Sources of Information in the Social Sciences

A Guide to the Literature

THIRD EDITION

WILLIAM H. WEBB

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AND ASSOCIATES

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From the Preface to the Second Edition

The purpose of this book is simple: to make it easier to get at knowledge and information of importance to us all (and becoming more so), to throw light on the workings of the social science information system, and to support subject bibliography as a branch of study.

The book grew out of work in the 1950s with graduate and postgraduate students at Columbia University who had been admitted to the study of library science. Reports on the first edition indicate that a book that meets the needs at their level has additional uses. It serves to remind the searcher who is already at home in one of these subjects of books that he is familiar with and knows to be useful, and serves also to make his literature searches more productive when he turns to adjoining fields where he feels less at home. Awareness of these kindred interests has influenced the revision now in hand. . . .

A book owes its life to the climate of interest and need that sustains it. Librarians, documentalists, and social scientists* on more than one continent have lent their encouragement, counsel, and cooperation. It is impossible to name them all, but I wish heartily to thank them all.

Finally, my colleagues and I are sensible of our indebtedness to a large supporting cast of librarians and bibliographers—some now on campus and others before them-who built the collec-

*If for brevity this book hereafter uses but a single inclusive term like "subject bibliographer" or "librarian," the contributions of documentalists and subject specialists who are interested in the organization and communication of information are thereby intended to be in no way minimized.

tions and created the bibliographical tools that have served us so well.

Each contributor worked with a set of editorial guidelines that allowed them to organize the treatment as the internal organization of the literature of the discipline requires. Subject by subject, however, the treatment falls into two parts. First, a subject specialist, chosen for his grasp of the literature, selects, organizes, and reviews monographic works that, if they do not form the core, are at least representative of the core of the substantive literature of that field. This review is followed in each case by a list of reference works to round out the picture. In the first edition, reference works were for the most part annotated individually, and this remains the rule. Faced this time, however, with more titles, contributors were encouraged to make greater use of group annotations when connected discussion would compress essential information or more clearly bring out the interrelationships of works that form a cluster or constellation. Relationships of titles to one another are further brought out, this time, by subject and form in-

Certain fields are included that do not fall wholly within the social sciences, but it is simpler to include than to cull them. This tendency toward inclusiveness has another aspect. Sociology includes reference works on demography, social service, minorities, race relations, communication, public opinon, gerontology; works on anthropology, ethnology, ethnography, folklore, linguistics, prehistory, and nonclassical archaeology, and it also bears the brunt of re-

Preface to the Second Edition

sponsibility for area studies. Political science includes works on public administration and international relations, as well as selected works in law and government publications.

Research is creating an increasingly luxuriant crop of publications that spill across the lines commonly used to departmentalize academic activity for administrative purposes. The resultant crisscrossing explains two features of this book. First, books that are inseparably related to, and supplement, those described in one chapter are sometimes to be found in other chapters. Consult these other chapters or the index to find these books. Bear in mind, particularly, that the first, general chapter supplements all the others.

Second, the interlocking interests of the social sciences may make an interdisciplinary guide such as this desirable and necessary, but these interests—very unobligingly—get in the way of hulling out some topics so as to eliminate plural reference to those titles that are of interest to more than one discipline. Cross-references have

been relied on as far as possible, but now and then a rounded picture of information sources requires more than one entry for a book.

Normally, a chapter treats in one place all sources that furnish a distinctive type of information, but the listing is influenced by where the sources will be the most useful, as in listing appropriate bibliographies with atlases under the heading "Maps and atlases: bibliographical sources" in the chapter on geography. Basic works are coded to facilitate indexing and cross-reference unless the purpose of the citation is to document or amplify the text.† Space is saved by the heavy use of abbreviations.

CARL M. WHITE

†The opportunity given authors to add and delete titles in the proof stage has resulted, in some instances, in gaps in the numbering of entries. The reader should be assured that when the numbers are not consecutive, they are accurately used in cross-references and the index.—Ed.

Abbreviations

ChemAbst

Each chapter contains, usually, under the heading "Sources of scholarly contributions: journals," a representative list of journals that are devoted to the interests of scholarship in the field, with the title, date of origin, place of publication, publisher, frequency, and information as to where its contents are indexed or abstracted. Care has been taken to gather the latter information in one place since it is not widely available elsewhere.

| AA ABC AbstAnthro AbstFolk AmH&L AustPAIS | African abstracts ABC political science Abstracts in anthropology Abstracts of folklore studies America: history and life Australian public affairs in- formation service |
|--|---|
| BGI | Bibliographie geographie interna |
| BiolAbst | Biological abstracts |
| BPIA | Business publications index and abstracts |
| BrEdInd | British education index |
| BrHumInd | British humanities index |
| BullAnal | Bulletin analytique de docu- mentation politique, écono- mique et sociale contempor- aine |
| BullSig | Bulletin signalétique |
| BusPerInd | Business periodicals index |
| CanEdInd | Canadian Education Index |
| CanInd | Canadian index to periodicals and documentary films; an author and subject index |
| Cc | Current contents |
| | |

bibliography

Child development abstracts and

ChDevAbst

| Chemaosi | Chemical abstracts |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| CIJE | Current index to journals in |
| | education |
| CJPI | Criminal justice periodical index |
| and a common and a | |
| CollStudPers- | College student personnel |
| Abst | abstracts |
| CommunAbst | Communication abstracts |
| CompRev | Computing reviews |
| CrimPenAbst | Criminology and penology |
| 0111111 | abstracts |
| 4 | uosirucis |
| | |
| DataProcDig | Data processing digest |
| | |
| EdAdmAbst | Educational administration |
| | abstracts |
| EdInd | Education index |
| EM | Excerpta medica |
| | |
| EngrInd | Engineering index |
| | |
| GeoAbst | Geo abstracts (formerly Geo- |
| | graphical abstracts) |
| | 8 1 |
| HistAbst | Historical abstracts |
| HumInd | Humanities index |
| | |
| HumResAbst | Human resources abstracts |
| | |
| IndLegPer | Index to legal periodicals |
| IndPerArt | Index to periodical articles by |
| | and about blacks |
| IntBibPolSci | International bibliography of |
| Interior Sisti | political science |
| I-AD:hCC-: | |
| IntBibSocSci | International bibliography of so- |
| | cial sciences |
| IntBibZeit | Internationale bibliographie der |
| | zeitschriftenliteratur aus allen |
| | gebieten des wissens |
| IntPolSciAbst | International political science ab- |
| | stracts |
| | sirucis |
| | |

Journal of economic literature

Chemical abstracts

JEconLit

Abbreviations

| T | T | WII D. LAL. | W 1 1 1 1 1 1 |
|---------------------|--|--------------------------|--|
| LangTeach | Language teaching and linguis- tics abstracts | WkRelAbst WomStudAbst | Work related abstracts Women studies abstracts |
| LLBA | LLBA: language and language | | Tromer states desirates |
| | behavior abstracts | assn. | association |
| | | Aufl. | Auflage |
| MgtInd* | Management index | augm. | augmented |
| MLA | MLA international bibliography | Ausg. | Ausgabe |
| MusicInd | Music index | bear. | bearbeitet |
| Musicina | Waste waex | ca. | circa |
| NT . A1 . | AT a total and the control of the control of | comp. | compiled, compiler |
| NutrAbst | Nutrition abstracts and reviews | corr. | corrected |
| | | dept. | department |
| PAIS | Public affairs information service | ed. | editor, edited, edition, édition, |
| PersMgtAbst | Personnel management abstracts | | edicion, edicão, edizióne, |
| PopInd | Population index | _ | editóre |
| PsychAbst PsychAbst | Psychological abstracts | eds. | editors |
| | | enl. | enlarged |
| ResHighEd | Research into higher education | gänz | gänzlich |
| RG | Readers' guide | Hrsg. | Herausgeben |
| RIE | Research in education | in prep. | in preparation |
| | | introd. | introduction |
| Cono Dub Ad | Case syblic administration | Jahrg. | Jahrgang |
| SagePubAd- | Sage public administration | Lfg. | Lieferung |
| minAbst | abstracts | n.F. | neue Folge |
| SageUrbStud- | Sage urban studies abstracts | nouv. | nouvelle |
| Abst | Cotonia abawasa | n.s. | new series |
| SciAbst | Science abstracts | pa. | paperback |
| SSCI | Social science citation index | pr. | press |
| SSI | Social sciences index | pref. | preface |
| SocAost | Sociological abstracts | prelim. | preliminary |
| SocEdAbst | Sociological education abstracts | pt. | part, parts |
| SocWkRes&- | Social work research and | ptg. | printing published |
| Abst | abstracts | publ. | |
| | | pubns. | publications revised |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, | rev. | |
| | Scientific and Cultural | ser. SIC | series Standard industrial classification |
| | Organization | | |
| UNLib | United Nations Library, Geneva. | supt. tr. | superintendent translated, translator |
| | Monthly list of selected | ur. UDC | Universal decimal classification |
| | articles. | | umgearbeitet |
| UrbAffAbst | Urban affairs abstracts | umgearb. univ. | university |
| USPSD | United States political science | verb. | verbessert |
| COLOD | documents | veru. | vermehrt |
| | uocumens | veriii. | verment |

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1 Social Science Literature

Scope and Purpose

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Survey of the Field

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Evolution of the social sciences. Developments through the nineteenth century. From World War through World War. 1945 to the present A1-9. Evolution of the literature of the social sciences. Developments through the . nineteenth century. From World War through World War. 1945 to the present A10-11. Social science literature and its uses today. Patterns of use A12-15. Characteristics of the literature A16–21. Structure of the information system. A conceptualization of the literature of the social sciences. Scholarly literature. Primary data in published form. Incidental professional and scholarly information. Monographs. Guides to the literature. Reviews. Abstracts, summaries, précis, and digests. Bibliographies and indexes. Directories. Biographical tools. Dictionaries. Encyclopedias and encyclopedic sets. Handbooks, manuals, almanacs, and compendia. Yearbooks. Original sources. Statistical sources. Atlases, pictorial works, and kindred graphic sources. Sources of scholarly contributions. Sources of current information. Monographs. Introductions and systematic works A21A-30. Histories A31-41. The scientific method A42-50. Philosophy of the social sciences. The positivistic tradition A51-56. Symbolic interactionism A57-61. Exchange theory A62-66. Middle range theory A67. Anti-positivistic approaches A68–72. Functionalism A73– 76. Conflict theory A77-89. General systems theory A90-92. Recent research trends. Futures research A93-98. Policy sciences A99-103. Evaluation research A104-7. Sociobiology A108-11. Structuralism A112-13. Research methods in the social sciences A114-15.

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Bibliographies of bibliographies A172-91. Current bibliographies and indexes. Aids essential to all disciplines A192-213. Aids with social science emphasis A214-39. Aids with regional emphasis A240-48. Current bibliographies of published proceedings A249-52. Current newspaper indexes A253-55. Retrospective bibliographies. General records of accumulated learning A256-57. National library and national union catalogs A258-63. Other library catalogs A264-82. Interdisciplinary bibliographies and indexes A283-96. Bibliographies of directories A297-302. Bibliographies of newspapers A303-13. Bibliographies of periodicals A314-21. Bibliographies of statistical sources A322-38. Directories and biographical information. Biographical information for social scientists A339-46. Research organizations, learned societies, and associations A347-59. Calendars of congresses and other meetings A360-63. Information centers. A364-72. Directories of databases A373-80. Directories for social science periodicals A381–88. Grants and awards A389–401. Dictionaries A402-12. Encyclopedias and encyclopedic sets A413-16. Handbooks A417-31. Yearbooks. General and global yearbooks A432–39. Regional and national yearbooks A440-58. Statistical sources. National statistical sources A459-75. Historical statistical sources A476-82. Regional and international statistical sources A483-500. Sources of scholarly contributions. Journals A501. Monograph series A502-3. Organizations A504. Sources of current information. Journals A505-20. Selected daily newspapers A521.

Scope and Purpose

The purpose of this book is to provide a systematic guide to the literature of eight fields commonly classified among the social sciences: history, geography, economics and business administration, sociolo, y, anthropology, psychology, education, and political science. This selection of disciplines is somewhat arbitrary, since linguistics, statistics, and demography are often considered social sciences where history is frequently thought of as one of the humanities. Moreover, education and business, like public administration, social work, criminology, and law, are generally thought of as applied rather than theoretical fields. It should also be noted that a number of the disciplines under study here

are more commonly referred to by scholars as behavioral sciences, since their research methods frequently involve direct observations of human behavior. Such a definition would exclude history, economics, and geography. The eight fields selected, however, have in common a concern for the behavior of man in relation to his fellow men and to the environment they share. In this sense, we can distinguish them from the sciences, which deal with the physical world, and from the humanities, which concentrate on the unique and essentially timeless works of human artistic creativity and speculation. So the term social sciences can be considered appropriate for the disciplines we are covering.

Survey of the Field

EVOLUTION OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Though our task is essentially bibliographic, it would be useful to present a brief survey of the evolution and growing complexity of the social sciences up to the present, for the bibliographic apparatus has developed partially as a response to the internal dynamic of social scientific research. As we shall see, however, that bibliographic apparatus has not proven to be fully adequate for social scientists. This is so for two reasons. First, the nature of the social sciences, with their imprecise terminology, overlapping disciplinary boundaries, ideological partiality, and relative lack of cumulativeness, makes it difficult to define the literature needs of each discipline. Second, the tendency of bibliographers to use the literature of the sciences as a model in designing bibliographic tools for the social sciences has narrowed the focus largely to literature in the journals when monographs are at least as important for social scientists. But these topics will be developed more fully later.

Developments through the Nineteenth Century

Until the nineteenth century the study of man and society was largely deductive in approach and given to system-building. These systems were modeled on ideas derived from theology or from the emerging physical sciences and generally had a powerful normative and prescriptive content. The few individuals involved in these speculative enterprises had no clear-cut professional identity.

As the nineteenth century progressed, emphasis switched to the empirical and supposedly impartial gathering of facts which would, when properly classified, provide obvious and incontrovertible truths. Thus was born the positivistic approach to the social sciences which with modifications has held a powerful sway up to the present, particularly in the Anglo-American world. The numbers of people involved in the active study of society grew considerably and disciplinary lines emerged. German universities,

from which American universities borrowed heavily, had a strong impact on these developments. Departments specializing in history, anthropology, economics, and so on, emerged in the latter years of the nineteenth century.

A measure of the increasing specialization in the social sciences was the appearance of professional organizations: the American Historical Association, 1884; the American Economics Association, 1885; the American Psychological Association, 1892; the American Sociological Association, 1895; the American Anthropological Association, 1902; and the American Political Science Association, 1903. These bodies all created journals designed to disseminate professional news and provide their members with a forum for the exchange of ideas, both in the form of correspondence and of articles reporting the results of research.

From World War through World War

The period around the time of the First World War formed an important transition in the development of the social sciences. Wartime activities gave a new prestige both to psychologists, who developed testing instruments used in evaluating the abilities of recruits, and to economists, who became involved in the regulation and planning that accompanied the substantial reorientation of economic resources. The emergence of Soviet Russia, with its claim to speak for an alternative socioeconomic and political system opposed to imperialism and racism, further shook a Western society whose complacent faith in the inherent goodness of its system had already been jolted by the bloodletting of the war years.

Even as society was developing new concerns about socioeconomic, political, and international problems, the Einsteinian revolution in the sciences began to make itself felt among social scientists. The concepts of relativity and statistical probability came to be interpreted as obviating the need to establish true predictability in behavioral research. Social scientists also borrowed a new understanding of the research process from the sciences, in which theory-

construction, hypothesizing, research design, gathering and analyzing empirical data, and positing tentative conclusions became key elements. This hypothetico-deductive model, incorporating both inductive and deductive reasoning, recognized the indispensable role of the human mind in creating the links between fact and theory, and further encouraged the belief that human behavior could be studied using a scientific mode of enquiry. Increasing sophistication in statistical methodology became an important tool of the more "behaviorally" oriented social scientists.

Two significant developments of the postwar years that helped cement the growing influence of the social sciences were the creation in 1920 of the National Bureau of Economic Research and in 1923 of the Social Science Research Council (SSRC). The former gave considerable impetus to the collection of economic data for purposes of analyzing the functioning of the economy. The latter played an important role in fostering the development of new methodologies and empirical research in the social sciences by awarding grants and fellowships and sponsoring a number of research projects itself. The guidelines laid down by the SSRC in giving out monies had a strong influence on the methodological orientation of researchers who desired financial assistance. One enduring legacy of the work of the SSRC in the interwar years was sponsorship of the 15-volume Encyclopedia of the social sciences, published between 1928 and 1933 in an effort to encourage a "scientific" approach to society on all disciplinary fronts.

The Great Depression and the Second World War heightened interest in the potential use of the ever more scientific social sciences to generate knowledge that might ultimately have direct application in social melioration. The socioeconomic, political, international, military, and racial problems afflicting Western society became more obvious as economic stagnation, massive unemployment, imperialist ideologies, international war, and genocide occupied world attention. The aftermath of the war brought decolonization, the emergence of a Third World, stirrings of racial unrest at home, the expansion of Marxist ideology, and the rise of hitherto undreamed of destructive power. It appeared that the evolution of man's scientific and technological knowledge had outpaced his ability to organize and manage his social affairs. If solutions were to be found to human problems, they were to be found in the social realm, not the purely technological.

1945 to the Present

In this postwar atmosphere, the social sciences came to enjoy an enhanced prestige. Social scientists had contributed in significant ways to the war effort, especially in the areas of morale and propaganda. Their statistical and analytical techniques had become impressive. Inasmuch as the war had demonstrated the advantages of organized effort in the sciences, some now argued that similar mobilization of social science expertise might produce striking results. The cold war demanded that we demonstrate to the world the superiority of our system in generating the good life at home and in the Third World, where social scientists had identified a "revolution of rising expectations." Domestic social problems, particularly the racial one that heated up after 1954, demanded some attempts at solution. Poverty discrimination, criminality, poor housing, broken homes, inadequate medical care, and domestic violence were seen as problems in need of redress.

These trends seemed to peak and converge in the early 1960s as the Kennedy-Johnson administrations courted the social sciences openly. Already, in 1960, the government had created a Division of Social Science in the National Science Foundation, as if to symbolize that the social sciences had achieved complete respectability as sciences. Kennedy's Science Advisory Committee produced a report in 1962 entitled Strengthening the behavioral sciences (Washington, D.C.: 1962 [19p.]) (A1). The National Science Foundation generated three reports in the late sixties entitled The behavioral sciences and the federal government (Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1968 [107p.]) (A2); The behavioral and social sciences: outlook and needs (Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1969 [320p.]) (A3); and Knowledge into action: improving the nation's use of the social sciences (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Print. Off., 1969 [95p.]) (A4). The main thrust of all these reports was that federal support for applied research in the social sciences could produce beneficial social results.

Though many in the government were suspicious of the ideological bent of the social scientists who proposed solutions to social problems, and many in the academy were fearful of losing their scholarly detachment to the ideological demands of the government, the social sciences seemed to have matured as legitimate sciences capable of generating knowledge applicable to the solution of social problems. Overall, a sense

of optimism prevailed in the aura of the Great Society of the sixties. HEW created a panel in 1966 out of which emerged the concept of "social indicators," sets of statistics designed to parallel the economic indicators already in use. Social forecasting and futurism became respectable intellectual activities. **Evaluation** emerged as a field of endeavor whose purpose was to study the impact of social programs to determine their effectiveness. Policy studies developed as a branch of the social sciences concerned specifically with the formulation and implementation of successful governmental policies. The increasing sophistication and use of the elaboration model of multivariate analysis seemed to offer a powerful statistical tool for social research.

The 1970s, however, brought retreat and disillusionment. The economy failed to respond to Keynesianism and welfare economics. Social problems, made more visible by the anti-Vietnam War forces, proved to be more intractable than hypothesized. A report sponsored by the National Science Foundation in 1976, Social and behavioral science programs in the National Science Foundation (Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1976 [103p.]) (A5), offered the sobering assessment that most federally sponsored social research was undistinguished and held out little promise for useful application. A National Research Council study, the Study Project on Social Research and Development (four out of six projected volumes appeared in 1978-79), resulted in divided counsel on the value of government-sponsored research and development programs in the social sciences.

- A6 The federal investment in knowledge of social problems. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1978. 114p.
- A7 The funding of social knowledge production and applications: a survey of federal agencies. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1978. 478p.
- A8 Studies in the management of social r & d: selected policy areas. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1979. 218p.
- A9 Lynn, Laurence. Knowledge and policy: the uncertain connection. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1978. 183p.

In government and in academic ranks, the retreat was general. Some academicians in the social sciences pulled in their horns, as it were, and tended to revert to smaller, more empirical studies of limited scope that avoided systems approaches like Keynesianism or Parsonianism. Sociobiology arose to challenge the hitherto regnant belief in the dominance of environmental factors in shaping human conduct. Neo-Marxian ideas challenged the social science establishment. Structuralism began to permeate many areas of the social sciences. General systems theory received more attention. Last but not least, the humanist elements that have always been present in social science ranks took advantage of the disarray to condemn the "scientism" of the behaviorists. Everywhere, fragmentation seemed to characterize the social science endeavor of the mid-eighties.

The present mood in the social sciences, therefore, has been one of introspection and tentativeness. At the same time, Reaganism has moved the government toward a non-interventionist stance with regard to social problems. These trends, however, are giving the social sciences an opportunity to undertake necessary reappraisals that should result in a new understanding of their strengths, weaknesses, and potentials. Already there is emerging a more sophisticated perception of the nature of the scientific endeavor, as social scientists have acquired greater awareness of the influence of politics, prejudice, ideology, and conflicting paradigms in shaping research approaches in many areas of the physical sciences, which are still often looked to as models. At the same time, social scientists continue to grapple with a variety of long-standing issues: cumulativeness in the social sciences, normative vs. empirical approaches, heredity vs. environment, subjectivity vs. objectivity, conflict vs. equilibrium, theoretical vs. applied social research, free will vs. determinism, the individual vs. the collectivity, and a number of other issues that fall under the rubric "philosophy of the social sciences." What will emerge as the dominant trends of the next generation, however, is guesswork in this period of fluidity and transition.

EVOLUTION OF THE LITERATURE OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The research literature of the social sciences and the secondary tools for controlling it have grown in a pattern that, as might be expected, closely parallels the development of the disciplines themselves. In the same way that social scientists looked toward the sciences for their models, bibliographers of the social sciences looked toward the secondary literature of the sciences for their models, with results that have not, as we shall see, always been felicitous.

Developments through the Nineteenth Century

Throughout the early modern era, from the sixteenth into the nineteenth centuries, savants and made sporadic and unconnected efforts to create bibliographies of the slowly emerging literature generated by scholars. Not until the late nineteenth century, as disciplines developed with more or less defined areas of intellectual endeavor and identifiable bodies of research literature produced by trained professionals, did there appear a somewhat sustained interest in bibliographic control. This interest appeared on two fronts. First, the scholars themselves, usually working through their newly formed professional organizations, sometimes encouraged the development of indexing systems designed to give access to the research literature. Second, and equally important, librarians, who were beginning to define their own professional role with its heavy emphasis on bibliographic expertise, became concerned about access problems, particularly to the journal literature.

History, the oldest, best defined, and largest of the social science disciplines, was an early leader in attempts at bibliographic control. Beginning in 1880 and continuing until the war terminated it permanently in 1913, the Jahresberichte der Geschichtswissenschaft appeared annually in Berlin under the sponsorship of the Historical Society. Similar annual bibliographies covering the field of history appeared in a number of other European countries. In the United States, the American Historical Association undertook in 1902 to produce Writings on American history, an annual inventory of literature published in the field of American history. It is still being published. The field of psychology began efforts at systematic bibliographic control in 1890 with the annual publication of Psychological bulletin, sponsored by the journal Psychological review. The Bulletin continued until 1935. Geography followed in 1891 with the Bibliographie géographique internationale, an annual produced by the Association de Géographes Français. It continues to the present day under different sponsorship. Other areas of the social sciences, with fewer scholars, smaller bodies of literature, and less clearly defined boundaries, were more poorly served. The Bibliographie der Sozialwissenschaften, still in existence, originated in Berlin in 1905 as an inventory of mainly economic and political literature.

The preceding titles were all sponsored by scholars themselves. In the United States, the major burden of attempting to index scholarly literature in the social sciences other than history and psychology fell to library-sponsored publications. The Wilson Company initiated the International index in 1907. It included the social sciences and humanities generally. The Public Affairs Information Service bulletin, generally called PAIS, which was also originated by librarians, was equally important as a bibliographic source for the social sciences after its creation in 1915. It included selected books and government publications as well as journal literature. In Britain, the Subject index to periodicals, later renamed the British humanities index, began in 1915, fulfilling the same role as the *International* index and PAIS. It too was a librarian-sponsored publication.

By the advent of World War I, therefore, there had been efforts by both scholars and librarians to create bibliographic control of the literature of the social sciences. In assessing the adequacy of these efforts, it must be kept in mind that as of 1910, there were only about 3,200 social scientists in the United States, more than 2,000 of whom were historians, and only about forty major scholarly journals. It was possible for scholars to keep current using informal techniques.

From World War through World War

Some limited progress in bibliographic control was made in the interwar years, with advances continuing to come on both the library and academic fronts. Business literature was included in the *Industrial arts index* created by the Wilson Company in 1926. Three years later, Wilson began publishing the Education index. Two other secondary services for the field of education appeared at about the same time. The Society for Research in Child Development began Child development abstracts in 1927; and the American Educational Research Association created the Review of educational research in 1931. Other professional efforts included the highly selective but still useful International bibliography of historical sciences, begun by the International Committee of Historical Sciences in 1926; Psychological abstracts, started by the American Psychological Association in 1927; and the *Population index*, sponsored by the Population Association of America beginning in 1935.

One other tool that deserves some mention at this point is Social science abstracts, created by the Social Science Research Council in 1928 to abstract the journal literature of economics, sociology, anthropology, geography, political science, and history. The publication was discontinued in 1932 when its costs became incommensurate with its use. The venture is instructive for what it tells us of the still modest dimensions of research activity in many of the social sciences and the tendency of researchers to continue to rely on more informal techniques of keeping abreast of a growing but still small literature.

1945 to the Present

As might be surmised from our earlier survey of the evolution of the social sciences, rapid expansion of the access literature occurred only after World War II. Two landmark studies contributed to new developments. One was carried out by the Graduate Library School and the Division of the Social Sciences at the University of Chicago in 1948 under the sponsorship of the Carnegie Foundation.

A10 "Bibliographic services in the social sciences." Library quarterly 20: 79-100 (1950).

The study concluded that, although the number of social scientists in the United States was now about 12,000 and the number of scholarly journals around 500, only the fields of psychology, demography, and education were reasonably well served bibliographically. It recommended abstracting services for other social science disciplines. The second study was sponsored jointly by the United Nations Educational, Social, and Cultural Organization and the Library of Congress.

All UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey. Bibliographical services, their present state and possibilities of improvement. Washington, D.C., 1950. 2v.

It too discovered grave lacunae in coverage of all types of literature, especially social science. As a result, UNESCO undertook remedial measures of its own.

UNESCO sponsored the International bibliography of the social sciences, which appears in four series: International bibliography of sociology (1951), International bibliography of political science (1952), International bibliography of economics (1952), and International bibliography of social and cultural anthropology (1955). At the same time, the International Committee

for Social Sciences Documentation initiated *International political science abstracts* (1951).

Thereafter, numerous new indexing and abstracting services were added, being sponsored now not only by scholars and the Wilson Company, but also by commercial sources and governmental bodies. The list could become boring if made too comprehensive. In 1953, the American Sociological Association started Sociological abstracts. Historical abstracts appeared in 1955 from a commercial source, ABC-Clio. The American behavioral scientist, a journal, began publishing the ABS guide to recent publications in the social and behavioral sciences in 1957. In 1958, Business periodicals index emerged from the Industrial arts index.

Expansion in the 1960s and after was equally rapid. In 1961, the Centre Nationale de la Recherche Scientifique in France began the Bulletin signalétique, with sections on ethnology, sociology, education, and psychology. The American Economics Association started the Index of economic journals (now called Index of economic articles) in 1961 and followed up with the Journal of economic literature in 1969. The Funk & Scott index of corporations and industries, a commercial tool for business research, was begun in 1962. The Royal Anthropological Institute began Anthropological index in 1963. ABC-Clio added America: history and life in 1964, and the federal government initiated the ERIC system for unpublished educational research, Resources in education, in 1966, and for journal literature, Current index to journals in education, in 1969. Geographical abstracts came out of England in 1966, ABC-pol sci appeared in 1969, Abstracts in anthropology was started independently by American anthropologists in 1970, and the Wilson Company converted the International index to the Social sciences and humanities index in 1966. Eight years later, in 1974, this tool was divided into two more specialized indexes: the Humanities index and the Social sciences index. With the creation of United States political science documents (USPSD) in 1976, the American Political Science Association became involved in bibliographic activity.

Two particularly significant bibliographic developments of the late sixties and the seventies related to emerging computer technology. In the first place, efforts were made to utilize computers for the generation of print indexes by selecting key words from titles. The most sophisticated and useful tool to develop from this technology was the *Social sciences citation index*, begun by the Institute for Scientific Information in Philadelphia in 1969. It indexes hundreds of journals

from all areas of the social sciences, deciding which are worth inclusion on the basis of citation analysis. Another set of tools generated by computer is the Combined retrospective index series (CRIS), published in 1974. It includes a Combined retrospective index to journals in sociology, Journals in history, and Journals in political science, as well as to Book reviews in scholarly journals. Though subject indexing is poor because of the approach used, the series has the merit of indexing journal articles and book reviews going back to the nineteenth century.

A second area in which the utilization of computer technology is having a significant impact is the development of machine-readable indexing/ abstracting systems. The electronic format offers possibilities for quicker retrieval using a wider range of search keys than the traditional author and subject indexes available in print format. Retrieval by title words, abstract words, journal name, publication date, language, and other criteria, combined with the ability to apply Boolean logic in combining concepts, offers an enhanced ability to locate useful and recent leads in the literature. The principal drawbacks of the computerized bibliographic systems are that their chronological coverage is often more limited than that of the corresponding print indexes and that they eliminate patron browsing of the index.

The ever-expanding number of bibliographic databases available includes most of the more important print indexes and abstracts, among them Sociological abstracts, Psychological abstracts, ERIC, USPSD, PAIS, America: history and life, Historical abstracts, Social sciences citation index, Language and language behavior abstracts (LLBA), F & S index, and Wilsonline (the Wilson indexes). Online files also include indexes developed specifically for the computer, such as Agricola; indexes to government publications, including the Monthly catalog, the Publication reference file, and the CIS index; indexes to sources of statistics, such as the American statistics index (ASI); and indexes to newspaper and magazine literature, including the National newspaper index and the Magazine index.

Besides these bibliographic files, there is also a growing number of factual databases from which raw data may be extracted. Among these are the Predicast databases of business and economic statistics; files containing census data; and growing numbers of databases of traditional reference tools, such as Foundation grants directory or American men and women of science, becoming available online.

Several hundred files available for online

searching can be accessed through three major vendors: Dialog Information Services, Bibliographic Retrieval Services (BRS), and System Development Corporation (SDC). Most academic libraries, large or medium-sized public libraries, and many special libraries now subscribe to one or more of these systems. In addition, there is a plethora of databases of a specialized nature available elsewhere.

SOCIAL SCIENCE LITERATURE AND ITS USES TODAY

The rapid expansion of the social sciences after World War II, as seen, occasioned a corresponding growth in the research literature generated. In response, the access literature underwent an era of unparalleled expansion as librarians, scholars, commercial sources, and the government made efforts to establish effective bibliographic control, first with new print tools, later with computerized sources that sometimes duplicated, sometimes supplemented, the hard copy. Yet, there was a feeling among librarians and information specialists who worked with the secondary literature that its use by social scientists was limited and sporadic. This impressionistic evidence stimulated some efforts to collect empirical data that might (1) determine how social scientists really work in satisfying their information needs, and (2) suggest ways of improving information systems and services in the social sciences.

Patterns of Use

Among the more significant studies designed to analyze use of social science materials are one conducted by the American Psychological Association in 1969, Reports on the projects on scientific information exchange in psychology, v. 3 (A12); the project published by D.F. Swift and V. Winn, "The 'Sociology of education abstracts' research report," Education libraries bulletin 38: 12-19 (1970) (A13); and the two sizable investigations carried out at the Bath University of Technology in England. The first of these, published in five parts in 1971, was called INFROSS, or Investigation into information requirements of the social sciences (A14); the second, published in parts in 1973-76, with a final report in 1980, was called DISISS, or Design of information systems in the social sciences (A15). These studies and several lesser ones of similar import constitute for the library world part of its