suit of the federal connection was intensified by creation of a Washington office in 1945.

Divisional dissatisfaction resurfaced after the war when the Association of College and Research Libraries made forceful demands for more autonomy and improved financial support. By 1948, many in ALA were restive over Milam's long tenure and sometimes autocratic leadership. Milam's exit was undoubtedly influenced by a committee report, which criticized the association's centralized approach and lax financial management.

With varying degrees of courage, ALA faced threats emanating from the virulent anti-intellectualism of the McCarthy era. Loyalty oaths, book labeling, and censorship of library materials in overseas libraries were condemned. In 1953, the eloquent Freedom to Read Statement was adopted, an expression that still guides the association's commitment to intellectual freedom.

Following a decade of struggle, federal aid to libraries became a reality with passage of the Library Services Act in 1956. A cascade of federal library programs, all endorsed by ALA, were soon to come. Further democratization of the association was recommended by a management consulting firm in 1955. More divisions were created, and the Council assumed more policy-making prerogatives.

The leadership was clearly uncomfortable about the calls for an organizational response to the wrenching national debate on human rights during the 1960s. When a 1963 report, Access to Public Libraries, concluded that direct discrimination was found in sixteen southern states and that indirect discrimination was prevalent throughout the country, many northerners were outraged.

By 1968 younger members began a sustained assault on what they viewed as ALA's cumbersome bureaucracy, elitism, and insensitivity to social issues. Once more committees were appointed, and modest gains were achieved in making the association more responsive. Perhaps the greatest legacy of this period was an enhanced commitment to the principle of intellectual freedom.

Clearly, the first hundred years have been a fascinating odyssey. Enduring achievements may be claimed in the areas of standards, education, intellectual freedom, legislation, and publishing. Still awaiting resolution is the pervasive fragmentation that militates against a shared vision.

In passing judgment on the merits of Thomison's volume, one must differentiate the objective of history to educate from the objective to achieve an authentic reconstruction. The writing is felicitous, at times moving, and the conclusions generally sound. Apart from the limitations of over-reliance on secondary sources and questionable omissions, such as a contextual discussion of the professionalization of American society, librarians should profit from reading this study.

One can readily agree with Edward Holley's prefatory comment that Thomison has identified the persistent issues and thus made it easier to avoid roasting the same chestnuts again.

When evaluated as a work of scholarship, some disquieting observations must be noted. Conceptual acuity is sometimes absent. For example, the author fails to explore the early period as a clash between elitists and advocates of the diffusion of knowledge. More than two dozen misspellings and factual inaccuracies have been identified. The names of ALA presidents Linda Eastman and Frances Spain are incorrectly rendered in several places; Frank Hill is referred to as Frederick; the title of the Williamson report of 1923 is inaccurately transcribed; and the American Expeditionary Force is wrongly named the Allied Expeditionary Force. More substantive errors, such as the assertion that ALA first endorsed federal library legislation in 1930 (it was 1919), reflect inadequate primary research.

Regrettably, the $30 price tag will not stimulate the broad exposure needed to prevent a reroasting of those chestnuts. A paperback edition is urgently recommended.—Arthur P. Young, University of Alabama.

Human beings seem to be divided into two groups: those who recognize the need for something but do nothing about it (except perhaps complain about its lack) and those who, realizing a need, set to work to fill that need. Leslie T. Morton, the editor of this work and formerly librarian of the National Institute for Medical Research, Mill Hill, London, is one of the latter group. (His tale of hiding the shoeboxes containing the cards for “Garrison-Morton” under the dining room table in World War II air raids is characteristic of the man.) Author of books on how to use a medical library and directories of medical libraries, as well as his famous “Garrison-Morton” (medical bibliography), without which no medical librarian could purchase rare books or mount a historical exhibit, he has now come out with a second edition of his Use of Medical Literature, which first appeared in 1974.

The work is a series of articles by specialists in each subject field, written for other specialists or for beginners going into one field from another specialty. As such it has the admirable qualities of authority and pragmatism, but also the poor qualities of unevenness in coverage and style and inevitable gaps and duplication. Most of the chapters are lists of books and journals with a few words explaining the general subject and other descriptions about the individual titles. The second edition follows the lines—and often the texts—of the first edition, but adds historical sections to each of the subject chapters, offers an entirely new chapter on pediatrics, and revises extensively the chapter on mechanization in literature indexes. Indeed, that chapter is perhaps the only one so thoroughly revised—due to the advent of both on-line capabilities in computerized data bases and the growth of the number of such data bases—that it makes a second edition reasonable and logical. Without it, a small supplement to the first edition would probably have sufficed for some time.

American readers will note the British emphasis on works cited and institutions recommended, as is to be expected in such a work; but they will also note the great influence of American efforts in this field. The National Library of Medicine and its publications and data bases are extensively described, and the cost of many services is given in American dollars. Less frequent references to German, French, Italian, or Russian material—to say nothing of non-European works—mirror the natural tendency for English-speaking scientists to stay within their own linguistic capabilities as much as possible. This tendency has, of course, been reinforced by the fact that the overwhelming percentage of scientific literature today appears in the English language.

Altogether this volume points to the much more common personal involvement by British scientists in literature searching and reading than by their American colleagues. The tradition of reading and studying the publications of others is obviously still a British tradition, which might well be accepted more frequently in the United States.

The book is well printed and the binding is what one expects from the Butterworth series Information Sources for Research and Development. The only question has to do with the price of the book. Even with inflation and the sinking of the worth of the American dollar internationally, does this book really merit a price of $24.95? We doubt it.—Estelle Brodman, School of Medicine, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.

**Recent Publications**


The Scandia Plan was organized in the 1950s by Sweden, Norway, and Finland. Its initial purpose was to bring about a more efficient coordination of the acquisition of literature among the Nordic countries. In 1972 a special committee was appointed to coordinate inter-Nordic lending, and the