added in brackets. Authors writing under pseudonyms have their works entered under their real names if known, as shown in the first of the examples below; otherwise, as illustrated in the second example, the entry occurs under the pseudonym. Authorship may thus be ascribed from a source other than the title page in order to identify and keep the works of an author together:

Tho. TRYON.
The Way to Health, long Life, and Happiness, or a Disc. of Temperance, &c. to which is added a Treatise of most sorts of English Herbs. [Anonym.] *Lond.* 1683 . . .
Monthly Observations for the preserving of Health, &c. [by Philotheus Physiologus.] *Lond.* 1688 . . .
A new Art of brewing Beer, Ale, and other Sorts of Liquors, also the Art of making Mault, &c. *Lond.* 1691 . . .
The good House-Wife made a Doctor, or Health's choice and sure Friend, &c. *Lond.* 1692 . . .

9. See Eva Verona's extensive studies of the development of form headings [1] and corporate entries [15].

10. The second of Cutter's objectives of catalogs would lead to the display of works of an author but not, as in Lubetzky and the Paris Principles, the editions of a work.

Aminadab BLOWER, a devout Bellowse-mender of PIMLICO.
Some Small and Simple Reasons delivered in a Hollow-Tree, in Waltham Forrest, in a Lecture on the 33 of March last (1648;) shewing the Causes in general and particular, wherefore they doe, might, would, or ought, except against, and quite Refuse the Liturgy, or Booke of Common-Prayer. *Printed,* Anno Millimo, Quillimo, Trillimo . . .

[1738]

Hyde is particularly concerned that the reader does not fail to recognize an author or title appearing under a different name. For the less attentive, he cautions, many titles and names which are actually the same would appear to be different. This can easily become a trap for the unwary, but he claims the use of his catalog will avoid such errors [7, pp. iii, iv].

In addition to displaying under an author's name as a uniform heading those works for which he is primarily responsible, the catalog also indicates to the reader those works for which the author has a lesser responsibility. Adjacent to the main entry heading for the author's name, and preceding the fuller entries, is a list of cross-references which link the author's name to headings for works in which the author has a minor role. These cross-references occur in many cases of shared or mixed authorship for which some modern cataloging rules would provide an added entry and sometimes link his name to works which he has translated or collected, works for which he has provided notes or a preface, musical works for which he has provided the text or melody, and original works which have been adapted by other authors.

Theoph. LAVENDER. v. *Biddulph.*

Will. & Pet. BIDDULPH.
Travells into the East by Biddulph and others, collected by Th. Lavender . . .

Gul. TWISSUS. v. J. *Cotton.*

John COTTON . . .
The clearing of some doubts concerning Predestination, with an Examination thereof by W. Twisse . . .

[1674]

Henry WHARTON $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Nic. } \textit{Ridley.}\\ \text{J. } \textit{Usserius.}\end{array}\right.$

Jac. USSERIUS . . .
Historia Dogmatica de Scripturis & sacris Vernaculis, cum Notis & Auctario H. Whartoni . . .

Nich. RIDLEY . . .
A Treatise against the errour of Transubstantiation . . .
And with a Preface by Henr. Wharton . . .

Will. SHAKESPEAR. { J. *Dryden.* / J. *Fletcher.* }

John DRYDEN.
The Tempest or the inchanted Island, a Comedy altered from Shakespear . . .

John FLETCHER.
The 2 Noble Kinsmen, by Fletcher and Shakespear . . .

Tho. STANLEY, Esq. v. J. *Gamble.*

John GAMBLE.
Songs and Dialogues by Tho. Stanley set to Musick . . .

[1738]

John COPRARIO v. *Campion.*

Thomas CAMPION.
Songs bewailing the untimely death of Prince Henry, pricked out to the Lute or Violl by John Coprario . . .

[1674]

The cross-references indicate a number of kinds of relationships, but the nature of the connection is never indicated by the reference itself; hence the reader must track down each reference in order to determine its relationship to the main heading. Despite its inconvenience, this method does provide the catalog with a mechanism for showing, in addition to the works "by" an author—that is, works for which he is primarily responsible—other works to which he has contributed to a smaller degree.

All too frequently, the question arises as to whether a work is actually "by" an author or has been falsely ascribed to him. Here, the cross-references assist in indicating works attributed to an author, but entered under another heading:

Obad. WALKER Master of Univ. Coll. v. Abr. *Woodhead.*

Abr. WOODHEAD M.A. sometime Fell. of University Coll. in Oxon.
A brief Account of antient Church-Government, with a Reflection on several modern Writings of the Presbyterians &c. in iv Parts. [Anonym.] *Lond.* 1662 . . .
[It is attributed by the R. Catholicks to O. Walker; and by Others to R. Holden.]

[1738]

The catalog, however, is not always consistent in choice of entry for such cases:

Mrs. MANLEY v. *Eginhardus.*

EGINHARDUS . . .
Memoirs of Europe, translated from Eginhardus; Vol. ii.
[The true Author is Mrs. Manley] . . .
[1738]

The function of the catalog which is expressed in the Paris Principles as "ascertaining . . . which editions of a particular work are in the library" reflects a prominent concern of modern cataloging theory: the distinction between the terms "book" and "work." Seymour Lubetzky has observed:

> . . . the question that must then be faced at the outset . . . is whether the objective of the catalog should be merely to tell an inquirer whether or not the library has the *particular book* he is looking for, or whether it should go beyond that and tell him also what other editions and translations—or other representations—of the *work* the library has so as to help him more effectively to determine whether the library has what he needs and to select what might best serve his purposes. [18, p. 12]

To assist in the function of assembling the various editions of a work, modern catalogs may make use of added entries or uniform title headings which gather the individual books, or "bibliographical units" (that is, the different editions or translations of a work), under a single heading chosen to represent the work, or "literary unit."[11] Such added entries and uniform headings assume a standard mode of representing a title. Since, however, the Bodleian catalogs provided for title transcription only to a limited degree, and title heading even less so, we would not expect to find literary units gathered under title added entries or uniform title headings. Eva Verona, in discussing Hyde's rules, says, ". . . it has to be pointed out that Hyde did not provide for a real identification of literary units but only for the assembling of works by a given author (with the exception of works published under a pseudonym) under a uniform heading. Under such a heading titles were as a rule arranged in a chronological sequence" [19, p. 82]. It is true that we do not find in Hyde's preface any formulation of a rule for assembling literary units under a single heading.[12] However, he does express a concern for the problem which occurs when different editions of a work appear under different titles and, accordingly, he attempted to place together all the editions in different forms so that there is the least possibility of error on

11. The terms "bibliographical unit" and "literary unit" are used by Verona in her discussion of these concepts [18].
12. That Hyde had formulated such a principle was suggested by Pettee [20, p. 278]; Verona points out the error of this theory.

the part of the reader: "*. . . omnes illas Editiones diversis formis enuntiata, Lectoris ob oculus simul posui. . . .*" He illustrates this point with an example of a work which is entitled in one edition *Paratitlorum libri tres,* but which in subsequent editions is called more correctly *Collectionem Constitutionum Ecclesiasticarum* [7, p. iii]. In the catalog, this appears as:

> Theodorus BALSAMON . . .
> Collectio Constitutionum Ecclesiasticarum, Gr. Lat. è Cod. Dig. & Novellis Justiniani, (à Leunclavio olim edita sub nomine Paratitlorum,) cum Notis Leunclavii & Fabroti . . .

Another example which Hyde mentions is the dissertations of Maximus Tyrius which are sometimes called *Sermones* and sometimes *Disputationes.* In studying examples from the catalogs, we can observe that, although there is no uniform heading to identify the different versions of a work, the concept of a literary unit is still recognizable in the arrangement of the titles. Chronological order is apparently not the prime determinant as Verona suggested. The following example is from the catalog of 1674:

> Rob. BELLARMINUS . . .
> Doctrina Christiana . . . 1613.
> Et Graecé . . . 1637.
> Same in English, out of Italian by R. Hadock . . .
> Same with Pictures . . . 1614.

A more extended example from the 1738 catalog gives an idea of the catalog's ability to enable the reader to select from different editions and translations of the same work. Sixteen versions of Ovid's *Metamorphoses* are grouped together. Among them we find, in the following order:

> Publius OVIDUS . . .
> Metamorphoses: ex recognitione Jo. An. Episcopi Alerien in Cyrno . . . 1471 . . .
> Les Metamorphoses en Latin & Francois: avec de nouvelles Explications Historiques &c. sur toutes les Fables; de la Traduction de Mr Pierre du Ryer . . . 1677 . . .
> Le Metamorfosi ridotte da Gio Andr. dall Anguillara; con l'Annotationi di M. Gioseppe Horologgi . . . 1589 . . .
> Las Transformaciones en Lengua Espanola, con las Allegorias al fin dellos, y sus figuras, &c. . . . 1595 . . .
> The fyrst fower Bookes of the Metamorphosis oute of Latin into English Meter by Ar. Golding Gent . . . 1565 . . .
> Metamorphosis Englished, Mythologiz'd, and Represented in Figures by G. Sandys . . . 1632 . . .
> Same Translation (without the Figures and Notes) . . . 1669 . . .

The groupings of titles under an author's name as a heading assemble the different editions and translations of a work into recognizable literary units. In the 1738 catalog, the original work is represented by its title (or as close to it as the casual title transcriptions will allow) and translations and other editions are assembled below the original title, with subgroups according to language. One may also observe that in the 1738 catalog chronological order is imposed upon the different works of an author, and upon the versions of that work in the same language. This represents a departure from the 1674 catalog in two respects, and these two changes are noted in the preface of the 1738 catalog. In the 1674 catalog, Hyde did not show as great a concern for chronological order, or for listing the title of a work in the original language first, as was the case of the 1738 catalog. In the following example we can see a line of development from 1620 to 1738:

Iean *Bede*
Exposition sur la Messe. Gen. 1610 . . .
The right and prerogative of Kings translated by Rob. Sherwood. Lond. 1612 . . .
Ius Regum. 1612 . . .
Le droict des Roys. A Franckenthall . . .
The Masse displayed. translated by Edw. Chaloner, Oxon. 1619 . . .
[1620]

Joh. BEDAEUS . . .
De Jure Regum, contra Bellarminum, & alios Jesuitas p. 806 Franc. 1613 . . . Et p. 806. Franc. 1621 . . . Et Franc. ad M. 1612
Idem Gallicé. Franckenthal 1611 . . .
Idem Anglicé. Lond. 1612 . . .
The Mass displayed. Oxon. 1619 . . .
Idem Gallicé. Geneva 1610 . . .
[1674]

Joh. BEDAEUS . . .
La Messe en Francois exposee. *A Geneve* 1610 . . .
The Same in English. *Oxon.* 1619 . . .
Le Droit des Roys contre le Cardinal Bellarmin & autres Jesuites. *A Franckenthal* 1611 . . .
The Same in English. *Lond.* 1612
Et Latine. Franc ad Moen. 1612 . . . Et p. 806 Tom 3 Monarch Imper. Roman. per Goldastum. Franc. 1613 . . . Et p. 806 Franc. 1621 . . .[13]
[1738]

The functions of gathering the works of an author and the editions of a work have been aided, as indicated in the previous example, by analytical entries for works bound together with others or anthologized. Hyde states in his preface that, when several books are bound together, he notes them separately, giving the page number indicating where a par-

13. Note the use of analytical entries here and in 1674. The page numbers refer to a larger work entered in the catalogs under the heading of Goldastus.

ticular work is to be found in the physical volume. Such a practice was necessary, Hyde thought, because he had discovered that binding one among a number of works in a volume posed a problem to scholars who often rejected a book laid before them if the title page did not present the desired title: " . . . *saepe enim fit, ut, cum prima fronte non statim se offerat quaesitus Author Titulusve, porrectum sibi librum mox rejiciant.*" [7, p. iv]. The provision of analytics was further developed in the 1738 catalog:

> Rich. BROUGHTON, alias *Brawghton.*
> Of the Division of England into Shires. [A little Scrap in the 45th page of Discourses, *written* by Antiquaries, and *published* by Th. Hearne.] *Oxon.* 1720. 8° D. 48. *Jur.*
>
> ANTIQUARIES.
> Collection of Curious discourses written by eminent Antiquaries, published by Mr Hearne. *Oxon.* 1720. 8° D. 48. *Jur.*

The Importance of the Catalog's Role

The physical arrangement of the Bodleian library made it of particular importance that the catalog should fulfill the finding and gathering functions.[14] The 1605 catalog was essentially a shelflist; in it we can see the general scheme of the library's organization: the volumes were arranged first according to their place among the four divisions of the university, then by the three divisions of size (folio, quarto, and octavo), and last, by the alphabetical order of the authors' surnames. But the integrity of an order on these three bases could not be maintained over a period of time. Systematic arrangement by author's name was precluded early on when some of an author's works were placed under the initial of his forename, others under his surname. Often, the initials of the editor determined the placing if there was no space left on the shelf allotted to the author's initials. In 1721, a monumental relocation in the interests of space saving, called the "General Removal," resulted in the shelf lettering of A–Z being replaced with a new series of A–M only. This eliminated altogether the shelf letter as an indication of the author's name.[15] Arrangement by size was eventually compromised by the inclusion of quarto volumes with the folios. This compromise was made for the convenience of the readers. Folio volumes, which were chained to the desks, were directly accessible to the readers, but the quartos and octavos were kept locked in shelves and had to be ordered from the librarian. An account of 1613 reveals that the readers "for modesty sake doe many times abstaine from callinge for such bookes for feare of ouertroublinge

14. Much of the following description is taken from the detailed account given by Wheeler [21].
15. Briggs [22] gives a description of the confusion occasioned by this relocation.

y^e Underkeeper." It was for this reason that "Y^e Visiters [i.e. trustees] haue of late well ordered, that as many bookes in 4° in y^e galleries as could conueniently be done should be . . . bound in pastboorde, and chayned belowe . . ." [20, quoted p. 286]. Hyde noted that his catalog indicated whether a chained volume was actually a folio volume or merely located among the large volumes "*sive revera sint majores, sive tantum inter majores locati* . . ." [7, p. iii].

Bodley's rough subject arrangement of medicine, law, theology, and art was at first applied to all books. After about 1659 separate locations were provided for large donations, and Hyde made a point of saying that his catalog indicated which books were shelved in these locations and therefore apart from the main collection. In this way, he claimed, scholars were spared the necessity of a double labor: with one act they were able to find any book that they sought [7, p. iii].

As space became more and more of a problem, the medicine and law shelves were used to accommodate new books in the faculties of art (encompassing history, philosophy, mathematics, literature, and language) and theology, which from the outset had outnumbered those of the other two faculties. We find the following titles in the law faculty:

CATALOGUS.
Cat. Librorum in Bibliotheca Bodleiana per Tho. James . . . 1615 . . . *Jur.*
Et, cum Appendice per Eundem . . . 1620 . . . *Jur.*
Appendix ad eundem Catalogum per Joh. Rouse . . . 1635. *Ibid.*

Will. SHAKESPEAR.
Comedies, Histories, and Tragedies . . . *Jur.*

Edw. MAY.
Relation of a strange Monster or Serpent found in the left Ventricle of the Heart of John Pennant. *Lond.* 1639 . . . *Art.* Et Lond. 1689 . . . *Jur.*

[1738]

The last example makes it clear that different editions of the same work could be shelved in different parts of the library. It seems reasonable to conclude that the reader was almost totally dependent upon the catalog or the librarian to discover what works the library had by a given author and which editions of a given title.

Special Features of the 1674 and 1738 Catalogs

If there is any general cataloging philosophy evident in the preface to the 1674 catalog, it is that the catalog should serve the needs of the scholars who use it. There are two interesting features of Hyde's catalog that reflect scholarly interests which were probably more peculiar to his time than our own. Much of the scholarship of the time was disputatious in method, and a large portion of the works listed in the catalog were parts of debates, or replies to other written arguments. The first work of a controversy appears under the heading of its author as a main entry, with cross-references given for the titles written in reply. The latter appear under their authors, or under the first author who provoked the controversy, if the author replying is anonymous. An added entry may be made as well under the subject.

Will. SHERLOCK . . .
The Case of Allegiance due to Sovereign Powers, &c. . . .
A Vindication of Dr Sherlock's Case of Allegiance, &c. . . .
An Answer to it by Th. *Wagstaffe,* q.v.
A Vindication of the Case of Allegiance in Reply to the foregoing Answer . . .
Observations upon Mr Johnson's Remarks upon Dr Sherlock's Book of Non-Resistance . . .
The Trimming Court-Divine: or the Reflections on his Book of the Lawfulness of Swearing Allegiance to the present Government . . .

Tho. WAGSTAFF.
An Answer to Dr Sherlock's Vindication of the Case of Allegiance. [Anonym.] . . .

[1738]

As Hyde explained, the author of an anonymous work was entered under the name of the antagonist so that the original and the reply may be related, and more easily compared with one another: "*sub Antagonistae Nomen saepius adduxi; ud hoc modo juxta positi (cum sint sibi invicem relati,) alter cum altero facilius conferatur*" [7, p. iii].

Cross-references served a similar function, and related an author's works to responses to them, doubtless to the great assistance of the readers following the course of the controversies of the time:

Tho. THOROWGOOD, B.D.
Jews in America, or Probabilities that the Americans are Jews . . .
H. *L'Estrange.*

Hamon L'ESTRANGE.
Americans no Jews, or Impossibilities that the Americans are of that Race . . .

In the listing below from Hyde's catalog, all references are to authors who have commented upon works of Perkins.

$$\text{Will. PERKINS.}\begin{cases}\text{v. } \textit{Higgins}, \text{ v. } \textit{Twisse}, \text{ v. } \textit{Broxolme}.\\ \text{v. Ant. } \textit{Wotton}, \text{ v. } \textit{Arminius}.\\ \text{v. } \textit{W. B. \& D. B. P.}\end{cases}$$

For example:

D. B. P. i.e. Will. *Bishop.*
Reformation of a Catholick deformed by W. Perkins . . .

Charles BROXOLME.
Perkins improved; or an Exp. of those Depths of Divinity comprized in his 6 Principles . . .

Anthony WOTTON B.D.
Defense of William Perkins's book called *A Reformed Catholick,* against the Cavills of W. B. in his *Deformed Reformation* . . .

The provision of ascriptive notes is one of the most remarkable features of the Bodleian catalogs of 1674 and 1738.[16] The notes appear in cases in which the choice of entry might be assumed to be unclear:

Franc. OSBORN.
Translation into English of Ochinus's Dialogue of Poligamy and Divorce . . .
[This Treatise is dedicated to Osborn, and therefore He may seem not to be the Author thereof; but it has been ascribed to him by such as both knew him, and were men of Credit.]

Sr Thom. ELYOT.
The Image of Governaunce compiled of the Actes and Sentences notable of the most noble Emperour Alex. Severus, translated from the Greek of Eucolpius . . .
[Elyot is thought to be the Author and not the Translator of this Peice. v. *Bayle* Dict. Hist. & Crit.]

[1738]

There are also cases in which the main entry has been made under a name which appears on the title page but is believed by the cataloger to be falsely ascribed.

John SMITH, Captain.
The Seaman's Grammar and Dictionary, explaining all the difficult Terms in Navigation, and the practical Navigator and Gunner in 2 Parts . . . [He is called Capt. *Smith* in the Bottom of the Title-Page; which is false: for it was written by Sr John Smith; the Captain's Writings being all of another Nature.]

Will. PRYNNE.
A terrible Out-Cry against the loytering exalted Prelates: shewing the Danger and Unfitness of Conferring them in any Temporal Office or Dignity.
[A. *Wood* in his Athenae Oxon. p. 443 says this Piece is not *Prynne*'s.] Lond. . . .

[1738]

16. The use of ascriptive notes is contained in the catalog of 1843.

The ascriptive comments are verified by references to authorities such as Anthony Wood, who wrote an extensive chronicle of Oxford. Similar notes, with authoritative references, are provided for cross-references indicating pseudonyms or initials.

Tho. SWINERTON v. J. *Roberts.*

John ROBERTS.
A Mustre of Schismatyke Bysshoppes of Rome, by Way of Prologue to his Translation of Benno's Lyfe of Hyldebrande, and Hen. IV Emperor . . . [The Author's true Name is Tho. *Swinerton.* v. *Wood's* Athenae Oxon. Tom. I. p. 91.]

John RAWLINSON . . . v. J. *R.*

J. R. Rector of Lezant in Cornwall.
Explication of the Creed, x Commandments, and Lord's Prayer, with the Addition of some Forms of Prayer . . . [This seems to be the Piece which A. Wood in his *Athenae Oxon.* Tom. I. p. 55. says was publish'd under the Name of J. *Rawlinson.*]

[1738]

Wood himself almost became involved in the compilation of a Bodleian catalog. The research for his history of Oxford required the extensive use of manuscripts in the Bodleian. To avoid having to request each item, he sought permission from Librarian Hyde for free access to the manuscript collection. Hyde agreed, but on the condition, which he later abandoned, that Wood assist him in a compilation of a catalog of the manuscripts [23, vol. 2, p. 71].

The frequent use of ascriptive notes in the Bodleian catalogs of 1674 and 1738 is particularly striking because these are usually the only notes provided. They may, of course, reflect the interest in pseudonyma and anonyma of the time, an interest shared not only by librarians but by other scholars. The systematic study of anonymous and pseudonymous writings had its beginnings in Renaissance theological scholarship.[17] Where a religious claim was based on the authority of a text, that text was closely investigated as to its authenticity. Falsely ascribed religious writings used for the purpose of advancing doctrine were called pseudepigrapha and occuped religious scholars like Thomas James, who prepared an elaborately constructed reference list of 187 pseudepigraphic treatises called "Bastardie of the False Fathers." The critical methods employed in detecting spurious religious writings later served as a basis for students of secular anonyma and pseudonyma. Archer Taylor writes that "in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Golden Age of pseudonyms, almost every writer used a pseudonym at some

17. My treatment of the subject of pseudonyma and anonyma is based on Taylor and Mosher [24].

time during his career" [24, p. 85], and that "by the middle of the seventeenth century many scholars had dealt in one way or another with the problems of anonyma and pseudonyma" [24, p. 100]. A work of particular assistance to scholars of pseudonyma and anonyma was the 1674 *Syntagma* of Vincent Placcius, which contained approximately 1,500 ascriptions and identifications, followed by his *Theatrum,* published posthumously in 1708, which extended the list to 2,797 anonymous and 2,930 pseudonymous entries. Placcius's works are cited again and again with exact page numbers in the ascriptive notes to the Bodleian catalog of 1738. But it should also be noted that the 1674 catalog had in turn been of assistance to Placcius, and that Hyde had alerted Placcius to the existence of anonyma and pseudonyma from Jesuit sources. Hyde claimed that he himself was preparing a list of ascriptions, but it never appeared in print.

The compilation of the Bodleian catalogs involved men of learning who had some awareness of the problems of attribution.[18] James's scholarly efforts along this line had been directed to the compilation of a specific theological catalog and were not reflected in his catalogs of the Bodleian libraries. From Hyde's contact with Placcius, probable work on a list of pseudonyms, and remarks in his preface, it may be conjectured that he too recognized the problems of ascription and was equipped to deal with them. Hyde cautioned in his preface that it is all too easy to make the mistake of ascribing a book by one author to the name of another. Scholars should note that, in investigating books, they might diligently consider that the authors' names may be written in different ways or that an author may have two completely different names. He gave the example of Roman popes who always took a different name after election to the pontificate [7, p. iv].

In the case of the 1738 catalog, some of the decisions which led to ascriptive cross-references and notes are documented in the diaries of Thomas Hearne, who had been requested by Librarian John Hudson to assist with the catalog.

> . . . I took D^{r}. Hyde's Catalogue in two volumes, interleaved, & went round the whole Library, & compared every Book, by which means I corrected many mistakes made by D^{r}. Hyde, & supplied all the Defects, by cataloguing such Books as had been put up and not entered. This done, I consulted many Books in order to recover anonymous Authors. By this means I retriev'd the Names of many Writers that were before entered either under the Titles only of the several Books, or else under the Initial Letters of the Authors. . . . [11, vol. 6, p. 8]

Hearne's part in the compilation of the 1738 catalog, and especially those aspects which reflect a striking attention to detail, can be seen in

18. James, Hyde, and Hearne were all noted scholars: James wrote extensively in theology, Hyde was Regius Professor of Hebrew and Laudian Professor of Arabic, and Hearne was renowned for his historical writings.

the diaries, which are also filled with news of the nation, the university, and the library, upon all of which Hearne comments indiscriminately and at length: "Dr. Kennett has been married thrice. His present Wife wears the Breeches, and manages him as his Haughty, insolent Temper deserves . . ." [11, vol. 2, p. 9]. "Sr Basil Fire-Brass a noted old Sinner of London has shot himself, but 'tis thought twill not prove mortal, as some perhaps could wish, whom he has cheated by odd tricks and shams . . . " [11, vol. 2, p. 18]. "Last night the Vice-Chanc. catch'd Mrs Gratiana Crook's black Wench in a Gentleman-Commoner's Chamber in Queen's Coll. & broke open ye Door upon them . . . " [11, vol. 2, p. 47]. Included among such gossip are discourses on the contents of books which have newly appeared or are in progress. Hearne's diaries are filled with memoranda to remind himself to ask his readers for information of interest, or to provide them with information which would assist them in their work: "Remember to tell Dr. Smith of this [the existence of a book in the library], who has not taken notice of it in his life of Dee." "Mr. Humph. Smith, formerly of Queen's College . . . is writing the Life of Dr. Pocock . . . 'twill be ready for the Press by Midsommer next. . . . He wants the Name of his Tutor whilst he was of Corpus Christi. None of that House can tell it. He should consult Ant. à Wood's 3d vol. in Mr. Tanner's Hands . . . [11, vol. 2, p. 4].

Commonly found in the memoranda are matters involving corrections of the 1674 catalog: "Aug. 3 (Sun.) [1707] Memorand. yt Dr. Hyde's Catalogue should be mended, where he says Joannes Nicius Rossius; it should be Joannes Victor Roscius. And give a Note at Janus Nicius Erythraeus yt 'tis a feign'd Name for Joannes Victor Roscius [11, vol. 2, p. 31]." The 1738 catalog reflects this correction. There was disappointing news in the entry for August 14: the lucky holder of the winning lottery ticket for a thousand pounds a year for thirty-two years was not the daughter of the deserving Reverend Dr. Cave, as Hearne had delightedly reported on August 12, but instead the "stinking Whigg" Lord Harvey. This is accompanied by the observation that "Dr. Wallis writ large Remarks upon Thomas Salmon's Proposal to perform Musick &c. Lond. 1688" [11, vol. 3, pp. 40, 41], and results in a cross-reference which links the author's name to a work in which he has a minor part.

Joannes WALLISIUS . . . v. Tho. *Salmon.*

Thomas SALMON . . .
A proposal to perform Musick in perfect and Mathematical proportions, with large remarks by Dr Wallis. *Lond.* 1688 . . .

The origin of an ascriptive note is found in the entry for September 12, 1710:

Sr. Wm. Dugdale pag. 4. of the Antient Usage of Bearing Arms . . . tells us that Mr. Erdswicke was the true Author of *The true use of Arms* publish'd by Mr. Wm.

Wyrley as his own Book. S^{r}. W^{m}. there calls M^{r}. Erdswicke's Antiquities of Staffordshire *a brief but elaborate* Work. 'Twill be worth printing. We have it in Bodley. (One Curle a vile Bookseller in London hath since printed these Antiquities, but not for the credit of M^{r}. Erdswicke. . . .)[11, vol. 3, p. 48]

Sampson ERDSWICKE v. W. *Wyrley.*

William WYRLEY.
The true Use of Armorie. *Lond.* by *J. Jackson* 1592. 4° A. 33. Art.
[The true Author of this was Sampson Erdswicke Esq.
v. W. *Dugdale*, p. 4. 8° W. 41. *Art.*]

The entry for June 27, 1711, results in a decision which will keep together two editions of the same work:

Sir Philip Sydenham being in Town he lent me (having brought it out of y^{e} Country for y^{t} purpose) John Higin's *Miror for Magistrates* printed at London in Fleet-Streete by Henry Marsh 1587. 4to. 'Tis the same with that we have in Bodley. . . . This Book of John Higgins's is the same almost (excepting some Additions, the Change of the Order, & some other small Alterations) with another Book that was publish'd with the same Title several Years before in two Parts, the Collector of w^{ch} was W^{m}. Baldwyn, of whom M^{r}. Wood spakes Vol. I. Ath. Oxon. col. 114. The first Part of w^{ch} Mr. Wood says came out in 1559. . . . I look upon Higgins's as only a new Edition of Baldwin's. . . . [11, vol. 3, pp. 180, 181]

John HIGINS. v. W. *Baldwyn.*

Will. BALDWYN.
The last [or second] Part of the Miror for Magistrates,
(being a continuation of Bochas's Book, intit. The Fall
of Princes.) *Lond.* 1574. 4° D. 20. *Th.*
And, enlarged by John Higgins. *Lond.* 1587. 4° F. 19. *Art.*

The tradition started by Hyde was in this way extended and developed in the decades after his death. The catalogs were ambitious in what they tried to achieve, and the complexity of structure and detail was often marked by inconsistencies and errors. We find double main entries, blind cross-references, and cross-references lacking where they would be expected. The principles of according main entry are at times elusive or compromised. There are departures from the guidelines laid down by Hyde in his preface. A contemporary critic complained of the 1674 catalog's "many faults of Iudgement, . . . Carelessness & Neglect . . . ," and went on to enumerate some of its faults:

. . . Authors are mistaken, & confounded one with another . . . the Titles of books (in the modern Languages especially) misrepresented . . . when one man puts forth a new Edition of some Classic &c., with a version of a nother person, & notes of a 3^{d} or 4th perhaps the Classical Author shal have his name in the Cat. and perhaps the Translator too, perhaps not, without mentioning any others.

Sometimes indeed you shall have the Commentator in his place, which may be denyed to the principal Author. This Neglect, together with the not mentiong [*sic*] every Author in his place when many are printed in a body, and carelessness in the dates, &c is the reason that the book sold no better, and that the University had no more Credit & Profit by it. [10, quoted p. 91]

It should be noted that the critic, Humphrey Wanley, was at the time aspiring to Hyde's post; also, judging from its widespread acceptance and imitation, the catalog did indeed win considerable esteem. Although imperfect in the accuracy and consistency with which they carry out their objectives, the catalogs of 1674 and 1738 contain a recognizable pattern which develops a cardinal feature of modern theory. The distinction between "work" and "book" is recognized by the cataloging of books not as single independent entities, with information to be taken solely from the title page, but in relation to other works, or editions of the same work. As a result, the catalog is able to inform the reader, as Lubetzky says, "not only whether the library has the particular book he wants, but also what related materials it has that might well serve his purpose . . ." [18, p. 11]. The elaborate system of cross-references provides a mechanism, however imperfectly carried out, by which this function can be achieved. Both the cross-references and ascriptive notes indicate an attention to detail which goes far beyond the book itself. The relevant information has been searched out in reference works and a remarkably thorough knowledge of the contents of the collection and its interrelatedness is demonstrated in the catalog. Hyde, at the beginning of his preface, somewhat bitterly places the following question into the mouth of his critics: "What," they say, "could be easier than inspecting the front of books and copying down their titles?" [7, p. i]. His catalog shows how far this was from the truth.

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THE NEIGHBORHOOD INFORMATION CENTER PROJECT[1]

Thomas Childers

In July 1972 the public libraries of Atlanta, Cleveland, Detroit, Houston, and the borough of Queens, New York, joined in a consortium, with the purpose of demonstrating the feasibility of using existing library branches to provide information and referral (I & R) service. This article reports the findings of research on the experiences of the five members of the consortium during the three years of federal funding, from July 1972 through June 1975. Included are discussions of the nature of I & R service and the role of the public library as an I & R center, evaluation of the efforts of the five consortium members, a summary of the project's implications, and recommendations for future research and development.

The Nature of Information and Referral Service

The field of social welfare has done more to develop the practice and concepts of information and referral (I & R) than has any other field of activity. While the exact nature of I & R is far from established even in the literature of social welfare, it is from this literature that a broad definition of I & R can be obtained: a service or services that help bring an individual into contact with resources (services, activities, information, advice, etc.) that will satisfy his needs.[2] Usually I & R revolves around a *resource file*—a directory of agencies, organizations, or individuals who can provide the resources that clients need. The resource file can be a published directory, a data base accessible through a computer terminal, a file of cards, a bulletin board, or human memory. In fact, it may be a combination of these.[3]

Drawing from the landmark study of the British Citizen's Advice Bureaus by Kahn and others [2, pp. 33–35] and from Long's discussion [4, p. 2], it is possible to compile a comprehensive list of possible I & R services as they have evolved in the field of social welfare: (1) steering: giving information about where to go for a resource and information about how to secure it; (2) referring: making contact with a resource on behalf of the client (this can include bringing the client into actual contact with a resource or paving the way so the client can make contact on his own. The underlying purpose is to facilitate the client's access to the needed resource by articulating his needs

1. Portions of this article appear in [1].
2. This definition is drawn from [2, pp. 2–4] and [3].
3. See [4] for detailed instructions on compiling a card-type resource file.

[*Library Quarterly*, vol. 46, no. 3, pp. 271–89]

and interpreting the activities, eligibility requirements, etc. of the resource agency); (3) advising: offering judgments about the resolution of the client's need or resources available in order to speed the client's selection of the proper resource; (4) counseling: a form of advice, sometimes entailing deep probing of the client's personal problems, empathetic listening, and advising on solutions to complex personal problems; (5) advocacy: assuming a position as champion of the client's rights and working to secure those rights for the client; (6) social reporting: providing feedback to resource agents, their governors, or the public on the effectiveness of social services, as gleaned from the process of steering and referral (this particular activity can range from the neutral, such as the disclosure of statistics about the success of referrals, to the politically inflammable, such as criticism of individual services); (7) follow-through: a rather nebulous concept, implying that the I & R worker takes whatever steps are deemed necessary to be reasonably sure that the client is being steered or referred to the proper resource; (8) follow-up: ascertaining whether or not a client has actually received what he needed subsequent to being steered or referred to a resource; (9) escort: providing the client with transportation to the needed resource; and (10) case finding and "outreach": promoting the I & R service to the target group population, soliciting inquiries (case finding), and determining the group's needs.

It is clear that I & R in the social welfare realm varies in the actual services rendered. One I & R center may provide intensive personal counseling, while another may simply direct the client to a counseling agency; a few—usually those emphasizing service to the aged—offer escort service; and the social reporting function may be particularly strong in some centers, such as health and welfare I & R centers, and nonexistent in others, such as a drug hotline.

In addition to variation in services themselves, there is variation in the *scope* of the services. They may be limited to a specific topic, such as social security or drug abuse; to a target group, such as the aging or Roman Catholics, or to a geographic area, such as the so-called Model Cities impact areas. Some I & R services purport to be omnibus agencies, covering all population groups and a vast range of topics within a particular geographic area. Examples of omnibus I & R agencies can be found in some municipal health and welfare councils and mayor's information offices. Inasmuch as I & R has sprung from the field of social welfare, it is logical that the vast majority of I & R services focus on the problems of disadvantaged target populations of one kind or another [5, p. 4]. The aging and the urban poor are two such groups frequently addressed. Rarely has I & R service been directed specifically at middle-class, affluent, rural, or suburban populations.

The Public Library's Potential for I & R

It was perhaps in the process of casting about for new roles for the public library in the late 1960s and early 1970s that some librarians fixed upon the idea of assuming an I & R function.[4] Rationales for providing I & R through the public library can be found in a few library publications [8–10]. Drawing from those documents, one can compose a list of characteristics of the public library that make it a *potentially* desirable site for I & R service in relation to other agencies.[5]

1. Librarians and library assistants are skilled in gathering, organizing, and retrieving information. Their greatest strength lies in organizing and retrieving. (For the most part, moving into the community to collect information about the wide range of available resources is not part of their formal training, nor is it a standard aspiration. This implies some need for altering both the store of skills and the prevailing attitudes among librarians if I & R service is to be effectively provided by public libraries.)

2. Libraries, through a system of carefully placed branches, are the most widely dispersed and therefore potentially community-specific municipal agency, other than the police and fire departments. Moreover, the library is often open longer, including evenings and weekends, than most other agencies.

3. In addition, the fact that each neighborhood branch is a formal part of a city-wide system provides the possibility of rapid system-wide communication, uniform levels of training and service throughout the city, and a larger base of support (in terms of staff, space, and money) than a single outlet could provide.

4. The public library is dedicated to serving the whole of the local community. Services such as those involved in I & R offer promise of reaching currently unserved groups.

5. The public library is one of the more politically neutral service agencies. This enhances its position when dealing with agencies that cover a broad spectrum of political, cultural, and ideological orientations.

6. The public library is rich in resources that can help to satisfy various kinds of need; the book and nonbook materials already in libraries are an important source of information that can supplement the I & R resource file.

The Neighborhood Information Center Project

Beginnings

In the winter of 1971, the director and deputy director of Detroit's Public Library began to work toward implementing I & R in that library,[6] and by

4. For a brief overview of the public library's changing role, see [6, pp. vii–viii]. This search for a new role is identified with I & R work by Clara S. Jones [7].
5. It would probably be most salutary for the development of both libraries and I & R services if the following assertions were taken as hypotheses that require further testing.
6. From personal conversations with Clara S. Jones, director, and Robert B. Croneberger, deputy director, Detroit Public Library, over the years 1973–75. While Detroit has always called its NIC service "The Information Place" (TIP), it will be referred to in this article as NIC.

July 1972 Detroit had entered into a consortium with four other cities to demonstrate the feasibility of I & R in public libraries. The consortium consisted of the public libraries of the cities of Atlanta, Cleveland, Detroit, and Houston, and the borough of Queens, New York (hereafter, for the sake of convenience, all five will be referred to as cities). It was funded for a period of three years by the U.S. Office of Education, Division of Library Programs.

The venture was called the Neighborhood Information Center (NIC) Project. Its original purpose was "to research the feasibility of the branch library as a neighborhood information center, and to present an implementation plan for establishing a demonstration center in each city." Its major objectives were "to demonstrate to neighborhood residents and the community at large that the urban public library can be a vital force in daily living, will provide free information, will refer residents to additional sources for information and assistance, and that the library can adapt itself in non-traditional ways to meet the needs of those who have not previously used public library services, and have neither experience, nor knowledge of the role a public library can play in the daily life of the residents of the community"; and "to provide survival information or referral information assistance to people who may be in lower income brackets . . . who may have little or limited education . . ." [11, pp. 3–4].

The first six months of the NIC Project were to be devoted to an assessment of community needs by each city and the development of broad guidelines for implementation. Implementation itself—establishing I & R services at two library branches in each city—was originally to have run for a second six months. Subsequent extensions of federal funding permitted this phase to continue for an additional two years, so that the period of implementation for some cities totaled two and one-half years. Funding terminated on June 30, 1975. While the consortium provided a forum for discussion and exchange of ideas, each of the cities remained largely autonomous in executing the project's missions. Initially, the Cleveland Public Library was to coordinate the project. In July 1974, with the departure of the coordinators from the Cleveland Public Library, Houston was assigned this role.

This article is intended to report the current state of I & R service in the five libraries at the end of the summer 1975, when funding ended, and to discuss the implications of their experiences for the library field.[7] Data for this study of the NIC Project were collected in several distinct ways: personal visits to the five cities and interviews with selected staff members; existing narrative reports, minutes, and preliminary evaluations; and existing statistical reports. In addition, some systematic data were generated expressly for this study by means of interviews with clients and questionnaires sent to resource agents.[8]

7. A preliminary evaluation can be found in [12].

8. The NIC Project did not include appropriate measures for subsequent formal evaluation,

Service Objectives

The I & R service objectives of the five cities were similar. In the main, the service was seen as a directory of resources relevant to the citizen's needs. Of the possible activities discussed earlier, the service involved primarily steering and secondarily referring activities. Occasionally there was an effort to fill an advocacy, escort, or social reporting function. Most often, however, such functions took place as the result of a unique local situation. For instance, the Houston staff engaged in a limited amount of social reporting by way of their Council of Information and Referral Agencies, a formal association of all the organizations in the city that deal with I & R. In all cities, escort service was infrequently provided; when it was offered, it was at the initiative of an individual library employee and most often at his expense, in his own automobile. Advocacy, when it occurred, did not take the form of militant championing of the client's rights, but rather a dogged persistence. Perhaps the best illustration of this was found in Detroit's files. The staff there made more than twenty phone calls over a period of five months in order to secure free educational benefits for a young handicapped man.

As would be expected, the cities advised, followed through, followed up, and reached out in varying degrees; all saw these as desirable and natural elements in a successful I & R program. At one time, Cleveland initiated follow-up on all of its cases. At the end of summer, 1975, no city was initiating follow-up on even one quarter of its cases; follow-up was at the discretion of the library employee upon his assessment of the client's needs. All cities engaged in outreach. This was sometimes limited to fliers that were distributed within the library branches and a few news features in the media, as in Cleveland; or it took the form of an expensive professional advertising campaign, plus "community walks" and door-to-door canvassing by librarians, as in Detroit and Houston. Case finding occurred only in Detroit and Houston and appeared to be a by-product of community walks and canvassing, rather than to be purposefully designed.

Counseling was universally avoided. Those who commented on its appropriateness in a library-based I & R service suggested that it was outside the mission of librarianship and outside the competence of most librarians.

Program-type information services were frequently part of a city's NIC program. For example, Detroit presented a series of social service information programs for senior citizens, and Queens held workshops on income tax computation. Just as often, services that were not strictly informational in nature were made part of the NIC program. For instance, Queens issued reduced-fare cards for metropolitan transportation to senior citizens; Houston made blood pressure tests available, and Atlanta provided voter registration service at all of its branches.

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hence the report that follows draws very heavily on the personal assessment of the investigator.

Two unusual by-products of NIC appeared in Queens and Houston. In Queens, NIC inquiries were sometimes considered to indicate areas of intense user need and were used as input for book purchasing. This may not be unique to Queens, but Queens was the only city where attention was drawn expressly to this function. In Houston, a meeting of the city's I & R agencies, convened by the library, resulted in the formation of the Council of Information and Referral Services, an ongoing forum for the discussion of problems related to I & R.

The meaning of NIC varied strikingly from city to city. In Detroit, it meant the same thing from top to bottom of the organization. Both management and service staff tended to agree on what NIC service was; and where there were differences from branch to branch, these differences seemed to spring not so much from confusion over the NIC concept, as from conscious decisions to serve local needs in unique ways. In Atlanta, on the other hand, there was a marked inconsistency in the ways staff viewed NIC. For instance, some thought voter registration and adult reading development were NIC activities, while others did not. Top management saw the Government Information Center as an integral part of NIC, yet the NIC and Government Information Center staff viewed their services as only loosely related to each other.

In all cities there was a degree of inconsistency in the view taken of the natural target group for NIC service. Some staff saw the service as most appropriate for disadvantaged groups; others saw it as equally suited to middle- and upper-class groups. In Detroit, for example, it was generally agreed that the service was appropriate for people of all classes, but there was some slight evidence of disagreement on this point.

NIC in the Context of the Library's Other Services

Two important dimensions of the relationship between NIC activities and traditional library activities are salience, which may be defined as the importance and conspicuousness to the staff and management of traditional library activities, compared with those provided through NIC; and integration, which may be defined as the extent to which NIC activities are carried out as part of the ordinary work of the library. These two dimensions permit some assessment of the relative importance of NIC services in the five libraries under discussion.

There is no doubt that the NIC program was most salient in Detroit. Since early 1971, when a firm decision was made to undertake I & R service, the director and her assistants vigorously advanced the NIC cause with the general public, funding authorities, and the library profession at large: NIC was proclaimed the first priority for the foreseeable future. It was clear to service staff and management alike that, while traditional services were to continue, NIC was to receive the major emphasis. In many ways, NIC enjoyed the same salience in Houston; both the mayor and top library management stood publicly behind the new venture. However, interviews with the branch staff revealed somewhat less system-wide commitment to NIC in Houston than in Detroit. As a testament to the salience of NIC in Detroit and Houston, many of the staff interviewed suggested that they would prefer that attention to traditional services be reduced rather than for any downgrading of NIC activities to occur. In contrast, only one Queens staff member made this assertion, and no one in Cleveland or Atlanta was willing to contemplate a trade-off in this way. When the five cities are ranked according to decreasing salience of their NIC programs to their staff, their order is Detroit, Houston, Queens, Atlanta, Cleveland.

Integration is more difficult to describe. On balance, it appears that Detroit and Houston went furthest in integrating NIC activities into their total library programs. All staff positions previously funded by the federal government were absorbed into their budgets, all NIC services were provided from existing reference desks; through relatively extensive orientation and training, attempts were made to prepare virtually all professional staff and many clerical staff for NIC service. However, there were limits to integration, even in Houston and Detroit. In Detroit, the major NIC service point was at the central branch. This service point was devoted solely to NIC activities and was staffed full time by three professionals and one clerk who did nothing else. In some Houston branches, a staff member was charged with the major responsibility for his branch's NIC activities. In these community branches in Houston and in the central branch in Detroit, the result was the same: NIC was somewhat removed from the mainstream of library activities.

The NIC service was probably less integrated in Queens than in any of the other cities, mostly because its NIC services were provided from points quite distinct from existing reference desks in many branches. It appeared, however, that all five were working toward increasing absorption of NIC services into existing services. The only anomaly occurred in Cleveland. Between July 1972 and July 1974, NIC service was provided by a newly recruited nonlibrarian staff, from a specially designated, private room in each branch. This separatism resulted in very strained relationships between the NIC program and the rest of the library's programs and was abandoned after two years in favor of an integrated approach.

In all cities the library staff perceived I & R as something new. In Detroit and Houston, there was a greater tendency to view I & R work as a legitimate part of traditional reference service than in the other cities. Nonetheless, there were some staff in all cities who felt I & R was an outlandish caprice.

Sites

In the first months of implementation, two branches in each city were designated NIC branches. As the project continued, all cities extended the service to other branches as well. By the end of summer 1975, NIC service was available throughout all cities except Houston, where it was lacking in the central branch, and Queens, which had nine NIC outlets out of a total of fifty-four branches and a central library. It should be noted, however, that in the branches "NIC service" sometimes consisted solely of a resource file at the reference desk, as was the case in many of Cleveland's branches. At such sites, orientation and training of staff and promotion of the service were virtually nonexistent.

Both Detroit and Queens had branches that provided NIC service in largely middle-class neighborhoods in addition to depressed communities.

Delivery of Service

In all cities, NIC service required the acquisition of a resource file of some kind. There was great variation in responding to this need. Queens, for example, relied on a preexisting microfiche directory of resources in Greater New York, issued by the office of the mayor of New York, and on local card files developed by each branch. Detroit and Cleveland had each developed a uniform, system-wide card file of resources with a card index. Houston used an existing directory of resources published by the city's Community Welfare Planning Association, supplemented by localized branch Rolodex files. Atlanta employed a Rolodex file that was maintained at the central branch. In all cases, each city's resource files were duplicated in all its NIC outlets.

Publicity

Publicity for the NIC service varied considerably from city to city. In Detroit, an advertising firm donated its professional services for the creation and delivery of 300,000 handbills, 100 posters, 1,200 bus placards, fifteen billboards, thirty television spots, seven television news features, and 100 radio spots [12, pp. 32–33]. Houston also received a donation from a local advertising firm for the creation of radio and television spots, and the latter has been adapted for use by many urban libraries around the country. All cities engaged in more standard promotional activities, such as fliers, handbills, and newspaper feature stories. In all cities, too, staff outreach activities were considered as publicity. Booths at shopping centers, canvassing, community walks, and other forms of personal contact have clearly been part of the effort to advertise the new service.

Community Involvement

The efforts to establish *formal,* continuing channels of communication between the community and the managers of NIC activities were few. One of Atlanta's branches appeared to have the most active community board among the five cities. Like the community board at another branch in Atlanta and that of a branch in Queens, it advised library management on matters related to both NIC and other library activities. In Cleveland's original organization of NIC services, community boards were established for each of the

NIC branches. However, even though many staff considered the boards valuable sources of feedback, they were discontinued when Cleveland's NIC program was reorganized in mid 1974.

The most cogent statement on community involvement was made by the deputy director of Detroit Public Library, who observed that formal community advisory groups are of little value at best, and at their worst can deteriorate into platforms for personal aggrandizement. The statement, issued in 1972, proposed that the most effective means of involving the community in the planning and activities of a branch was through other more aggressive means: community walks, canvassing, attending community meetings, and working closely with existing community groups [13].

Use

The five cities were asked to supply data on the number of NIC inquiries received from October 1974 through March 1975. However, for one reason or another, the statistics actually delivered covered sometimes more, sometimes less than that period. Still, they offer a general, if sketchy, view and afford an impressionistic picture of the nature of NIC acitivity. The number of NIC queries received, system wide, ranged from a high of more than 8,000 in Detroit in April 1975 to a low of seventy-five in Cleveland in March. Houston, without a central NIC operation, received 661 in February. In that month, the number of queries received by Houston's individual branches ranged from zero (in nine branches) to 306. The mean number of queries per branch was twenty-eight. In February, the number of queries received in the branches of Queens ranged from eight to seventy-two, with a mean of forty-one per branch. Atlanta received close to 5,000 inquiries per month in the first three months of 1975.

Atlanta serves as an excellent example of one widespread problem associated with statistical reporting for this project in particular and for reference/information services in general. Over two-thirds of Atlanta's NIC count consisted of tallies from the Telephone Ready Reference Department. Examination of those queries revealed that they were often "standard" reference questions of the kind that have been dealt with by public libraries for decades. In none of the cities was it known exactly to what extent NIC statistics actually derived from the new service. Moreover, each of the five cities categorized their NIC inquiries differently. Comparison of the topics of these inquiries from city to city was thus impossible.

The most significant NIC statistic was produced hy Detroit's central unit. Unlike all other NIC outlets in Detroit and the other cities, Detroit's *central* NIC is completely distinct from other reference or information activities at the branches or at the central library. Even though some "traditional" queries were tallied in with the NIC statistics, the figures generated by the central NIC operation were the clearest "use" data generated in the course of operations in any city. Even assuming considerable error in the tallies, the central NIC desk was processing over 7,000 queries per month by the end of the project period.

Users

Personnel in each of the cities were asked to conduct brief interviews of every second NIC client over a two-week period in late March and early April, according to a structured interview schedule. Actually, data collection proceeded in a rather less regular manner. The period of the survey turned out to be much shorter in some branches than in others. A busy branch occasionally interviewed every fourth client, while a branch that received very few NIC queries interviewed every client. Sometimes the staff of a branch refused to ask a certain question (for instance, age or education). These are serious shortcomings; they threaten confidence in the data. However, the total number of responses obtained was large enough to afford a rough perspective on NIC users.

A total of 580 usable interviews were completed in all five cities. This represents approximately 17 percent of the 3,395 clients who received NIC service during the survey period. Six percent of the clients who were approached for an interview refused to respond. Cleveland provided so few—fourteen to be exact—that it will not be discussed individually.

About 57 percent of the people interviewed said they had never used NIC services before. In Houston and Queens, however, the percentages were substantially higher: 82 and 70 percent respectively. Seventy-three percent claimed they had used the public library before—60 percent within the last year, and almost 50 percent within the last six months. Using either once-a-year or once-in-six-months as a criterion for defining "active" user, it appears that slightly more than half of those interviewed were active library users, and close to half were not active users. One of the charges of the NIC Project was to serve nonuser groups. It appears that the libraries achieved some success in this. The roughly fifty-fifty mix of users and nonusers may, in fact, be a desirable ratio. It suggests that new populations and current user groups can both be drawn to this new service. It may be possible for libraries to find support in new quarters without relinquishing the support of their traditional clientele.

It is interesting that the two cities with the strongest publicity campaigns and the most vital NIC service attracted much more than the average percentage of nonusers. Detroit and Houston drew 14 and 15 percent more nonusers than any other city, respectively. Putting it another way, their NIC service attracted the least number of people who had used the library within the last year—16–18 percent fewer than the next closest city. This statistic could indicate either a higher level of NIC service offered by those two cities or more successful publicity campaigns.

Twenty percent of NIC users first heard of the service through friends, neighbors, or relatives; 24 percent from NIC staff; and 21 percent from NIC printed materials. Users were referred to the NICs by another agency 8 percent of the time. The impact of the various means of publicity varied considerably from city to city, but the data may not be robust enough to support fine observations. The NIC services were first learned of through radio by 9 percent of the sample; through television by 5 percent; through newspapers by 5 percent; and through other means or "don't remember" by 10 percent. In Detroit more than twice as many people heard about the NIC through the newspaper as in any other city; in Houston, radio had twice as much impact as in any other city; in Atlanta users were referred by outside agencies to the NIC about three times as often as in other cities. It is curious that, in Houston, as in other cities, the impact of television was not strong, despite the fact that Houston launched what is generally considered to have been a very successful television publicity campaign. The relatively low impact of television in Houston may have been due to the fact that the television publicity occurred long before the time of the survey and its impact may have dissipated.

Sixty-seven percent of the users claimed they lived in the locality of the branch to which they took their NIC inquiry. Detroit's figure of 53 percent was lower than the average. This can probably be attributed to the strong drawing power of Detroit's central NIC outlet, which processed 92 percent of the whole system's inquiries and served people who called in and walked in from all over the metropolitan area.

The literature of social science research continually attests to the strong relationship between an individual's membership in organizations and the extent to which he is an opinion leader, information gatekeeper, or community leader. A question in the interview on club and organization memberships was included in an effort to get a rough idea of whether NIC users played an information role in their communities, thus extending the impact of NIC service. The number of organizational memberships held by the average NIC user was 1.1. Forty-seven percent affiliated with one or more organizations. Babchuck, in a study of the general adult population of a midwest state, found that 80 percent of his sample affiliated with one or more organizations [14]. While firm conclusions cannot be reached by comparing a sample from a whole state with samples from five cities, my data, when compared with Babchuck's, give some reason to believe that the NICs did not attract more than the average number of community leaders and that most NIC users probably did not serve as information agents in their communities.

The age of the average NIC user was approximately thirty-seven years. The pattern was fairly consistent from city to city. The greatest use occurred by people in the nineteen to thirty-four age group (44 percent); few teens availed themselves of NIC services (8 percent). The figures are very close to Singer's findings at an I & R center in London, Ontario [15, p. 69].

The education of the average NIC user was twelve and one-half years.

Houston, at eleven plus years, was somewhat below the average. This may be a function of Houston's appeal to library nonusers. Typically, library nonusers have less education. Again, these data are reinforced by Singer's findings [14, p. 70].

The proportion of male to female users held relatively constant throughout all five cities (7:13 for all cities). It is almost identical with the findings of Singer's study [15, p. 68].

Resource Agencies

In an attempt to place the NICs in perspective in the urban community, a small number of agencies listed in the NIC resource files were questioned by mail. Staff in each city were asked to draw a systematic sample of twenty agencies from their resource files. A questionnaire was sent out from the NICs in late March and early April 1975. Several cities sent out more than twenty; even so, the size of the sample is so small that no firm observations can be made, even with all five cities aggregated. The most that can be expected from a sample of this size is to develop areas for future inquirics. A total of 110 questionnaires was sent out; fifty-eight, or 3 percent, were returned completed.

When asked if there were a *general* I service available to the citizens in their own city, 85 percent of those responding said Yes. Very often, however, the respondent did not specify the name of the service, and those who named the service rarely agreed. Several respondents in Cleveland mentioned the Community Information Service; in Atlanta, the United Way Information and Referral Service; and in Houston, the Community Welfare Planning Association.

The respondents were asked what kind of agency would be the most appropriate in the role of a general I & R center. Of those answering, 63 percent mentioned a nonlibrary agency by name (sometimes naming themselves). The public library was mentioned 7 percent of the time, despite the fact that the questionnaire obviously pertained to libraries.

In response to "Have you ever received an information request or referral from the public library," answers were fairly evenly divided. Thirty-six percent said Yes; 40 percent said No; 24 percent said they did not know. The 36 percent answering Yes were asked to judge the effectiveness of those public library requests and referrals, on a scale of one to five. The median response was almost dead center, just slightly less than three. About as many respondents thought the library's contacts with them were effective as thought they were ineffective.

The agencies were asked if their public library had a formal I & R service for public use. The majority, 62 percent, said No or Don't know. Thirty-eight percent said Yes. About one-fourth of those who claimed the public library did offer I & R could approximate the name for it. Seventy-seven percent entered no name, or a clearly erroneous one. Detroit respondents accounted for all but one naming.

The last question asked if the public library's role in I & R should be expanded, maintained at the current level, curtailed, or eliminated. Of those responding, 75 percent thought the library's I & R should be expanded, 20 percent thought it should be maintained at the current level, none thought it should be curtailed, and 6 percent thought it should be eliminated.

From these preliminary data, it is possible to formulate several tentative statements that could be investigated further. While resource agencies claim that general I & R service is available to their citizens, there is little agreement as to where it is to be found. This may mean (1) that there *is* no effective general I & R service; (2) that there is inadequate promotion of the existing general I & R service; or (3) that there are a number of competing general I & R services.

The agencies queried overwhelmingly view nonlibrary organizations as the most appropriate providers of general I & R services, and usually they favor organizations that are already in existence, many of which have at least some I & R function already. Either the majority of agency respondents do not know of the NIC Project in their city, or they do not see it as an I & R function. In addition, of those who do appear to know that there is such a service, few know it so well that they can name it with any accuracy. The agencies appear not to consider the library as the most logical site for *the* omnibus I & R service for their citizens. If libraries do in fact aspire to be the primary general I & R center in the municipality, they may face considerable—even if veiled—resistance.

Implications of the NIC Project

The Office of Education's funding of the NIC Project had several positive effects. First, federal funds prompted the inception of I & R services in several of the cities, such as Atlanta and Houston. In other cities—Detroit, perhaps Queens—the federal funds provided extra support for a service that had either already begun or was fairly certain to begin in the near future. It is clear that in those cities where NIC activities were pursued most vigorously—for example, Houston and Detroit—the federal funds defrayed only a small part of the expenses associated with providing I & R services. Second, the project has made the five cities' attempts at I & R service highly visible to the whole professional library community. Third, by joining the five cities in a consortium, the project has facilitated the exchange of ideas and information about the I & R enterprise from city to city. This has also offered an opportunity to make limited comparisons of the cities.

In one important respect, though, the project might have been strengthened. As pointed out by Franklin and Summers, "Description, even when conducted by careful, skilled and concerned persons, cannot replace objective measurements of results achieved, compared to outcomes intended" [12, p. 79]. It is clear that the project was conceived as a series of demonstrations and not as an effort to develop firm understandings of I & R services in a public library setting. The looseness of the consortium almost precluded any substantial research effort. The administration of the consortium was laissez faire from the outset. The national coordinating libraries—initially Cleveland, then Houston—could exert no control over the substance of NIC activities in the various cities; hence there were often no common grounds on which to compare cities. Similarly, control over statistics collection at the national level was ineffective, to the point that the simple statistics of use collected by each city are not comparable. That is, in many ways we lack even the basis for a simple description of what occurred in the project, to say nothing of insight into more complex relationships among important variables.

The data generated for this study are also inadequate. Most notably, the sampling methods were only loosely controlled, and the sample size of the survey of resource agencies was especially small. Therefore it is difficult to be more than tentative in discussing some of the implications of the results of the study. Nonetheless the following seem tenable:

1. The nature of I & R in the public library is likely to be different from I & R in a social service agency, inasmuch as the library incorporates less personal counseling and advice into its activities. It is also probable that the library's primary orientation will be the delivery of accurate information and referrals, in contrast to the frequent orientation of social service agencies toward the delivering of a tangible service or commodity, such as food stamps or clothing. This orientation could result in less concern with the client's *ultimate* need and more concern with an incidental informational need on the part of library I & R staff.

2. The public will respond to public library I & R service in great numbers if the right situation exists. Detroit, where the library is now processing about 100,000 inquiries a year, or one query per month for every 250 persons, is the clearest example of such success.[9]

3. The public library appears capable of overcoming the prevailing image of a materials distributor and of effectively promoting itself as a distributor of information.

4. The I & R can be introduced into the library without committing new money to the effort. It does, however, require that some personnel resources and some space be deployed to I & R service. Detroit's experience indicates that, in a large city, between three and five full-time persons might be kept busy with the additional queries generated by a vital publicity campaign. In addition, part of the time of many other staff will be needed for collecting resource data, community outreach, and other I & R activities. It is obvious that the library system must either have sufficient slack to absorb the additional I & R operations or must be willing to reduce its level of activity in another service area.

9. Based on Detroit's population of 1.5 million.

5. It may not be realistic to expect a public library to restructure its priorities to the extent that established services would be significantly diminished in favor of I & R service. This was not an intent of the NIC project and, indeed, relatively few librarians interviewed evidenced any willingness to consider realignment of service priorities.

6. The I & R service can attract substantial "new" audiences to the public library. Moreover, I & R can serve highly educated as well as uneducated groups. Funding authorities may find I & R an attractive way to spend public money, inasmuch as I & R service may attract a large clientele drawn from library users and nonusers alike.

7. As well as attracting "new" queries to the library, a well-publicized I & R program can attract additional standard reference queries. The staff in Detroit, for instance, encountered many clients who asked by name for the NIC service and then proceeded to pose a standard reference question about such things as a president's birth date, the spelling of a word, or the population of a country.

8. There seems to be a natural resistance to public library I & R service on the part of competing I & R services and resource agents who are afraid that the library will encroach on their domain. The NIC Project, however, indicates that the library can establish positive, mutually beneficial relationships with such agencies. This is more likely to come about when it is realized that the market for I & R in a large city is very great, that the library serves more as a directory than as a counseling service, and that the library's service covers a broader range of topics than other I & R agencies.

9. The public library might reasonably assume the role of convenor of all I & R agencies in a given metropolitan area. The Houston Public Library took the initiative of calling together all such agencies merely to begin sharing experiences. Since that first meeting, the agencies have formed a loose but formal council of information and referral agencies whose major purpose has been to improve overall I & R service for the citizens of Houston.

It is reasonable to consider the public library a suitable site for I & R services. Whether or not a given library succeeds in the venture will be due to a number of factors internal and external to the library.

It appears that the following elements are among those that contribute to the success of a public library's I & R enterprise:

1. Commitment from the top of the organization must be strong, and it must be continually renewed. It must be manifested both administratively (by rearranging priorities, by perpetually advocating I & R) and financially (by devoting staff time, supplies, and space to the new service). In public libraries I & R "cannot be done successfully without a sizeable commitment of resources. It is a mistake to begin it unless the commitment is strong enough that it is likely to be continued in lean times, when to do so would mean perhaps retrenchment elsewhere in the library's program" [16]. It is interesting to note—even though it may be coincidental—that the two libraries most successful in the project (Houston and Detroit) were also the only

two libraries that enjoyed a consistently high level of support from the top managers throughout the project. The other three libraries were all troubled by one sort of administrative upset or other in the course of the project: one director resigned in the midst of an uproar of the public and trustees, another died suddenly, and still another went on a year's leave of absence. It seems that persistent, visible, purposeful direction from the top is a critical element for successful introduction of I & R.

2. There must be a vigorous publicity campaign, renewed occasionally. This is necessary in part to overcome the prevailing public image of the library as a materials-dissemination center. The two cities with the strongest publicity campaigns—Detroit and Houston—experienced immediate public response. Data collected for this report show that these two cities enjoy a greater frequency of use and have attracted a greater percentage of library nonusers than the other three cities. This may be partly a result of strong publicity. The impression from the staff of Detroit and Houston is that the broadcast media are most effective in advertising I & R. The data for this study, however, leave room for considerable doubt.

3. The I & R service must be integrated with other library services. Integration can be partially achieved in several ways: by using the regular service staff to provide I & R service and to maintain the resource files, by providing I & R service from the existing service points within the library; by offering I & R service at every branch in the system; by orienting every member of the library staff to the nature and techniques of I & R, whether they will be directly involved with it or not.

4. Close, positive relations with other I & R services and with resource agents can strengthen the library's I & R service.

5. Awareness of the problems involved in introducing change is necessary. Introduction of I & R service is a substantial change in a library's program, and a change of such magnitude carries substantial personal threat along with it.

6. While it appears to be very important for the I & R staff to establish close relationships with their communities, the means of establishing adequate contact can vary widely. With some degree of success, the following kinds of contact have been demonstrated in the project: door-to-door canvassing of residents, door-to-door contact with businesses and services in the major commercial areas, and attending regular meetings of formal groups, such as a junior chamber of commerce, a civic improvement association, or a parent-teacher organization.

The Future of I & R in the Public Library

Over the past several decades I & R has been an occasional facet of public library activities (for example, the war information service of Detroit Public

Library during World War II). The recent reintroduction of I & R represents something new, however, by virtue of its scale. It is inherently a unique addition to the public library's repertoire and it may even be seen by some as a radical departure from the library's rightful role. Yet significantly, reports in the current library literature indicate that the I & R movement is gaining momentum. It is obvious that the idea of I & R is attracting more and more attention in the library world.

It seems clear that the practice of I & R in libraries would be considerably enhanced by a usable body of empirical data. Below are some needs related to expanding our understanding of I & R in public libraries. All of them depend upon the collection of data. All of them are intended to provide a sounder base for decision making. It would be most appropriate that these efforts be undertaken at the state or national levels in order to produce the most generalizable results.

The easiest data to collect are simple descriptions of I & R operations in numerical form. If we are ultimately to arrive at descriptions that permit comparison of one I & R operation with another, it is necessary to regularize the scales by which they are measured. This means that we must move toward uniform definitions and taxonomies, so that the scales of measurement are consistent. An equally important but considerably more complex method is controlled field experimentation (as opposed to mere demonstration), with carefully controlled application of a variety of techniques, staffing patterns, administrative approaches, etc., in order to determine the most efficient configuration for effective service delivery.

There is also a pressing need to investigate on a systematic basis, either through simple description or field experimentation, the following:

1. Optimum file arrangement and access. For instance, it is possible to index a resource by the service it offers (for example, methadone) or the problem it solves (for example, drug abuse). Which of these methods is most appropriate to a successful I & R service?

2. Format of the resource file. Resource files have existed in printed, microfiche, three- by five-inch card, automated, and "mental" formats. What are the advantages and disadvantages of these various formats, singly or in combination?

3. The inquiry. Very little is known about the nature of the demands on public library I & R services. One of the first questions to ask is how the topics of inquiry relate to standard demographic variables such as age, sex, income level, education, and occupation. Beyond that, we need to determine how the nature of I & R transactions varies from population to population: What are the demands for referral as opposed to simple steering? What is the relative speed of the I & R transaction from population to population? What language or interpretive skills are needed? What kind of counseling occurs—or does not occur—in various populations?

4. Response of the service staff. Levels of service vary from transaction to

transaction. Knowledge about discrepancies between service policy and service delivery; about the exact nature of the question negotiation, steering, referral, and counseling processes; and about the techniques used in contacting resource agencies will contribute to sounder decision making related to goal and policy formation, staffing, budgeting, training, and orientation of staff. It would be particularly valuable to view the I & R services as a client might encounter them. An unobtrusive method already applied to library telephone-reference service offers one method for achieving such a vantage point [17].

5. Costs of I & R service. Unfortunately, the NIC experience did not yield usable cost figures. In large part this was due to the rather complex integration of I & R into other library activities. To arrive at accurate cost figures it would be necessary to engage in detailed cost-accounting procedures and interviews of staff. Perhaps more than any other facet of I & R, costs will be an important element in the decision of whether to initiate I & R service.

6. The impact of various forms of publicity. Each form of publicity has its own peculiar impact. Data of impact compared with the costs of each form will result in cost-benefit data that will facilitate decision making.

7. Administrative configurations. The I & R service can be introduced into a library system in a number of ways, ranging from participative to autocratic, system-wide to branch-by-branch, authorized from the highest levels to founded on grass-roots support. Also, I & R can be administered in a variety of styles, from laissez faire to authoritarian, from centralized to branch based, from closely supervised to generally supervised, from clearly delegated to vaguely delegated, from highly integrated to unintegrated. The aspects of the subject that could be studied are almost limitless, and the findings would provide a valuable basis for management decisions about I & R services in public libraries.

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THE COVER DESIGN

Jacques Sacon (called variously Sacco, Saccon, Sachonus, Zachonus) was a native of Piedmont. He printed in Lyons from about 1496 to 1530. Starting with a Venetian font, he later added Gothic. He was active for about thirty-five years and printed for such great publishers as Anton Koberger of Nuremberg and Lucantonio Giunta of Venice as well as for the publishers and company of booksellers of Lyons. The prosperous owner of two houses with sizable rents, he left his widow with enough assets to provide dowries for their daughters. The bibliography of books he printed includes 143 issued in the period 1498–1530. His most productive years, however, were from 1508 to 1521, when he published 112 books, an average of 8 a year. The largest number were theological treatises and Bibles.

For his first printer's mark, Sacon used a white orb and cross on a solid background. His initials are inscribed within the orb. The allegorical design reproduced here (reduced) appeared in the Latin Bible he printed for Anton Koberger in 1512. Baudrier calls this Bible the first edition of the revision of Albertus Castellanus. Darlow and Moule, however, say it is a close reprint of the earlier edition of Jacobus Mareschal. The title page was printed in red and black; the book contains a concordance. The model for the device appears in Corio's history of Milan, published in 1503.

The meaning of the central winged figure, standing on *terra firma* and bearing a cornucopia of fire on one shoulder and one of water on the other, is conjectural. Davies (no. 28) considered and rejected her identification as Ceres. That goddess of the earth was customarily represented fully draped, carrying ears of corn and poppies, and crowned with a corn measure. An English printer, John Bydell (McKerrow no. 83), adapted the device, but he labeled one cornucopia Grace and the other Charity. This suggests one of the

Christian Graces. Charity was conventionally represented with a bare bosom, sometimes nursing a child or two. If this is acceptable, the busts at the lower two corners might complete the trio by representing Faith and Hope, lesser Graces, according to 1 Corinthians 13. While cornucopias spilling fire and water hardly look like emblems of Charity, if we think of baptismal water and are reminded of the biblical text popular at the time that the word of God is like fire, the figure might stand up. It is possible, however, to regard the central figure simply as an allegory of the four elements. Earth, water, and fire are clearly represented. If the wings are meant to be functional (physically dubious but symbolically standard), we might add air to complete the quartet.

Each of the shields bears the lion of the city of Lyons at the top and the printer's monogram with an orb and cross at the bottom. The ornamentation of the base, columns, and capitals seems to be purely decorative. The motto of the Order of the Golden Fleece, a select group of thirty-one knights of the Holy Roman Empire, is printed in Latin at the top. It can be translated, "The price of achievement is not cheap." The Latin motto at the bottom can be translated, "Virtue returns blessings." Sacon is unusual in using two mottoes with one device, but he seems to have been a man of sentiment.

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PUBLISHING AT THE OFFICINA PLANTINIANA: A REVIEW ARTICLE[1]

Robert M. Kingdon

The Golden Compasses: A History and Evaluation of the Printing and Publishing Activities of the Officina Plantiniana at Antwerp. By LEON VOET Vol. 1: *Christophe Plantin and the Moretuses: Their Lives and Their World.* Pp. xxii + 501; 105 plates. Vol. 2: *The Management of a Printing and Publishing House in Renaissance and Baroque.* Pp. xxi + 632; 77 plates. New York: Abner Schram, 1969–74. $150 set. ISBN 0-8390-0003-0.

There can surely be no doubt that the materials preserved in the Plantin-Moretus museum of Antwerp provide the most important single collection of sources for our knowledge of the history of the book trade in the entire period running from the invention of printing to the technological breakthroughs of the nineteenth century. Here, in the very building outfitted by Christopher Plantin as the headquarters of the largest publishing enterprise of the late sixteenth century, one can still find much of the equipment used over this entire period by the firm he established, including presses, type fonts, and material for casting types. Here one can also find the nearly complete business records kept by Plantin and his successors, a collection which is unique in the history of publishing and would be hard to match in the history of any other industry, covering as it does more than 200 years of intensive activity (1555–1765) and several ensuing decades of diminishing and desultory activity. Here one can even find many of the furnishings and works of art collected by this family of publishers for its own pleasure over this long span of time.

All students of the history of the book trade, therefore, have good reason to be grateful to the Belgian authorities for maintaining the museum and for staffing it with erudite specialists capable of making its treasures available to the international scholarly community. Max Rooses was the first of those specialists, and his work laid a base upon which all modern scholarship must build. Of particular importance are his large and leisurely biography of Plantin, published in two editions (1882, 1896), and his edition of Plantin's correspondence, completed by J. Denucé (1883–1920). However, although this work is amazingly complete and precise, it does not exhaust its subject. Rooses often failed to document his findings fully, so one must hunt to find the

1. Parts of this article were first used in a review of the first volume only of *The Golden Compasses* in *Bibliothèque d'Humanisme et Renaissance* 32 (1970): 214–17.

hard evidence for much of the information he provides. He did not bring to his study the entire range of technical competences needed to make clear its full significance. And he wrote so much so quickly that minor slips in fact or judgment occasionally crept into his work.

Since Roose's death there has been important progress in studies of the *officina plantiniana.* Of particular importance, in my view, have been the contributions of scholars with special technical expertise. Thus historians of typography, preeminently Harry Carter, have used material from the Plantin museum to illuminate our knowledge of sixteenth-century typefaces. And historians of finance, notably Raymond and Florence Edler de Roover, have used Plantin's accounts to uncover important new information about the business operations of sixteenth-century publishing firms. Much of this work, however, has been monographic, narrow in focus, and widely scattered. It was high time for a fresh synthesis.

That synthesis and more has now been provided by Leon Voet, current director of the Plantin-Moretus museum, in this profusely illustrated and handsomely printed survey. Dr. Voet does not try to be definitive. That would probably be impossible, given the present state of scholarly work on the *officina plantiniana.* In areas which have already been studied considerably, he synthesizes, judiciously and plausibly. In areas which have not as yet been much explored, he samples, drawing information from the rich museum archives. Volume 1, which covers the careers of the successive directors of the house and the history of the building which served as their headquarters, is predominantly synthesis. Volume 2, which analyzes the firm's business management, contains some extremely interesting fresh information, but often only for certain key periods or ventures.

One result is that a disproportionate amount of space in both volumes is devoted to Christopher Plantin, the firm's founder. A full third of volume 1 is taken up by its first chapter, on Plantin's career. Much shorter chapters cover the career of his son-in-law and immediate successor, Jan I Moretus, and the later Moretus descendants. An even greater proportion of the chapters in volume 2 concentrate on Plantin's own methods. Some parts of the analysis barely consider the ways in which his successors operated. Most scholars would probably agree that Plantin is the most interesting and significant member of the family. He lived through a particularly stormy and colorful period in Antwerp's history, and it was his great pioneering abilities as printer, diplomat, and businessman that made the whole enterprise possible. But his Moretus descendants also deserve attention. In a period when the Spanish Netherlands was in a general economic decline and when the center of the entire Netherlandish publishing industry was shifting from Antwerp to the north,[2] they not only survived but even prospered. They limited their busi-

2. This shift has recently been described in detail by J. G. C. A. Briels, *Zuidnederlandse boekdruk-*

ness, to be sure, specializing more and more in editions of Catholic service books rather than trying to appeal to all the varied publics for which Plantin had published, but they exploited their narrower market shrewdly and won remarkable wealth and security as a result. Before a great deal can be written about the Moretuses, however, a good deal of preliminary work should be completed. Their business correspondence, for example, needs systematic study and ideally should be published. Voet is fully aware of the need for more work on the Moretuses. Indeed, important parts of his chapters on their careers are devoted to suggestions for further study. So are parts of his chapters on the building as it was modified by the Moretuses, for example, in chapter 10 of volume 1, on the "patrician residence." This part of his study is as much a program for future research as a report on past research.

The really important contributions of this study, however, lie in certain chapters of volume 2. For they indicate the extent to which certain materials kept in the Plantin-Moretus museum are unique in both quantity and quality and may be used to answer questions that can be answered from no other source. This has been pointed out in the recent past by a number of specialists. Henri-Jean Martin, for example, in his monumental thesis on *Livre, pouvoirs, et société à Paris au XVII^e^ siècle (1598–1701)* (2 vols. [Geneva: Librairie Droz, 1969]), noted that only in the Plantin archives could he find precise information on how certain seventeenth-century printers trading in Paris settled accounts with each other (1:307–11, esp. 309).

Research possibilities pointed out by Harry Carter and Florence Edler de Roover have had a particularly great influence on Voet's analysis. In 1956, Carter noted that the Plantin-Moretus museum collection of sixteenth-century typographic materials is by far the richest surviving, containing, among other things, three times as many matrices as three other great collections put together, with most of them in superior condition.[3] Carter has proceeded to make admirable use of these riches himself, notably in his 1968 Lyell lectures, *A View of Early Typography up to about 1600* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1969) and his monograph, prepared with H. D. L. Vervliet of the Plantin museum staff, on *Civilité Types* (London: Oxford University Press for the Oxford Bibliographical Society, 1966). Voet has not only used these publications to good effect but has also consulted Carter personally in preparing his informative chapters on typographical matters.

In 1937, Florence Edler de Roover published an article on the account books kept by Plantin between 1563 and 1567, when he was in partnership with several other men and needed to make complete annual reports to them on the state of the business.[4] They used a sophisticated double-entry system

kers en boekverkopers in de Republiek der Verenigde Nederlanden omstreeks, 1570–1630 (Nieuwkoop: de Graaf Publishers, 1974).

3. Harry Carter, "Plantin's Types and Their Makers," in *Gedenkboek der Plantin-Dagen, 1555–1955* (Antwerp: Vereeniging der Antwerpsche Bibliophielen, 1956), pp. 253–54.

4. Florence Edler [de Roover], "Cost Accounting in the Sixteenth Century: The Books of

very rare in the period and unusually informative about the financial operations of the firm. Voet makes full use of these and certain complementary accounts in chapters on sales and finances, backed with extensive appendixes. They are, in my opinion, the freshest and most interesting parts of the entire study. He draws on these accounts directly for appendix 1, a complete balance sheet of the firm's activities for the year 1566, and appendix 7, which provides information on costs and sales for 3 sample editions over the three years 1566–68. He draws on these and selected later accounts for appendixes 2–4, inventories of books bought and sold during three sample years: 1566, when Plantin was gearing up for his period of greatest prosperity; 1609, when Jan I Moretus was at the height of his career; and 1650, when Balthasar II Moretus was at the height of his career. These are very revealing of the shifts in the geography of the firm's markets, signaling, among other developments, the growth of a market in the northern Netherlands, the growth of an even more substantial market in Spain, and the continuing importance to the trade of the Frankfurt book fair until the Thirty Years' War damaged it seriously. Information about trade in Frankfurt is deepened by appendixes 5 and 6, on participation in fairs both in 1579 and 1609.

I personally found two of Voet's findings particularly interesting: (1) The most important cost for books was paper. It almost always accounted for at least half of the raw cost of a book, on the average ran 60–65 percent of cost, and could run as high as 75 percent in large printings (2:19 ff.; examples are on pp. 382–83). Wages for journeymen was the next most important cost. All other costs which Plantin allocated specifically to an edition were comparatively minor. A modern accountant, to be sure, would make allowances for overhead running expenses and inventory maintenance, which Plantin ignored. But his cost figures are still very suggestive. They reveal that the cost of an individual volume and hence its price and the market it could reach varied considerably with the book's format and length, the determinants of the amount of paper needed. (2) The optimum size for most normal editions was 1,250 copies, and the optimum size for service books in two colors was 1,000 copies. As Plantin himself pointed out, there were technological reasons for these figures. In a single day, one of his presses could print 1,250 sheets for a normal edition and 1,000 sides (500 sheets) for a liturgical edition (2:169, 325–28). While a good many editions were actually more or less than these optima, most editions tended to run close to these figures. They offer, it seems to me, multiples which might be generally useful in estimating the size of pressruns for other books of the period.

Voet is currently preparing an extended descriptive bibliography of the roughly 4,000 imprints known to have been produced by the *officina plantiniana*. It should both supplement and replace definitively the old, incomplete,

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Account of Christopher Plantin, Antwerp, Printer and Publisher," *Accounting Review* 12 (1937): 226–37.

and often inaccurate bibliography prepared by C. Ruelens and A. de Backer, *Annales plantiniennes* (Brussels, 1865; reprint eds., Paris, 1866, and New York, 1967). While it will surely become a precious work of reference for anyone interested in the firm, Voet's present 2-volume study is probably of even greater general value, and it points the way to many fascinating possibilities for future work on the early modern book trade.

INFORMATION NEEDS OF SOCIAL SCIENTISTS: A REVIEW ARTICLE

Fred W. Riggs

Classification and Indexing in the Social Sciences. By D. J. FOSKETT. 2d ed. London: Butterworth & Co., 1974. Pp. 202. £5.00. ISBN 0-408-70644-9.

As a social scientist, I approach with diffidence the task of reviewing a book by the eminent librarian of the Institute of Education at the University of London for the *Library Quarterly*. Nevertheless, I accepted the invitation because of the intrinsic importance of the theme and the emphasis laid by D. J. Foskett on "the most important task at the moment," namely, to "bring about a closer relationship between librarians and research workers in social science" (p. 15).

It is difficult to induce scholars to understand that librarians, documentalists, and "information scientists" can really help them; conversely, many librarians are resistant to the design of user-oriented information facilities rather than to stereotyped modes of materials processing. It is therefore most encouraging to note Foskett's persistent emphasis on the need to design classification and indexing structures that will more effectively bring to scholar-users the information they require. In this connection, he draws a useful distinction between the librarian's function of retrieving information "relevant" to a user's needs and the researcher's function of selecting from this information items that are "pertinent" to his work (p. 6).

A major thrust of the work is Foskett's effort to establish the relative advantages of classification as a format for information retrieval in contrast to alphabetically based indexes. While recognizing the inadequacy of established classification schemes (Dewey and Library of Congress in the United States, Universal Decimal Classification and others elsewhere), Foskett explains how a superior modern framework for classification can be designed. He characterizes the traditional schemes as based on a "universal context assumption" or "generic relation" which hampers the work of users who need to place terms in different contexts. In contrast, Foskett argues that modern classification theory departs from the "agreed orientation" viewpoint in order "to provide a flexible approach which caters for many points of view . . ." (p. 30).

In elaborating his thesis, the author stresses the use of "facets" which can be used in classification to identify relationships and diverse aspects of any topic. Examples are S. R. Ranganathan's basic categories of "personality, matter, energy, space, and time" applicable to any class in his Colon Classification and the simpler dichotomy of "activities and personalities" used by

Barbara Kyle in the classification scheme she prepared for UNESCO's social science bibliographies.

As for the sequence of main classes in a general scheme, Foskett argues against reliance on conventional disciplinary labels, and he criticizes the core structure of both the Dewey and Library of Congress classifications. Instead, he suggests an approach using the concept of rising levels of integration and some basic principles taken from General Systems Theory. His conclusion: " . . . A general classification scheme is needed. . . . None of the existing schemes are satisfactory and . . . we have enough ideas about the structure of a new scheme to make the effort to produce one worthwhile" (p. 153).

As for indexes, Foskett argues that alphabetical lists by themselves are not satisfactory guides for retrieval, notably because they fail to put the researcher in touch with closely related subjects when he or she is insufficiently clear about exactly what he or she is looking for. He claims that the more sophisticated thesauri smuggle in abortive classifications by the back door. His preference, then, is to use indexes as guides to classification, and he has some interesting ideas about how they can best be designed for this purpose. A penultimate chapter on notational symbols is a thoughtful contribution to a little-researched subject.

Evaluating the book from a social scientist's perspective, I have to confess disappointment that Foskett did not go far enough. His basic orientation is toward handling a collection, toward making its contents more available. However, researchers need to know about information not contained in any one collection—even the largest. Modern reprography and interlibrary lending have reduced the cost of making and acquiring texts so much that scholars now demand access to materials located all over the world. Yet Foskett emphasizes sequence (collocation) in classification, as though browsing in the open stacks were a prime means for discovery. My suspicion is that the practicing social scientist rarely searches in this way and is not only ignorant of but virtually indifferent to collocation.

The possibilities of machine searching seem to be underrated, and Foskett gives no systematic attention to the major computerized information-retrieval systems—there is only one reference to ERIC, for example, and this concerns the structure of its thesaurus. Although the older work of the Human Relations Area Files is mentioned, there is no recognition of its recently developed Automated Bibliographic System (HABS), nor is there more than a mention of the Information Utilization Laboratory at the University of Pittsburgh and other facilities for regional access to national or international programs. Foskett also gives only passing reference to on-line interaction and networking capabilities for retrieval purposes.

A major practical problem for users is to gain access to pertinent items within the covers of bound volumes and to serials and "fugitive" materials. Standard indexing is of limited value—I had to create my own index to Foskett's volume inside the back cover—supplementing his own "name and subject" index of the usual kind—to facilitate retrieval for this review essay. Some scholars create elaborate retrieval systems for their own use—a good example is Ken Janda's apparatus for the systematic comparative study of political parties. He has copied texts extensively on MIRACODE, a microfilm reader-printer which permits the rapid retrieval of coded items on individual frames. It greatly expands the term entry retrieval capabilities of "peek-a-boo" or "optical coincidence" cards, which Foskett does describe. The principles that Janda has developed could be extended for the use of groups by scholars by coding (whether by a thesaurus or classification scheme) microfiche collections that bring together materials now available only in widely scattered and often inaccessible depositories and archives. Librarians wishing to facilitate social science research could perform an invaluable service by utilizing their classification and indexing skills to help individual scholars who now often spend much time constructing wastefully inadequate personal retrieval schemes. If such schemes are to be made useful to others, they also need to be supplemented by automated bibliographic and descriptor control.

Looking beyond the normal type of library holding, social scientists also require access to information now available only in nonconventional formats, such as machine-readable tapes and cards. Data banks for the storage and utilization of such data have been established at many universities—although rarely in their libraries. An international association of social science data archivists (IASSIST) has recently been organized. The special problems involved in classifying and indexing data-bank holdings for more effective scholarly utilization are massive and relevant to the theme of the book—but untouched. Similar remarks apply to audiovisual materials.

Increasingly, social scientists use prepublished information, often distributed privately as mimeographed or photocopied papers. Access to such information is facilitated by many services which report research in progress as well as by biographical directories of scholars. The directory of the International Studies Association, for example, indexes the fields of interest of its members, their modes of analysis, linguistic competence, geographic-area specialization, and disciplinary orientation. An international collection of information on research institutes, funded studies, and scholars and their inquiries has been created at UNESCO in its Social Science Documentation Center, and a computer program, DARE (for "data retrieval"), has been prepared to facilitate use of this information. Clearly, these activities raise additional problems of classification and indexing for the use of social scientists—but they lie outside the scope of Foskett's treatment.

To close their information gap, scholars need to choose, among "relevant" titles, those most likely to be "pertinent" to their own work. When this involves the use of materials not in their own libraries, each use of a source may be costly in time, money, or both. Hence any library service that can improve the prospects of a "hit" will be much appreciated. Foskett's approach to this problem is solely through the refinement of subject retrieval—how to bring the most relevant materials to the user's attention. However, users are also interested in other-than-substantive characteristics of a source; they may be interested in, for example, information about the methodology and competence of the author. A systematic procedure for assimilating such "quality control" information into any bibliographic citation has been incorporated by H. C. Koh in the HABS program. It needs to be added to the general theory of classification and indexing.

A fundamental problem in the social sciences arises from a general lack of clear distinctions between scientific and natural-language terms. A chemist distinguishes between the precise meaning of H_2O as a compound and "water" as roughly defined in everyday use. Few such distinctions are clearly made in the social sciences, where natural-language words are typically used for a congeries of closely related technical meanings. Foskett reports, with approval, J. C. Gardin's emphasis on the need for "subject or concept analysis" as the basis for all forms of retrieval (p. 101).

To cope with multifarious ambiguities, social scientists spend a great deal of time defining the new concepts for which they typically use established words. If classification and indexing is to serve better the needs of social scientists, then, it must eventually assimilate these meanings. Nevertheless, the ambiguity of words is so great that much of what seems "relevant" to a librarian strikes the user as not "pertinent." To close this retrieval gap, it is probably necessary to establish a mechanism for retrieving definitions from the literature. In that belief, a computerized concept inventory for the social sciences is being established at the Pittsburgh Information Utilization Laboratory under the aegis of the Committee on Conceptual and Terminological Analysis (COCTA) of the International Political Science Association. It can be used, potentially, to enhance the precision of classification and indexing.

Since social science knows no national bounds, information retrieval for practicing scholars needs to be global in domain. The natural scientists have already moved vigorously to universalize their information-retrieval facilities by establishing, through UNESCO, a world-science-information system (UNISIST). Foskett mentions that they have decided to include the social sciences within the scope of UNISIST, but he does not elaborate upon this decision. Actually, the Social Science Department of UNESCO, responding to the establishment of UNISIST and utilizing some of its projects, has decided to promote a global network of social science information systems.

To illustrate, one of the UNISIST projects involves the creation under contract with the International Federation for Documentation (FID), of a Broad System of Ordering (BSO). This is essentially a thesaurus of all fields of knowledge designed to guide users to previously established specialized thesauri and information systems. Although oriented primarily toward the natural sciences, BSO already includes draft terminology for social science fields. Much refinement is needed, however, to make BSO a useful instrument for social scientists. Other projects include work on the international standardization of terminology, through the facilities of INFOTERM (International Information Center for Terminology), a project in Vienna of the International Standards Organization; the establishment of a world list of serials; and a global guide to abstracting services. In each instance the inclusion of data for the social sciences is so far rudimentary.

Since all these activities involve the use of classification schemes and indexes, they seem to fall within the scope of Foskett's book. If he decides to bring out a third edition, I hope he will expand the scope of his inquiry so as to make it more broadly responsive to the needs of social scientists, a goal which, after all, he has set for himself.

Scribes and Scholars: A Guide to the Transmission of Greek and Latin Literature. By L. D. REYNOLDS and N. G. WILSON 2d ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 1974. Pp. x+275; 16 pp. of plates. $19.25 (cloth), ISBN 0-19-814371-0; $8.00 (paper), ISBN 0-19-814372-9.

We saw what a superb work the first edition (1968) of this book was, how well it served its purpose of providing an introduction to the history of Greek and Latin texts for beginners, and what a storehouse of information it was for everyone; and we see in the new edition another splendid item. Several reviewers of the first edition expressed the hope that two omissions noted by the authors might be filled in a new edition. The authors had said in the preface to their first edition: "Reasons of space have compelled us . . . to omit some topics which we should have liked to treat, such as the general history of scholarship since the Renaissance," and "Detailed footnotes . . . seemed out of keeping with the character of such an introductory work." Both these omissions have now been filled.

The preface to the second edition points out that there are now "short notes to each chapter, largely bibliographical in character" (the first edition had indicated the primary sources in brackets in the text and provided a "Select Bibliography") and a new chapter carrying the survey "down to the modern period"; and the authors have also "made a number of additions and corrections to the original text and brought details up to date" (p. vii). We still have chapters 1–4: "Antiquity," "The Greek East," "The Latin West," and "The Renaissance." Chapter 5, "Some Aspects of Scholarship since the Renaissance," is the new one; the old chapter 5, "Textual Criticism," is now the concluding one. The section on the discoveries of papyri, which was an appendix to chapter 1 in the old edition, now has its appropriate place in the new chapter. There are the same 16 plates in both editions.

There are several additions of considerable scope to the original chapters. For instance, one of the themes of the section, "Developments under the Early Empire" in chapter 1, namely, that the teachers and the grammarians, working away at their textual criticism, had the power to spoil as well as to emend texts, receives more documentation; the authors note now that Quintilian is evidence for the fact that Livy's text was already wrongly "emended" in his day because it did not begin "*hexametri exordio*" *facturusne operae pretium sim,* but with *facturusne sim operae pretium* (which all the manuscripts of the Nicomachean family read). Much has been added to the section "Paganism and Christianity in the Fourth Century" of the same chapter; the treatment is made more explicit by citation of the analogies given by Saint Jerome and Saint Augustine to justify the use of secular literature and learning. In chapter 3, the extensive paragraph on Saint Isidore and his significance is entirely new (the "most frequently copied section" of his *Etymologiae* was "the first three books covering the subjects of the *trivium* and *quadrivium*") [p. 74].

The chapter on textual criticism remains about the same (I have noticed just one changed example, that illustrating the misinterpretation of a *nomen sacrum* in the section on "Corruptions") but has a conclusion now. This conclusion is full of frank confessions and sage remarks: the authors warn that their categorizing of the principles of textual criticism must not give us the idea that there are no special problems and that manuscript traditions always respond to the same treatment. They point out that they have not explored the various methods that have been contrived for dealing with contaminated traditions, where the stemmatic theory is less applicable, but note that these methods "range from empirical, common-sense approaches . . . to elaborate statistical techniques" (p. 212).

The exposition in the new chapter is according to individuals in the first 4 sections ("The Counter-Reformation: The High Renaissance in Italy," "The Beginnings of Humanism and Scholarship in France," "The Netherlands in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries," and "Richard Bentley [1662–1742]: Classical and Theological Studies") and then according to subjects in the next 2 ("The Origins of Palaeography," and "Discoveries of Texts since the Renaissance," which is subdivided into "Palimpsests," "Papyri," "Other Manuscript Discoveries," and "Epigraphic Texts"), and it concludes with an "Epilogue." There is much here about printing houses and about the first books on textual criticism, the transmission of texts, and the like. For example, F. Robortello's *De arte critica* (1557) was "apparently the first attempt to write a brief manual of textual criticism" (p. 150); W. Canter's "Edition of Euripides, printed by Plantin in 1571, is the first to pay particular attention to responsion and its role in emendation" (p. 161). The survey of the history of palaeography is deftly done, with the advance of Scipione Maffei over Dom Jean Mabillon well brought out (Mabillon had said nothing about a possible relationship among his five categories of Latin book hands; Maffei explained that there were certain basic scripts in late antiquity—majuscule, minuscule, and cursive—variations of which arose independently in the different parts of the Roman Empire after its breakup).

This volume is meant to be a short one, and, with all the information that it contains, it is a wonderful example of *multum in parvo.* What not to include or dwell on must have been an immense problem for the authors. It seems unfortunate to me that the papyri of Herculaneum are so briefly handled (one sentence on p. 177) and have no specific bibliography. Among the few misprints, slips, or inconsistencies that I have noted are *Papenbroek* varying with *Papenbroeck* (pp. 171, 244, 265; I prefer the latter), *annum* for *annuum* (Catullus 34. 18, p. 209), *dictatamen* for *dictamen* (index, p. 260: a dittography or an infection from *dictatores* immediately following). The translation of the book into Italian by Mirella Ferrari (1st ed., Padua, 1969; 2d ed., 1973—presumably from the authors' typescript or proofs of the second edition) and the one into French which the authors refer to as "about to be published by Les Editions du Seuil" (p. vii; I have not seen it and do not know whether it has appeared yet) attest to the international repute which this volume has won. It is a repute which it richly deserves.

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Geschichte des Buchandels vom Altertum bis zur Gegenwart. Teil 1: *Bis zur Erfindung des Buchdrucks sowie Geschichte des deutschen Buchhandels.* By HANS WIDMANN. Völlige Neubearbeitung der Auflage von 1952. Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1975. Pp. xvii + 308. DM 98. ISBN 3-447-01654-X.

Hans Widmann's history of the book trade has long been a standard handbook, a succinct guide to the subject and its literature. The original edition (1952) of 189 pages was an enlarged version of Widmann's chapter on the book trade in the *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft* (2d ed.), which in turn was based on Ernst Kuhnert's contribution to the original *Handbuch* in 1931. This new edition is planned for 2 volumes with the volume under review devoted to the manuscript book trade in classical and medieval times, the invention of printing, and the trade in Germany up to the present day. Volume 2 will cover the rest of the world and include a chapter on the antiquarian book trade.

The volume in hand has been heavily rewritten and expanded with many new bibliographical references. One half of the text is apportioned to the history of the German trade after 1890, a decision made because the monumental history by Friedrich Kapp and Johann Goldfriedrich only goes up to 1889. I have consistently used Widmann and will continue to do so because it has no real rival. What the author sets out to do is accomplished with exceptional clarity. Each chapter, as in the first edition, is prefaced by a copious bibliography, and additional references are found throughout. What might be construed as arbitrary emphases or gaps are often intentional limitations or a reflection of the lacunae in published research. Widmann seldom strays from his central concern, which is the business of publishing and selling books. There is thus not much room for *Geistesgeschichte*, printing history, reading tastes, technological developments, or typography. This concentration of purpose is in a way the book's strength. If one wished to criticize, it should be from within the author's own chosen limits.

One might cavil at the underrepresentation of non-German scholarship. For example, the early chapters contain no reference to C. H. Roberts, "The Codex," *Proceedings of the British Academy* 40 (1954): 169–204. The chapter on the invention and spread of printing in Germany covers 23 pages: there is no reference to the seminal articles of Elizabeth L. Eisenstein nor to any work by Allan Stevenson, no mention at all of the *Missale speciale* and a neglect of the paper industry. It might be difficult, granted, in a survey organized along national lines to determine where to cite a work like E. P. Goldschmidt's *Medieval Texts and Their First Appearance in Print* (London: Bibliographical Society, 1943); but not impossible. Leaping ahead to the eighteenth century, we find numerous citations pertaining to the rise of circulating libraries and *Lesegesellschaften* in Germany (pp. 104, 115–16), including a number of rather slight German language contributions. However, there is no reference to Paul Kaufman's "Some Community Libraries in Eighteenth Century Europe: A Reconnaissance," *Libri* 22 (1972): 1–57.

Chapters on the German book trade are divided into centuries as follows: fifteenth and sixteenth (62 pages), seventeenth and eighteenth (14 pages), nineteenth (21 pages), and twentieth (141 pages). The section on the Third Reich is a modest 20 pages with no mention of the German exile book trade in the text itself, though a bibliography on the exile book trade is given, but without any non-German citation. The lesser attention that is given the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries reflects the skimpy treatment of one aspect of German book-trade history that in recent years has been very much under scrutiny—the growing market for cheaper popular books, number publications, and colportage, culminating in the nineteenth-century exploitation of mass-produced literature. In the short nineteenth-century chapter, such developments are neglected, even though Rudolph Schenda's important study *Volk ohne Buch* (Franfurt am Main: V. Klostermann, 1970) is listed in the introduction. Similarly, it was the author's choice to pass over without comment the century's long political and cultural exile involving men like Heinrich Heine, Ludwig Börne, Wilhelm Weitling, Karl Marx, and Friedrich Engels, and republicans, revolutionaries, socialist agitators, and members of the various German workingmen's associations in foreign countries—the nucleus of the modern German labor movement. There was a "German book trade" that operated outside the borders of the German Confederation. Possibly the author has reserved for volume 2 some brief mention of the influential role German-trained booksellers played in other countries.

Concluding chapters cover the topics of book clubs and the author as publisher, limited of course to Germany. A name and subject index is appended. Some of the points raised here are doubtless side issues in a work aimed primarily at a German public, and they do not impair the utility of Widmann's book. Volume 2 is awaited with anticipation. One printing error should be noted. The *Catholicon* of Johannes Balbus was not written in 1486 (p. 59).

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The Hebrew Book: An Historical Survey. Edited by RAPHAEL POSNER and ISRAEL TA-SHEMA. Foreword by JACOB ROTHSCHILD New York and Paris: Leon Amiel; Jerusalem: Keter Publishing House, 1975. Pp. 225. $25.00. ISBN 0-8148-0597-3.

A substantial comparison of *The Hebrew Book* with the 16-volume *Encyclopedia Judaica (EJ)* (Jerusalem, 1972) reveals how thoroughly dependent the former is on the latter. The "Introduction" says that appropriate information was "gathered, re-edited and re-organized"; but, except for largely inconsequential word changes, introductory paragraphs, and connective words and phrases, a very high percentage of 11 of the 12 chapters is taken virtually verbatim from the *EJ*.

This is not the place to review the *EJ*. The American Library Association Reference and Subscription Books Review Committee (of which I was then a member) published its review in the *Booklist* 69 (November 1972): 209–12, where it generalized that the *EJ* contains "an inexcusably large amount of material written or edited at a less than satisfactory level of reliability." What is most disconcerting is that so much of the writing in the *EJ*, while not absolutely inaccurate, is misleading or not informative. A statement linking the Boston Public Library to the New York Public Library and the Library of Congress (*The Hebrew Book*, p. 223) wrongly implies an equality of caliber of their Jewish departments; another (p. 220) implies that there are only three large congregational libraries in the United States; in a list of manuscript collections (p. 37) University Library at Los Angeles is mentioned as though there is only one there. These mistakes of emphasis and fuzziness abound in the *EJ*, and they have unfortunately been taken over into *The Hebrew Book*.

The new material, except for chapter 4, is not identified. Since the illustrations of *The Hebrew Book* are not listed and those in the *EJ* are poorly listed, it is difficult to tell how many, if any, of the color plates are new; many of the title-page facsimiles in black and white are. The illustrative material is the highlight of the book in terms of both aesthetics and message.

Chapter 4, entitled "The Science of the Hebrew Book," is Ta-Shema's survey of the state of Hebrew bibliography, his summary of work that needs to be done, and his call for "organized academic research." The chapter is legitimately one knowledgeable person's view. It is, however, marred by many minor errors; for example, there are four spelling errors in the citation of a work of mine (p. 66); the Jewish Theological Seminary is incorrectly listed (p. 68) as a library with a printed catalog (Harvard's Hebrew Division is meant, as the *EJ* correctly records it); and M. Slatkine's name is misspelled (p. 74).

The "Reading List," another feature "new" to the book, is terribly flawed. Many of the entries cited as books are in fact articles in or offprints from, journals; there are citation errors; and the selection is weak. One can hardly explain the absence of Steinschneider's name and anything in Yiddish when Widmann and an Italian work are included.

Was enough pertinent material brought over from the *EJ* to the *The Hebrew Book*? One misses any real discussion of Hebrew paleography in the early chapters that cover writing, the scribe, scrolls, the Torah, and detailed aspects of illumination. In the chapters on printing history, major centers, and Hebrew printers, one misses data on Hebrew printing in Paris, Strasbourg, Danzig, and New York, though material can be found in the *EJ*. But, in general, the gleaning job is good.

What is troublesome is the reorganization of the data. For example Prague Hebrew printing is broken up and divided among 3 chapters because it is part of the survey of Hebrew printing history, is listed as a major center, and has several of its printing families described in the chapter on printers. This encyclopedic rather than monographic kind of organization occurs over and over. The compilers claim that they avoid duplication (footnotes on pp. 121 and 149), but they duplicate frequently and they disrupt the continuity because the very structure of their book defeats them.

The authors of the original articles should have been credited! It is simply not enough for Posner and Ta-Shema to be "entirely responsible for the material as it appears" (introduction) and take over with little or no change what others labored to produce.

The Hebrew Book lacks the bibliographies that go with the articles in the *EJ*, so the novice who wants more on a small subject is lost. There are no footnotes, so the many questionable facts and generalizations cannot be checked. The "Reading List" has already been described as inadequate. Perhaps worst of all, there is no index and there are only a few cross-references.

In a sense, *The Hebrew Book* is a nonbook. It is a weakly edited spinoff from an encyclopedia, which will look attractive on a coffee table. It will impart much undocumented information written by unnamed authors. It is neither narrative nor encyclopedic. It is obviously meant for the English reader, but is so non-America oriented that the United States receives only half a column in the history chapter and no American city appears among the major centers (not even New York), while the likes of Aden, Halberstadt, Homburg, and Seini are included. Yet it is the only work in English, other than the *EJ*, that has brought so much material on the Hebrew book together in one place, and it does excel in illustrations. It is my judgment that a better book could have been written even within the self-imposed restrictions of using only the *EJ*; but of course there is no reason to impose such restrictions.

The Hebrew Book is not recommended to anyone who has access to the *EJ*. For others, *The Hebrew Book* is recommended with the sighing remark: it could have, and should have, been better.

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Harvard College Library, Department of Printing and Graphic Arts. Catalogue of Books and Manuscripts. Pt. 2: *Italian 16th Century Books.* Compiled by RUTH MORTIMER. 2 vols. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, Belknap Press, 1974. Pp. xvii+840. $75.00. ISBN 0-674-46960-7.

Ten years after the publication of Miss Mortimer's *French 16th Century Books* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, Belknap Press, 1964) there appear two companion volumes which describe in great detail 559 editions of Italian sixteenth-century books. The total number of items included is actually larger, since frequent references are made to further editions owned by the Department of Printing and Graphic Arts or other libraries, especially at Harvard. The quality of this catalog is remarkably high. The author has examined each copy carefully and compared it frequently with those which she inspected here and abroad. In the course of her work she has discovered a very large number of variants, a finding which should make librarians wary of disposing of duplicates without careful examination. Major attention has, of course, been paid to often-detailed description of illustrations, but without neglecting attention to authors, contents, imprints, the makeup of the volumes, or bindings. Mortimer has made excellent use of critical works, and her knowledge of these is indeed admirable. Quite distinct from the shortcomings of many other catalogs which every so often contain occasional but glaring mistakes in the spelling of foreign languages, I had great difficulty in finding even a single error or misprint.

In his preface Philip Hofer extols the artistic merit of Italian sixteenth-century illustrations, and many of the more than 1,300 reproductions justify his high regard. Hofer and Mortimer might nevertheless agree that the independent development of the graphic arts in books, and particularly the ever-increasing use of engravings, disturbed and greatly reduced the unity of type and illustration which we find in many fifteenth-century illustrated books.

It is not possible to give examples of the many points of interest found in the descriptions given in this catalog; a few must suffice. Reference is made in number 5 to the Hofer copy of the Aesop published in Verona in 1479. His is one of two copies on vellum and also a palimpsest, the only such cases I have encountered. In number 26, Aretino, *Stanze* (1537), we find an excellent summary of the connection between the beautiful chiaroscuro woodcut and Titian. Number 44 includes a detailed identification of the author Bartholomeo de Pisa, not to be confused with Bartolomeo degli Albizzi. Number 129, a book on anatomy, contains examination by the inquisitor who later became Pope Sixtus V. The author advises further investigation of the source of number 155, which has charming woodcuts in the text. She suggests a connection with Pollaiuolo. Number 183, Ferraro, *Opera nuova*, is one of several unique items in the collection. The description of the Hofer copy of number 276, Aldo Manuzio's *Vita di Cosimo de' Medici*, refers to another Harvard copy, that one owned by Aldo. In the description of the Mattioli book on medicinal plants (no. 295) we read that, according to the dedication, 30,000 copies of the Italian text had been sold by 1568, the date of the seventeenth (?) edition. Number 341, one of many special Ovid texts in the catalog, was produced by a hitherto unrecorded printer, Noro Perugino.

This almost haphazard listing of examples shows the wide variety of intriguing facts found in this catalog. The 2 volumes conclude with several useful indexes. Using here only the "Index of Subjects," we learn how truly international the migration and the copying of illustrations was during the period of early printing. Under the heading "Illustration, original from" we find as places of origin Augsburg, Frankfurt, Paris, Seville, Valladolid, Vienna, etc., and this list is not even complete, omitting, for example, number 295, the Mattioli with illustrations which originated in Prague.

This catalog will for many years remain a prime example of a first-rate scholarly achievement.

Rudolf Hirsch, *University of Pennsylvania*

L'Art du livre à l'Imprimerie nationale. Paris: Imprimerie nationale, 1973. Pp. 295. Fr 250.

The Imprimerie nationale of France is the oldest and most distinguished government printing office in the world. Founded in 1640 by Richelieu for Louis XIII, it has had from its inception two missions, one utilitarian, the other bibliophilic: the printing of state documents and of the principal monuments of religion and culture, using the finest artists, craftsmen, and materials. It was a natural choice for the French, as a contribution to International Book Year, to publish a history of their Imprimerie nationale, which for more than three centuries has been a highly effective organ of French cultural propaganda as well as a distinguished servant of the world of books.

The resulting book is more than a mere history of the government printing office. It is a history of French printing from its beginning as well as of French thought, art, politics, and economics, and displays many of the national virtues—taste, elegance, and clarity—as well as some of the national defects—provincialism, chauvinism, and a sacrifice of utility for appearance. Beautifully produced (despite a rather nasty imitation-leather binding of plastic), with numerous colored illustrations and set by hand, it lacks the basic tool which would have made it even more useful: an index.

The late Julien Cain, former director of the Bibliothèque nationale and one of the chief inspirers of the book, states its aim in his preface: drawing up a balance sheet of the Imprimerie nationale's assets. The 15 contributors, drawn from libraries, universities, the book trade, and the Imprimerie nationale itself, represent both the established scholar and the comparatively young one. They are handicapped by the organization of the book and its apparent lack of an editor; once assigned a topic they were apparently given few guidelines, so that there is much repetition and an unevenness in documentation. But the book, despite traveling considerable well-charted territory, contains much unfamiliar and original material.

Raymond Blanchot, former director of the Imprimerie nationale, drew the toughest assignment: a summary of its history. He compounds his problem by including the royal printers who preceded it, as well as the early typecutters and their types, he details frequent shifts in locale and name (reflecting changes in the government), labor policies, technological change, and the main contributions of each director. Three following chapters deal with the Imprimerie nationale's prehistory: Jeanne Veyrin-Forrer discusses the first French press at the Sorbonne, its patrons, Heynlin and Fichet, and their printers, Gering, Krantz, and Friburger. She also analyzes its production, which heavily emphasized humanistic texts, its types, and its audience. Annie Parent's article on the *grecs du roi* is an admirable feat of condensation, tracing the revival of Greek scholarship in Europe, its introduction into France, and François I's role in commissioning the first satisfactory Greek type, cut by Garamond after the hand of Angelo Vergecio, a royal Greek scribe. The beginnings of Oriental typography in France, and its roots in Italy, are surveyed by G. Duverdier, who combines political, military, economic, and religious history with that of printing.

The foundation of the Imprimerie royale is treated by H.-J. Martin, who places it in its political and cultural context. Richelieu wished not only to establish tighter control of the press, but also to enhance national prestige by demonstrating that France could produce books as handsome and important as those of the Low Countries. The *Cabinet du Roi*, described by Anne Sauvy, was not only a great series of engravings commemorating the royal collections, it was also a predecessor of the *Encyclopédie*, with its elaborate and analytical descriptions of those collections. The greatest achievement of the Colbert era, published after his death, was the *Description des arts et metiers*, a series of treatises on French handicrafts which he had ordered compiled by the Académie royale des sciences. Begun in 1665, it did not appear until almost a century later and was heavily used by the editors of the *Encyclopédie*.

French official printing is unique in being printed in a private typeface, as André Jammes points out in his essay on the *romain du roi*. Grandjean's design, easily recognized by the small horizontal stroke on the lowercase *l*, was the first scientifically designed type, based on mathematical formulas established by a committee of the Académie royale des sciences. But, since Grandjean was an artist as well as a craftsman, he gave his letters a distinctive character based more on contemporary calligraphy and engraving than on the elaborate geometrically formed exemplars furnished him.

Other articles include Edmond Pognon's on Louis XIV's *fête* books, commemorating the elaborate ceremonies of the court, among the most lavish and costly books of the day; D. Elisseef-Poisle's on the Chinese characters of Formont and their connection with French sinology; and an excellent piece by A.-M. Boissy on the relationship between Buffon and the Imprimerie royale which kept the presses at the Louvre busy for half a century. Buffon's methodology which depended on a heavy correspondence with scientists and administrators all over the world, his dealings with his illustrators who worked from life when possible, and his close liaison with the staff and administration of the printing office are detailed, and there is much fascinating data on the logistics of the work: the amount of paper used, the cost of drawings and plates, the number and distribution of free copies, etc.

Two articles touch on the Imprimerie nationale's forays into travel literature: Yves Laissus's *Description de l'Egypte* and G. Duverdier's on voyages of circumnavigation. From the start, Napoleon envisioned a magnificent and monumental record of his Egyptian campaign. A corps of scientists and technicians accompanied the troops, among them geometers, astronomers, naturalists, chemists, interpreters, painters, and artisans, all equipped with the necessary tools of their trades. Their work continued after Bonaparte's return home, and vast quantities of material were sent back for incorporation into a work which became a scientific and technical masterpiece, thirty-three years in the making; it was completed in 1826, after Napoleon's fall. J. J. Marcel, a great Orientalist as well as a great director of the Imprimerie nationale, was responsible for much of its high quality. The article on circumnavigations discusses the Imprimerie nationale's part in publicizing the second great wave of world voyages, 1760–1850. Too costly for private means, these scientific expeditions were generally publicly financed for political and commerical motives. Their reports, government documents printed at the Imprimerie nationale, contained a wealth of scientific and economic data and were accompanied by excellent atlases. They represented the most carefully written and edited scientific works of the time as well as the most elaborately produced.

The Imprimerie nationale has a long tradition of service to humanistic scholarship, as Pierre Marot demonstrates in an essay on the great learned series it has published. Without its careful composition and proofreading and its great stock of exotic types, many of the monuments of French scholarship would have been impossible. These have included historical works, collections of theology and patristics, the transactions of the royal academies, massive catalogs and bibliographies, important facsimiles and palaeographic manuals, and collections of unpublished sources for French history and literature. Interrupted by war or bureaucratic interference, as well as by constantly increasing costs, these vast works of scholarship often spanned a century or more. The shop's contribution to the history of the book has been equally distinguished. H.-J. Martin, in a brief survey which includes a history of French book collecting, pays homage to the bibliophiles and amateurs—including booksellers—who have often anticipated the scholars in recognizing the importance of a new field. He lists a number of the great bibliographical works issued by the office, many written by such amateurs.

Jacques Guignard deals with another aspect of the establishment's contribution to modern French publishing: the bibliophile editions illustrated by prominent artists which it has printed since 1900. Working for such meticulous publishers as Pelletan, Vollard, and Tériade, it has played a significant part in the production of these deluxe books, an aspect of the modern art movement which has attracted a new kind of collector who considers books not only as aesthetic objects but as investments. Guignard includes a survey of the types used to print the texts and a critical appraisal of many of the books; he concludes with a chronological list of all the deluxe editions, with their artists and publishers.

The final article, by Paul Traband, describes the introduction of photocomposition, electronics, and the computer into the Imprimerie nationale and their use for rapid, high-quality composition and printing, necessary to keep up with the huge volume of work demanded of the government printing office today. For more than three centuries the shop has kept pace with technological advance, while maintaining high standards of accuracy, craftsmanship, and taste.

L'Art du livre à l'Imprimerie nationale is a remarkable work, a monument not only to the French government printing office but also to French taste and French scholarship. No other nation could—or would—have produced it.

James Wells, *Newberry Library, Chicago*

Perspectives on Publishing. Edited by PHILIP G. ALTBACH and SHEILA MCVEY. Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath & Co., Lexington Books, 1976. Pp. xii+283. $21.00. ISBN 0-669-99564-9.

A reader on publishing is especially welcome at a time when what is now currently termed in France *bibliologie* begins to be somewhat less of a pragmatic approximation and somewhat more of a science. In reviewing this book (which contains 20 contributions, 13 of which first appeared in the September 1975 *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*) a French scholar cannot but wish that it should be translated into some of the more current European languages. At the same time he cannot but regret that the language barrier obviously prevented most of the contributors from taking into account the advanced research which has been conducted in the field either in Europe or in other parts of the world like Japan and Latin America. If I happen to be the only specialist from a non-English-speaking country quoted in the index, it is due to the fact that two of my books have been published in English, thanks to UNESCO. Yet I could quote offhand the names of half a dozen European experts and scholars far more competent than I am in various relevant fields.

These remarks bear directly on the contents of at least 2 significant contributions: Gordon B. Neavill, "Role of the Publisher in the Dissemination of Knowledge" (chap. 5), and Ben Russak, "Scholarly Publishing in Western Europe and Great Britain: A Survey and Analysis" (chap. 9). The former is a very able description of the publisher's functions except for one which is entirely forgotten—translation. Indeed, when Neavill writes: "A book's potential geographical market consists of wherever the language in which it is published is read" (p. 53), he voices the view one may have from inside the biggest language block in the world and therefore the least open to translation. The self-sufficiency of the English-language book market is illustrated by Ben Russak's subheading, "English as the World Language" (p. 106). This may well be a dangerous illusion outside northwestern Europe. Quite a high percentage of scholars in Europe do not read English, and on the other hand a world language cannot be a one-way language.

This is not really colonialism, but simply a case of nondissemination of scientific data. The famous work of Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver, *Mathematical Theory of Communication* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1949), was translated into French as late as 1976. Conversely, less than 3 percent of the main European texts on communication are ever translated into English, and when they are the time lag is often well over ten years.

Real colonialism is something else. Philip G. Altbach, who is one of the editors of the book, contributes 3 excellent papers, one of which deals with "Literary Colonialism: Books in the Third World" (chap. 8). Colonialism here refers to dependence for the supply of reading material; this is not the case of Europe, which is still the mightiest book stronghold in the world and which continues to exert part of the colonial dominion over Asian, African, and Latin-American readership.

One may regret that the study of book development in Communist countries is limited to Edward E. Booher's "Publishing in the USSR and Yugoslavia" (chap. 14). Although most of the main themes are aptly dealt with, the documentation is almost exclusively based on the reports of U.S. publishers' delegations, the one on Yugoslavia being rather outdated (1964). European studies, had they been consulted, would have afforded a closer view of that particular landscape, and the very significant examples of Hungarian and Rumanian publishing would not then have been overlooked as they are.

One of the most interesting contributions is Sheila McVey's study, "Nineteenth Century America: Publishing in a Developing Country" (chap. 15). It is more than a statement of historical facts and affords a much-needed analysis of the copyright problem and its influence on the development of American publishing in the early nineteenth century.

In short, each of the 3 parts of book ("General Perspectives," "Comparative Analysis," "The American Scene") provides a wealth of information and reflection. The last part strikingly reveals some of the more critical problems not only of American but of world publishing. I would recommend the reading of Ann Orlov's "Demythologizing Scholarly Publishing" (chap. 18) to any scholar in the world.

Robert Escarpit, *University of Bordeaux III*

Publishing in India: An Analysis. By PHILIP G. ALTBACH Delhi and New York: Oxford University Press, 1975. Pp. 115. $3.25 (paper). ISBN 0-19-560596-9.

The author is this slender volume is a professor of educational studies in the State University of New York at Buffalo. He has become concerned about the role of books in the social destiny of developing countries and the paucity of past research into the subject, a concern which, in my mind, should be shared by many more people than it has been to date.

The writing that has appeared thus far on this subject has been largely from one of three divergent and somewhat limited perspectives. First have been reports by librarians; they have understandably stressed the subsystem which distributes books through networks of libraries but have for the most part ignored the processes of authorship and publishing. Second have been works written from the viewpoint of the book industry, emphasizing technical and economic considerations of book production but largely ignoring books as part of the very social fabric of a nation. And third was the series of studies sponsored by the U.S. Agency for International Development in the late 1960s of the relationship between books and the economic and technical development of selected Third World countries.

This third group of investigations, although least well known, probably comes closest to Altbach's concern. Yet it does not quite do the job either, primarily because of its delimiting but politically safe omission from consideration of such cultural and social areas as literature, fine arts, belles-lettres, philosophy, history. Thus a major unstated problem for Altbach is finding somewhere a readership to engage in colloquy; at the present time there is no formal discipline, no association, no focus of intense concern for his subject, as important as it is. Perhaps his book will help to develop one.

Altbach pursues his general theme through an in-depth case description of publishing in India, and a bleak picture it is, strewn throughout with "Catch-22s." The viability of publishing increases with the size of the edition, but rising nationalism is promoting a return to regional and tribal languages, thereby reducing potential edition sizes. Locally written textbooks are needed, but teachers are so poorly paid that they must teach overloads and therefore have no time for writing. Authors need editorial guidance, but if printer-booksellers add editors to their payrolls book costs rise above the market's ability to assimilate costs. Reliance upon English as a scholarly *lingua-franca* is discouraged, yet virtually all of man's knowledge is already published in English, rendering scholarly authorship in the national language an unrewarding exercise. These and the countless other problems cited by Altbach as prevalent in India are common to many Third World nations.

As a book, *Publishing in India* has flaws of a number of kinds. Structurally, it is not really a book, but rather three related but separate essays, not completely successful in their articulation one with another. Methodologically, the volume is simplistic, relying for its development almost entirely on description; the word "analysis" in its subtitle may not be warranted. Factually, it contains some contradictions. For example, publishers are "gate-keepers" in one place but "wholly dependent" upon market caprice in another; libraries are hard pressed for book funds in one place but "not so concerned about" price in another.

Nonetheless, Altbach deserves thanks for soliciting attention to this subject; his book deserves to be read; and his messages, both explicit and implicit, deserve further scholarly investigation and development. At the moment he has a rather lonely hold on a big problem, and he needs some help with it.

David Kaser, *Indiana University*

Irving to Irving: Author-Publisher Relations, 1800–1974. By CHARLES A. MADISON. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1974. Pp. xi+279. $9.95. ISBN 0-8352-0772-2.

Published in Paris: American and British Writers, Printers, and Publishers in Paris, 1920–1939. By HUGH FORD. New York: Macmillan Co., 1975. Pp. xvii+453. $14.95. ISBN 0-02-539600-5.

In *Irving to Irving*, Charles A. Madison is concerned with the relations between American publishers and their authors from the time of Washington Irving to the present. The book consists of a series of sketches of about 30 author-publisher relationships, chronologically arranged. The chapters on the nineteenth century deal with Irving, Cooper, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Louisa May Alcott, Mark Twain, and others. Four chapters are devoted to the relations of Henry Holt & Co. with Henry Adams, William James, Robert Frost, and such popular authors as Jerome K. Jerome, Anthony Hope, and Paul Leicester Ford. The relations of Scribner's with George Santayana, Edith Wharton, John Galsworthy, F. Scott Fitzgerald, and Thomas Wolfe receive 60 pages, and B. W. Huebsch's with James Joyce, D. H. Lawrence, and Sherwood Anderson receive about 20 pages. Also chronicled are Frank Doubleday's relations with Kipling and Conrad, John Steinbeck's with Pascal Covici, Edna St. Vincent Millay's with Harper & Bros., Margaret Mitchell's with Macmillan, and those of Theodore Dreiser and Sinclair Lewis with their various publishers.

There is useful information in the book on the economic aspects of authorship and the influence of publishers on what authors have written, but this is not part of Madison's main theme. Madison's primary interest is in the personal relations between authors and publishers, and his approach is descriptive and anecdotal. His heroes are the personal publishers of the old school; his ideal is a close, friendly relationship extending over an author's entire career. This is not the book to go to for an adequate appreciation of those aspects of the author-publisher relationship that inherently provide grounds for conflict. Madison shakes his head in bewilderment at the comment attributed to Byron, "Now Barabbas was a publisher," noting that he has come across only one publisher in this century who was remiss in paying royalties to authors. It is characteristic of his bias that he seems unable to comprehend an author's being disgruntled with his publisher except as the result of overt wrongdoing on the publisher's part or a fit of temperament on the author's.

Madison has not attempted to provide definitive studies of any of the author-publisher relationships he describes. Indeed, several important scholarly works dealing with the publishing careers of some of his authors are missing from the bibliography. Still, although the chapters on the nineteenth century seem to contain little that is new and what he gives us about such authors as Fitzgerald and Wolfe has been told many times before, the book is by no means entirely a rehash. Madison has examined a considerable amount of unpublished author-publisher correspondence, chiefly from the files of Holt, Doubleday, Huebsch, and Scribner's, and he quotes from this material generously. (The chapters based on the Holt archives, it should be noted, are not really new: much of the material here appeared previously in Madison's *Owl among Colophons: Henry Holt as Publisher and Editor* [New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966].) Unfortunately, the usefulness of what is new in the book is limited by a total absence of documentation.

The period since World War II is represented by a single author, the second Irving of Madison's title. For Madison, this period is characterized by a deterioration in the close personal relations once common between authors and publishers. The deterioration, in his view, began around 1900, caused by corporate control of major firms and the rise of the literary agent, and has accelerated since World War II as publishing has become increasingly commercialized.

There is much truth in this belief. Madison correctly notes that there is a "tendency . . . for the agent to replace the publisher as friend and critic and guide" (p. 257), especially for popular writers whose main interest is the income they can make from their writing. It is increasingly common for literary agents to provide editorial assistance to their clients, partly because they believe that authors in many cases are no longer receiving adequate editorial attention from their publishers. Agents have assumed other aspects of the publisher's role as well. Although they do not make the final decision as to what is published, agents serve as preliminary gatekeepers. It is interesting to note that one leading agency agrees to represent only one out of fifty manuscripts it receives from unknown writers (Paul R. Reynolds, *The Middle Man: The Adventures of a Literary Agent* [New York: William Morrow & Co., 1972], p. 83)—a figure identical with that given by William Jovanovich as the ratio of manuscripts which a major New York publisher accepts (*Now, Barabbas* [New York: Harper & Row, 1964], p. 86).

Granting that author-publisher relationships today may not be all they once were, it is ludicrous for Madison to take Clifford Irving's attempt to defraud McGraw-Hill as an example, even an extreme one, of this deterioration. It is one thing if author-publisher relationships have grown less close and more commercialized. For them to involve fraud is quite another. Fraud existed long before the contemporary trends of depersonalization and commercialization began. It is by no stretch of the imagination their logical culmination.

Hugh Ford's *Published in Paris: American and British Writers, Printers, and Publishers in Paris, 1920–1939* is concerned with the relations of authors and publishers in a specific period and place. More broadly, it is a portrait of the "lost generation" of expatriate intellectuals drawn to Paris between the wars. Most of the writers belonged or aspired to belong to the avant-garde; few had achieved commercial success. In many cases the only publication outlets they had were provided by fellow expatriates who started small presses and publishing enterprises specifically to issue their works.

Most of these presses were noncommercial, and many were one-man or one-woman enterprises. Nevertheless, they were responsible for issuing some of the most important literary works of their time. Sylvia Beach, without previous publishing experience, undertook the publication of the first edition of Joyce's *Ulysses*; Robert McAlmon's Contact Publishing Co. issued Hemingway's first book, *Three Stories and Ten Poems*; Samuel Beckett's first separately published work, *Whoroscope*, was not only published by the Hours Press but written for a poetry contest it sponsored; the Obelisk Press brought out the works of Henry Miller and others when obscenity laws made them unpublishable at home.

Published in Paris is to be welcomed for the useful, if uninspired, accounts it provides of these presses. The book begins with an account of Sylvia Beach's Shakespeare and Company. Succeeding chapters are devoted to McAlmon's Contact Publishing Co.; William Bird's Three Mountains Press; Edward Titus's Black Manikin Press; Harry and Caresse Crosby's Black Sun Press; Gertrude Stein's Plain Editions; Nancy Cunard's Hours Press; Carrefour, founded by Michael Fraenkel and Walter Lowenfels; Bob Brown's Roving Eye Press; the Servire Press (located in The Hague); Samuel Putnam's New Review Press; Harrison of Paris, operated by Barbara Harrison, Monroe Wheeler, and Glenway Wescott; and Jack Kahane's Obelisk Press. An appendix lists the publications of these presses. Attention is also devoted to such periodicals as *Transatlantic Review, transition, This Quarter*, and *New Review*.

For all its usefulness, *Published in Paris* is not a good book. Like Madison, Ford does not ask probing questions about his subject matter but is content with description and the relation of engaging anecdotes. He does not try to explain why Paris at this particular time attracted so many leading writers from the United States and, to a lesser extent, from Britain. He passes up a golden opportunity to analyze the important role which persons of wealth have played as patrons of the avant-garde (many of the proprietors of these presses possessed or had access to money). At times the book is marred by carelessness. For example, Josephine Rotch Bigelow, whose relations and apparent suicide compact with Harry Crosby are discussed at some length, is annoyingly and for no apparent reason identified throughout by her first name only. Finally, Ford dispenses entirely with formal documentation, although he has utilized relevant manuscript material in several American libraries.

The book appears to be intended as much for those interested generally in the story of the "lost generation" in Paris between the wars as for those interested specifically in the publishing enterprises in which its members were involved. This detracts from the value of the book to the latter audience; the former would do better to turn first to Samuel Putnam's fine memoir, *Paris Was Our Mistress* (New York: Viking Press, 1947).

Gordon B. Neavill, *University of Chicago*

Cobwebs to Catch Flies: Illustrated Books for the Nursery and Schoolroom, 1700–1900. By JOYCE IRENE WHALLEY Berkeley: University of California Press, 1975. Pp. 163. $14.95. ISBN 0-520-02931-3.

Irene Whalley states that her book is "to some extent a picture book about books with pictures; about teaching books but not text books" (p. 6). Its 155 plates, several in color, fully justify that description. Almost every double-page spread includes illustrative pages, with pictures, from the books she is discussing. Visual richness is a striking feature of the book.

Whalley discusses children's books that were intended to provide instruction in the home in 13 short chapters: "On the Illustration of Children's Books," "Alphabet Books," "Reading Books," "Counting Books," "Religious Instruction," "Moral Improvement," "History," "Geography and Travel," "Street Cries and Occupations," "Natural History and Science," "Grammar," "Music," and "Languages." All of the books analyzed are located in the National Art Library, Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Whalley refers also the private collection of about 45,000 items, owned by Anne and Fernand G. Renier, in the process of being given to the National Art Library, but does not make clear whether the Renier books played a role in this study. (The collection *Little Wide-Awake: An Anthology from Victorian Children's Books and Periodicals in the Collection of Anne and Fernand G. Renier*, selected by Leonard DeVries [Cleveland and New York: World Publishing Co., 1967], gives a small glimpse into the richness of the Renier's library of early children's books.)

In her preface, Whalley suggests that she is considering both English and American books, comparing them with French and German books of the same period. Actually, she discusses only a handful of American books, even when she discusses a type of book for which there are numerous American examples; in the section on travel, none of the numerous books by Hezekiah Butterworth, Thomas W. Knox, or Horace E. Scudder are mentioned, nor does her bibliography list Virginia Haviland's *The Travelogue Storybook of the Nineteenth Century* (Boston: Horn Book, Inc., 1950), the chief study of this genre in the United States.

A major virtue of this book is also the source of a major defect. Whalley has examined every book she discusses. But because she has considered only those books on which she could lay her hands in the National Art Library, there are great gaps in her coverage. She takes great leaps in time, which leaves the reader with the impression that there were fewer books than indeed there were.

But I do not mean to be overly critical. *Cobwebs to Catch Flies* covers new ground and paves the way for more detailed studies of particular types of children's books. It is very good indeed in its comments on the titles included, and for its illustrations it is superb. It is essential reading for every serious student of the development of literature for children.

Richard L. Darling, *Columbia University*

Early Children's Books and Their Illustration. New York: Pierpont Morgan Library, 1975. Pp. xxx + 263. $17.50 (paper). ISBN 0-87598-051-1.

Devotees of the history of children's literature have learned to treasure those substantial records of early children's books, such as the Gumuchian and Schatzki catalogs (*Les Livres de l'enfance du quinzieme au dix-neuvieme siècle* [Paris: Gumuchian et Cie, 1931; reprint ed., 1967]; *Old and Rare Children's Books Offered for Sale by Walter Schatzki* [1941; reprint ed., Detroit: Gale Research Co., 1974]), which only appear from time to time and which serve as indispensable sources of reference thereafter. Librarians and others should consequently eagerly acquire, while they may, the Pierpont Morgan Library's lavish and scholarly *Early Children's Books and Their Illustration.* This is a fine example of the type of exhibition catalog which, through carefully researched selection and annotation, becomes a work of scholarship. As can be expected from the Morgan Library, the large number of black-and-white illustrations and the impeccable faithfulness of the color plates enhance the distinguished typographical presentation. For these, much credit should also be given to the printers, the Stinehour Press and the Meriden Gravure Company.

The learned notes of Gerald Gottlieb, the curator of early children's books, are prefaced by an explanation of the aim of this work by the director, Charles Ryskamp. The exhibition's purpose—and achievement—is "to show by word and picture how and where children's literature originated, and which kind of stories were chosen *for* children—and *by* children over the centuries" (p. vii). The text is enhanced by J. H. Plumb, the English historian, who writes *con amore* of "The First Flourishing of Children's Books," as the product of "a new attitude to children developed in England during the eighteenth century . . . which spread as easily to Boston, New York, and Philadelphia as it did to Birmingham, Leeds, and Glasgow" (p. xvii). However, the darker aspect as well as the hopeful side of the literature adults bought for their children is also brought to the reader's attention.

The Morgan Library has purchased in the past such great treasures of children's literature as the original manuscripts of Charles Perrault's *Contes de Ma Mere L'Oye*, Charles Dickens's *A Christmas Carol*, and W. M. Thackeray's *The Rose and the Ring*, all illustrated here in color. But very many of the children's books included have been the gift of Miss Elizabeth Ball, to whom the catalog is appropriately dedicated. Examples are provided of all types of books from *Aesop's Fables* to those of Beatrix Potter; from those published for children to those children have made their own, such as *The Pilgrim's Progress* and *Gulliver's Travels*. It would be unreasonable to object that some of the examples of incunabula and manuscripts dating back to the third or fourth century were certainly not intended for the young, because there will never be limits defined for children's literature. While we know about some of the ways adult literature has influenced children's books, we know too little about how important children's books have been for each succeeding generation. Plumb puts it this way: "The way ideas become social attitudes is one of the most complex problems that face a social historian, and almost all have neglected the influence of children's literature in changing the climate of ideas." The catalog, then, contains material of equal importance to those of us interested in the book production process and those of us who care not what form the message comes in, but only for its content.

Dorothy M. Broderick and John R. T. Ettlinger, *Dalhousie University*

Norton on Archives: The Writings of Margaret Cross Norton on Archival and Records Management. Edited and with an introduction by THORNTON W. MITCHELL. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1975. Pp. xxi+288. $10.00. ISBN 0-8093-0738-3.

The Australians apply the term "fossiker" to one who searches about and sifts through abandoned workings for gold. Thornton Mitchell has done just that in searching through old library journals, professional society reports, and even the Chicago Filing Association's *Official Bulletin*, vol. 9 (November 1940), to mine the archival gold left behind by Margaret Norton, archivist of Illinois for twenty-six years. There are not many professions where the theory and techniques of forty years ago have not been devalued, and archivists can rightly claim that they have made great advances since the beginning of a national archival professional society in 1936. Preservation techniques, microphotography, automation, and highly developed records management practices attest to that. But the verities of archival theory and the application of that theory to daily problems remain valid. The two major works by T. R. Schellenberg (*The Management of Archives* [New York: Columbia University Press, 1965] and *Modern Archives* [Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956]), although eleven and twenty years old, respectively, have been the basic texts in the field. However, it is apparent from this compendium of the writings of Margaret Norton that Schellenberg no longer stands alone.

Schellenberg's works read like textbooks. They reach for absolutes, and at times they preach; when dealing with personal papers, they are often condescending. Margaret Norton has much the same message, but she reasons, rationalizes, cajoles, and speaks not from the academic lectern, but from just outside of the stacks. Where Schellenberg states that one must *never* do certain things, such as mix archives and personal papers collections in the same room, Norton gives a literary shrug and says many practices are acceptable if conditions necessitate and if the final goal of archival integrity is kept in view. But the greatest difference between the two is that Schellenberg is lecturing theory from the national level while Norton's pragmatic message comes from a state capitol. This book is a primer for state archivists, and one that consistently relates archival practice to state problems. It was edited by the archivist of North Carolina, who can appreciate the state perspective, and at the very least it should be read by every member of that exclusive club of fifty state archivists and their staffs.

There are the anachronisms that one would expect to find in any work which consists of reprints of articles written over the past forty years, even though the writings have been finely and expertly edited. We are told what to do in case of the threat of enemy attack and what was done to the Illinois archives in Springfield in 1941, as if there were Nazi gunboats on the Sangamon. We are cautioned about using ball-point pens on official records because they could smear; we are apprised of the great future ahead for document lamination once the cost comes down; at the same time, we are aware of a simpler world, unaffected as yet by xerography, automation, or microfiche.

The volume is composed for the most part from the great number of articles written by Norton for *Illinois Libraries*. Mitchell has rearranged them to form a series of chapters, each dealing with one or two related archival activities. In this way, the diverse writings become a text without the literary restraints of that genre. Indeed, the writing is clear, concise, knowledgeable, anecdotal, and friendly. The chapters on the "Purposes and Nature of Archives," and "Physical Properties of Archives," present the clearest exposition in archival literature on the legal attributes of archives and the basis for determining the quality and permanence of papers and inks. These chapters alone justify acquisition of the book and assigned reading for students.

Teachers in the field of archives and manuscripts now have a broader base from which to instruct: Schellenberg for general theory and national problems, Kenneth W. Duckett (*Modern Manuscripts: A Practical Manual for Their Management, Care, and Use* [Nashville, Tenn.: American Association for State and Local History, 1975]) for the peculiar problems related to personal papers, and now Norton on state archives. Thornton Mitchell's rooting around in the mined-over area has paid off—there are still a lot of "colours," and more than an occasional nugget to be picked up.

Frank G. Burke, *National Historical Publications and Records Commission, Washington, D. C.*

Modern Manuscripts: A Practical Manual for Their Management, Care, and Use. By KENNETH W. DUCKETT. Nashville, Tenn.: American Association for State and Local History, 1975. Pp. xvi+375. $16.00. ISBN 0-910050-16-3.

In this volume Kenneth Duckett presents a practical manual intended for the novice curator of manuscripts, as indicated in his preface; yet its usefulness will be appreciated by other people seriously interested in the handling and treatment of modern manuscripts from the seventeenth century to the present. The author, in stating the volume's limitations, says that it is intended as a practical guide, not as an exposition of theory. However, his thorough coverage of many materials related to the administration, development, and use of manuscripts and archives provides us with a work that may serve as a reliable guide for all collectors of manuscripts, whether they be institutional or individual.

Following the introductory chapter, "The Study of Manuscript Collecting," the topics treated in the book include "Administration," "Physical Care and Conservation," "Bibliographic Control," "Mechanics and Ethics of Acquisitions," "Nonmanuscript Material," "Use of Collections," and "Public Service." The 9 chapters in the body of the book occupy 271 pages. In addition there are 16 pages of prefatory material ("Preface" and "Foreword" which are missing from the "Table of Contents," and the "List of Illustrations," referred to as figures, numbering 33 but not including a frontispiece, which is uncaptioned) and 3 appendices which include (1) "Plans, Records Center Carton and Flat-Storage Box," (2) "Table of Equivalents: Manuscripts, Tape and Microfilm" (according to volume, page count, weight, and measurements), and (3) "Perpetual Calendar."

Five other sections are wisely included and offer much that would require considerable effort by students to assemble: "Directory" which is a guide to associations, publications, equipment, supplies, and services, including names and addresses of appraisers (8 pages); "Facsimiles," a list of items which have been commonly reproduced and which will be an aid to unwary collectors and curators (4 pages); "Facsimiles," a list of items which have been commonly reproduced and which will be an aid to unwary collectors and curators (4 pages); "Notes" for the 9 text chapters (28 pages); and a "Glossary of Selected Terms," with brief annotations and some cross-references (8 pages). Although Duckett chooses to list "Estray" and "Alienation," which are familiar terms for many curators, he does not list "Replevin," a term unfamiliar to me, whose vocabulary of legal terms is limited. There is a "Bibliography" (43 pages) which is unusually thorough and highly accurate and includes what may be considered as the essential articles and monographs that deal with the subjects covered in the manual. The "Index," 2 columns to the page, occupies but 5 pages and might be considered inadequate by some readers, though I believe that its brevity is not a serious fault as it appears to be satisfactory for the major topics covered by Duckett.

In this brief review it is not possible to expand upon the wide range of information Duckett presents and his excellent treatment of it, but I wish to point out that it was a distinct pleasure to consult his very readable text, which offers much that will be referred to and consulted by all curators and workers in manuscript departments and archives centers. Although the author mentions that some of his friends who have read preliminary versions of the manuscript objected to his "cynical tone," I approve of this approach, especially in our day when curators need to consider changing attitudes in the world of manuscripts, especially the increasing number of people who are attempting to pose as "experts."

Duckett's remarks on "donor restrictions" (p. 57) and "faculty interference" (pp. 57–58) can be cited as examples of what many readers will consider to be good advice. He also observes, "The current curator's mistakes may be the next generation's treasures, and the coveted collecting plums of today may be the forgotten fruit of tomorrow" (p. 61). These, and numerous statements like them, are truisms to the professional, but they provide an intelligent text for novices and the younger members of the profession to read and ponder. Other important topics treated by Duckett in the chapter, "Use of the Collection," are those dealing with the "rights to publish" and the problems resulting from "conflict of interest," both pertinent to many aspects of literary and histocial research in our day.

Another extremely useful section is the one where Duckett points out the serious problems faced by the conscientious curator who is concerned about "Physical Care and Conversation" (p. 106). When dealing with the matter of "Establishing Bibliographic Control" (pp. 113–50), Duckett warns against the practice of curators who copy patterns set by rare-book bibliographers and suggests that curators "should look to archivists in developing their own meaningful and uniform terms of bibliographic controls" (p. 147).

The author has prepared a very well organized manual and has taken pains to present the material in a fascinating and readable style, all of which commends the volume to the professional librarians in this era, when so many shoddy and poorly written articles and books are made available to unwary buyers who are in search of bibliographical and archival advice.

This plain but not unattractive, reasonably priced book is solid evidence that there is something more than country music coming out of Nashville! The American Association for State and Local History is to be congratulated for publishing such a comprehensive manual which will serve in many ways to assist curators and librarians in the performance of their professional duties.

H. Richard Archer, *Williams College*

Personnel Utilization in Libraries: A Systems Approach. By MYRL RICKING and ROBERT E. BOOTH Prepared for the Illinois Library Task Analysis Project. Chicago: American Library Association in cooperation with the Illinois State Library, 1974. Pp. ix + 158. $8.50 (paper). ISBN 0-8389-3155-3.

The result of a late 1960s study of the deployment of professional staff in libraries that was intended to aid library administrators in utilizing then-scarce professional help, this book may end as a tool for restructuring and eliminating professional positions in libraries hard hit by declining budgets and rising staff costs. It attempts to provide library administrators with the tools needed to design programs to meet library objectives, to analyze the tasks required by the programs, and to construct personnel positions that will permit efficient performance of work. In its systems approach to task analysis, it touches upon such standard managerial techniques as factor analysis, definition of goals and objectives, personnel-management theory, and model building. The specific target group of the study seems to be "small to medium-sized public college, and . . . school libraries" (p. ix) with their somewhat restricted personnel resources, although it could be useful in a variety of situations.

The book is almost evenly divided into 6 chapters, which develop a systemic theory of personnel utilization culminating in a comprehensive list, arranged by function, of the tasks performed in libraries, and a group of appendices that are used to supplement and expand upon the material presented in developing the thesis. The discussion proceeds from task analysis through goal setting, program development, and personnel management. All of these chapters are quite short, and some suffer from excessive brevity. The section on "Human Relations Management," for example, explains in 5 pages the traditional management view of a stratified personnel structure along with many of the important contributions of the last twenty-five years which have greatly modified it. As a result, the authors' conclusion that "employees' competency, effectiveness, and personal job satisfaction . . . require (1) creative job design, based on the goals of the individual as well as those of the organization; (2) involvement of the individual in determining the organization's purpose, goals, objectives, and programs; and (3) a flexible career movement within the agency as programs change and individuals develop" (p. 31) is unsubstantiated. The very brief quotes selected to support this conclusion are themselves stated as assumptions without basis. There is no development of any of the ideas here presented, no discussion of their merits, and no presentation of opposing views. Even assuming the conclusion to be correct, the chapter would have benefited from a discussion of the techniques library administrators might employ in the application of this prescription to their own individual situations.

The section on "Task Identification and Analysis" is a clear summary of the methods available and those used in earlier phases of this study and gives good insight into different systems of measuring the difficulty of jobs. The section on "Assessing Objectives" relates more closely to public libraries, relying as it does on the work of state library agencies, the American Library Association's *Strategy for Public Library Change*, and individual contributions such as those of Barbara Conroy and Ralph Conant. Recent publications of the Association of Research Libraries, which were not all available at the time the book was being compiled, would have expanded the viewpoint presented here by providing material on the procedure that has now been tested by completion of the Management Review and Analysis Program in some twenty libraries for identifying goals and setting objectives for research libraries. In spite of this omission, librarians should be able to adapt what this section contains and apply it to their own situations, since the section is generally clear in explaining the theory as well as the sequence of events that lead to developing and assessing goals and objectives.

The book is useful for librarians who have some familiarity with modern managerial techniques, who feel comfortable with visual representation of organizational relationships and activities, and who are not threatened by analytic and quantitative methods of measurement.

Dale Brunelle-Canelas, *Stanford University*

Staff Communication in Libraries. By RICHARD EMERY. Hamden, Conn.: Linnet Books; London: Clive Bingley, 1975. Pp. 213. $11.00. ISBN 0-208-01364-4.

Successful communications are vital to the performance of any organization. Library managers recognize this intuitively and seek to avoid or remedy weaknesses in communication patterns whenever that opportunity presents itself. Thus, many of these library managers may turn to *Staff Communication in Libraries* hoping to find a tool which will help identify problems and provide ideas which would improve the communication processes in their situations. They are likely to be disappointed.

The major reason for this disappointment is the overly ambitious scope of the book. The author deals with the topic of the flow of information within library structures by reviewing theory and research in management, behavioral science, and communication; reviewing current practices in American and British libraries; and proposing a comprehensive communications improvement program as a means of remedying faults.

There is an abundance of theory and research on the characteristics of the exchange of information within large organizations, and Emery has performed a service in pulling these data together and applying them to libraries. This is particularly valuable when it results in lessons for library management, such as the following: communications work most effectively within flexible forms of organization; clearly understood roles and relationships are a precondition for good communications; and informal systems of communication, such as the grapevine, can be utilized as valuable supplements to the structured pattern of formal communications. Such a review is also important as a way of examining available communication techniques which might be employed in a library setting (for example, attitude surveys, interdepartmental problem-solving efforts, temporary task forces, etc.).

One of the major weaknesses of the book occurs when the author attempts to document current communication practices in libraries and to use these practices as illustrative applications of these concepts. Most of the descriptive information relating to libraries was secured via a Library Association fellowship survey conducted during 1971–73. The results presented in this section are largely outdated and of minor value in dealing with today's issues because of rapid changes in environmental circumstances, management personnel, leadership styles, staff interests, etc.

Despite the historical nature of the data, several conclusions should have been reached by the author. First, communication in libraries is frequently viewed as a casual problem rather than a symptom of more basic faults. This error is compounded by the dynamics of large library communications being taken for granted or being misunderstood by administrators. A second conclusion concerns the danger of dealing with communication processes independently of function, purpose, and outcomes of library activities. The development of elaborate communication systems and techniques which look good on paper will end up with limited success in actual operation unless these systems are sensitive to the needs and objectives of the institution. In practice this means that communication devices should be applied to integral ongoing processes such as policy making, budgeting, and goal setting. A third major conclusion is that the state of communication in a library organization is more a matter of attitude than technique. While skills and techniques are sadly lacking, they are not the essence of the problem. After all, there is ample evidence that speaking and writing skills can be used to obscure rather than clarify. What is needed is the development of leadership in communication practices characterized by a readiness to seek the ideas and perspectives of staff. A climate where openness, trust, and mutual confidence is evident among staff and administration will do more for communication than specially designed systems. Failing to make these judgments results in the author proposing guidelines for improving communication patterns in libraries that are too elaborate.

The crux of the communications improvement program reported in the book is a series of procedural steps involving an examination of existing communication practices, identification of communication problems, formulation of a plan to deal with shortcomings, performance of a cost/benefit analysis to aid in making decisions on actions needed, etc. The program is essentially the application of good planning techniques toward the resolution of the communication problem. This is a useful approach for libraries to use in dealing with problem identification and solution in an operating setting, but it becomes strained when applied to the single area of communication. A wide array of management functions such as organizing, supervising, staffing, and performance review need to be examined in a systematic fashion, not in isolation. In this light, the use of available management tools such as library plans and policies would be viewed as communication resources, and the objectives of the program would be organizational change and improvement. This elaborate communication improvement program might better be redesigned as a checklist of questions to test the veracity of current approaches. It is a pity that the author did not do this, but the information is here for the enterprising librarian.

While the author contributes insights into the complexity of communications in libraries, the broad scope of the book weakens the thrust of the ideas presented.

Duane E. Webster, *Association of Research Libraries, Washington, D.C.*

Weeding Library Collections. By STANLEY J. SLOTE. Research Studies in Library Science, no. 14. Littleton, Colo.: Libraries Unlimited, Inc., 1975. Pp. xvi+177. $10.00 (U.S. and Canada), $12.00 (elsewhere). ISBN 0-87287-105-3.

This is an ambitious book: it sets out to be a comprehensive source summarizing the opinion, knowledge, and serious research in the field of weeding, a practical do-it-yourself guide to easy weeding, a stimulant to further study, and a textbook. After all, a good course in collection development should include weeding, which Slote properly takes to include not only discarding but all forms of relegation to secondary storage.

The book derives from R. W. Trueswell's "User Behavioral Patterns and Requirements and Their Effects on the Possible Application for Data Processing and Computer Techniques in a University" (Ph.D. diss., Northwestern University, 1964), which contained some data on frequency of book usage expressed in terms of how long it was since the book was last borrowed—"shelf-time period." Slote, in his dissertation, explored the use of this statistic in identifying the least-used books in public libraries (summarized in "Identifying Useful Core Collections: A Study of Weeding Fiction in Public Libraries," *Library Quarterly* 41 [January 1971]: 25–34).

Part 2 of the book (chaps. 8–14) contains the meat and is quite well written. Chapters 8–11 review the literature and principle findings, drawing heavily on Slote's own work. Chapter 12, "Patterns of Use in Libraries," is particularly recommended for researchers. Shelf-time period data from various sources are compared, and Slote speculates on their significance. The distribution of shelf-time periods is a measure of the distribution of users' demand and may prove to be a fruitful approach to the dynamics of library provision, not just to weeding. His data suggests that weeding increases the usage of what remains. Chapter 13, "How to Weed," contains some practical guidance on weeding. Perhaps this should have been expanded into a separate part 3.

Part 1 is less satisfactory. One wonders whether the 7 short chapters (total, 46 pages) were rather hastily concocted to set the scene. Review by an expert, then revision, could have improved these chapters considerably "Conventional Guidelines to Weeding," "Newer Guidelines to Weeding," and "Additional Methods" are covered in a chapter not much longer than this review. Recommendations for future research (p. 33) do not suggest careful thinking since multiple variable problems are not best tackled by studying each variable in isolation.

Slote has a knack for writing quotable sentences, but the style in part 1 is more assertive than persuasive. This is unfortunate. For example, it is stimulating to find it stated (p. 9) that Fussler's conclusion that scholarly review would improve weeding considerably is not supported, and may be contradicted, by his own evidence But it is unsatisfactory not to follow up with an explanation of the statement

The central message of the book—one repeated almost to the point of irritation—is that the shelf-time period is the best criterion to use when weeding. But is it? Slote marshals adequate evidence to persuade us that age is inefficient because some old books are used more than some new books. A more serious contender as the best criterion for weeding is the number of users per time period (for example, per year) If the necessary data are not available then self-time period may become the *best practical* criterion, but that does not prove that it is always the *ideal best.*

The only evidence adduced for the superiority of shelf-time period is that contained in H H. Fussler and J L. Simon, *Patterns in the Use of Books in Large Research Libraries* (Chicago. University of Chicago Press, 1969). They did indeed conclude that shelf-time period was the best criterion for weeding but in the context of very low levels of usage, namely, volumes not used in the past ten years. However, any kind of seasonal or random variations in the pattern of requests would presumably make a criterion based on a single shelf-time period less reliable than a criterion based on more than two requests. Slote appears to recognize this in prudently stating that shelf-time periods of less than a year should not be used in weeding. I recommend that more attention should be paid to the limitations of the shelf-time period criterion. It does seem to be the best guide for weeding at the lowest levels of usage, but as a basis for segregating books at moderate or high levels of usage it is probably inferior to uses per time period

In a *comprehensive* source one might expect more connection with related work, such as the Tottenham system of A. W McClellan, the "contour cuts" of B. C Brookes, and the arguments on closed stacks and browsing. It is not reassuring to find only 4 references in the bibliography later than 1970

Does the book achieve its goals? Well, it does after a fashion. Was it worth publishing? Yes, it was It is useful and stimulating. Nevertheless, a better job could have been done.

Michael K. Buckland, *University of California, Berkeley*

European Acquisitions and Their Bibliographical Control Proceedings of an Exchange of Experience Seminar at St Antony's College, Oxford, 26 March 1974. Edited by COLIN STEELE and GREGORY WALKER University of Lancaster Library Occasional Papers, no. 9 Lancaster. University of Lancaster Library, 1975. Pp. 129. £2 25 (paper). ISBN 0-901699-32-2.

The volume opens with a reprint of Colin Steele's "Europe the Neglected Continent," which appeared originally in the *Library Association Record* for July 1973. There follow brief "Opening Remarks" by Mr Steele, and papers on "The Bookseller's Point of View" by W. W. Brown and P. Stockham The names of twenty firms appear in "English Dealers Handling European Material· A Select List " The remainder of the volume, except for 2 pages of "Conclusions," is devoted to papers on individual countries or groups of countries—France, by L. M. Newman, The Netherlands, by T. Denny and C. R. Steele; Belgium, by C R Steele, Luxembourg, by C. R. Steele, Italy, by A. D. Burnett and D H Thomas; Spain, by J. Wainwright, Portugal, by C. R. Steele, with comment by H. Martins, German-speaking Europe, by V J. Riley, with comment by A. J. Nicholls; The German Democratic Republic, by A. J Dickson, Scandinavia, by I Douglas and T. Denny; and Eastern Europe, by G. P M Walker, with comment by J S. G Simmons.

Each paper considers book production, bibliographical control, sources of supply, and the adequacy of coverage by British libraries. Lists of dealers are appended to the papers on The Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Spain, Portugal, Germany, East Germany, Scandinavia, and Eastern Europe. In the absence of comment or critical annotation, these are not particularly useful

Indeed, while exchange of information was undoubtedly useful to the sixty-nine participants in the conference, the published papers do not make any noteworthy contribution to knowledge Statistics of publishing output, for what they are worth, come almost exclusively from readily available published sources Information on bibliographical works adds little or nothing to what is to be found in guides to reference works. Comments on British holdings of publications from the countries in question are interesting, but these reflect the impressions of informed librarians rather than the results of research.

Two sentences from the concluding paragraph in the volume indicate that hopes for the future depend chiefly on centralized, rather than individual, activity· "It also seems apparent that there will have to be increasing centralisation and rationalisation of foreign acquisitions, and their bibliographical control, in the later 1970's. In this the British Library's role will be crucial, especially if the British Library Reference Division's books are made available for loan."

Physically, the volume is deplorable, a single reading has left its leaves detached from their cover and from one another.

Edwin E. Williams, *Harvard University*

Introduction to United States Public Documents By JOE MOREHEAD Library Science Text Series Littleton, Colo.. Libraries Unlimited, Inc., 1975. Pp. xxvi + 289 $10 00. ISBN 0-87287-106-1

This latest book in the Library Science Text Series, intended for use in library school courses on federal government publications, provides basic information on the "relationship between the production and distribution of government materials and their control, access, and management in libraries and information centers. . Accordingly, the purpose of this work is to set forth an introductory account of public documents, their locus, diffusion, habitation, and use" (preface, p. v). It is also intended to serve as a reference source for librarians working with government publications

The text is particularly well designed to meet instructional needs by its arrangement. Early chapters provide background on the Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, the depository library system, and the organization of document collections. There is also a chapter on the general bibliographic control, both retrospective and current, for documents published by governmental and commercial agencies Later chapters, the bulk of the text, cover selected publications emanating from the three branches (legislative, executive, and judiciary) of the federal government and its agencies and commissions. For each publication there is a discussion of its purpose, history, use, and access.

Joe Morehead, assistant professor at the Graduate School of Library and Information Science, State University of New York at Albany, is well qualified to write a text on federal documents. He not only teaches documents courses but contributes a regular column entitled "U.S. Government Documents: A Mazeway Miscellany," to *RQ*, the journal of the Reference and Adult Services Division of the American Library Association. He writes in a clear prose style, describing the contents of publications thoroughly yet concisely, This text is one of a number of recent volumes on government documents published by Libraries Unlimited, Inc.

The strengths of *Introduction of United States Public Documents* are found in the excellent illustrations and bibliographical apparatus. The 50 illustrations of processing records, indexes, and reproductions of pages from documents themselves are particularly useful to the teacher and the student. Examples include "CIS/Index: Summary Section," "Bill: Introduced Print," "Executive Order, Federal Register," and "Supreme Court Reporter." "References" at the end of chapters not only document the text but provide bibliographies of the major governmental and commerical sources on documents produced through the years.

Perhaps the greatest weakness of the Morehead volume is the inclusiveness of the coverage. Intended as an introductory text, the student may be overwhelmed with the vast number of publications included, though the descriptive paragraphs are kept to the minimum. On the other hand, the inadequacy of the coverage of documents in microform is especially disappointing. Moreover, while the typography is clear, the page layout is a bit confusing; indentations and different type faces are intended as guides to the organization of a page, but they are difficult to follow, especially in using the text as a reference source.

Introduction to United States Public Documents invites comparison with Laurence F. Schmeckebier and Roy B. Eastin's *Government Publications and Their Use* (2d ed., rev. [Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1969]). Schmeckebier and Eastin updated the earlier work of Anne M. Boyd, *United States Government Publications* (3d ed., rev. Rae Rips [New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1949]) as the standard text and guide. Both of these publications are still useful; they provide a historical supplement to the Morehead text and are particularly useful for their in-depth descriptions of documents and indexes no longer current. The advantage of the Morehead text lies in its up-to-dateness. While Morehead does not ignore the older documents, he merely places them in their historical perspective; he anticipates the use of Schmeckebier and Boyd as a supplement to his text.

On the whole, Morehead has accomplished his goal: he has presented a well-written and a well-documented volume that fills the need for a good text for use in library education. In addition, the "Title/Series Index" makes *Introduction to United States Public Documents* a useful, up-to-date reference guide to federal documents.

A. Kathryn Oller, *Drexel University*

Applications of Minicomputers to Library and Related Problems. Edited by F. WILFRID LANCASTER. Proceedings of the 1974 Clinic on Library Applications of Data Processing. Urbana-Champaign: Graduate School of Library Science, University of Illinois, 1975. Pp. 195. $6.00. ISBN 0-87845-041-6.

In 14 chapters this volume surveys a field of rapidly increasing significance to librarians. The first 2 chapters are tutorials on minicomputers, while the remainder cover three commerical systems, three systems developed by universities with external funding, several in-house developments, and one instance of system use in the library science curriculum. Since the conference was held, two of the vendors (Singer and Xerox) supporting several of the systems herein described have quit the computer business, and one wonders how their users will fare in the future.

Tutorials on hardware and software, by Divilbiss and Corey, respectively, opened the clinic. The Divilbiss paper will be especially helpful to administrators who want a closer understanding of what hardware components comprise any computer and what functions they perform. There is a fine explanation of virtual storage, a concept of increasing importance. The paper by Corey on software is more technical than Divilbiss's chapter but is well written and can be understood by readers having some prior knowledge of computer concepts and vocabulary. Corey's explanations of operating systems and systems programs are excellent. Both these papers explain how minicomputers differ from full-scale machines in cost, facilities, and performance.

A short chapter by Curley describes some current trends in both library and nonlibrary applications. The author states that "networking appears to be on the verge of becoming a reality," a prediction which today seems curiously ancient. Perhaps Curley's most useful contribution in this paper is his affirmation of system dynamism: the need to allow systems to be redeveloped at the end of a five- to seven-year period when they are presumably obsolete. He wisely emphasizes that systems are not static but undergo continuous development. And he shows that the smaller capital costs of minicomputers make them far easier to sell to boards and trustees.

Next comes a somewhat rambling account by Hamner of how minicomputers are employed in a variety of applications at the University of Maryland. The main emphasis is on circulation; the paper concludes with a description of planning for an on-line acquisition and serials system. This paper has long, detailed descriptions of local procedures and might have benefited from tighter editing. No cost data are provided, rather a disappointment considering the amount of other detail. Also dealing with circulation is Kershner's paper on use of the IBM System/7 at the University of Pennsylvania, a program made available by IBM to other potential users. Kershner's chapter also enumerates many procedures—perhaps inevitable in describing circulation systems—but is more analytic and more generalized than Hamner's. It will appeal to administrators, particularly as cost data are included.

Beaumont describes the LIBS 100, a system marketed by Computer Library Systems, Inc. (CLSI). Using simple flow charts, he writes clear English, presents his ideas in a straightforward manner, and is careful to avoid being overtechnical. Beaumont's main emphasis is on circulation applications, but he refers to other upcoming functions then in the planning stages, for example, book ordering.

In a well-written paper Davison explains the differences between programmable and hardwired terminals with built-in microcomputers. His paper illustrates how terminals can be controlled by a minicomputer to relieve the main computer of many routine communication tasks—such as polling, downloading of programs for the terminals, and the like. He also deals with some of the intellectual design problems of screen design and concludes with the concept of a minicomputer-controlled circulation system.

In a paper on information retrieval, Negus (Institution of Electrical Engineers, London) explains the potential role of minicomputers as "front ends" for larger computers—as detailed in the papers by Davison and Payne (see below)—and their use as communication controllers in switched networks, and as control devices for off-line mass storage, for example, microforms. He makes the odd statement that it is "unusual for a bibliographic retrieval system to be able to cope with many more than thirty simultaneous users," a rather curious claim in the light of operating bibliographic networks servicing hundreds and thousands of terminals.

Payne provides an overview of the Chicago Library Data Management System and outlines the steps which led to choice of the Varian 620/i for its front end. He lists six useful criteria for evaluating responses to bids for minicomputers. With many years of experience in implementing complex systems, Payne can state with considerable authority that "such systems do not get into operation overnight," surely an overmodest statement.

The paper by Schabas and Damon is a remarkable account of just how confusing things can get when one attempts to secure computer resources for curricular purposes in a library school. They give an account (disarming in its honesty) of the complexities involved in dealing with multiple sources of service on the same campus and in adapting to rapid changes in hardware and software as well as the vagaries of the multi-vendor situation. Interspersed within these adventurous accounts may be found details of several applications to the curriculum, though I suspect these instances were not without considerable frustration.

In a paper marred by several illustrations too small to read without a magnifier, Waite outlines eleven network design objectives and shows how BIBNET claims to fulfill them. He reports an input keying rate of eight entries per hour; perhaps this is obtainable for simple entries keyboarded in a commercial environment, but the figure is of doubtful validity in a research library where entries can be long and complex.

The last 3 chapters all pertain to a system then under development at the University of Minnesota Bio-Medical Library under a grant from the National Library of Medicine. The paper by Grosch is outstanding for its clarity, having especially good explanations of the features and limitations of minicomputers plus an excellent section on choosing a machine and sustaining satisfactory relations with vendors. Following Grosch is a paper by Brudvig detailing the line of development being followed at Minnesota for the system still under design and then not yet operational. The last chapter by Lourey also concerns design and is characterized by predictions of machine performance and costs that I believe may be overoptimistic if not misleading. He speaks of minicomputers having a Mean Time between Failures (MTBF) of *months* rather than hours. (Earlier, Brudvig [p. 172] speaks of the annual maintenance costs of "a few hundred dollars," hardly realistic.) Lourey also refers to the minicomputer's expansion capability, stating that software modifications would not be needed to add more terminals or hardware. These suggestions are wholly contrary to the experiences of many institutions and reflect a golden optimism that may be justified five, ten, or fifteen years in the future but surely was not so in 1974, nor is so in 1976. Finally, he states that the major goal of the Minnesota development is exportability, an evasive and moving target which has yet to reveal its bull's-eye for some computer sharpshooter.

There is a good index and a "front end" of special usefulness: fifty acronyms are decoded (we are told what LC stands for but not OCLC).

On the whole, this volume is an excellent account of the state of the art of applying minicomputers in libraries in 1974. Because these are conference papers on a rapidly developing topic, they cannot have the broad, analytic view which library administrators or educators would prefer. Perhaps such proceedings should not be evaluated against such a standard on the ground that they are prepared for a different readership—the systems designer and planner. Yet some comprehensive synthesis provided by the editor would have been most helpful, and it is this element which I missed most.

Another weakness of this particular book lies in those papers describing what a system under development will do when it is completed. Achieving the specifications in a complex design is difficult enough; scheduling the date when the system runs in *production* (as distinct from testing) is a hundred times harder. From experience, I have learned to speak only in the past or present tense about what production systems *did* or in fact *do*. Papers reflecting conceptual designs or plans might be better presented at a conference devoted to *design* rather than to applications.

Allen B. Veaner, *Stanford University*

Simulation Teaching of Library Administration. By MARTHA JANE K. ZACHERT. Problem-centered Approaches to Librarianship. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1975. Pp. xvii + 297. $18.95. ISBN 0-8352-0612-2.

Nothing is more likely to sharpen a reviewer's critical faculties than a laudatory foreword. Yet no fair critic, and especially none who has confronted the difficulties of teaching library administration, could disagree with Thomas J. Galvin's assessment of this book. Dr. Zachert's authoritative account of the theory and practice of simulation teaching and its place as an educational technique in library science is indeed "a major contribution to this literature and a distinguished addition to this series" (p. xiv).

"The book presents examples of simulated teaching materials in order to help library science teachers to understand the kinds of materials needed in simulation teaching, to offer materials that can themselves be used in administration classrooms, and, hopefully, to inspire teachers to produce more and better simulation materials through their own research" (p. 11). This book deserves to achieve at least these effects.

The text has been carefully structured. Simulation teaching is explained as a method which "makes is possible for learners to experience the 'feel' of reality in a controlled situation, without risk" (p. 3), and the types of materials needed to support the method are described. The difference in the role of the simulation learning director from that of the traditional didactic teacher is delineated, and the experiential techniques used in simulation teaching and their management are clearly explained. There follows a convincing exposition of the research which is necessary for the creation of more and better models on which to base simulation teaching of library administration. The bibliography presents a distillation of relevant literature in the fields of educational and management theory and practice as well as in that of library science. The final section gives in full the models developed for the author's Industrial Library Simulation and Government Library Simulation.

In discussing the creation of effective simulation teaching materials the author lays proper stress on the importance of the model, and in so doing clears away much of the misunderstanding which surrounds that concept. She is, for example, explicit that "the only purpose of the simulation model is to carry selected information in a format that can be read and referred to easily. There is no implication that the model offers a standard of library procedure to be emulated in real libraries" (p. 15). The difficulties of setting objectives for the education of the "model" library administrator are also faced. "Since we do not have a research base that defines how administrators *should* act to obtain maximum results, or what constitutes optimum interpersonal skills for effective library staff work, it is virtually impossible to state behavioral objectives and criteria for administration courses at the present time" (p. 32). In the meantime, however, in her own courses at Florida State University and in her continuing education endeavors, the author seems to have made effective use of objectives set by the learners themselves and of evaluation of their performance by instruments of their own design.

It is indeed refreshing to come across a monograph in librarianship pervaded by the conviction that student-centered learning and the development of interpersonal skills are vital in the effective preparation of librarians. The author's theoretical understanding of the relationship between cognitive and affective learning has been ingeniously incorporated into the teaching materials. The mere existence of these materials ought to make impossible in future continuing education courses in library administration what Zachert has termed "the day-long passivity characteristic of many didactic 'programs' masquerading as learning experiences" (p. 45).

Zachert's treatment of her subject is detailed, her advice practical, and her examples of materials copious. Yet the work is neither repetitive nor dull. One reason for this achievement is the fact that the book is well organized as a whole and in its parts. Another reason is surely its basis in carefully documented teaching experience which is often recounted in lively anecdote. Another lies in the excellence of the teaching materials presented. Many a case-hardened teacher may be tempted to smile indulgently when first presented with the action maze in which "the learner responds in a first-person role to a programmed sequence of action choices scattered through a booklet of scrambled pages" (p. 114). Yet I defy anyone who begins working through "The Ann Davis Situation" (pp. 119–53) to stop midway, to remain uninvolved, or to be uninterested in persuading a colleague to set out on the same journey so that later comparison of routes and destinations in the maze can take place.

Perhaps the author could be accused of occasional hyperbole, for example, in the statement that "whatever the in-basket contains is the daily reality of the administrator's world" (p. 89). Again, occasionally, those wasted words "insightful" and "meaningful" intrude into otherwise admirable prose.

Zachert's book must be a powerful deterrent to teachers of library administration blustering behind clouds of chalk or flitting about in the blare and glare of audiovisual technology used to disguise the essential ineffectiveness of the lecture method in this subject. The book should also be a powerful incentive to specialists in other branches of library science education to begin experiments, or perhaps to report achievements, in applications of simulation teaching.

Carmel Maguire, *University of New South Wales*

Joetta Community Library: A Simulation Exercise in Library Administration. By ROBERT E. BROWN. University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science Occasional Papers, no. 118. Urbana-Champaign: University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, 1975. Pp. 78. $2.00 (paper).

Joetta Community Library presents us with the materials for a simulation exercise in public library administration. The purpose of the work is to provide students taking an introductory course in library administration with a commonly shared content and framework, so that they may relate the theory and principles of administration to the "real world" as it its presented here. It is not intended to be used as the only text in the course, but as a supplement to other instructional materials.

Within these limits, Brown does a rather good job of presenting the raw material from which an instructor can construct a simulacrum of a library in a middle-sized town in central Iowa. He provides information about the community, résumés of all staff members, 2 annual reports, financial details, minutes of board meetings, the personnel policy and the materials selection policy, the floor plan of the library, etc. He provides some obvious problems for the students to deal with: circulation is declining, the city council has rejected a request for additional funds, the book collection requires weeding and rebuilding. He also manages to insert some subtle and interesting problems, such as that of the board member who has a pattern of "nay" votes.

The only guidance that Brown offers in the use of the materials is that the student is to assume the role of "Darrell Smith," the new li[illegible] The specific assignments and tasks that the student is to fulfill are left to the instructor. Brown states that several techniques can be used with the *Joetta Community Library*, including "in-basket" exercises, role playing, and budget preparation. Supplementary materials for these techniques are available from Brown at the University of Illinois.

My view of the work is that it will serve its intended purpose well, especially if supplemented by the additional materials. It is comprehensive enough to adapt to the various approaches taken by individual instructors, yet basic enough to provide appropriate experience for the beginning student. My only major quibble is that it does not provide any substantial information about personnel problems. However, this could be easily remedied by the instructor's ingenuity, or by the concurrent use of a test such as Kenneth R. Shaffer's *Library Personnel Administration and Supervision* (Hamden, Conn.: Shoe String Press, 1968).

Emil M. Levenson, *Oak Park Public Library, Oak Park, Illinois*

California Public Library Systems: A Comprehensive Review with Guidelines for the Next Decade. By PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO Sacramento: California State Library, 1975. Pp. [223]. (Paper.)

Some of the findings reported in this study echo those in the State University of New York's *Emerging Library Systems: The 1963–66 Evaluation of the New York State Public Library Systems* (Albany, 1967) and Nelson Associates' *Public Library Systems in the United States* (Chicago, 1969). Among them are evidence of poor planning by systems, reference staff weaknesses, inadequate reimbursement of heavily used libraries, and the firm support of systems by member libraries.

The authors challenge some commonly held assumptions when they conclude that "the existence of a system union catalog reduces the number of transactions required to fill an ILL [interlibrary loan] request or the labor hours required to do so; [that] there is no correlation of fill rate with size of collection . . . ; [that there is] no correlation of efficiency with any particular nodal structure [pattern for routing requests]; [and that] there is no evidence that using a higher percentage of professional personnel increases the efficiency of processing ILL requests" (sec. 8, p. 4).

These conclusions are hedged, in part, by the admission that the universe studied was small, but there are additional factors which cause me to question their validity. The Statewide Union Catalog in California does not include major university collections, nor are such major holdings apparently tapped for interlibrary loan. With such a limited union catalog and such narrow options for interlibrary loan personnel in locating material, professionals may find no challenge in the work and the union catalog of limited value.

The most valuable chapter is "The Reference Survey" and its related appendix. Librarians looking for guidance in evaluating library reference service will turn to this chapter and its related appendix as one of the few examples of how it might be done.

The authors recommend an alternative to public library systems which they label a "designated intermediate library" structure. Large public and university libraries and the state library would form a "top-level consortium" which would operate as a two-tier structure to augment the intermediate libraries designated by a Regional Library Council as the resource-sharing backup for public libraries in a given geographical area.

Recommended funding is based primarily on interlibrary loan requests. Under the formula proposed, the state would increase its appropriation between 250 and 300 percent the first year and an additional 250 percent over the ensuing five years to allow for anticipated growth in interlibrary loan requests. Over half of the state funds would go to the top-level consortium and the intermediate libraries to reimburse them for interlibrary loan services and shared cataloging, and to aid them in collection development. The remainder, "Sustaining Services Funds," would be "administered by the State Library for staff development and program planning and evaluation at the regional library council level" (sec. 12, p. 7).

According to the study, "If the borrowing libraries had purchased the books sought by patrons instead of obtaining them by loan, the acquisition cost would have exceeded $8 million" (sec. 1, p. 1). Total state funding for the first year is recommended to be only $3,119,000 which might be compared with the 1974–75 *American Library Directory* data of state funding in New York ($18,275,501), New Jersey ($9,070,091), Illinois ($8,878,475), and Pennsylvania ($7,400,000).

The authors have carried out the assignment they were given, but, unfortunately, the assignment was limited to current system services which have been consistently underfinanced. No consideration was given to system services in other large states with respectable levels of funding. Recommendations resulting from the study are based on improving existing services (primarily interlibrary loan) and the financing of the predicted growth in interlibrary loan. The recommendations include possible elimination of public library systems which have proved successful where adequately funded. If California systems are not eliminated, the recommendations allow little opportunity for them to evolve into more than instruments for resource sharing.

Lester L. Stoffel, *Suburban Library System, Burr Ridge, Illinois*

Serving Youth: Communication and Commitment in the High School Library. By LILLIAN L. SHAPIRO. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1975. Pp. xv+268. $13.50. ISBN 0-8352-0763-3.

Librarians concerned about secondary school media centers await with messianic hope the appearance of a cogent, definitive, and readable work on the subject. The recent arrival, *Serving Youth*, is not the fulfillment of this longing. The book is undoubtedly an honest rendition of the author's life in media centers (Shapiro has been associated with school libraries in New York City for many years and is currently director of media services, United Nations International School), but it lacks the synthesis that raises memoirs to distinction.

Shapiro has an important point to make: librarians working with young people need to posess a responsiveness that insures communication and a resilience that will not allow the mundane to thwart their commitment to serve youth. This viewpoint is encapsulated in the title and emerges frequently in the book. The author turns to the service-oriented, information-retrieval agencies known as special libraries to state her premise. "It is my thesis that school media centers could have the same inextricable relationship to their constituencies as special librarians have to their organizations" (p. xiii).

One will either fault or commend the author's chatty style and the bits-and-pieces approach to content. I find that her remarks, anecdotes, and witticisms pale upon rereading; the reader who skims through the book only once might be amused.

In the first chapter the author turns round the kaleidoscope of people, pressures, problems, and principles influencing young people during the sixties. The heading of the second chapter suggests that personnel will be discussed, but Shapiro simply meanders through a maze of topics, including a scant history of school libraries and American education, sexual stereotyping in the library and audiovisual fields, professionalism, manpower studies sponsored by professional associations, social responsibilities of librarians, and the educational program for young adult librarians. One nugget is offered in the statement that the media specialist's major contribution will be "in the realm of initiative, originality, planning, and scholarship" (p. 64).

The media program, discussed in the third chapter, is divided into four components: consultative services, teaching services (library instruction), reference and information services, and production services. Glimpses of seven media centers are provided; analysis does not penetrate beyond that which might be observed in a day's visit. The author attempts to identify factors of effective programs. Sections about attitudes and innovative services are disappointing, because these are issues to which the author could have made significant contributions; the paragraphs, however, contain nothing new or stimulating. The importance of evaluation is stressed. The summary does suggest some leavening ingredients in a quality program and could be shaped into useful guidelines with some revising and kneading.

Staff responsibilities and relationships are treated in the fourth chapter. Shapiro shows a keen and sensitive understanding of the demands and dynamics of working with people. She does not, however, exercise this insight in her quite traditional recommendations for staff scheduling and organization. Would this not have been an appropriate place to develop the concept that the staff of the media center should seek vigorously, if not aggressively, to serve the *entire* faculty?

The fifth chapter touches upon relationships with the community and the sixth reviews standards and certification. The last chapter is entitled "Avoiding Future Schlock."

Each chapter ends with a list of suggested readings. Appendices include a list of selection tools, the "Library Education and Manpower" statement adopted by the American Library Association, the "School Library Bill of Rights," the "AASL Statement of Purpose," and the "NEA Bill of Teacher Rights." The index is encumbered by useless entries. A more serious flaw in the index, and the book itself, can be noted in the reference to but 1 page under "Films, use of."

Selma K. Richardson, *University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign*

Manual of Business Library Practice. Edited by MALCOLM J. CAMPBELL. Hamden, Conn.: Linnet Books; London: Clive Bingley, 1975. Pp. 186. $10.00. ISBN 0-208-01359-8.

This volume is essentially concerned with the services and resources which can be offered the business and commercial sector by an apparently reluctant British public library structure. In order to state their case and to begin developing "a strong corps of enthusiastic professionals . . . " (p. 7), Campbell and his seven authors have prepared this collection of 12 essays. While American librarians may be somewhat confused by the title of the book and some of its terminology, Campbell's advocacy of commercial library service and his concern for the education of students of librarianship for this specialty area are made quite clear in his introduction. Campbell deserves credit for conceiving and executing this book, for it successfully adds to the literature on commerical information services and provides good guidance on the education of business librarians. It does not, however, attempt to explain the costs associated with these services or collections, nor does it attempt to justify these services in the public library setting.

The book begins with a brief history of the development of commercial and business information service in England, giving an occasional comparison with the United States. While pointing to a number of outstanding commercial reference libraries, including the business library at the Corporation of London where Campbell, the editor, is City Business Librarian, D. W. Bromley and A. M. Allot suggest the time is right for public library authorities to consider the improvement of their commercial library service. In the next 2 chapters, A. Leslie Smyth, the commerical librarian and information officer at Manchester Central Library, explains how to handle the objectives, planning, staffing, cataloging, and classification problems associated with these services. Smyth concludes " . . . that John Cotton Dana's original ideas of serving the business community are capable of immense expansion" (p. 46).

In chapter 4, which really concludes the "what is and what could be" section of this volume with a message, Allan Armstrong delivers an excellent essay on the company library. The tone and special message he has is best exemplified by his concluding paragraph: "Perhaps it is the fast pace of change, or the presumed insecurity of commercial life which deters so many librarians from entering this type of library. Less than 2% of British library school leavers enter company libraries; the majority of such units are run by non-library staff. The opportunity for the trained librarian is limitless and promotion is fast. It is one type of library where humour exceeds politics. The challenge of participating with a major contribution to an industrial or a commercial management team awaits any librarian with enthusiasm, personality and efficiency" (p. 62).

As previously noted, Campbell is interested in the education of students of librarianship, and this accounts for the remainder of the volume which consists of a series of instructive essays on subjects useful to the business librarian. There is, for example, a chapter on directories and sources of company information as well as 3 chapters on statistics: their bibliographic control, organization, acquisition and use. There is a fine chapter on the management literature and how to master it and other chapters on periodicals, special services, and external sources of information.

This volume would have been strengthened if the costs and commitments for public libraries contemplating the development of such services had been enumerated. It would have been further strengthened if studies such as *Information and the Small Manufacturer*[1] were conducted and included to help prove the need for such services and to offer evidence that the public library could carry out this service in a successful manner.

James M. Matarazzo, *Simmons College*

Business Information Services: Some Aspects of Structure Organisation and Problems. By MALCOLM J. CAMPBELL. London: Clive Bingley, 1974. Pp. 174. £3.50. ISBN 0-85157-174-3.

Technical Services for Industry: Technical Information and Other Services Available from Government Departments and Associated Organizations. London: Department of Industry, 1975. Pp. vii + 253. (Paper.) ISBN 0-85605-071-7. Available from the Department of Industry, 1 Victoria St., London, England SW1H 0ET.

A necessity, a reward, and a delight for the librarian is that stock of guides to literature which have been prepared by his fellows. At present we all stand on the foundation of Winchell, Walford, and Malclès, while in the business and economics wing we are supported by the structure created by Betsy Ann Olive, Lorna M. Daniells, and others. We know the guides in this stock to be thorough in coverage, nearly absolute in reliability, and accurate in guidance.

1. Carmel Maguire and Robin Kench, *Information and the Small Manufacturer: Report of a Survey of the Information Needs of Small Manufacturers in New South Wales* (Kensington: School of Librarianship, University of New South Wales, 1974). This study is not complimentary on the success of the public library as a source of commercial reference services (see my review in *Library Quarterly* 45 [October 1975]: 441–42).

The 2 books here reviewed are excellent and welcome additions to the structure in the business and economics wing. It is evident that great care has been taken in the planning, preparation, and production of each volume. It is also evident that the goal in each case has been to provide a book useful to those who must control more the British literature of a subject, less the subject itself.

Technical Services for Industry has a brief introduction, written above the name and address of the Research and Development Contractors Division, Department of Industry of Great Britain. It reads: "This guide is designed primarily for . . . [all] concerned with problem solving in industry. It is an attempt to bring together . . . sufficient details of services that are, or have been, sponsored by Government departments, to enable workers in this field to identify the most appropriate source of information or assistance for any given technical problem."

The book is arranged by ministry or department (of which there are 15 listed) and by agency within these. This arrangement is clearly indicated in the table of contents. Within the text, each agency is effectively distinguished from its neighbors on the page. For each agency there is given name, address, telephone, telex, names of officers, and business hours. Beneath this heading separate paragraphs cover purpose, scope, organization, library facilities, publications (with frequency and price as well as name), information services, requirements for admission to the facilities, accommodations for visiting researchers, and whatever other information is useful.

Of the departments of the British Library, only the Lending Division, the Science Reference Library, and the Research and Development Department are covered. For these the editorial policy of giving much information in succinct form with great precision of language is followed. The same is true for Aslib, the National Reprographic Centre for documentation, and the British Institute of Management. For the last of these, there is a clearer statement of what they do, what they publish, for whom they do it, and with whose support, than I have ever seen.

There is a single index incorporating agency names (initials and earlier names are included as separate entries), subjects (for example, degaussing), and industries (for example, construction), along with a handful of "see" and "see also" references. The index would have been more useful if more titles of publications had been included. However, the librarian interested, for instance, in publications on the environment will find an entry for "environmental studies" with 1 page reference, a "see also" for Department of the Environment, and a "see also" for National Environment Research Council. Under this last he will find such bodies as the Nature Conservancy Council, which also has its own entry.

This is a most informative book, very well done, and quite easy to use.

Business Information Sources was written by the City Business Librarian of the Corporation of London, Malcolm J. Campbell. It is written from the viewpoint of one who must operate a business library, "a setting-down of some of the problems to be faced, and the means of tackling a few of the more awkward types of enquiry which arise" (p. 8).

The 4 parts are divided into 14 chapters. The first 5 of these deal with the structure of business information services, the next 5 with internal organization of the library, the next 3 with subjects on which material is difficult to find, and the last with recommendations for improvement in the provision of information about business.

While there is no bibliography as such, there is a list of books at the end of the preface, and in the text of each chapter Campbell discusses the literature on the subject. Most of these discussions increased my knowledge of material already familiar, and his description of the services offered by the *Financial Times*, for example, had me reaching for an order form. There are a few slips, such as referring to Predicast's F & S Indexes as Funk and Scott Indexes, which will present some difficulty for the reader who goes directly to the card catalog.

The index is nearly 12 pages long and was accurate in my sampling of it. In a single alphabet are listed names, agencies, book and periodical titles, companies, and subjects. There are multiple entries so that, for example, Jaeger and Waldmann's *World Telex Directory* appears both under Jaeger and under *World*. Reminders of change in the business world are entries for the *International Yellow Pages*, no longer published, and for Moodies, which closed its doors as this review was being written.

The Campbell book is intended, of course, especially for the use of business librarians in Great Britain. It is, however, valuable for their counterparts elsewhere. It tells us what one book to have when a British library would need 6 or 8, and it tells us extra uses for the books we now have. Of equal importance, the book presents an interesting and challenging discussion of problems of service which all business librarians face. While a thorough consideration of Campbell's views belongs in an article or monograph, it is surely permissible in a review to note the conclusion of his chapter on publicity and exploitation: "The most sophisticated stock [of books] will be of little worth without librarians of the right calibre to ensure its utmost use" (p. 89).

In reviewing Richard Crossman's diaries for the *New Statesman* (December 12, 1975), John Kenneth Galbraith wrote (p. 758) of the British civil servants what can be written of Campbell, the Department of Industry Staff, and other librarians who prepare these guides for us: they are members of a group "working with great intelligence and almost incredible diligence on . . . things of great concern to the people immediately affected and in the aggregate to the country."

Robert M. Clatanoff, *University of Chicago*

Information Systems: Their Interconnection and Compatibility. Proceedings of a Symposium Organized by the International Atomic Energy Agency and Co-sponsored by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Held in Varna, Bulgaria, 30 September–3 October 1974. Vienna: International Atomic Energy Agency, 1975. Pp. 470. $28.00 (paper). ISBN 92-0-070075-6. Order from Unipub, Inc., New York.

These *Proceedings* contain 41 papers (most in English, some in French and Russian) with discussions presented at one of the international meetings about scientific and technical information. Such meetings are increasing in frequency, reflecting the growing interest of international organizations and national governments, particularly in developing countries, in building information systems and promoting a common approach to dissemination of knowledge. Scientific and technical knowledge is recognized as a power in economic development and social progress. The purpose of this meeting, organized by the three international organizations (mentioned above in the title) was "to discuss the problems of matching various and different information systems." The following main topic headings of the symposium quite accurately represent the content of the papers: "State of Development of International Information Programs and Systems and Their Interconnection"; "National, International and Intergovermental Discipline- and Mission-oriented Systems and Their Compatibility"; "Harmonization of National Policies to Improve Interconnection and Compatibility"; "Compatibility of National and International Standards and Their Use"; "Ways and Means of Improving Systems Interconnection in the Future."

The value of these and similar proceedings is in their content. The problem is also the content. On the positive side, the papers provide description of a stage in efforts that are hard to find elsewhere. Summary description of the UNISIST program is given. Detailed description of INIS (International Nuclear Information System) and AGRIS (International Agricultural Information System) are presented. Efforts of dozens of other international and national organizations, systems, and programs are mentioned in greater or lesser detail. Sorting these out has become a major chore even for the initiated, and the book helps in this respect. On the negative side, however, the problem is that most of these efforts sound good on paper, but the reality of achievement simply does not match the description. In reality, most of the papers represent a catalog of hopes. Yes, we should definitely have hopes and hold symposia about them. But there should be a distinction between hopes and achievements. There was not much in this book. There were no papers that attempted to evaluate achivements.

Also, strangely enough, although the major concern was with scientific information there was not a single paper presented representing scientific research on this problem, nor was such research mentioned in discussions. Is not research appropriate to international activities dealing with dissemination of knowledge?

In my opinion, the most informative paper was "Application of Standards in Systems Interconnection," by R. W. Middleton, J. Eggert, and E. I. French, cataloging the international standard efforts in great detail. The most thoughtful discussion of problems facing international efforts in this area is contained in the paper: "Will There Always Be Great Diversity among the World's Scientific and Technological Information Handling Systems," by D. B. Baker and R. E. O'Dette. The best description of an information system was given by D. H. Barlow in "Examples of Discipline/Mission Compatibility and Their Problems," which dealt with the Institution of Electrical Engineers information services (INSPEC) and their various cooperative arrangements.

In a larger context these *Proceedings* are further evidence of an increase in internationalization of information systems and services. For the world this is all for the better. For the professional in information science and librarianship this is another layer of things to learn, know, and consider. Since finding out about these things is a major problem, this book has a place as a handy guide to some of the hopes, problems, dreams, and achievements in the international arena of information systems circa 1974.

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Conceptual Basis of the Classification of Knowledge: Proceedings of the Ottawa Conference on the Conceptual Basis of the Classification of Knowledge, October 1st to 5th, 1971. Edited by JERZY A. WOJCIECHOWSKI Pullach bei München: Verlag Dokumentation, 1974. Pp. 503. DM 98. ISBN 3-7940-3649-2.

Successful conferences are all alike—they report new developments in some number of accepted areas of investigation; but a conference that fails is interesting in its own way for, from its text, it is possible to infer ambiguities in our definitions of existing fields of knowledge. The conference, the proceedings of which are under discussion here, was organized by a committee consisting of members of the Department of Philosophy of the University of Ottawa under the chairmanship of Prof. Jerzy A. Wojciechowski. The purpose of the conference was to bring together philosophers and specialists in classification systems to discuss methods for defining such systems. A subsidiary aim of the conference was to discuss the establishment of a Research Center for the Classification of Knowledge at the University of Ottawa.

Any discussion of methods for defining classification systems presupposes that a system that conforms to an existing epistemology of knowledge is more useful in some way than one that does not. However, the relation of epistemology to existing classification systems was not clarified at this meeting. The conference was not immediately successful in identifying a reasonable framework for defining classification systems, or even in developing a clear outline of areas for further study. There are at least two reasons for this lack of success. First (and understandably), the papers presented at the conference did not represent all of the different work being done in the field of classification. For example, although Guy Lafrance refers to the important work of linguists and anthoropologists, there was no adequate discussion of the different schools of structural linguistics or the various methodologies currently used for research in cultural anthropology. Many other disciplines were similarly underrepresented. Second, the two main groups present at the conference (philosophers and information specialists) used different vocabularies; probably, neither group understood easily or quickly the import of those papers presented by other participants.

The papers vary in length from 3 to 99 pages. They can be divided roughly into a major historical study, some reports of recent philosophical thinking, and some reports of useful classification systems. Together they do not identify any single conceptual framework, and some authors, such as A. Diemer, suggest that none is possible.

Eric de Grolier introduced the conference with a comprehensive historical study of the philosophy of knowledge and the development of library classification. However, he found little evidence that the one development had influenced the other. This observation was made repeatedly throughout the conference.

Probably, librarians will find the papers of the classification specialists more readable than those of the philosophers. Still, some philosophers made an effort to explicate epistemological matters with the thought that this may prove helpful to librarians. From their efforts it might prove possible to learn which are important in the study of classification and why.

Frederick Suppe's paper, "Some Philosophical Problems in Biological Speciation and Taxonomy," should be read before the other philosophical papers both because it begins with a conventional type of classification and because it provides a framework within which to "classify" many of the other philosophical points of view. Suppe first differentiates between natural and artificial taxonomies, suggesting (rather delicately) that artificial ones are often easier and more appropriate for practical purposes than natural systems of classification. This is so because artificial classifications can be based on those morphological characteristics which are readily observable. For Suppe, a natural system of classification of biological species enumerates the essential characteristics of the species and specifies the allowable variations. If there is no allowable variation, the system would be an enumerative classification similar in form, I suppose, to traditional library classifications. If there is variation, the characteristics which are the basis for classification are organized into selection classes such as characterize faceted systems. Each individual described by the system exemplifies one characteristic from each selection class. This type of classification is formally similar to the faceted schemes used in recent decades in some libraries and information files. However, biological taxonomy defines possible evolutionary patterns of a species. As such, it has predictive and explanatory value, and these are not characteristics of existing faceted classification schemes.

In his paper, "L'Ordre [classification] universel de savoirs comme probleme de philosophie et d'organisation," Alwin Diemer suggests that "natural" systems cannot be suitable for information files, first because polyhierarchy has been found to be necessary and second because synchronic and diachronic descriptions cannot, in his view, generally be synthesized within the same system. R. Bernier objects to Suppe's view of taxonomy because Suppe insists that a natural taxonomy defines species in terms of essential characteristics rather than in terms of all characteristics. It was not clear to me why omitted characteristics are not viewed as part of other interacting systems.

For a number of philosophers, classifying characteristics are meaningful in terms of the conceptual framework through which an entity is interpreted rather than because they are essential characteristics of the entity observed. In his paper, "The Classification of Scientific Terms as 'Theoretical' and 'Observational' in Contemporary Philosophy of Science," William R. Shea describes some of the difficulties with logical positivism that have led to the development of this new approach. However, there are at least two difficulties with this new position. The first is the problem of how to determine the validity of a conceptual framework. Here Shea refers to work by Mary Hesse. Her work is based on the assumption that, as the scope and complexity of phenomena accounted for in a theory increases, the probability of the theory being invalid decreases.

The second difficulty in this approach is how to relate various theoretical frameworks in such a way as to allow interpretation of different sets of observations. The question then becomes: Is it possible to define a classificatory system that integrates differing conceptual frameworks? In his paper, "The Logic of Changing Classificatory Frameworks," Patrick G. Heelan defines three different types of relations between different logical languages. First, the sentences of one language may be included within another language. This is the normal situation in the development of a learned tradition. Second, there may be two logical languages which describe the same phenomena in incompatible terms. For example, people see the world within a geometric framework that is Euclidean or Lobachevskian, but certainly not both. Heelan calls the third type of relation between logical languages "complementary." This occurs when two languages are related in such a way that either one or the other may be used to describe aspects of some phenomena, but the two languages cannot be used at the same time. The most dramatic example of complementary languages occurs in Bohr's exposition of quantum mechanics.

C. A. Hooker's paper, "The Impact of Quantum Theory on the Conceptual Bases for the Classification of Knowledge," explicates the conceptual problems that have arisen in the development of quantum theory so clearly that I imagine that I understood it. However, Hooker concludes with the hope that a unified conceptual-mathematical scheme will do away with the Heelan-Bohr method for defining two logical languages within a single complementary framework that determines when to use each one.

Many of the concerns of these philosophers are alien to present practice in libraries and information centers where the emphasis, as G. R. Bhattacharyya and S. R. Ranganathan point out, is on the use of detailed schemes for arranging documents in a helpful sequence for the user. Rather, the philosophers are concerned with systems that define the kinds of relations between entities that lead to explanatory clarity. When developed further such systems might provide useful bases for the creation of texts or for a question-answering machine, but it is not clear yet how they would prove of use in organizing those texts where information has been integrated into expository essays. Unfortunately, for the most part, the classification experts did not address themselves to the impact which recent work in philosophy might have upon their systems. Apparently, they viewed the conference as an opportunity to report continuing progress in a previously defined area of investigation.

Robert A. Fairthorne suggests a possible basis for an artificial classification of knowledge that might correlate well with existing areas of research and publications. He suggests that texts be classified in terms of the texts from which they are derived. This can be determined, initially, by examining footnotes and bibliographies and then refined further by noting which groups of people reach which texts.

Several reports describe existing or developing systems. S. Datta and J. E. L. Farradane describe a system so defined as to correlate with concepts that exist in a human mind. The evidence for these concepts is taken from behavioral psychology. J. L.

Jolley describes a system that he has worked on for several years. The description has since been even further expanded and appears in a book by the same author. Derek Austin gives a lucid exposition of some techniques used in PRECIS, the subject index of the British National Bibliography. E. Wåhlin describes a system for defining the order of concepts in a universal reference system and then selecting from that system a special system for more restricted purposes. He gives an example of a product classification that was developed for use in documentation and has been cross-checked with both of the international product classifications, the Brussels Trade Nomenclature, and the International Standard Industrial Classification. Ingetraut Dahlberg also describes some procedures that could be used to develop an international thesaurus. Her work is related, at least in part, to that of Diemer, Perrault, and Soergel.

Frankly, as a discussion, the conference reveals a lack of communication—but the conference reads better in its pieces than as a whole.

D. Kathryn Weintraub, *Graduate Library School, University of Chicago*

Classification and Indexing in Science. By B. C. VICKERY. 3d ed. Reading, Mass., and London: Butterworths, 1975. Pp. 228. $12.50. ISBN 0-408-70662-7.

"To those stepping into rivers different, and different again, waters flow." Heraclitus doubted that a world in flux could ever by knowable. The doubt today is whether knowledge is classifiable. It is significant that the third edition of Vickery's classic work is "completely revised." The 1975 view of classification and indexing in science is not the same as the 1958 view expressed in the second edition. Perhaps the best a review of this edition (hereafter E3) can do is to note the change over time, first generally and then in particular.

It is difficult to distinguish differences which are due to changes in the observer (that is, Vickery) and those arising from a real change in the classificatory landscape. But to begin with Vickery himself: he suggests that one change is from a polemical tone to one which is expository. This is true, especially in the first 3 chapters. In the second edition (hereafter E2) the reader is instructed, but in E3 he is enjoined to reflect on problems philosophically; E2 is studded with examples, names of people and systems—one trips over them—, E3 has examples of course, but fewer and more consciously selected. One is encouraged to proceed along a path of reasoning in search of principles. This sophistication is nice, and so is the doubt. Instead of being asked to accept that the order of science is the order of things, we are presented with the difficulty of specifying subject fields ("specifying the subject fields into which the universe of science is to be divided is more complex than a simple listing of 'things' suggests" [p. 40]). No solution is offered.

Language changes in E3 are in the direction of modernization and greater uniformity in usage. For instance, the expression "dependent facets" replaces "differential facets"; "facet" replaces "category" in contexts where the latter in E2 occurs as a synonym. Another language change is more subtle and might be described as a shift from metaphysical categories of thought to linguistic ones. For instance, in E2: "The first problem is that of delimiting a field of knowledge." The corresponding statement in E3 is, "The first step in constructing a special classification is to collect terms lying within a field."

Coming now to particulars: Foskett's introduction is dropped from E3, a good cut probably, since it is more an introduction to Foskett's thought than to Vickery's. Chapter 1, "The Need for Classification," is considerably rewritten. Its emphasis is less pragmatic, not so much on users and individual retrieval systems as on classification per se and its use generally in retrieval.

It is interesting to note that chapter 2 in E2 deals with "how to construct a classification schedule," while the new chapter 2 is on "how to classify a subject field." A major change in this chapter is the dropping of some introductory pages which argue the view that the specification of fields begins with things. There are some minor changes as well. Added is advice from Aitchison and Gilchrist on assembling terms, a paragraph on intercalation and one on the combination order of subfacets. Transferred with some adaption from chapter 5 is a complex example of a facet analysis in the field of aeronautics and allied subjects.

The latter part of the old chapter 2 dealing with multiple location of facets, phase relations, and the ambiguity and fluidity of main classes is developed into a chapter of its own in the new edition. This chapter, entitled "Classification for Arrangement," is rich in insights and problems. The new material in this chapter deserves study. A structure of knowledge is presented which is more complex than the traditional model of an inverted tree. The results of a survey of science indexes are reported, and it seems that over half of the indexes use no classification at all and where classification is used it is usually one which is privately devised. This leads naturally to a reconsideration of the possibility of a general classification (is there ambivalence on Vickery's part?) and alternative methods of standardization, for instance, the Intermediate Lexicon.

There is little change in the next chapter which is on notation. Chapter 5, "Classification in Indexing," is somewhat disappointing. A section on Cranfield I is omitted and a discussion on special problems of indexing chemical substances is relegated, in expanded form, to an appendix. The chapter is updated, although perfunctorily, with references to Coates, Austin, Aitchison (and Cutter!). Not mentioned is POPSI, the indexing language developed at the Documentation Research and Training Center in Bangalore. Of all string index languages it seems to be the one most firmly based on classificatory principles. Austin, although he uses categorical analysis, would probably deny he is using classification. Discussed are various rules to achieve consistency in constructing strings. Worthy also of mention are the algorithms now being developed to create alternative displays, that is, derivative strings, which for the most part are permutations of elements in the original strings but may be hierarchically related strings (Austin, Farradane, Ganesh Bhattacharyya).

Chapter 6, "Classification in Post Coordinate Systems," replaces 2 chapters in E2, 1 on mechanical selection and 1 on the future of information retrieval. A surprising feature of this chapter is the sudden appearance of index terms in large capitals. The absence of this particular convention in earlier chapters was pleasing to the eye. Chapter 6 deals for the most part with thesauri and might topically have been included in chapter 5. Roles are briefly discussed, and their usefulness in postcoordinate retrieval is questioned. By the same token, might not any category or syntax analysis in indexing be questioned?

All bibliographies are revised and are shorter and more coherent than in E2.

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International Forum on Information and Documentation, vol. 1, no. 1– (1975–). Editor-in-Chief, A. I. MIKHAILOV Quarterly. FID 519. Moscow: All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information for the International Federation for Documentation. Annual subscription: $20.00. Order from FID, 7 Hofweg, The Hague, Netherlands.

The *International Forum on Information and Documentation*, in the words of its editor-in-chief, Professor A. I. Mikhailov, "will carry papers by scholars and experts in different countries, discussing various views on the major issues of scientific information and documentation. Particular attention will be paid to the promotion and consolidation of the UNISIST project. The journal will focus on: studies of the science communication system; general aspects of information theory and practice; organization of information work; international cooperation in information work; special education of information staff and user training; basic concepts and terminology of information and documentation; and new books and periodicals in information and documentation and allied fields" (editorial). Space will also be provided for news about organizations and conferences and letters to the editor. The first issue is devoted to the theme "Communication in Science." The journal is intended to continue the *Revue internationale de la documentation* which ceased in 1965. (No mention is made of its distinguished predecessors, the *Bulletin* of the International Institute of Bibliography and *Documentatio Universalis*.) It is published for the International Federation for Documentation (FID) in English and Russian editions by the Russian member of FID, the All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information (VINITI). Those familiar with other VINITI publications for FID will sigh at the sight of the homely, antiquated typeface VINITI uses and will recognize with a pang that there are still not enough upper case *U*'s in the typecase for consistent capitalization of this letter.

There are articles in the first issue by an Englishman (D. J. Foskett, "Theory and Practice in the Presentation of Information"), an American (Pauline Atherton, "Views of the Communication Network of Scientific and Technical Information"), a Rumanian (A. Avramescu, "Modelling Scientific Information Transfer"), a German (H. Arntz, president of FID, "Micropublishing and Its Effects on Scientific Communication"), and an Indian (A. Neelameghan, "Technical Writing: Guiding Principles for the Arrangement of Ideas"). Foskett also contributes a rather pious review of *Main Lines of Training in Library Science and Informatics: An Analysis of Textbooks*, by R. S. Giljarevskij who is deputy-director of VINITI and a member of the *Forum*'s editorial board. There is an equally pious editorial, "Let Us Speak One Language," and a rather cutely headed section, "Informally on Information," in which a survey of recent instances of preoccupation with the economics of information shades into a discussion of reprography and copyright with only incidental adversions to their economic impact. The issue concludes with a numbered list of "New Titles" (57) and a brief survey of new periodicals in the general area of information, documentation, and library science.

That there is need for such a journal is not clear. The first issue by no means makes an overwhelming case. Given the vast problems facing the library and information community nationally and internationally, the subject chosen for inaugurating the journal (at least as defined by the articles about it) seems curious, especially as there is explicit acknowledgment that its task is conceived subspecie UNISIST. The contributors are all distinguished but have brought nothing new to the first issue. There is no announcement as to the contents of subsequent issues. The awkward, carefully inoffensive "tone" of the journal may disappear in subsequent issues. International journals such as this should surely strive for rigorous formality to avoid linguistic or stylistic false notes. Nevertheless here is a "forum," and it will be as useful and effective as the discussions that occur within it. One hopes for the best.

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The Electronic Library: Bibliographic Data Bases '75–'76. By ROGER W. CHRISTIAN. White Plains, N.Y.: Knowledge Industry Publications, 1975. Pp. 118. $24.00 (spiral bound, paper). ISBN 0-914236-02-4.

The Knowledge Industry Publications monograph by Roger W. Christian entitled *The Electronic Library: Bibliographic Data Bases '75–'76* serves as a good introduction to the data-base community for those librarians and others who, as of yet, have had little or no experience in working with computer-readable data bases. It is a good introductory work in the sense that it clearly explains the origins and background of the data-base "industry" and accurately delineates the three major components of the data-base community—data-base publishers, data-base distributors, and data-base users. Christian accurately assesses the data-base situation with respect to the library and the attitudes of many librarians toward the addition of data-base searching to the traditional reference services. "Very few libraries acquire, maintain, and process . . . data bases themselves—that would require a vast investment and heavy on-going expenses. Even offering access to machine readable data bases is a clear add-on expense that can significantly increase the staff's workload."

The science and technology community has recognized the fact that computer searching of data bases can provide more comprehensive and faster service to more users. This is witnessed by the fact that data bases have been used successfully within the commercial and academic R & D community for the past decade. It is only in the last couple of years that librarians have begun to consider seriously data-base services as a logical extension of reference service; machine-readable bibliographic data bases are simply A & I (abstracting and indexing) sources which are produced on a different medium. The biggest stumbling block is the financial one. Even though on-line searching, via service centers such as Lockheed and Systems Development Corporation (SDC), is considerably less expensive than acquiring and processing data bases within one's own organization, the "add-on" expense constitutes a real problem. This, together with diminishing budgets and increasing costs of acquiring and maintaining books and journals, has kept many of those libraries that recognize the value of data-base searching out of the field. Christian has recognized the trend away from self-sufficiency and toward resource sharing as a solution for that problem. More specifically, he sees that cooperative arrangements, sharing of data-base resources through use of communication networks, and on-line searching, together with the trend away from the Carnegie free public library concept toward the introduction of charges for data-base use, has made it more feasible for libraries to provide data-base services.

The Electronic Library is a very readable monograph and should be consulted for the ideas presented in the text rather than as a source book for facts and figures. The report contains 79 pages of text, 2 pages of references, and 37 pages of appendices. The text is well written and clearly explains the philosophical, political, and economic relationships that exist between and among data-base producers, hard-copy publishers, data-base processors, data-base service vendors, and users. The problems or shortcomings of the report lie in its many inaccuracies of inexactitude.

Throughout the report the names of data bases are interchanged both with the names of corresponding hard-copy publications and with the names of data-base producer organizations. For example, Engineering Index is the name of a printed abstracting journal, not a data base; the related data base is called COMPENDEX. Biosciences Information Services is the name of an organization, not a data base; the name of the related data base is BIOSIS Previews. This confusion of names is a common failing of authors writing in the data-base field, but it is one that data-base producers find irksome.

Reference is made on page 48 to the "MEDLAR II software." MEDLARS II was the name of a National Library of Medicine system, and that system used many programs or software modules. The most well known software package employed by the MEDLARS system is the ELHILL III on-line search and retrieval software.

In discussing differences between centers that received their initial funding from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and National Science Foundation (NSF) (p. 44), he indicates that NSF-sponsored search centers, such as those at Ohio

State, Lehigh, Stanford, California, Georgia, Pittsburgh, and Illinois Institute of Technology, are primarily oriented toward serving the academic community. Although most of them are, there is no such center at Illinois Institute of Technology. There is a center at IIT Research Institute (IITRI). I was responsible for the inception, design, and development of the IITRI center from 1967 to 1972, and have first-hand knowledge that the center was *not* oriented toward the academic community. Services were then, and are now, sold primarily to the industrial community. Academia probably represented no more than 3 percent of the user population.

On page 50 Christian says, "with the exception of a few new commercial enterprises that provide individuals with 'retail' access to data bases, libraries have become the medium through which researchers receive data base services." This is true, but the reader should be aware that it is the special libraries and information centers in industry rather than public or academic libraries that are the major users of data base services. This point is not made until page 62. On page 50 we are told that "scientists and engineers use machine-readable data bases more intensively than other professionals, or than businessmen and the general public. . . . " Scientists certainly do use data-base services, but the literature is replete with lamentations about the lack of use by engineers.

On page 52 Christian cites the contention of the study by EUSIDIC (European Association of Scientific Information Dissemination Centers) that in order to be economically sound, an on-line data base must be used for 10,000–20,000 searches per year. He then concludes that "clearly, then, no single library or university—and perhaps no single state or even region—can marshal enough users to make a data base facility cost effective." I would disagree with this conclusion because it is obvious that many on-line data bases are cost effective, and there is nothing unrealistic about achieving a volume of 10,000 searches per year for a data base. Also, there are data bases that would not require such a high volume of searches to break even. The break-even cost depends on a number of factors such as file size, cost of storage, frequency of update, cost to preprocess and invert files, complexity of records, etc. Thus, some files can be kept on-line economically without requiring the income from 10,000–20,000 searches to support them. And, more important, if the charge for searching is high enough, the number of searches required may be quite low.

In a number of cases figures are interpolated incorrectly and conclusions stemming from other documents are incorrect. For example, on page 29 we are told that 360,000 abstracts are produced every year for CACon (the data-base counterpart to Chemical Abstracts). In fact, the Chemical Abstracts Service produced 392,234 abstracts in 1975; the annual figure for 1970 was 276,674 and that for 1972 was 334,426.

In discussing NASIC (the Northeast Academic Science Information Center in Wellesley, Mass.), he says NASIC acts as a "window" to the twelve data bases maintained on-line by SDC and Lockheed, while pages 115–16 list seventeen data bases offered by Lockheed and seventeen offered by SDC. A comparison of the two sets reveals duplicate coverage in six cases for a total of twenty-eight unique data bases. Although today Lockheed and SDC together process more than forty distinct data bases, twenty-eight was probably the full repertoire at the time of writing the Knowledge Industries publication. In any case, the number twenty-eight (on pp. 115–16) does not agree with the number twelve (on p. 57) cited as available through NASIC.

The discussion (pp. 65–66) of Canada's National Science Library (NSL) data-base services refers to NSL's reformatting of all incoming data bases to a "Common format so that they are structurally identical and can all be accessed and searched by a single program" and cites this as "unique" and "novel." Consultation with the literature in the field would reveal that this approach was included in the original design specifications for the IITRI center in 1968, and that it has also been used by Ohio State University's Mechanized Information Center and by the University of Georgia. By now, this approach is probably taken by the majority of data-base processing centers—it is the rule not the exception.

Appendix 4 provides a list of eighty-four data bases. Although disclaimers are provided for the list, and it is called "selective," there are numerous data bases mentioned in the text that are not included in the list. Also, although the report deals with commercially available machine-readable bibliographic data bases (to the exclusion of numeric data bases, those dealing with marketing facts or projections, patents and legal citations, credit or medical history information, and proprietary information maintained by organizations for their own use) appendix 4 does include patent and legal data bases.

Throughout the document, quotations are provided with author attributions but no indication of the published source. In many instances specific facts, figures, and statistics are given without a citation. This is particularly vexing for those who may wish to use the data.

Although the document could have been improved by verification of facts or prepublication review by one of the experts in the data-base community, I would still recommend *The Electronic Library* as an introduction to the field. It provides a good overview, does not belabor technical problems, and is very readable.

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American Library Philosophy: An Anthology. Selected and introduced by BARBARA MCCRIMMON. Contributions to Library Literature Series. Hamden, Conn.: Shoe String Press, 1975. Pp. xxiv+248. $10.00. ISBN 0-208-01503-5.

American Library Philosophy is a collection of selected writings which span a seventy-five-year period of nineteen eminent librarians. Essays by the likes of Melvil Dewey, J. Periam Danton, Helen Haines, Jesse Shera, and Archibald MacLeish (to name only a few) have been gathered together to present " . . . an overview of the development of the professional consciousness . . . a fair representation of the various views of the profession . . . articles that demonstrate the successive stages of library development in this country and that represent the thought of outstanding members of the profession" (pp. vii–ix). The first 6 selections, covering the period from 1897 (Dewey) to 1927 (Ernest C. Richardson), discuss some of the ideals of librarianship, the functions of libraries, and the attitudes that should characterize a professional librarian. The next 3 cover the period from 1927 to 1942 and present a sociological approach to librarianship. The next 4 (1949–54) are reaffirmations of faith in the book. The remaining articles, which cover the period 1961–72, attempt either to revitalize traditional concepts ("Old Wine in New Bottles" is, appropriately, the title of Guy Marco's essay) or to incorporate later developments from other disciplines, such as psychology and political science. Finally, there is a bibliography—42 items by 32 authors—of additional readings on American library philosophy.

On the positive side, it is helpful to have these essays pulled together in a single volume. One could quibble with this or that selection, but in the main these are articles which have had a significant impact and which continue to be "required reading" for many library school students. There appears, then, to be a valid basis for their selection, as well as a method (though it is obviously forced at times) in their arrangement, apart from mere chronology. Each essay reflects the period in which it was written, and insofar as each speaks to the attitudes, ideals, roles, and functions of libraries and librarians, each one presents a point of view, if not an ideology.

But do the articles constitute American library philosophy? I suspect not, because it is questionable whether such a body of thought exists. According to Richard Emery, "The fact that a basic philosophy cannot exist for a secondary activity such as librarianship, has meant that many writers, supposedly discussing the philosphy of librarianship, have in fact been directing their attention to purpose, sets of professional ideals or guides for conduct, or function" ("Philosophy, Purpose, and Function in Librarianship," *Library Association Record* 73 [July 1971]: 128). With regard to the essays which comprise this book, the whole, unfortunately, cannot be greater than its parts. The individual articles do not address thematically or systematically a single idea or concept, or even a harmonious constellation of concepts.

If the work does not succeed as an anthology of library philosophy, it does succeed as an expression of library faith, espeically public library faith, a creed which has been aphoristically defined by Kathleen Molz as "reading is good" and "everyone should read." Curiously, Molz's article, "The Public Library: The People's University?" (*The American Scholar* 34 [Winter 1964–65]: 96), from which this is taken, is not even included in the bibliography of additional readings.

The book also succeeds as a compilation of assumptions on which we have operated, but few of which have ever been subjected to empirical research. Finally, it succeeds as still another testament to the significance and influence of the University of Chicago's Graduate Library School. Of the 13 essays in this volume which were published since the founding of that school, almost two-thirds were written by people who were at one time or another affiliated with it.

To the extent that philosophy is the theory of a subject matter taken as a whole and requires established connections between fact and theory, the work is improperly titled, as few of the articles are philosophical as herein defined. But philosophy or not, there is no doubt as to the strong imprint these writers have left on American librarianship.

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SHORTER NOTICES

Asian and African Collections in British Libraries: Problems and Prospects. By ANNE J. BENEWICK. Librarianship and Information Studies, vol. 2. Stevenage, Herts.: Peter Peregrinus, 1974. Pp. ix+139. $17.00. ISBN 0-901223-48-4.

This book is the revised version of a master's thesis for the Postgraduate School of Librarianship and Information Science, Sheffield University. It reflects in concise and clear language the impact of Asian and African area studies on British university libraries in the decade of the 1960s. Particular stress is given to the most important institution: the School of Oriental and African Studies of the University of London, perhaps better known unders it acronym of SOAS. The author also gives considerable coverage to U.S. experience, especially the Farmington Plan and the Cooperative Africana Microform Project (CAMP). This study is well supported by references, a bibliography, and a good index. It is recommended for acquisition and reading by those librarians and students of librarianship, wherever they may be, who are concerned with area studies of Asia and Africa. (H. E. P.)

IFLA Annual 1974: Proceedings of the 40th General Council Meeting, Washington, 1974: Annual Reports. München: Verlag Dokumentation, 1975. Pp. 314. (Paper.) ISBN 3-7940-4300-6.

This is an invaluable 3-part report on the work of the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) during 1973–74. Part 1 is a record of the 40th General Council Meeting of IFLA held in Washington in 1974. It presents the opening address of IFLA's president, the secretary general's annual report, the treasurer's report, and a report by Robert Vosper on the next stages of library planning based on UNESCO's 1974 NATIS Conference and recent IFLA conferences. The text of resolutions, recommendations, and statements of officers of sections and committees directed to the association's Executive Board are given verbatim. This is followed by reports of the two meetings of the Consultative Committee and by the annual reports and surveys of meetings of sections and committee. Abstracts of papers presented in section and committee meetings are given when available, so that one can form an idea of the general intellectual background of each committee and section's work at the same time one learns what exactly it did in the 1973–74 year. Part 2 presents annual reports from the member associations and forms a sweeping conspectus of library activity throughout the world. Unfortunately not all association members submitted reports. The report of the Flemish Association of Library, Archives and Documentation Employees, for example, is not accompanied by a report from its French counterpart. Part 3 is a list of participants in the 40th General Council Meeting. Annexes provide an alphabetical list of papers given on this occasion and a list of IFLA publications. Such a record as this volume contains is useful in itself, but over a period of years it will provide a firm basis for any longitudinal study of IFLA, for it allows one to grasp official action within IFLA, and guides one into the documentation associated with this action and with the intellectual and organizational context of IFLA's work. If only the International Federal for Documentation could achieve a similar document rigorously executed year by year! (W. B. R.)

International Classification for Physics, 1975. Prepared by the WORKING GROUP IN PHYSICS OF ICSU-AB. Paris: International Council of Scientific Unions—Abstracting Board, 1975. Pp. 39. (Paper.) ISSN 0305-9618.

This is the first issue of an enumerative classification of topics in the field of physics. It was prepared by an international group of subject and information experts and is intended for use in abstracting, indexing, and current awareness services as well as in subject bibliographies. According to the "Foreword," the Working Group hopes that the system will also be used in primary journals to identify and organize their contents.

The system lists approximately 1,200 topics and allows alternative placements for a small number of these topics (perhaps half a dozen). Numerous cross-references are found within the schedules, leading from one topic to other related topics, but there is no index. The notation is mixed, consisting of one or two integers and as many as two decimal places, with further subdivision occasionally indicated with letters.

Only the core areas of physics are listed in this issue and there is no outline of the content of future issues—presumably they will include such interdisciplinary topics as astrophysics, biophysics, etc., as well as list additions and changes for the present schedule. (D. K. W.)

"Library and Information Science Abstracts": Cumulative Index, 1969–73. New York and Oxford: Learned Information, 1975. Pp. v+309. $115.00. ISBN 0-904933-00-8.

This is a computer-produced chain index covering the issues of *Library and Information Science Abstracts* for its first five years (1969–73). There are two alphabets: "Author Index" (pp. [1]–125) and "Subject Index" (pp. [127]–309). Reference in both indexes is by year and item number: 72/3006, 73/1787, etc. The "Author Index" gives titles of articles; the "Subject Index" is limited to subject terms and omits authors' names.

For effective use, some familiarity with the peculiarities of the subject chains is required, particularly with regard to institutional and geographic names. An article on Hamline University, for example, is indexed under "U.S.A. (Minnesota)"; one on Macalester College under "U.S.A. (St. Paul, Minnesota)"; neither is entered under institutional name. The puzzling entries "Public libraries: Canada (viewpoint): U.S.A. (New York City)" and "Public libraries: Canada (viewpoint): U.S.A. (New York City and Baltimore)," when rotated, come out under "U.S.A. (New York City)" and "U.S.A. (New York City and Baltimore)"; "U.S.A. (Baltimore, Maryland)" omits this particular reference. An article on the Northwestern University Library building is entered under "U.S.A. (Illinois): Buildings: University libraries (Northwestern)" and under "Buildings: University libraries (Northwestern): U.S.A. (Illinois)" but not under "Buildings: University libraries: U.S.A." (where are entries for "San Diego" and "Utah"?) nor under "Northwestern." "College libraries" and "University libraries" are both used as headings with no note of distinction, and one finds also the heading "College libraries (conversion to university libraries)." (R. W. W.)

Master's Theses in Library Science, 1960–1969. By SHIRLEY MAGNOTTI. Troy, N.Y.: Whitston Publishing Co., 1975. Pp. ii + 366. $18.00. ISBN 0-87875-074-6.

This work indexes about 2,500 master's theses produced between 1960 and 1969 at 31 library schools accredited by the American Library Association. Part 1 is an author index, part 2 a subject index. In the subject index, the subjects of biographical theses receive their own entries, but other subject headings are quite general. Under each heading, only authors' names are given and not the titles or specific subjects of their theses. Cross-references tend to be from the specific to the general. For example, one is referred from "*Library Quarterly*" to "Periodicals," where one is confronted by a list of 65 names—2 of which turn out to have written theses indexing the *Quarterly*. Though not always easy to use, the work fills a gap and its appearance is to be welcomed. (G. B. N.)

Syllabus for a Documentation Course. By W. VAN DER BRUGGHEN. The Hague: International Federation for Documentation, 1975. Pp. 72. Fl 35 (paper). ISBN 92-66-00533-9. FID 533.

This syllabus arose out of the author's teaching in French-speaking Africa. "The syllabus served on the one hand as a condensed introduction to the field and on the other hand as an outline for the programming of the approximately 8 months course" (Foreword). The syllabus is intended to lead "from basic elements to complicated international systems, with particular reference to international activities, developments and standardization in the field" (Foreword). The chapters following an introduction deal with primary publication, bibliographic description and secondary publication. There are two further sections headed résumés 1 and 2. Résumé 1 contains chapters on "Bibliographies," "Reference Works, Retrieval," "Reprography," and "Organization of Information." Résumé 2 contains a chapter on "Training." The work is completed by a section, "Literature," organized in the order and under the headings of the chapters. Annexes give ISO (International Standards Organization) Technical Committees, an Index to ISO standards, ANSI (American National Standards Institute) and BSI (British Standards Institution) standards, and an outline of Universal Decimal Classification (UDC). The work is intentionally skeletal and inevitably incomplete and superficial given the enormous range of topics covered (the chapters on "Retrieval" and "Bibliographies" are particularly inadequate), but it represents an informed and useful distillation of much literature and an interesting organization of topics. As one might expect, its emphasis on international systems, organizations, and standards presents an important perspective, and the work could serve as a useful *aide-mémoire* in these areas for academics teaching a range of subjects in library schools (although Van der Brugghen claims in the Foreword that "experience has shown that students without university education can master contents of this syllabus during the introductory course, lasting some 2–3 weeks and including 40–50 hours of lectures"). (W. B. R.)

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Anniversaries and Holidays. By RUTH W. GREGORY. 3d ed. A revision of the work by Mary Emogene Hazeltine. Chicago: American Library Association, 1975. Pp. xv + 246. $10.50. ISBN 0-8389-0200-6.

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CORRESPONDENCE

To the Editor:

Although David Tsai's review of my *Government Control of the Press in Modern China, 1900–1949* (*Library Quarterly* 45 [October 1975]: 448–49) was generally favorable, it included some statements that cause me to protest.

For one thing, he described it as a "slightly revised version" of my dissertation. I would like to believe that as a neophyte scholar before I finished by Ph.D. I had the talent to write a dissertation good enough for publication by Harvard University with only slight revisions. Alas for me! I had to reduce it by a third in length and to incorporate at the same time much new material, as almost anyone who reads both can discover.

The charge that my book lacks historical perspective does not seem fair to me. My perspective led me to some rather strong criticisms of Nationalist Chinese policy, however, and the reviewer seemed to prefer the perspective of Lloyd E. Eastman, whose book *The Abortive Revolution: China under Nationalist Rule, 1927–1937* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1974) was published at about the same time as mine.

Lee-hsia Hsu Ting, *Department of Library Science, Northern Illinois University*

Announcing

THE GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL'S THIRTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE PROSPECTS FOR CHANGE IN BIBLIOGRAPHIC CONTROL

A major event in the Graduate Library School's celebration of its Fiftieth Anniversary year will be the School's Thirty-eighth Annual Conference: "Prospects for Change in Bibliographic Control," to be held November 8–9, 1976. Abraham Bookstein, Herman Fussler, and Helen Schmierer are co-directors. The conference will be held at the Center for Continuing Education on the University of Chicago campus.

Problems of bibliographic control have long been a central concern of the School, and have been the focus of three earlier conferences. Economic pressures on libraries, rapidly changing technologies, and organizational changes affecting bibliographic control make another such conference timely and appropriate. The purpose of this conference is to define clearly the state of bibliographic control today, identify the variables that will most strongly influence the evolution of bibliographic control in the future, relate current capabilities to fundamental principles, and consider the available alternatives and their consequences.

Herman Fussler, Martin A. Ryerson Distinguished Service Professor, University of Chicago, will introduce the conference. Other contributors will be: Warren J. Haas, Vice President for Information Services and University Librarian, Columbia University; Doralyn J. Hickey, Professor and Director of the School of Library Science, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee; S. Michael Malinconico, Assistant Chief of the Systems Analyses and Data Processing Office, New York Public Library; Elaine Svenonius, School of Library and Information Science, University of Western Ontario, with Helen Schmierer, Assistant Systems Librarian, University of Chicago; and Ronald J. Wigington, Director of Research and Development, Chemical Abstracts Service. Henriette Avram, MARC Development Office, Library of Congress, will present the final paper and comment on the preceding papers.

For further details about registration, housing, etc., write: Abraham Bookstein, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1100 East 57th Street, Chicago, Illinois 60637.