

ENCYCLOPEDIA
OF LIBRARY
AND
INFORMATION SCIENCE

VOLUME 15

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VOLUME 15

LIBRARY COMPANY TO LIBRARY REVIEW

MARCEL DEKKER, INC., New York

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NOTE ON VOLUME 14

Due to a printer's error, the name Leyh, Georg was spelled incorrectly on pages 231 to 239.

**ENCYCLOPEDIA OF
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THE LIBRARY COMPANY OF PHILADELPHIA

On July 1, 1731, Benjamin Franklin and a number of his fellow members of the Junto drew up "Articles of Agreement" to found a library. The Junto was a discussion group of young men seeking social, economic, intellectual, and political advancement. When they foundered on a point of fact, they needed a printed authority to settle the divergence of opinion. In colonial Pennsylvania at the time there were not many books. Standard English reference works were expensive and difficult to obtain. Franklin and his friends were mostly mechanics of moderate means. None alone could have afforded a representative library nor, indeed, many imported books. By pooling their resources in pragmatic Franklinian fashion, they could. The contribution of each created the book capital of all.

Fifty subscribers invested 40 shillings each and promised to pay 10 shillings a year thereafter to buy books and maintain a shareholder's library. Thus "the Mother of all American Subscription Libraries" was established. The first list of desiderata to stock the shelves was sent to London on March 31, 1732, and by autumn that order, less a few books found to be unobtainable, arrived. James Logan, "the best Judge of Books in these Parts," had assisted in the choice, and it was a representative one.

Were one to draw up a list of the works most commonly found in colonial American—and probably provincial English—libraries, the early selection of the Library Company could serve as a pattern. In the earlier ecclesiastical and collegiate libraries of British America the choice of books was superimposed from without for theological or educational purposes and reflected the formal learning of donor or teacher. In the Library Company the desire for the book stemmed from the prospective reader.

By the time the library issued its earliest surviving printed catalog of 1741, the general mix of its collection was established for over a century. Excluding gifts, historical works broadly defined accounted for approximately one-third of the total holdings. These included geographical books and accounts of voyages and travels, which latter category the Library Company emphasized until comparatively recently. Literature—plays and poems mostly—comprised a little more than 20%, approximately the same proportion as science. Theology accounted for only a tenth of the titles. This was in marked contrast to the earlier libraries of Harvard and Yale, but a harbinger of other popular libraries which were founded later. Such a diminution of printed religiosity was a characteristic difference between a theological seventeenth century in the British colonies and a deistical eighteenth century. To conclude the selection, it should be noted that philosophy matched theology in numbers, and that economics and such social sciences, the arts, linguistics, and the indefinables accounted for the rest. Bought for many years through the agency of the Quaker mercer-naturalist of London, Peter Collinson, this was and long

remained the basic weighting of book selection until the decline of the proprietary libraries in the last quarter of the nineteenth century.

The Library Company flourished because it adopted a purchasing policy responsive to the needs of its intellectually alert, economically ambitious, but nonelite membership. Its successful example was quickly copied along the Atlantic seaboard from Salem to Charleston. It was Franklin's opinion that "these Libraries have improved the general Conversation of Americans, made the common Tradesmen and Farmers as intelligent as most Gentlemen from other Countries, and perhaps have contributed in some Degree to the Stand so generally made throughout the Colonies in Defence of their Privileges."

The library soon became not only an increasing collection of books but also a full-fledged cabinet of curiosities in the Renaissance mode. Donors deposited in its rooms antique coins, fossils, fauna pickled in spirits, unusual geological specimens, tanned skins, and other oddities. In accordance with its role as an all-embracing cultural institution, the Library Company also participated in the increasingly popular scientific experimentation of its day.

At first housed in a room in the librarian's lodgings, the burgeoning accumulation became too much for private quarters. When John Penn sent an air-pump to the quasi-learned society, the directors had to take a major step to house it properly. The instrument arrived early in 1739. A handsome cabinet was commissioned for it. That glass-fronted case survives as the earliest extant example of American-made Palladian architectural furniture. Arrangements were promptly made to move the books, *schatzkammer*, and air-pump press into rooms on the second floor of the newly finished west wing of the State House. It was there that Franklin and his associates performed their first experiments in electricity, inaugurated when Collinson sent over a hollow rubbing glass to the library.

Suitably settled, the library could turn its attention to making known its holdings. Although broadsheet catalogs of the company's books may have been issued in 1733 and 1735, no copy of either survives. An existing small octavo of fifty-six pages, printed by Franklin and issued in 1741, lists the 375 titles then in the library. As eighteenth-century catalogs go it was a good one, the first American library catalog to give titles at some length as well as place and date of publication. Franklin wrote "A short Account of the Library" to fill a final blank page. No waste, no want. It should be noted that, among the descriptions of institutional operations, it was stated that the library was open Saturday afternoons from four until eight o'clock. Members could borrow books freely and without charge. Non-members could borrow books by depositing their value as surety "and paying a small Acknowledgment for the Reading." In the early days this latter fee was apparently either never collected or discontinued; it does not appear as income in the first financial reports.

A catalog available, the books shelved in the State-House wing, regular orders of books sent to the volunteer agent Collinson, and annual shipments received from London, the Library Company formally sought the patronage of the proprietors of Pennsylvania. What the directors really wanted was a handsome benefaction in

books or cash. They did get a plot of land for a hoped-for building of their own, and on March 24, 1742, a charter from John, Thomas, and Richard Penn, issued in their name by Governor George Thomas. This was printed in 1746, together with the by-laws and a supplementary catalog.

The first librarian, Louis Timothée, or Timothy as he became, left after a short tenure to become Franklin's printing partner in Charleston. For a very brief period Franklin himself took on the bibliothecal responsibility. He was succeeded by the erstwhile shoemaker and self-trained surveyor William Parsons, who served from 1734 to 1746. He was followed as librarian by Robert Greenway, who remained in office for 17 years.

The more important functionary of the institution was the secretary, at first the scrivener and amateur botanist Joseph Breintnall. He kept the minutes and wrote the letters ordering books to Collinson, who faithfully carried out the Library Company's requests for over a quarter of a century. After Breintnall's death in 1746 it was Franklin who performed the secretarial duties. Despite his mythical reputation as the careful, methodical "Poor Richard," he was careless about the company's records. When he went to England in 1757, first the schoolmaster Francis Allison and then young Francis Hopkinson served as secretary. When the latter took custody of the Library Company's box which Franklin had left with his wife, he found that the notes of minutes taken on separate pieces of paper during the printer-politician's years in office were scattered and imperfect. To create a permanent record Hopkinson copied into a book all the minutes of the company from the beginning. Lacunae exist for some periods in the 1740s and 1750s.

The books which flowed regularly across the Atlantic from the London bookshops were in subject matter the same mix as in the first shipments. There were recent works of history and travel, some poems, plays and novels, and standard vademecums and popularizations in the field of practical arts and sciences. As Franklin wrote concerning the College of Philadelphia, "As in the Scheme of the Library I had provided only for English Books," so in his college he provided only a good English education. Although Provost William Smith stressed a classical education more than Franklin had hoped, the members of the Library Company, with little Latin and less Greek, bought very few works not in English.

Treasures-to-be came in 1755 as a gift from Collinson in the form of his own copies of a score of seventeenth-century accounts of the newly established British colonies in America, among them such classics of the colonization period as Strachey's *Lavves* and Mourt's *Relation*. A new catalog was issued in 1757 and another in 1764. Among those who guided the destinies of the company in the years before the Revolution were the silversmith Philip Syng, Dr. Thomas Cadwalader, the builder-architect Samuel Rhoads, and a bit later the merchant-patriot Charles Thomson and John Dickinson, "the Pennsylvania Farmer."

The library kept growing, in part by absorbing some of its own progeny. The Union Library, founded in 1746, into which had been incorporated the much smaller Association Library and Amicable Library, was merged in 1769 into the Library Company. Duplicates—alas, any edition of the same title—were sold. The holdings

and members of the two institutions were consolidated. A new printed catalog with 2,033 entries was prepared and published in 1770. On this occasion the books were renumbered by size, beginning an accession series which is continued to this day.

In 1772 the library having "become large & valuable, a Source of Instruction to Individuals and conducive of Reputation to the Public," and much too crowded in its State-House rooms, the directors petitioned the Pennsylvania Assembly for permission to build on the State-House Square. The request was turned down. After much consideration and no alleviation of the space problem, agreement was reached with the Carpenters' Company in 1773 to rent the second floor of their new hall off Chestnut Street near Fourth. "The Books (inclosed within Wire Lattices) are kept in one large Room," Franklin then in London was informed, "and in another handsome Appartment the [scientific] Apparatus is deposited and the Directors meet."

It was a historic move. On September 5, 1774, the First Continental Congress met on the first floor of Carpenters' Hall. John Adams reported that the site committee had taken "a View of the Room, and of the Chamber where is an excellent Library." In anticipation of the meeting the Library Company had ordered that "the Librarian furnish the Gentlemen who are to meet in Congress in this City with the use of such Books as they may have occasion for during their sitting, taking a Receipt for them." Only one such receipt survives, showing that George Walton of Georgia took out and returned, among other books, Paine's *Common Sense*. The first day it met Congress recorded the credentials of the delegates. On the second day it formally expressed its thanks for the Library Company's courtesy.

The offer of its facilities was renewed when the Second Continental Congress met the following spring. The same formal offer of use of its library was made to the delegates of the Constitutional Convention in 1787. Until the capital was moved to Washington in 1800 the Library Company, long the most important book resource for colonial Philadelphians, remained *the* library of the national leaders of the United States, the *de facto* Library of Congress before there was one *de jure*.

During the war years, importations of books from abroad had ceased. With the peace in 1783 a flurry of orders went to London agents, Joseph Woods and William Dillwyn, whose successors served the library for many years. The seriousness of purpose of the library was reiterated when the directors told their correspondents that "tho we would wish to mix the *Utile* with the *Dulce*, we should not think it expedient to add to our present stock, anything in the *novel* way." It was with presumably unspent book funds that the Library Company in 1785 made what have proved to be the most valuable purchases in its history. At the sale of the effects of the Swiss-born would-be historian of America, Pierre Eugene Du Simitière, the library was the main buyer, securing most of his manuscript collections and almost all the volumes of broadsides, prints, and pamphlets offered at the auction. Du Simitière, with an eye to the future, had picked up ephemera from the streets. An unbelievably high percentage of the printed items he gathered is today unique, illuminating the Revolutionary era as only the informal productions of a period can.

When the Reverend Manasseh Cutler visited Philadelphia in 1787, he paid his respects to the institution which had "become the public library of the University and the city."

Every modern author of any note, I am told, is to be met with here, and large additions are annually made. The books appeared to be well arranged and in good order. . . . I was pleased with a kind of network doors to the book-shelves, which is made of a large wire sufficiently open to read the labels, but no book can be taken out unless the librarian unlocks the door. This is a necessary security from any persons taking books without the knowledge of the librarian. . . .

From the Library we were conducted into the Cabinet, which is a large room on the opposite side of the entry, and over the room where the Mechanical models are deposited [by the American Philosophical Society]. Here we had the pleasure of viewing a most excellent collection of natural curiosities from all parts of the globe.

Although the contents of the museum and the scientific instruments of the Library Company remained in its possession for some time, gifts to the cabinet fell off. There is no record of the disposal of any of the items, but only a very few of them have survived.

There was an upsurge of optimism after the government was established under the Constitution. Growth had continued and the library's rented quarters became inadequate. Negotiations with the legislature for ground and with the American Philosophical Society for some jointure of interests fell through. In 1789 the Library Company bought a piece of land on Fifth Street near Chestnut across from the State-House Square. A competition for the design of a building was held. An amateur architect, Dr. William Thornton, won it with plans for a handsome Palladian red-brick structure with white pilasters and balustrade surmounted by urns. A curving double flight of steps led up to the frontispiece over which, under a pronounced pediment, was an arched niche. This was filled by a gift from William Bingham, a statue of Franklin classically garbed in a toga—with his permission—carved out of marble in Italy by Lazzarini. The cornerstone, composed by Franklin except for a flattering reference to him, was laid on August 31, 1789. He did not live to see the building finished. The new quarters were opened on New Year's Day, 1791.

When the new library was in operation, conversations were held seeking an arrangement with the Loganian Library, housed on Sixth Street across the State-House Square. James Logan, who had come to Pennsylvania as William Penn's secretary in 1699 and in the course of years occupied many of the highest political and judicial offices of the province, was a bookman all his life. A linguist of competence in a bewildering number of languages, a classicist who in the margins of his books crossed swords with the greatest European editors, and a scientist who described the fertilization of corn by pollen, understood and used the new invention of calculus, wrote on optics and made astronomical observations, the Quaker virtuoso brought books to feed the wide-ranging appetite of his mind. By

the time he died in 1751, Logan had gathered over 2,600 volumes, chiefly in Latin and Greek, which was the best collection of books in colonial America.

In his later years he had decided to leave his books for the use of the public and establish a library, an American Bodleian. He designed and commenced a building to house it on Sixth Street and wrote an elaborate codicil to his will setting up and with the rents of a property in Bucks County, endowing the institution. The original trustees had included his son-in-law Isaac Norris, Jr., but as a result of a disagreement with him, Logan canceled the codicil. In spite of his intention to frame another instrument, illness prevented him from perfecting it. Nonetheless, after his death his heirs carried out the old man's wishes. The Logonian Library was created in 1754 as a trust for the public with Logan's sons, William and James, his son-in-law John Smith, Benjamin Franklin, Richard Peters, Israel Pemberton, Jr., and William Allen as trustees. A second deed of trust, almost identical with the earlier one, was dated March 25, 1760.

A printed catalog of the Bibliotheca Loganiana, prepared by Lewis Weiss, an educated German immigrant, was issued in 1760 in which year the library was opened. Although Franklin in his promotional tract for the establishment of a college in Philadelphia had described Logan's library as a valuable book resource available to professors and students, little use seems to have been made of the scholarly works in the collection. In the eighteenth century there was little interest in the classics and advanced mathematical sciences on the part of merchants and artisans in Philadelphia. Moreover, two factors which made it unique contributed to its unpopularity: the library included few English works of belles-lettres and, at the opposite pole, almost no polemical theology.

In 1758 Dr. William Logan, a physician of Bristol, England, and the younger brother of James, died without issue and left much of his estate including his library to his nephew William Logan of Philadelphia. Dr. William's books included a high proportion of medical works, and in pre-Revolutionary days it may have been the largest and best—albeit somewhat old-fashioned—such collection in the colonies. When the American William died in 1776, he left from his inheritance such books as did not duplicate titles in the Logonian Library to that institution and the duplicates to the Library Company.

When the handsome Library Company building began to arise across the square from the Logonian Library, James Logan, Jr., the sole survivor of the original trustees, asked the General Assembly of Pennsylvania to vest the trust in the Library Company in order to make his father's benefaction more useful. By an act of March 31, 1792, the books and assets of the Logonian Library were transferred into the custody of the far more active institution. An addition to its just completed building was quickly erected as an east wing. There were almost 4,000 volumes in the Logonian Library which, after it was moved into new quarters, were listed in a new catalog published in 1795. The weightiness in pounds and in contents can be judged from the fact that almost one-quarter of the total number of volumes was in folio size.

A succession of functionaries of brief incumbency, including John Todd, Jr., the first husband of Dolly Madison, handled the operation of the library until Zachariah

Poulson, Jr. became librarian in 1785. Poulson was a printer, newspaper publisher, and excellent keeper of books and records. He compiled and printed an indexed catalog in 1789, kept admirable accounts of books borrowed, and set up "A Chronological Register" of shares which retrospectively listed the original and successive owners of each share from 1731 on. The register has been kept up and is still in use.

The number of shareholders had reached 100 in 1763 and remained at that level until the merger with the Union Library in 1769, when it jumped to 400. To pay for the Fifth Street building, 266 shares in 1789–1793 were sold or given to the carpenters, bricklayers, and others in partial payment for work done. The cost of a share was increased in 1793 from £20 fluctuating Pennsylvania money to \$40 in good Hamiltonian currency, and the annual dues were set at \$2. Thereafter growth was gradual, the membership rising to over 800 in the 1820s. Both members and non-members paid a fee for taking out books, but anyone was permitted to read in the library without charge. Penalties were levied for keeping books out overlong.

Poulson, who was responsible for getting the operational affairs of the institution on a workmanlike basis, served as librarian for over 2 decades. On December 3, 1801, in appreciation of the director's commendation of his services up to that time, he gave the library ten folio, thirty-seven quarto, and four octavo volumes of miscellaneous pamphlets, chiefly of the seventeenth century. These added over 1,000 titles to the library's holdings. The number in itself was important, but it was far outweighed by the comparatively recent discovery that all these volumes had once belonged to Benjamin Franklin.

The library's role in the life of Philadelphia was maintained. It was, and remained until late in the nineteenth century, "the City Library" or "the Philadelphia Library." Men of prominence were its members. Nine signers of the Declaration of Independence—Benjamin Franklin, Benjamin Rush, Francis Hopkinson, Robert Morris, George Clymer, John Morton, James Wilson, Thomas McKean, and George Ross—owned shares, and some of them served as directors. At the turn of the century those most active in the management of the Library Company were Richard Wells, Benjamin R. Morgan, William Rawle, Joseph Parker Norris, Robert Waln, and Samuel M. Fox, all of whom were leaders or participants in the civic and philanthropic activities of the city. They saw that the finances of the library were properly managed and that orders for books were sent regularly to London agents and, after the semiannual shipments were carefully checked, paid for. Local booksellers and publishers were also patronized, but it was the important new works from abroad—novels by Sir Walter Scott and Jane Austen, poetry by Lord Byron, accounts of Napoleon and his wars and descriptions of travels into the still "new worlds" of Africa and Asia—for which the Library Company was justly renowned. Philadelphia printers borrowed the English importations and used and abused them to such an extent that a by-law was passed in 1805 declaring that printers would be sued if they took the library's books apart in the course of reprinting the work. The same problem recurred in the second half of the twentieth century.

In addition to gifts of their own works by member-authors such as Charles Brockden Brown, a number of interesting accessions flowed into the library. In

1788, as secretary of the Pennsylvania Society for the Abolition of Slavery, Tench Coxe, later Hamilton's assistant in the Treasury Department, placed in the Library Company a handful of antislavery pamphlets sent the Society from England and France, remarking that he knew of no depository "so proper" for such material.

The directors were surprised in March 1799 to receive as a gift from a stranger, Henry Cox of Ireland, a black box containing a number of old books, manuscripts, and printed records. They had come down to him from his grandfather, Sir Richard Cox, lord chancellor of Ireland in 1703-1707, who had appropriated them. When William Hepworth Dixon, a British historian, saw the manuscripts in Philadelphia in 1866, he recognized them as part of the official Irish archives and suggested that they were of such paramount importance that they should be returned to England. The directors agreed and formally offered to Lord Romilly, master of the Rolls, several of the manuscripts containing correspondence between James I and the privy council of Ireland, orders of the council, and the diary and letterbook of the Marquis of Clanricarde, lord deputy of Ireland. The offer was gratefully accepted. In return the Library Company was given several series of British government publications of an antiquarian nature. Of greater import, however, was the discovery 30 years later of the "Mayflower Compact" which was generously sent back to Massachusetts by Queen Victoria's officials. *The Times* noted: "The precedent of the Library Company of Philadelphia just referred to, has unquestionably played a considerable part in determining the action of the Consistory Court." Inexplicably, the directors did not return a number of other valuable documents from the same source, including James I's original instructions of 1614 to his lord deputy of Ireland, Sir Arthur Chichester, and some dozens of unique Irish seventeenth-century broadsides.

A far larger gift came as the bequest in 1803 of the Reverend Dr. Samuel Preston, rector of Chevening in Kent. It is not known exactly why he chose the Library Company as the recipient of his book bounty. Preston was, it is true, a friend of the former Philadelphian, Benjamin West. It is further true that the clergyman was an ardent Whig who in 1783 had written to the directors congratulating them on the exploits of their fellow-countrymen and wishing the library well in the days to come. He may have been kin to some Philadelphia Prestons; a Samuel Preston held many offices in the city and province in the early decades of the eighteenth century. The collection consisted of over 2,500 volumes. It was the lifetime accumulation of a well-to-do, cultured gentleman cleric with an appropriate proportion of theological works, but rich in handsome and expensive works of topography and the fine arts. When the books arrived in America, Congress refused to remit the duties, which were begrudgingly paid.

The next major accession of the library was in 1828 upon the death of the Philadelphia merchant William Mackenzie. Little is known of the man except that he was wealthy, generous, and a true bibliophile. He was probably the first American to buy "collectors' items," which included such treasures as a Caxton, Jenson's Pliny on vellum, and a shelf-full of early romances of chivalry. In addition to rarities, among them some extremely valuable items of Americana, Mackenzie purchased the books of his day as they were published and bought heavily when im-

portant libraries were dispersed locally. As a result he was a major customer of the bookseller Dufief in 1801–1803 when the collections of Benjamin Franklin and of William Byrd of Westover were broken up and sold piecemeal. By his will Mackenzie left all his books before 1700 to the Loganian Library as well as another 800 volumes which the trustees could select from his French and Latin works. These amounted to 1,519 volumes; an additional 3,566 volumes were purchased on most favorable terms by the Loganian trustees from Mackenzie's executors. At the same time the Library Company acquired 1,966 volumes, mostly books in English.

In 1832 two large local libraries were added to the book resources of the Library Company. After the death of Zaccheus Collins, an amateur naturalist and longtime director of the library, the administrator of his estate offered his books for sale. For \$1,200 the collection, rich in works of botany and other fields of natural history, was purchased for the Loganian Library. At about the same time an understanding was reached with James Cox. Cox was an artist who had emigrated from London shortly after the Revolution. By chance, near his house on Almond Street in Philadelphia he met a woman who came from his own native village in England and who befriended him and made him her heir. When the lady died, Cox came into a modest fortune, which enabled him to buy books and more books which he did to the exclusion of all but the essential necessities of life. An eccentric bibliomaniac, he filled his house to overflowing with an accumulation of about 6,000 volumes, chiefly of a literary nature, including a first edition of Keats's *Poems* which he seems to have bought when it was first published. A solitary octogenarian, overwhelmed by the size of his collection, Cox agreed in 1832 to give it to the Library Company in return for an annuity of \$400. Two years later Cox died; his library proved to be a most unusual bargain.

In 1806 Poulson had resigned as librarian and been succeeded by George Campbell, who remained in office until 1829. These were the days of printed catalogs. Supplements came out regularly; a new "complete" listing was published in 1803; a Loganian supplement was issued in 1828; and then, of course, the addition of the Mackenzie books called forth another catalog.

In the spring of 1829 John Jay Smith was elected librarian. He was a man of broad culture and considerable energy, with a host of extracurricular activities such as the editing of a periodical, the promotion of Laurel Hill Cemetery, the practice of landscape gardening, and the collection of family and other early Pennsylvania manuscripts which he eventually gave to the library. He was a descendant of James Logan through Logan's daughter Hannah and proud of his ancestry. Through no fault of his, the only fire in the long history of the Library Company occurred early in Smith's incumbency. On January 6, 1831, heat from the fireplace in the Loganian room kindled a wooden beam hidden beneath a veneer of masonry. Before it was extinguished some of the contiguous woodwork caught fire, and a clock, the portrait of Logan, a bust of Penn, and some books were destroyed. The loss, covered by insurance, was not so great as had been feared at first. Few books were a total loss; some had their edges scorched; 1,403 volumes were rebound because their spines had been damaged.

A major catalog of the Library Company's books, arranged by subject, was issued in 1835, followed 2 years later by one of the Loganian Library. These, with

their supplements of 1856 and 1867, remained the basic finding lists of the library for over a century. Statistics were then printed showing that in the two collections there were 25,684 works in 43,884 volumes. In 1845 Smith noted that the number of books in the building had doubled in the 16 years of his administration, and "with the rapid multiplication of books in America, importations from England & the Continent, &c." he foresaw another doubling in the next 20 years. A new building was considered in 1846, and John Notman actually drew plans for it, but nothing came of that. Growing pains continued. When Charles Jewett published the first comprehensive survey of American libraries in 1851, the Library Company was one of only five institutions with as many as 50,000 volumes. The others were Harvard and Yale (both inclusive of their specialized graduate school collections), the Library of Congress, and the Boston Athenaeum. Only Harvard had more than the Library Company's approximate count of 60,000 volumes.

After over 2 decades as librarian, John Jay Smith resigned in 1851 and his son, Lloyd Pearsall Smith, succeeded him. He was more of a classicist than his predecessors and was known for his wit and his judicious spicing of conversation with Latin tags. "Custos librorum nascitur, non fit," he once wrote. Lloyd Smith was also the first to look upon librarianship as a career.

The library continued to grow. Smith noted in 1856 that the majority of the 18,000 volumes added since the appearance of the 1835 catalog had been purchased with the annual payments of the members. The quality and comprehensiveness of the library acquisitions were maintained, a little bit of the best of everything, but an emphasis on history, biography, and travel with a slowly increasing incursion of novels onto the shelves. American and foreign bestsellers, fiction and nonfiction, were ordered as a matter of course, but it is doubtful that any other library had the imagination—or the boldness—to buy when they were first published the then-little-regarded *Moby Dick* and *Leaves of Grass*. The Library Company did. Concern about the inadequacy of the Fifth Street building increased in pace with acquisitions. "Subscriptions for the erection of a Fire-Proof Building for the Library" were sought. The destruction of much of the Library of Congress made many institutions fire-conscious. By 1869 a substantial fund, including a legacy of almost \$50,000 from Joseph Fisher, had been raised; some lots were purchased in an attempt to assemble sufficient ground at the corner of Juniper and Locust Streets.

In 1869 Dr. James Rush died. He was the son of the physician-patriot Benjamin Rush and husband and heir of Phoebe Ann Ridgway Rush who had inherited a portion of her father Jacob Ridgway's immense fortune. They were childless. In accordance with Rush's will as presented to the directors of the Library Company by Henry J. Williams, Rush's brother-in-law, sole executor, and long-time director of the library, he left an estate of nearly a million dollars to the Library Company—under certain conditions. The original will had been drawn up in 1860, and in the remaining years of his life Dr. Rush added codicil upon codicil until he succeeded in obscuring his own somewhat eccentric wishes in a fog of words and admonitory clauses.

His original intention was clear. With his money the Library Company was to purchase a plot of adequate size "situate between Fourth and Fifteenth and Spruce

and Race Streets" and there build a "fire-proof building sufficiently large to accommodate and contain all the books of the Library Company of Philadelphia . . . and to provide for its future extension." He did not want anything fancy. Matters, however, were not permitted to rest there. In his second codicil Dr. Rush authorized his executor, at his discretion, to do whatever he thought fit. Mr. Williams asserted that on his deathbed Dr. Rush had expressed his specific desire that the library be built on a lot at Broad and Christian Streets toward the purchase of which he had made a payment. The executor announced his intention of carrying out the testator's last oral wishes.

Dr. Rush, who was a studious, somewhat misanthropic and definitely eccentric gentleman, set forth a number of curious stipulations and precatory provisions in his will, but he had a clear idea of what he wanted the Library Company, where he had spent many quiet, happy hours, to be. He wrote:

I know that an ostentatious library to keep up with the progress of our country, collecting too many books, may be like an avaricious man who accumulates money to the ruin of both his modesty and his intellect.

Let it [the library] rest in a modest contentment in the useful quality of its volumes for the benefit, not the amusement alone of the public, nor let it over an ambitious store of inferior printed paper, flap its flimsy leaves, and crow out the highest number of worthless books. Let it be a favor for the eminent works of fiction to be found upon the shelves: but let it not keep cushioned seats for time-wasting and lounging readers, nor place for every-day novels, mind-tainting reviews, controversial politics, scribblings of poetry and prose, biographies of unknown names, nor for those teachers of disjointed thinking, the daily newspapers, except, perhaps for reference to support, since such an authority could never prove the authentic date of an event. In short, let the managers think only of the intrinsic value of additions to their shelves.

While such a Catonian opinion of the printed word would not have reflected the tastes of the membership at large and while other stipulations were somewhat aggravating, it was Williams's firm decision to build the new library in South Philadelphia, psychologically removed from the homes and businesses of the members, which aroused the most opposition. At a meeting of the membership in October 1869, it was voted to "accept the legacy of Dr. James Rush according to the terms expressed in his Will," with 378 of the 969 members abstaining, 298 voting in favor of the resolution, and 293 voting against it.

The directors of the Library Company were torn between a desire to benefit from the million-dollar bequest and their disapproval of Williams's plans for the site and the building. After several years, much bitterness, and a number of lawsuits, the huge Parthenon-like structure designed by Addison Hutton was erected at Broad and Christian Streets. In 1878 the Library Company reluctantly accepted the impressive edifice, named the Ridgway Library in honor of the original source of the funds which made it possible, and the Rush bequest. The reader-members, however, had no intention of going down to South Philadelphia to browse or pick up the latest novels and biographies bought for the library. By the time the Ridgway Library was completed, plans, energetically forwarded by Henry Wharton, were

well advanced for another building at Juniper and Locust Streets, a location more central and more convenient for most of the members. It was decided to use the Ridgway as a kind of storage house, although it was never so crudely phrased. The directors proceeded to relieve the crowded shelves on Fifth Street by moving to the new building "such books as, if destroyed by fire, could never be replaced" as well as all the Loganian books included in the 1837 catalog. Frank Furness, a popular architect who favored the use of bricks to create his individualistic kind of Victorian eclecticism, designed the in-town library where more modern books would be housed and the main lending aspect of the Library Company could be conducted. On February 24, 1880 the new Juniper and Locust Street library opened its doors. Soon afterward the Fifth Street property was sold.

Lloyd P. Smith, in whose home the plans for the first meeting of the projected American Library Association took place, was proud of his two "fire-proof" buildings. As one of the leaders in the new movement to professionalize librarianship, he wrote articles for the *Library Journal*, gave papers at meetings of the association, went with his peers to an international meeting in England, and developed a classification system for the shelving of the books in the two new buildings. The system used A for theology, E for jurisprudence, I for science and the arts, O for literature, U for history and biography, and Y for bibliography, with lower-case letters and numerals for divisions and subdivisions of the categories. Books were shelved by size—folios, quartos, octavos, and dodecimos—and by accession number within the ultimate subject classification and size.

This might have presented no problem had not the holdings of the Library Company been fragmented. The Library Company's old books were housed in the north wing of the Ridgway building; the Loganian Library's old books were ranged on the balcony which ran around the huge, open reading-room; the Library Company's new books were in the uptown library. Each collection was arranged separately according to the Smith system, and as new collections came into the library each of these was also separately arranged. Duplicate catalogs and accession books had to be maintained for the two sites, for only the accession number appeared in the printed catalogs and on the handwritten paper slips which were used after 1856. The method was ponderous, but for the 100,000 volumes which the Library Company had, according to a government survey of 1876, it worked. Although a new shelving method was introduced in 1953, some of the library is still arranged according to Smith's system.

The first considerable new accessions after the occupation of the Ridgway Branch were the library and papers of Dr. James Rush which were part of his bequest. These included almost all the books of his celebrated father Benjamin Rush, probably the largest and best medical collection in the United States at the time of his death in 1813, and the manuscripts of many of his writings and lectures, notebooks, ledgers, medical records, and a corpus of letters received. James Rush's own books and papers were far from inconsequential; he had acquired valuable reference material for the works he wrote on the voice and on the human intellect. A latterday virtuoso and a wealthy man, he bought in addition extensively in the wide range of his interests, notably expensive, illustrated books on art and architecture.

After the Civil War, the position of the Library Company and of similar subscription libraries in the country was gradually but inexorably altered. First the mechanics' libraries which provided reading material for workingmen, and then the universities and the newly organized free public libraries which grew rapidly in size, displaced the privately managed collections as a community's major repository of books. The company noticed that far more nonmembers than members were beginning to use its resources. Subscribers without voting privileges could pay a fee for the right to borrow books. It was a recognition of the changing times which impelled Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, author and physician, to suggest in 1886 that a study be made "to consider whether it may not be possible to make of the Philadelphia Library a Library free to all." Certainly the historian of the Inquisition, Henry C. Lea, had that concept when he gave \$50,000 to enlarge the library building, conditioning his gift upon the Library Company's agreement "not at any future time to abridge the privileges heretofore so liberally extended to the public."

At the same time the potential scholarly resources of the library grew impressively. In 1884 the chess library of Professor George Allen—said at the time to have been the fifth finest collection of its kind in the world—was bought. Late that year Margaretta A. Dick donated a collection of books, chiefly Americana and many editions of the *Book of Common Prayer*, which she had purchased for \$1,000 from the estate of John McAllister. A year and a half later his son, John A. McAllister, owner of the city's leading optical supply house and an incorrigible magpie, gave the Library Company his comprehensive pickings of a lifetime. He mounted these in dozens of folio scrapbooks of prints, playbills, political cartoons, paper currency, song-sheets, broadsides, newspaper clippings, letters, and memorabilia of all kinds. The Civil War period was covered exhaustively; the directors, expressing appreciation of the gift, commented that the collection "cannot fail to be of interest to the student of this period of the history of our country." To McAllister is owed the preservation of many once little valued printed trifles of the nineteenth century.

A not dissimilar collection came as the result of the foresight of the librarian, Lloyd P. Smith. In 1885 he presented the library with 400 bound volumes of pamphlets, and after his death in 1886 his widow sold about as many volumes again to the trustees of the Loganian Library for \$300. Covering the political, social, economic, and philanthropic life of the country—but naturally richest in local publications—these illuminated many facets of the half-century 1830–1880. Two bequests added specialized collections. Albert G. Emerick, a pioneer American musicologist, left his books to the Library Company in 1896, and in 1904 it received from Charles G. Sower, a descendant of the country's first German printer, a family collection rich in Pennsylvania-German imprints.

With two buildings to operate, Lloyd P. Smith had at first divided his time between the Locust Street and Christian Street libraries. George Maurice Abbot, who had been hired as a boy to help in the old Library Hall, was soon sent down to supervise the Ridgway Branch. J. Bunford Samuel was taken on as a stack boy and messenger there. Smith's successors—James G. Barnwell from 1887 to 1907 and the patient Abbot from 1907 to 1929—emigrated as soon as they could to the more socially rewarding milieu of Locust Street. Few of the directors and few of the

members gave much thought to the dusty vastness of the gray Greek temple in which James and Phoebe Ann Rush were entombed and, it sometimes seemed, in which the books were entombed also. They were satisfied to have Samuel take over the curatorship of the Ridgway Branch.

Bunford Samuel was not a professional librarian nor a formally educated scholar, but he loved the books in his care. While others depended on catalog entries to know what books were on the shelves and where to find them, Samuel over the years built up a memory bank more efficient than the scattered arrangement and the separate catalogs. He was more like the European librarians of his day than his contemporaries of the American Library Association; he was primarily a defender of the books in his care. The curiosity-seeker did not find Samuel very helpful; the serious scholar received his serious attention. The survival almost intact of the old books in the Library Company is due, in measure, to Samuel's concern for half a century.

On the other hand, the main concern of the directors and the head librarian was seeing that the members were supplied with the most recent books for their leisure-time reading. After the Free Library of Philadelphia opened its building a block away on Locust Street in 1894, the Library Company was destined to drift, its members resigned to seeing it an institution of undistinguished gentility. It was recorded in 1895 that fewer persons had used the library and fewer books were taken out. "The library facilities of the city have become so much enlarged during the past few years," the directors reported in 1903, "that a library of the character of your institution cannot hold the same position that it formerly did, when libraries were fewer in number." As an afterthought they added that, however, as "a library for the student and the thoughtful reader" its position remained preeminent. This statement summarized the company's history for the first part of the twentieth century. In his brief history of the Library Company published in 1913, Abbot noted that the number of books in its collections was 237,677, divided equally between the two buildings, and that there were 909 members and "many subscribers." Regular purchases, chiefly of popular works of fiction and nonfiction, buttressed with a considerable number of solid biographies and monographs on American history, continued to increase the library's holdings.

In 1929 Austin K. Gray was appointed librarian. A gentle, cultured Englishman and literary historian, he attempted to rouse the library from its lethargy with lectures and exhibitions. He was not, however, able to prevent the Library Company from inching toward bankruptcy as the depression deepened. The real estate holdings of the Rush Estate, mostly in a deteriorating section of the city, melted away. Income from dues (\$8 a year) and from a small endowment failed by a wide margin to meet expenditures; capital was invaded to pay bills. The publication of a history of the Library Company, written and considerably romanticized by Gray, sparked a gallant fund-raising effort and membership campaign which managed to keep the institution afloat until the situation became too desperate for palliative measures.

In 1935, under the leadership of Owen Wister, then president of the Library Company, the directors urged that the Juniper and Locust Street building be given up and all the books concentrated in the Ridgway Library. They recommended "a

policy whereby the Library, from being a general circulating library of current and ephemeral books, becomes a Library dedicated to the care of and making additions to its remarkable collections of valuable books." If such a policy did not please the majority of the shareholders, it was inevitable that such a policy would prevail. Under the will of Arthur K. Lea in 1938 the Company received \$50,000 "as a means towards a more aggressive administration of its library, so that said library may occupy a more conspicuous part in the educational facilities of the city and perform a more useful service than it has done in the past."

A further thrust in the direction of change was given by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation to recatalog and reshelve the library so that its scholarly resources would be more available. Unfortunately, the program carried out with WPA (Works Progress Administration) help was not well conceived nor executed. The old printed catalogs, the paper slips of the nineteenth century, and current cards were consolidated into a single author card catalog. However, the entries were simply copied from the original entries; none was checked against a book on the shelf; the whole was never edited to provide uniformity or to correct errors. Furthermore, the shelf location was not placed on the main card but had to be found by reference to a second catalog arranged by serial numbers only. These cards went to the National Union Catalogue in Washington and are the only record there, inaccurate and incomplete as they are, of the Library Company's holdings. At the time no one looked upon the results of the Carnegie grant as anything but strengthening the status and stature of the Ridgway Branch and its research materials.

At the annual meeting on May 1, 1939 the members unanimously agreed that the directors be given authority to sell or lease the Locust Street property. A small circulating library was to be retained in the center of the city for the convenience of the members. During the following year all the books were moved to the basement of the Ridgway Library under the supervision of Barney Chesnick. He had been hired to assist Samuel at Broad and Christian Streets and succeeded him in charge of the old collections then being used by a comparatively few discerning and imaginative scholars. Chesnick was Samuel's spiritual successor as well; he matched his preceptor in concern for the books in his care and in his computer-like knowledge of their whereabouts. The labyrinthine arrangement of the shelves was made even more confusing by the expedients used to house the books from the uptown library. That building, empty, was torn down; the land was leased as a parking lot. The 2-century-old library was at the nadir of its fortunes.

Two studies—one by Robert H. Downs, then librarian of New York University, and the other by the Bibliographical Planning Committee of Philadelphia under Charles W. David—looked at the consolidated holdings of the library and its operations. They came to similar conclusions. The circulation of modern books to members and subscribers was an obsolete service; the Library Company should become a research library, preferably in association with one of the city's other institutions.

This required long-term planning. For the moment, the rent from the parking lot and income from trust funds were not sufficient to pay for all the library's regular expenses. This situation and Austin Gray's resignation as librarian impelled the di-

rectors in 1943 to make an arrangement with the Free Library of Philadelphia whereby that institution became the corporate librarian of the company, responsible for a fee for the administration of the library, and a branch of the Free Library was opened in the Ridgway Building. At about the same time the company's trust funds were reorganized and brilliantly reinvested by Moncure Biddle, who in concert with the treasurer, W. Logan Fox, began to build a solid financial base for the institution.

The resurgent feeling that "something should be done" had been repressed during the 1930s and 1940s because the financial difficulties of the Library Company had prevented any constructive change. During the war some of the most valuable treasures of the library had been placed in the custody of the Free Library, and informal thought was given to the possibility that the old institution might become the Free Library's rare-book collection. However, in 1952, the exigencies of the past having been relieved by an increasing flow of income from the parking garage which had been erected on the Locust Street ground, the directors found themselves in a position to plan for the future and do something about it. They sought the advice and guidance of a number of experts. First, Edwin Wolf 2nd, formerly with the rare-book firm of Rosenbach, was engaged to make a survey of the collections, to assess their scope, size, and importance, and to suggest means to improve their care and usefulness. Then, four eminent librarians—Lloyd A. Brown of the Peabody Institute, William A. Jackson of Harvard, Paul North Rice of the New York Public Library, and Clifford K. Shipton of the American Antiquarian Society—were invited to inspect the Library Company and consult with the directors about its future.

Unanimously the experts agreed that the Library Company's greatest strength lay in its rare books and manuscripts, and that its greatest contribution to society would be as a scholarly research library with special emphasis on American history and culture. There was no doubt that the rare books and manuscripts were far more numerous and more valuable than had been generally believed. The first and immediate step the consultants urged was a program of rehabilitation. The most valuable books should be taken from the scattered locations, recataloged, repaired and temporarily reshelfed in a room to be refitted and air-conditioned. Then the experts recommended that the Library Company reduce and refine its mass of late nineteenth- and twentieth-century books, keeping only those which would supplement as reference works the basic historical collections.

These steps were, however, considered preliminary to a decision to move out of the Ridgway Building. The structure, once considered fireproof, was judged to be a fire trap. The roof leaked and the basement was damp. Its location in the city was unfortunate. The consensus was that the Library Company should move to modern quarters in or adjacent to another compatible library as soon as possible. Meanwhile, it was recommended that the best be made of the physical facilities and work begun on rehabilitating the books and replacing the inadequate WPA catalog. In January 1953 Wolf was appointed curator to carry out the program of revitalization.

As the shelves began to be searched, the richness of the collection became apparent to a greater degree. While it was bibliographically known that the library

possessed American, and particularly Philadelphia and Pennsylvania, rarities, the quantity and quality of these had never been adequately judged. It had not been known how extensive were the holdings in the mathematical sciences, botany, and medicine, in architecture and the useful arts; how many of the volumes had provenances of distinction—scores of books from the libraries of Benjamin Franklin, William Byrd of Westover, Isaac Norris II, John Dickinson, and Benjamin Rush, and, surprisingly, others which had belonged to Ben Jonson, George Sandys, and Henry Vaughan—what unexpected, isolated treasures of English literature and history there were; and what a potential source of funds lay in the hundreds of duplicates. In the early years during which all pre-1700 books and eighteenth-century American imprints were scrutinized and recataloged on a priority basis, hardly a day went by when some exciting find did not surface: two copies of Thomas Jefferson's first published work with his manuscript corrections; books printed by the early Parisian printer, Antoine Verard; a history of Louisiana which Lewis and Clark took with them across the continent; almost all Isaac Newton's writings in their first printings.

By 1955, with income from the parking garage increasing, it was realized that the Library Company could stand on its own feet. In December of that year the arrangement with the Free Library was amicably terminated. Wolf was appointed librarian. As he wrote in his first annual report for the year 1955, the old library was a phoenix reborn. He shared the excitement of rediscovery and revitalization with an audience of bookmen—librarians, collectors, booksellers and, of course, members of the Library Company—through the reports written in a paradoxically light and scholarly essay form. When duplicates were first identified as such and sold, the directors agreed that all moneys received from book sales would be used solely for the purchase of rare books to strengthen the permanent research collections and for binding pamphlets. Wolf blended the announcement of significant acquisitions by purchase and by gift with news of the library's latest finds on its own shelves. Over the years the annual reports of the Library Company have been widely circulated at home and abroad and still remain the chief medium through which the institution makes itself and its books known. Further, two bibliographical works—catalogs of the Library Company's Wing items (English books, 1641–1700) and its song-sheets, slip ballads, and poetical broadsides, 1850–1870—were published to draw attention to specialized segments of the library's collection.

The primary recommendation of the experts, to move from the totally inadequate and unsuitable Ridgway Library, was not forgotten. Conversations and preliminary studies were made of the practicability and advantages of locating in the vicinity of the University of Pennsylvania, the American Philosophical Society which had just recreated for its own use the Library Company's eighteenth century building on Fifth Street, or the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Eminent rare-book librarians and historians were again turned to for advice. Of the eleven men consulted, ten favored a location next to the Historical Society; only one preferred another site. Consequently, at the annual meeting of the Library Company on May 2, 1960,

urged to do so by the president, Nicholas B. Wainwright, and the directors, the members voted overwhelmingly to authorize the directors to petition the Orphans' Court for permission to sell the Ridgway property and to erect a new library on Locust Street adjacent to the Historical Society.

The steps necessary to bring the plan to fruition were interlocking and complicated. Fortunately, at the critical time the City of Philadelphia made a satisfactory offer for the building and land which it proposed to use for recreation purposes. An elaborate, lengthy legal brief, justifying the sale and the move, was presented to the Orphans' Court which according to the Rush will had to approve all sales of real estate. After a full-dress hearing the Library Company was given permission to make the sale and also to use such other funds as were part of the Rush estate to build the new library. Three nineteenth-century brownstone houses—1314, 1316, and 1318 Locust Street—owned by and contiguous to the Historical Society were purchased and torn down. Plans for a modern eight-story building were drawn by the architectural firm of Carroll, Grisdale, and Van Alen.

The proceeds of a low-keyed building fund campaign, added to the liquidated assets of the Ridgway trust and a nest-egg of recent annual surpluses squirreled away by the treasurer, W. Logan Fox, produced the \$1,450,000 to pay for the new structure and its furnishings. Construction began in 1964. Meanwhile, in order to carry out another of the original recommendations concerning the future of the library and to avoid moving unwanted books, a sweep of the shelves was undertaken. With formal authorization from the directors and the membership as a whole, Wolf culled and disposed of such works printed after 1880 as were deemed not germane to the library's main collections. Perhaps as many as 100,000 volumes were removed and sold, the largest segment by far consisting of novels. One of the most unusual events in the process of relocation was the transfer of the remains of James and Phoebe Ann Rush from a crypt at Broad and Christian Streets to the front courtyard on Locust Street where they lie under the original gravestone.

With the library's holdings down to an estimated 375,000 volumes, the Library Company was ready to return to the center of the city. The new building was completed by the end of 1965. The difficult moving of the books was combined with a revamping of the shelving arrangement in order to gather together subject classes which the space problems in the old building had fragmented. With approximately two-thirds of the funds for the new library deriving from the Rush estate, it, like its predecessor, was called the Ridgway Library. The building was opened to the public in April 1966.

An agreement was reached with the neighboring Historical Society whereby its rare books are shelved and serviced in and by the Library Company and the latter's manuscripts shelved and serviced in and by the society. The two institutions share the exhibition room of the society for formal exhibitions of which several, complete with catalogs, have been held since 1966. The print collections of both are housed on the second floor of the Library Company where direct access for the staff is provided into the society's manuscript room. The reading room and staff offices, as well as the Rush Room for meetings and the Logan Room for displaying the

library's fine furniture, are on the first floor, a bindery on the third, stacks accessible only to the staff by key on five floors, and machinery on the top level. The whole building is air-conditioned and humidity controlled.

The small circulating library of modern books for members was moved from rented rooms in an office building into the new Ridgway Library. In recent years, by discontinuing nonmembership subscriptions, mailing service, and monthly printed accession lists, this phase of the Library Company's operations has been drastically curtailed. Membership is now freely offered to any persons interested in supporting the historical and scholarly aspects of the library. A share costs \$20; annual dues are still \$8. There are approximately 450 members. The Library Company has been declared a publicly supported charity under the tax law of 1969 by the Internal Revenue Service. Its place as a scholarly research library of national significance seems assured.

EDWIN WOLF 2ND

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

Introduction

The Library of Congress in Washington, D.C., part of the legislative branch of the federal establishment, serves as the national library of the United States as well as the library of the nation's legislature. Probably the world's largest library, its holdings numbered on June 30, 1974 nearly 74 million items: 16,761,198 books and pamphlets; 106,027 bound volumes of newspapers; and 275,754 reels of newspapers on microfilm; 31,498,669 pieces of manuscript; 3,531,304 maps; 3,415,128 volumes and pieces of music as well as 428,784 recorded discs, tapes, and wires; 174,610 prints and drawings; 8,450,287 photographic negatives, prints, and slides; 202,552 reels of motion pictures; 42,452 posters; 1,294,811 technical reports in hard copy; and thousands of broadsides, microfiches, micro-opaques, and microfilm. It spent in 1974 a total of \$91,960,379, \$84,460,898 in appropriated funds and \$4,504,867 in gift and trust funds, at the same time returning to the U.S. Treasury income from the sale of printed cards and technical publications of \$7,558,248 and from copyright fees \$2,226,540. The staff, on June 30, 1973, numbered 4,375.

This great institution, which in 1975 marks the 175th anniversary of its founding, can trace its beginnings to an even earlier time. Records of the Continental Congress, meeting in Philadelphia in September 1774, show that that legislative body gratefully accepted an offer of the use of the books belonging to the Library Company of Philadelphia. Shortly after the first Congress of the United States convened in New

York City in 1789, Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts proposed "that a committee be appointed to report a catalogue of books necessary for the use of Congress, with an estimate of the expense, and the best mode of procuring them." Almost a year later, the committee—to which Mr. Gerry had been appointed—made its report, but no action was taken. That may have been so because the New York Society Library, housed in Federal Hall, extended "the full privileges of the Society," which owned about 4,000 volumes, to the members of the National Legislature.

When the third session of the First Congress met in Philadelphia in 1791, members were again given by the Library Company ". . . free use of the books in the Library in as full and ample manner as if they were members of the company." While their most pressing needs were thus met, those first legislators found from time to time that they needed for immediate reference certain works that they therefore ordered purchased: Blackstone's *Commentaries* and Vattel's *Law of Nature and Nations* in 1794, later Hume's *History of England*, Morse's *American Geography*, Chalmer's *Collection of Treaties*, even the poems of Robert Burns. This experience probably influenced the decision in 1800, when Congress faced removal to the permanent (but empty) seat of government in the new federal city on the Potomac, to include a provision for books in the act making provision "for the removal and accommodation of the Government of the United States," approved on April 24. Although the word "library" did not appear in this act, Section 5 provided

. . . That for the purchase of such books as may be necessary for the use of Congress at the said city of Washington, and for fitting up a suitable apartment for containing them, and for placing them therein the sum of five thousand dollars shall be, and hereby is appropriated; and that the said purchase shall be made by the Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House of Representatives, pursuant to such directions as shall be given, and such catalogue as shall be furnished, by a joint committee of both Houses of Congress to be appointed for that purpose; and that the said books shall be placed in one suitable apartment in the capitol in the said city, for the use of both Houses of Congress and the Members thereof, according to such regulations as the Committee aforesaid devise and establish.

The Joint Committee appointed shortly after President Adams signed this act drew up a list of wanted titles and placed an order in June 1800 with a London firm of booksellers, Cadell and Davies. On December 11 of the same year those gentlemen submitted their invoice and bill of lading, which showed 152 works in 740 volumes, shipped in eleven hair trunks and a special case of maps. These, the first books in the Library of Congress, were ancient and modern histories, biographies, geographies, parliamentary debates, collections of treaties, economic studies like Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, and classic writings on international law.

To provide for the library's organization and use, the next Congress enacted the first charter of governance, "An Act concerning the library for the use of both Houses of Congress . . . , Approved January 26, 1802." It provided that the books

recently arrived from England and the books and libraries heretofore kept separately by each House should be placed in the Capitol; that the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House should establish regulations and restrictions in relation to the library, that the librarian should be appointed by the President of the United States "solely," and that he should give bond before entering upon his office sufficient for the safekeeping of the books, maps, and furniture confided to his care, that books could be taken out of the library only by the President, Vice President, and members of the Senate and the House of Representatives—but that no one could remove any maps, that the librarian should be paid \$2 a day for every day of necessary attendance, and that moneys appropriated for the increase of the collection "should be laid out under the direction of a joint committee, to consist of three members of the Senate, and three members of the House of Representatives." On January 29, President Thomas Jefferson appointed John James Beckley,* clerk of the House of Representatives, to the post of librarian of Congress; Beckley held both posts until his death in 1807.

In August 1814, British troops captured Washington and burned most of the government buildings, including the Capitol. Consumed in the fire were almost all of the 3,000 books that constituted the Library of Congress. President Jefferson, then living in retirement at Monticello, offered his private library, more than 6,000 volumes which he had collected over half a century, as a replacement and after considerable debate the Congress approved the purchase in January 1815. Of his library Jefferson said, "I do not know that it contains any branch of science which Congress would wish to exclude from their collection; there is, in fact, no subject to which a Member of Congress may not have occasion to refer." A prophetic statement, it described not only Jefferson's library but foretold the development from this nucleus of a great national collection universal in scope.

The library was to suffer two more fires, one in 1825 and another on December 24, 1851, when flames from a faulty flue leading from a floor below (no fires or candles were allowed in the library itself) started a conflagration that destroyed almost 35,000 volumes, including half the Jefferson library. It was after this latter

* Since its founding the Library of Congress has had just eleven librarians:

John James Beckley, 1802–1807, appointed by Thomas Jefferson.

Patrick Magruder, 1807–1815, appointed by Thomas Jefferson.

George Watterston, 1815–1829, appointed by James Madison.

John Silva Meehan, 1829–1861, appointed by Andrew Jackson.

John G. Stephenson, 1861–1864, appointed by Abraham Lincoln.

Ainsworth Rand Spofford, 1864–1897, appointed by Abraham Lincoln.

John Russell Young, 1897–1899, appointed by William McKinley.

Herbert Putnam, 1899–1939, appointed by William McKinley;

Librarian of Congress Emeritus, by Act of Congress. 1939–1955.

Archibald MacLeish, 1939–1944, appointed by Franklin D. Roosevelt.

Luther Harris Evans, 1945–1953, appointed by Harry S. Truman.

L. Quincy Mumford, 1954–1974, appointed by Dwight D. Eisenhower.

fire that an "Iron Room" was constructed in a space west of the Rotunda in the Capitol Building, which was to house the Library of Congress until 1897.

The passage of the Act of July 20, 1840, the first of several by which the Library of Congress was authorized to exchange duplicate documents and books for their equivalents in foreign countries, made the library the depository for the documents of foreign governments. Without the necessary machinery for carrying it out, the first law was ineffective but later enactments were successful. Increase in the collections was also implied in the legislation of 1846 which provided for the deposit of one copy of every article registered for copyright in the Library of Congress. This Act of August 10, 1846 was "the first attempt to recognize by law the importance of building up at the seat of Government a complete representation of American literature," but an unsuccessful one; for without means of enforcing compliance, it was ignored by many publishers of the kind of literature especially necessary for such representation.

Growth was assured, however, by the events of the latter half of the nineteenth century. Ainsworth Rand Spofford, assistant librarian of Congress, 1861–1864, had been in charge of the library for most of the period, while Stephenson, a surgeon, was at war. Appointed librarian by Lincoln in 1864, Spofford served until 1897, when he voluntarily gave place to his successor, remaining at the library as chief assistant librarian until his death in 1908. For 47 years he pursued the goal of a truly national library and developed the collections accordingly; when the results of his efforts overflowed the library's quarters in the Capitol, he worked tirelessly for a library building.

The amendment, passed March 3, 1865, to existing copyright legislation provided "that a printed copy of every book, pamphlet, map, chart, musical composition, print, engraving, or photograph, for which copyright shall be secured under said acts, shall be transmitted free of postage . . . to the library of congress at Washington for the use of said Library." The increase in the number of books alone in the next 5 years was startling; in 1865 the library contained 82,000 volumes and in 1870, 237,000. Future growth was assured, however, by the copyright legislation of 1870, which placed the responsibility for registration and records of copyright with the librarian of Congress himself and provided that two copies of every article registered must be deposited in the library. One section of the 1870 law transferred to the library copyright deposits accumulated by the Department of the Interior; deposited over a period of 80 years with the district courts, these amounted to only about 23,000 books. Deposits in the Library of Congress under the new system doubled in 1870 over the year before and doubled again in 1871.

Another event, which was to ensure future as well as immediate growth, took place in 1866 when the library of the Smithsonian Institution was transferred to the Library of Congress. The act of Congress which authorized the transfer of this scientific library, probably about 40,000 volumes of journals and transactions of learned societies, also recognized two noteworthy developments. It recognized the interest of the general public in the Library of Congress by stating that the "Smithsonian Institution shall have the use [of the Smithsonian Deposit] in like

manner as it is now used, and the public shall have access thereto for purposes of consultation." And it contained the seeds of "government loan" in the stipulation that "the Smithsonian Institution, through its secretary, shall have the use of the library of Congress, subject to the same regulations as Senators and Representatives." As significant as the volumes acquired in 1866, however, was the prospect of continuing additions from the system of exchanges established by Joseph Henry, the first secretary of the Smithsonian. Learned and scientific exchanges for the Smithsonian publications came to the library now from all parts of the world; the Smithsonian Deposit in the Library of Congress today numbers in the millions. As heir to a successful system of private exchanges, Spofford tried to institute a system of official exchanges of government documents; Congress provided in 1867 that copies of government publications, in addition to the congressional documents already provided, be exchanged with other governments through the Smithsonian and that the official publications from abroad be deposited in the Library of Congress. Additional legislation and much urging by the librarian of Congress were needed before a recalcitrant public printer made extra copies of federal documents available for this purpose, but by the turn of the century the system was working—although returns were erratic.

Deposits and exchanges were not the only means of increasing the collections in the nineteenth century. Peter Force, a printer, editor, and one-time mayor of Washington, offered for sale his private collection of books and other materials relating to America for the sum of \$100,000. This collection, which represented his whole estate, included 22,529 books; 1,000 volumes of bound newspapers; 40,000 pamphlets, atlases, and over a thousand maps, many of them manuscript; 429 volumes of manuscripts, many of them from the period of the Revolution; and transcripts Force had assembled for publication in his series *American Archives*. At the urging of Spofford and with the recommendation of the Joint Committee on the Library, Congress authorized their purchase in 1867. Historical manuscripts were purchased from other sources, some like the Rochambeau in 1882 expressly "to be preserved in the Library of Congress"; others, like the papers of Washington, Madison, Franklin, and other founding fathers, to be kept in the Department of State but eventually to be transferred to the Library of Congress.

In 1882 Joseph Meredith Toner, a Washington physician, offered his library, consisting chiefly of American medical biography and works on the life and writings of George Washington, to "the United States of America, to be placed in the National Library of the United States at the city of Washington, under the management and control of the Librarian of Congress." At the recommendation of the joint committee (which noted significantly "that an example so laudable may be productive of many similar literary and scientific benefactions in the future"), Congress accepted the gift and directed the librarian to receive it. In 1898, when John Russell Young was librarian, Congress accepted one of these hoped-for benefactions, a collection of engravings collected by Gardiner Greene Hubbard together with his art books, all offered by his widow. Mrs. Hubbard told the librarian that she would provide in her will for a fund, the income of which was to be used in

the purchase of additional engravings; this bequest, left in 1909, was accepted by Congress 3 years later in terms that laid the groundwork for the Library of Congress Trust Fund Board.

In 1871 Ainsworth Rand Spofford, having succeeded in establishing the national character of the collections, began the long struggle to obtain suitable quarters for them. He first suggested the extension of the west front of the Capitol, but another year of the operation of the copyright law indicated that such an extension would take care of only 20 years' growth. In his annual report for 1872 he discarded the alternative of an extension of the east front of the Capitol, which would provide even less room for growth, and dismissed a suggestion that a new capitol be built elsewhere, leaving the existing building to the uses of the library and the courts. It was obvious that the library needed its own separate building, and the Library Committee made provision in the 1873 appropriation bill for a plan to be selected by competition. It was 1887 before agreement could be reached on the site, the style, the cost, and the size, and excavation begun. Ten years passed before the building, a domed building in Italian Renaissance style profusely decorated with marble, mosaics, sculpture, and paint by some fifty artists, was opened to an admiring public.

It was at this point in the library's history that Congress reexamined its relationship to the library in its new setting. In 1896 a concurrent resolution directed the Joint Committee on the Library "to sit in Washington during the recess of Congress, for the purpose of inquiring into the condition of the Library of Congress, and to report upon the same at the next session of Congress, with such recommendations as may be deemed advisable; also to report a plan for the organization, custody, and management of the new Library building and the Library of Congress." The joint committee heard in 3 weeks of hearings the testimony of Spofford and other distinguished librarians like Melvil Dewey, Herbert Putnam, and George H. Baker and recommendations about classification, central cataloging, reference functions, interlibrary loans, etc. The joint committee did not report, however, and the appropriation bill for 1898, introduced in the House on December 15, 1896, passed by both houses and sent to conference on January 20, 1897, agreed to February 15 and 17, respectively, and signed by President Cleveland on February 19, became the modern charter of governance of the Library of Congress. Based in part on the hearings before the joint committee, the law provided that the librarian of Congress, to be appointed by the president, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, should make rules and regulations for the government of the Library of Congress and should make an annual report to the Congress. It also stated that staff appointments should be made by the librarian "solely with reference to their fitness for their particular duties," a provision that is the basis for the library's merit system of personnel administration. The Joint Committee on the Library, a standing committee of the Congress since 1843, had been involved in the day-to-day operations of the "old" library in the Capitol; it would remain responsible for congressional oversight but concerned more with policy matters than routine operations. Today the committee's members are drawn from the Committee on House Administration

and the Senate Committee on Rules and Administration, the office of chairman going alternately to a member from the Senate and the House.

The appropriations act of 1897 also increased the staff from 43 to 108 instead of the 187 Spofford had requested, created positions (and specified the emoluments thereof) of chief assistant librarian, register of copyrights, and others down to attendants in the cloakrooms, who were each to be paid \$720 annually, and two watchmen the same. The transfer of the collections and the supervision of this enlarged staff became the responsibility of John Russell Young, who became the seventh librarian of Congress on July 1, 1897. He was to serve little more than a year—he died in January 1899—but in that time he planned and executed the cleaning, removal, and installation of the collections along lines that began to resemble the organization of the library today; recruited a professional staff (and resisted political pressures for appointments); instituted service to the blind; and extended the hours of service in the reading rooms for the convenience of those citizens of Washington who were employed during the day.

If Young's predecessor had been the great collector, his successor was the great organizer. Herbert Putnam, not quite 38 years old when he was appointed by President McKinley in March 1899, had been librarian of the Minneapolis Athenaeum, the first city librarian of Minneapolis, a member of the bars of Minnesota and Massachusetts, and, since 1895, librarian of the Boston Public Library. He had given his views in person and in writing to the joint committee in 1896; he knew what the national library should be and how it should serve the Congress, the federal establishment, other libraries, and scholarship at large. For the next 40 years he put his knowledge to work, developing a truly national library, strong not only in collections but in services. He first decided that the library needed a shelf list, a classification scheme, and a public catalog, and he got from Congress the money to create them. He established a system for the distribution of the library's printed cards and a system of interlibrary loans. He acquired the historical archives of the Department of State and many other collections of manuscripts, as well as reproductions of manuscripts in foreign archives relating to American history with the help of a Rockefeller Fund. He established a national program of service to the blind and a separate organization within the library for direct service to the Congress. He considered one of his greatest accomplishments the 1925 legislation that created the Library of Congress Trust Fund Board with authority "to accept, receive, hold, and administer such gifts, bequests, or devises of property for the benefit of, or in connection with, the Library, its collections, or its services." And he led the library, with the Coolidge Foundation and the other endowments this legislation made possible, to a new role as active participant in the cultural and artistic life of the nation.

Expanding collections and increased services necessitated the installation of two new stack areas, in 1909 and 1927, in courtyards of the library building. An auditorium donated by Elizabeth Sprague Coolidge for the performance of chamber music partially filled another court in 1925, and added to that in 1937 was a pavilion given by Gertrude Clarke Whittall to house the Stradivarius instruments she gave to

the library. Specially designed stacks with temperature and humidity control and a reading room for the rare book collection were contained in an extension of the east face of the building in 1934. And on April 5, 1939, the fortieth anniversary of his swearing-in, Putnam officially opened the second building, the Library's Annex. As important as the stone monuments he left behind, however, is the place he made for the library in the intellectual life of the nation. In part made by the staff he had assembled, scholars and specialists of exceptional ability, the library's place was also a mark of the force of his character and influence. The Librarian's Round Table, at which members of the library staff lunched with eminent personages, was known both here and abroad, and few people of importance paused in Washington without accepting an invitation to attend. The final report on the legislation which made him Librarian Emeritus said, "He has built the world's outstanding research library—the Congressional Library, which serves and is served by the world and which service shall be greatly extended."

The response of the library profession to the appointment by President Franklin D. Roosevelt of Archibald MacLeish to succeed Herbert Putnam was one of outrage. He was a distinguished poet, an editor, a scholar, but he was not a librarian; the president of the American Library Association sent the president a letter with 1,400 signatures which stated, "We think that the confirmation of Mr. Archibald MacLeish as librarian of Congress would be a calamity." MacLeish, who took office in October 1939, 1 month after Germany had invaded Poland, became such an eloquent and effective spokesman for libraries and learning that in 1942, when he spoke to the annual conference of the American Library Association, another president of ALA introduced him to a cheering audience as the best friend of American libraries. While librarian, MacLeish served first as director of the Office of Facts and Figures and later as assistant director of the Office of War Information, and the library was caught up in public affairs as it had never been before. The collections were heavily used, especially maps, photographs, Orientalia, Slavica, and Hispanica; Congress and other government agencies sought bibliographic and research service rapidly and often; and the library had to safeguard its treasures, step up its acquisitions, and cope with wartime shortages of manpower and material.

At the same time the library for almost the whole of the war period and MacLeish's tenure was undergoing a reorganization put in motion by the librarian and accomplished with the aid of numerous specialists and advisory committees. Fiscal operations were overhauled first; then other functions, grouped with others of a similar nature, were put into a departmental structure by function very like that in existence today. Much of the library's central administration was conducted through the Librarian's Conference, a meeting of department heads and principal administrative officers. On leaving—to become assistant secretary of state—MacLeish wrote that he hoped the reorganization "has provided a sensible, orderly, and manageable structure, strong enough to support the great future of which the Library is so manifestly capable. . . ."

Luther H. Evans, appointed by MacLeish to head the Legislative Reference Service and then named chief assistant librarian, served as acting librarian of Con-

gress until June 30, 1945, when he took the oath of office as librarian of Congress. A political scientist by training, Evans was an indefatigable speaker, traveler, and worker on behalf of the national library. He headed the institution at a time when its own postwar needs and the needs of libraries abroad matched his own special interest in interlibrary cooperation and international affairs. Under his aegis, the library cooperated with the Department of State, the Economic Cooperation Administration, and other government agencies as well as with private organizations like CARE in order to replenish war-devastated libraries abroad and reopen normal channels of book distribution. The library's exchange programs were strengthened and new agreements were made; technical assistance was given other libraries, especially in Latin America. He was interested also in interlibrary cooperation in this country and formalized the library's contacts with certain scholarly groups, such as the Committee on Documentary Reproduction of the American Historical Association and the Joint Committee on Slavic Studies of the American Council of Learned Societies. Determined to make the library "a dynamic organism of service to Government," Evans was responsible for a number of new bibliographic and reference services and for helping gain recognition, in the Legislative Reorganization Act of 1946, of the Legislative Reference Service as a major research arm of the Congress. While he was librarian, many important gifts came to the library: the 500-year-old manuscript Giant Bible of Mainz, a gift from Lessing J. Rosenwald; the Alfred Whital Stern Collection of Lincolniana; Jean Hersholt's collection of manuscripts, letters, and editions of Hans Christian Andersen; Mary Pickford's early motion-picture films; musical manuscripts of George Gershwin, Deems Taylor, and John Philip Sousa; and the papers of the Wright brothers, Gutzon Borglum, Owen Wister, and Cordell Hull. Gifts increased during his administration from 62,000 in 1945 to 332,000 in 1953.

Affiliated with the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization since 1945, when he attended a meeting in London as advisor to the American delegation, he became a member of the National Commission for UNESCO and served, in the capacity of advisor or delegate, as a member of the U.S. Delegation to all the annual meetings. He resigned on June 30, 1953 to become director general of UNESCO.

L. Quincy Mumford, a native of North Carolina, was appointed by President Eisenhower and confirmed by the Senate in 1954; he took the oath of office on September 1 of the same year. Director of the Cleveland Public Library at the time of his appointment, he was no stranger to the Library of Congress, having come to the library in 1940 on leave from the New York Public Library, at the request of Archibald MacLeish, to organize the Processing Department and then to serve a year as its director. Mumford is a librarian, with a graduate degree in library science from Columbia University, and his appointment was a popular one; his confirmation by the Senate was hailed by *Publishers Weekly* in an article headlined "Mumford Will Carry On The Great L. C. Tradition."

Mumford has been librarian during a period of explosive growth of libraries, and the Library of Congress, the largest library, is one of the most severely affected. The

collections have grown from 33 million to 72 million pieces in 20 years; the staff has doubled; and appropriations have increased from \$9,459,293 to \$87,124,750. These years have also seen the application of new technology to library operations, a kind of problem solving that creates problems unique to this era. His whole administration is concerned with, first, control of material and then the space to store it. The librarian in his *Annual Report* for 1971 quoted the Red Queen, "It takes all the running you can do, to keep in the same place. If you want to get somewhere else, you must run at least twice as fast as that." Running more than twice as fast, L. Quincy Mumford manages the library described in the following pages. To this generation of Library of Congress staff members his accomplishments seem the largest and most innovative in the library's history; he, on the other hand, gives credit for these accomplishments to the deputy librarian, the assistant librarian of Congress, an outstanding group of department directors, and a talented and hardworking staff.

The Administrative Department

During the library's 174-year history, the myriad tasks of housekeeping, finances, maintenance, personnel, and administration have been performed in a variety of ways by different offices or under different supervision. The Administrative Department, as it is known today, is a relatively new development in this long history, and it was, in all probability, the child of necessity.

In the earlier years of this century, following the move into new quarters and the library's rapid growth, the administrative tasks were apparently handled in whatever fashion seemed most feasible at the time. For many years, for example, the superintendent of the library building and grounds filed a separate annual report in which he spelled out his own responsibilities for the disbursement of funds to the Botanic Garden. Later, because of the invaluable experience of one individual, the offices of administrative assistant and disbursing officer were combined for many years. Separate offices were created to handle everything from binding to plumbing, and there was little cohesion among the various units handling administrative tasks. In 1940, just before the consolidation of the business and financial functions under one department, an arrearage of 2,000 bills totaling \$70,000 had accumulated in the library's Division of Accessions.

The present-day Administrative Department has also grown in scope and responsibilities since it first came into being as a separate organizational unit on July 1, 1940. Once confined to duties in the areas of personnel, financial management, and housekeeping, it now oversees the library's computer operations, the preservation offices (including the complex technical testing laboratories), the Photoduplication Service, and planning offices for the library's new James Madison Memorial Building. Its increased responsibility was foretold in the *Annual Report* for 1940 in which Librarian Archibald MacLeish described the new department as one he hoped would not play simply a passive role, as its name might imply, but

a "vigorous and active" part in the library's operations. There is no question that his intention has become a reality.

The first Administrative Department, part of the general library reorganization undertaken by MacLeish, included the Accounts Office, Disbursing Office, Mail and Delivery Service, Office of the Secretary, Office of the Superintendent of Library Buildings and Grounds (including the Guard Force), Personnel Office, and Supply Office. The Office of the Chief Clerk was discontinued, and the work of the old Binding Division was absorbed into the Supply Office. The functions of the procurement and distribution of library publications that had been handled by the Division of Accessions were also taken over by the Administrative Department. As had been true earlier, funds were appropriated to the Architect of the Capitol for the mechanical and structural maintenance of the library buildings by the superintendent of buildings and grounds.

On July 1, 1943, the Administrative Department was abolished and its component offices, along with a new Tabulating Office, were placed under the supervision of the chief assistant librarian. By 1946, however, the responsibilities had grown too great, and in the *Annual Report* for that year it was recorded that "it has now been determined that the Chief Assistant Librarian should be the principal staff and planning officer of the Library. . . . He will not function as the Library's executive officer, as in the past." Thus, on February 7, 1946, a Department of Administrative Services (which continued to be known as the Administrative Department) was created and a department director appointed. According to General Order 1275, the department was now composed of the Accounts Office, Disbursing Office, Personnel Office, Photoduplication Service, Secretary's Office, Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds, Supply Office, and Tabulating Office.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENT TODAY

Some 30 years later, the work of the department is divided into units headed by three assistant directors—for management services, for personnel, and for preservation—and of three separate units attached to the Office of the Director: the Photoduplication Service and the Building Planning and Information Systems Offices. The work of the Photoduplication Service and the Building Planning Office and of the various preservation units will be taken up separately.

The Buildings and Financial Management Offices and Central Services and Procurement and Supply Divisions make up the Office of the Assistant Director for Management Services. The Central Services Division is an outgrowth of the former Office of the Secretary, and includes the Library's Composing, Duplicating, and Publications Distribution Units. The division also maintains the files of the library's official records. The Buildings Management Office includes the library's Special Police Force.

The Office of the Assistant Director for Personnel supervises various employment offices and programs, including health services and hiring and training activities. The library was one of the first federal agencies to establish a Fair Employment

Practices Program—in 1962—and in 1972, at the request of the librarian of Congress, the program, retitled the Equal Opportunity Office, was brought under the provisions of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972. An Affirmative Action Program, provided for in that legislation, has opened up new career possibilities for employees previously denied professional status because of educational deficiencies. A most recent development, the result of Executive Order 11491 (Labor-Management Relations in the Federal Service), is the planning for a formalized program of labor-management relations in the Library of Congress.

In the Office of the Assistant Director for Preservation, the Binding, Collections Maintenance, and Preservation Microfilming Offices are concerned with many of the library's more routine and continuing measures designed to protect the collections, or in the case of irreparable damage, to preserve them by filming. The Preservation Research and Testing and the Restoration Offices have been engaged in the special struggle to protect paper and bindings against the erosion of time and to salvage materials damaged in flood, fire, or other disaster.

A last unit concerned with duties one normally associates with an administrative department is the library's Information Systems Office, which has developed and produced over 740 computer programs to perform reference, bibliographic, copyright, and personnel tasks. In addition to the involvement of the office in the work of the MARC program (described elsewhere), the tasks of the Information Systems Office have included such various products as a reference search for children's literature in translation, a computerized *Digest of Public General Bills and Resolutions* for Congress, payroll preparation, the generation of copyright catalog cards for sound recordings, and a pilot book paging system that communicates book request data between reading room issue desks and, so far, a deck area housing one part of the collections.

THE JAMES MADISON MEMORIAL BUILDING

With the reestablishment of the Office of the Coordinator of Building Planning in 1970, the library's long-awaited plans for the occupation of a third building on Capitol Hill found a place in the organizational chart of the Administrative Department. The preliminary plans for the building had been approved in 1967 by the Joint Committee on the Library and by the various congressional commissions named by the 1965 authorization act as responsible for directing the building's planning and construction. In the meantime, the Madison Memorial Commission had approved plans for the James Madison Memorial Exhibition Hall.

With the approval of \$2.8 million in fiscal 1970 for the preparation of final plans and specifications for the Library of Congress James Madison Memorial Building and the approval in fiscal 1971 of \$15,610,000 for excavation and foundation work and for ordering exterior masonry, the new building moved closer to becoming a reality. In 1972, \$71,090,000 was appropriated for the completion of the Madison Building.

After more than 12 years of planning, construction work on the third building got underway on May 1, 1971, and during fiscal 1971 the library's Building Planning

Office prepared eighty drawings and submitted them to the Architect of the Capitol and to the associate architects for incorporation in the final working drawings and specifications. These drawings reflected building requirements not previously defined, changes in organization, and adjustments necessary to provide additional space for the Congressional Research Service, which was being expanded as a result of the Legislative Reorganization Act of 1970.

Work continued through 1972 on Phase I of the construction and was completed in January of the following year. Phase I work included the excavation of the site, and pouring the concrete mat and exterior concrete foundation walls up to grade level. The contract for Phase II work on the building—for the quarrying and delivery of the marble and granite for the exterior of the building—was awarded in December 1971.

The original Phase III of the construction of the building—the superstructure and the interior work—was subdivided into two stages during 1972. The revised third phase, let to bid in 1972, included the superstructure, consisting of the structural frame, exterior closure, connecting tunnels, exterior utilities, and peripheral exterior finishing. By the end of fiscal 1974 the concrete and steel superstructure called for in this phase was virtually complete, the marble facing on the building was in place up to the third-story level, and the marble columns nearly to that level; pouring the concrete for the tunnel connecting the new building with the present Main Building was largely finished by June and work had just begun on the tunnel connecting the Madison Building and the Cannon House Office Building.

Phase IV includes the mechanical, electrical, plumbing, conveyor, elevator, and related work, as well as the interior architectural work. More than 900 preliminary drawings for the construction of Phases II, III, and IV were received for review in fiscal 1972. Although most of the planning for Phase IV is now complete, it is not expected that the contract for this work can be awarded before late in the spring of 1975.

A 1970 policy decision by the library administration assigned responsibility for all interior design work to the Building Planning Office. This task, in addition to the original assignment of responsibility for coordination of the basic architectural requirements of the building with the Office of the Architect of the Capitol and the associate architects necessitated an increase in the staff to handle the selection of furnishings, development of specialized work stations, color schemes, wall treatments, and the like.

In its work of coordinating architectural matters, the Building Planning Office has been deeply involved in work on the lighting, heating, ventilation, and air-conditioning systems, zoning for light switching and controls, interior finishes and hardware schedules, fire protection, security monitoring and surveillance, audiovisual, and clock systems. Drawings were revised frequently to reflect changes in partitions and space assignments and to adjust to a number of structural changes made by the associate architects during refinement of the final plans.

Because of the long lead times required for their design, fabrication, and installation, both the compact and conventional bookstacks received the early attention of the Building Planning Office. Contracts for this equipment are expected to be

awarded in the late spring of 1975, although it is possible that delays in the building will make it advisable to delay such award until the completion date of the building has become more definite.

By the beginning of 1973, a test area at the library's Pickett Street Annex, consisting of four 25 × 25 foot bays, had been constructed, each bay with columns and ceiling heights dimensioned to simulate the physical conditions within typical bays of the Madison Building. This area is being used to test lighting, partitioning, carpeting, and furnishings. Two 24-foot long double-faced ranges of compact shelving were also installed and operated under test conditions at the Pickett Street Annex during fiscal 1973. This testing was largely completed by the beginning of 1974. Because of the delay in the completion of Phase IV drawings and specifications, it now appears that the building will not be ready for occupancy before early in calendar 1977, or possibly later. The completion of the James Madison Memorial Building will allow the library to bring back to Capitol Hill various units forced because of overcrowded conditions to move to other locations throughout the metropolitan Washington area.

THE PRESERVATION OF LIBRARY MATERIALS

The recognition of the need for greater emphasis on the preservation of the library's collections had been growing over the years, but did not take a significant step toward a solution until May 1967 when the Office of Collections Maintenance and Preservation was officially designated the Preservation Office, with a concurrent change in its stated mission. The new organization recognized the importance of a carefully controlled and scientifically designed program for the restoration of all library materials—from rare books to motion pictures—as well as the need for investigation of many unsolved problems of restoration. It also recognized the need for the development of a national preservation program centered in the library and the determination of the policies, management needs, and technical requirements of such a program. The library's assistant director (of the Administrative Department) for preservation heads an organization of five units: the Binding, Collections Maintenance, Preservation Microfilming, Preservation Research, and Restoration Offices.

Library materials can be preserved in their original forms by binding and re-binding, or by a variety of restoration techniques. The intellectual content can be preserved by conversion to microform. Deteriorating nitrate motion picture film can be converted to safety base (acetate) motion picture film, and sound recordings in disc form can be converted to the more permanent magnetic tape.

To make possible a broader and more scientific approach to restoration problems and to afford the library an opportunity to exercise more direct quality control, the Restoration Shop was transferred from the Government Printing Office to the library on July 1, 1968. As a result, the library was able to upgrade several restoration procedures, to initiate a number of new, sophisticated techniques, and to add staff with specialized training. A small testing laboratory was equipped and routine testing on a variety of materials was also initiated in 1968.

Fiscal year 1970 was the third in what was projected as a 5-year plan to reach an effective operating level of preservation work in the library. Of major significance in that year was the approval of a \$70,000 grant by the Council on Library Resources for the purchase of initial equipment for the proposed research laboratory. That same year also saw the creation of a restoration workshop devoted exclusively to the preservation of maps, atlases, and globes, located adjacent to the library's Geography and Map Division in Alexandria, Virginia. The general restoration workshops were moved to new and larger quarters in the Annex Building (on Capitol Hill), and plans got underway for the modernization of restoration equipment and facilities.

The remodeling of the restoration and preservation workshops and the appointment of a restoration officer and a research officer were accomplished in fiscal 1971. In an effort to attack binding and preservation problems on a long-range basis, the binding officer initiated a volume-by-volume examination of the library's collections, and during the course of the year flagged more than 75,000 volumes for restoration, rebinding, or microfilming. The year was also marked by a continuation of restoration work on rare and irreplaceable items.

The initiation of the research program in 1972 by the Preservation Research and Testing Office represented the culmination of 5 years of effort and planning. Noteworthy, too, was a new approach to the solution of the library's problems—now known as "phased preservation"—a new program to allow the preservation or restoration of different classes of materials in steps designed to stabilize the material involved, thus holding it at the present stage of deterioration while new techniques are developed. The Research Laboratory initiated its program with projects in the deacidification of paper, stain identification and removal, graft polymerization of cellulose, and a number of other programs all designed to solve problems related to the deterioration, preservation, and restoration of library materials.

By the end of fiscal 1973 the office had made advances in certain problem areas, most significant of which was the search for a method for the gaseous deacidification of books. The testing and evaluation of deacidification processes—an evaluation much needed by conservators—included efforts to develop a process which will not only deacidify but also restore lost strength to brittle sheets; the latter project met with some success. Another major undertaking of the office during 1973 was an investigation into methods of salvaging materials damaged by floods, fires, and other catastrophes. This work will eventually result in a major report on the salvage of water-damaged materials. The Restoration Office, too, played a major role in helping libraries salvage materials damaged in the floods caused by Hurricane Agnes and in the fire damage suffered by the Temple University Law Library. More than 2,000 copies of the preliminary pamphlet on salvaging flood- or water-damaged library materials were distributed, and a revised version of the pamphlet will be published by the library.

The most unusual event involving the Preservation Office during recent years was the disastrous fire in the Military Personnel Records Center outside St. Louis,

Missouri, on July 12, 1973. Within hours after the fire started the Archivist of the United States had requested the assistance of the library's Preservation Office. Two library staff members were in St. Louis the next day and spent 2 weeks assisting and advising in the salvage operation. Recovery of these records was successfully carried out as a result of collaboration between the Library of Congress staff and the technical experts of the McDonnell Douglas Aircraft Corp., which made available a large vacuum drying chamber formerly used in the space program.

One of the most fundamental and complex tasks in the conservation of library materials is the development of means by which large quantities of damaged or deteriorated materials may be treated en masse or in a "production-line" operation without the sacrifice of conservation expertise or quality which these words imply. One such development, which has taken place in Europe, is the invention of what is known as leaf-casting equipment. Intended as a means of filling voids in the sheet or missing margins, this machine accomplishes these tasks more effectively and more rapidly than could be done manually. In 1974 the library's Restoration Office developed this procedure so that it can be used for backlining and thus reinforcing the most fragile and brittle documents in the collections. Leaf casting was used for restoring an eighteenth-century Dutch "Polder" map that could not have been successfully restored otherwise. As a result of earlier successes, the library's Restoration Office has designed and is having constructed a large format leaf-casting apparatus that will accept documents as large as 6 × 8 feet and provide greater flexibility in the use of the leaf-casting technique.

More recent projects in deacidification undertaken by the Research Office include development of a new technique for the vapor-phase deacidification and buffering of paper with diethyl zinc. This process has now been developed to the point at which the fundamentals of the treatment are known and there is evidence that the process can be successfully applied to paper. Considerable work remains, however, before the full effectiveness and feasibility of the procedure for the mass treatment of books can be demonstrated. The laboratory is carrying forward several other projects including a comprehensive evaluation of presently known or proposed methods of deacidifying paper, depolymerization as means of evaluating the deterioration of paper, and stain identification and removal. At the request of the Council on Library Resources, the laboratory also completed an evaluation of the morpholine vapor-phase process developed by the W. J. Barrow Research Laboratory. As a result of this work, the Research Office recommended some additional testing of morpholine followed by a scaled-up testing of books in quantity.

Use of polyester film for the encasement of brittle documents has expanded as the Restoration Office increasingly finds its superior for many kinds of documents to lamination with cellulose acetate and tissue. One of the notable advantages of polyester encasement is the complete resistance to damage by handling of even the most embrittled paper.

The assistant director for preservation will provide information on technical matters related to the preservation and restoration of library collections.

THE PHOTODUPLICATION SERVICE

The library's Photoduplication Service responds to requests for estimates, orders, and information concerning photoreproductions of material in the library's collections, provides a searching service for identifying and locating materials to be photocopied, and provides photoduplicates in varied forms for Congress, the library, other government agencies, and for the general public. The service also conducts large-scale cooperative microfilming projects, including participation in the library's preservation programs for newspapers, brittle books, and rarities, and has custody of the library's master negative microfilm collection.

Grants totaling \$35,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation in January and February of 1938 enabled the library to create and maintain a unit for photostat and microfilm production. Committed to functioning on a cost-recovery basis through the use of a revolving fund, the Photoduplication Service began operations on March 1, 1938, supplying microfilms, photostats, and conventional photographs to readers and scholars needing material not available for use outside the Library of Congress. The librarian's *Annual Report* for 1939 announced the new service and that a laboratory had been constructed in the new Annex Building and that six employees and their supervisor produced 106,000 microfilm exposures, 31,000 photostat prints, 1,500 cut film negatives, and 7,000 photographic-paper prints. By the time the service celebrated its tenth anniversary, its production of photoduplicates had grown from something under 150,000 that first year to well over 19 million. The staff numbered 62 in 1948, and by the occasion of the service's thirty-fifth anniversary had grown to over 150.

In addition to extensive microfilming of newspapers, periodicals, and materials in need of conservation measures, the Photoduplication Service has microfilmed the collections and indexes of all but one of the twenty-three sets of the papers of the presidents in the library's custody, the bills and resolutions of most United States Congresses, several of the library's specialized card catalogs (filmed for publication), and copyright records.

The *Annual Report* for 1948, noting the Photoduplication Service's tenth anniversary, records that

one of the most interesting chapters in the history of human progress will some day be written concerning the role of the photographic processes in research. Not even in a library where these processes are employed is their total effect easily seen. It is recognized that each order for photostat or microfilm copies represents a reader who might otherwise have visited the library whence the copy is obtained; but his single order may actually represent only the beginning of a widening circle of investigations.

On the next decennial anniversary of the Photoduplication Service, in the *Annual Report* for 1958, a large part of the review of the service's work for the year was devoted to the introduction of the Xerox process as a replacement for photostats.

The statement that "a number of additional applications of the Xerox equipment can be anticipated" would make one think back to those words of 1948 and ahead to the time when omnipresent xerography has changed the nature of research in libraries across the nation.

Annual reports for the past decade reveal the Photoduplication Service to be consistently, and ever increasingly, involved in the same tasks. The report of 1965 describes the work of the service in the maintenance of the library's master negative file, in microfilming brittle books and converting deteriorating retrospective newspaper files, and in the continuing Presidential Papers Program. In 1966 the service handled 1,000 pieces of correspondence a week, continued its work on the presidential papers (completing the filming of sixteen of the twenty-three sets in the Library of Congress), and continued the work of microfilming Chinese, Russian, and African periodical publications. The report of 1967 noted continued progress on the filming of the bills and resolutions of the United States Congress—a project covering the 1st through the 84th Congresses (1789–1956) and involving the microfilming of 4.5 million pages. In 1968 the laboratory was working on early motion picture scripts, and in 1969 a quick-copy center was established in the Main Building. (This has now been abolished in favor of coin-operated copying machines in most of the reading rooms.) Work continued on converting the photographic negatives in the Prints and Photographs Division and in the collections of the Historic American Building Survey to safety film, and the year also saw the beginning of the project to preserve the record of copyright applications, both in bound volumes and on cards, from 1870 to the present.

Through 1971 the service pursued its work of converting to film the deteriorating back files of newspapers and periodicals, and to safety film the negative collection of the Prints and Photographs Division; that year the laboratory made 1.75 million exposures in an attempt to preserve the intellectual heritage contained in brittle books. By 1973 the Photoduplication Service was filming current House and Senate bills and resolutions and had completed the filming of bound volumes of copyright records; it also filmed, for publication in book form by G. K. Hall & Co., several of the library's card catalogs. The service itself had by then published both *Specifications for the Microfilming of Books and Pamphlets* and *Specifications for the Microfilming of Newspapers in the Library of Congress* (available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office).

In 1974 the Photoduplication Service, in consultation with the Foreign Newspaper Microfilming Project, agreed to film all Latin American federal gazettes from 1970 forward, the first titles of which should be available in the fall of 1974. In the first half of 1974, eleven new circulars were prepared announcing a variety of projects and titles available on microfilm, bringing to approximately 200 the total number of such circulars; an announcement of approximately 70 older serial and monographic titles on the subject of women and feminism is in preparation.

The Photoduplication Service also offers for sale several photostats and photostat sets of early documents and prints, a catalog entitled *Civil War Photographs*, two sets of slides of the library building, and a facsimile of presidential signatures.

Further information and schedules of fees are available from the Library of Congress, Photoduplication Service, Washington, D.C. 20540.

Congressional Research Service

From its beginnings as a revolutionary body in 1774, Congress had always had a library at hand, but when the seat of government was to be moved to Washington, D.C., it established, by an act of April 24, 1800, a library of its own. Although, over the next hundred years, it extended use of the Library of Congress to the Supreme Court, to other agencies and libraries, to scholars, and to the public, the library remained its own, housed in the Capitol itself with books accessible—insofar as any books were accessible in those crowded rooms at the end of the century—to anyone who walked down the hall from his office or committee chamber.

The opening of the "new Congressional Library" in its own building on November 1, 1897, preceded by only a short time the entry of the United States on the world stage and the beginning of a new era of legislative pressures and problems. These facts were not immediately apparent in 1897, but the librarian of Congress took pains to assure the members that their books were still readily accessible:

As a part of the present system, there is a pneumatic tube, a tunnel, and electric machinery for the transmission of books from the Library to the Capitol. It would be impossible to overstate this ingenious work in the practical efficiency of Library administration. A test was made of its operations on October 27 by the Library officials. The telephone was not yet in operation, and therefore the experiment was under imperfect conditions. Without any prearrangement or forewarning a request for books was conveyed through the pneumatic tube from the Capitol to the reading desk in the new Library. In ten minutes and five seconds the volume asked for reached the Capitol. The second request was for four books—one in English, the other three in Italian, German, and French, respectively. Three of them . . . came within eight minutes and eleven seconds. . . .

The test was notable as demonstrating the practical convenience of the Library in the service of Congress and the Supreme Court. Under the old system the Library was so congested, books were heaped up in so many crevices and out-of-the-way corners, down in the crypt, hidden in darkness from access of observation, that obtaining a volume, and especially, one out of the range of general reading, was a question of time and patience. Frequently it depended on the phenomenal memory of the distinguished Librarian.

The present arrangement may be described as almost automatic in its character, and there is no reason why a Senator at his desk, or a Justice of the Supreme Court in the conference room may not summon the page and have whatever he wants within twelve or fifteen minutes. This is not a theory or an anticipation, but a practical demonstration. The new Library brings its treasures within an easier reach of those who need them than ever before (*1*).

Mr. Young's assurances, however, and the two splendid reading rooms set apart for Senators and Representatives in the new building were not the answer to the growing needs of Congress for help with the complex problems of the new century.

In the 61st Congress four bills were introduced: "to establish a department in the Congressional Library for the purpose of gathering and indexing statute-law material and legal material of a comparative nature and to provide for draftsmen for congressional measures and to otherwise assist and aid Members of Congress and public officials"; "to create a United States Legislative Reference Bureau, and for other purposes"; "to establish a bureau for the drafting of bills"; and "to establish a division in the Library of Congress for the drafting of bills." In a lengthy report to Congress in April, 1911 (2), Herbert Putnam, then librarian of Congress, reviewed the work of this nature the library was already providing, compared the New York and Wisconsin plans for legislative reference work, compiled the laws establishing legislative reference bureaus in the various states, and recommended that in considering a legislative reference bureau for the Congress there should be emphasized:

1. That the organization must be elaborate beyond that provided by any State, since the subjects to be dealt with are far wider in scope, the material more remote, more complex, and more difficult, and the precedents less available.
2. That (the field being unique) the needs (in the way of organization) can be ascertained only by experiment. The first appropriation should be, therefore, a "lump sum."
3. That for the work to be scientific (i.e., having only truth as its object) it must be strictly nonpartisan; and that, therefore, whatever the appointing or administrative authority, the selection of the experts and the direction of the work should by law and in fact be assuredly nonpartisan.

For the next few years, in the absence of any such legislation, the library continued to supply promptly books and lists of books requested by committees and by individual members; during the sessions these requests, according to the librarian's report for 1914, occupied largely the time of the chief assistant librarian, and the divisions of Law, Documents, and Bibliography, as well as the Reading Room service. But it was unable to supply the analyses, summaries, and comparisons Congress really needed. Bills continued to be introduced, hearings were held in 1912 and 1913, and finally the Legislative Appropriation Act for 1914-1915 included an appropriation for

Legislative Reference: To enable the Librarian of Congress to employ competent persons to prepare such indexes, digests, and compilations of law as may be required for Congress and other official use pursuant to the Act approved June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and six, \$25,000.

Since this appropriation became available on July 1, 1914, when Congress was not in session, the librarian spent the summer months getting the service organized under the direction of James D. Thompson, temporarily (1913-1914) law librarian, one-time chief of the Documents Division, and formerly law librarian of Columbia University, whose "equipment for the task was unique, not the least important element in it being his own foundation studies in pure science, a habit of precision, and a punctilious devotion to truth for its own sake" (3).

On the principles established by Putnam and Thompson, the service continued to operate for the next 30 years, existing as a separate unit in the library but without its functions specifically established in law. In the MacLeish reorganization of the library, 1939–1944, its status as just one of many divisions of the Reference Department was changed to make it parallel with the public reference service but its legal basis remained unchanged. Inquiries had grown from 756 in fiscal year 1916 to 14,451 in 1945; with some expansion, however, the librarian's report for the first year of existence could have been repeated each year:

This summary indicates the range of the work, but not its dimension; for while some of the inquiries could be answered in an hour and a single typewritten page, others required several weeks of research and a statement covering 50 pages (4).

The Legislative Reorganization Act of 1946 (5), which resulted from an examination of congressional organization and facilities, excessively strained by the exigencies of war and, it was felt, inadequate to postwar problems, also changed the status of legislative reference within the Library of Congress and defined its functions and relationships to the Congress. First, it authorized and directed the librarian of Congress to establish the Legislative Reference Service as a separate department within the Library of Congress. Second, its duties were to advise and assist the committees of Congress, upon request, in the analysis, appraisal, and evaluation of legislative proposals pending before them; upon request or upon its own initiative in anticipation of requests, to gather, classify, analyze, and make available data bearing upon legislation in serviceable form for use by Congress, its committees, and members; and to prepare summaries and digests of public hearings before congressional committees, and of bills and resolutions of a public general nature. Third, the librarian was authorized to appoint the necessary personnel "without reference to political affiliations, solely on the ground of fitness to perform the duties of their office." In addition he was to appoint senior specialists in nineteen broad fields of interest, corresponding specifically or generally with the fields of interest of the committees of both Houses, these specialists to be appointed at the highest grade to which research analysts and consultants without supervisory responsibility are assigned in the Executive Branch, and to be available for special work with the committees when necessary. Finally, the act authorized an increased appropriation for fiscal year 1947, \$550,000, with an increase of \$100,000 each year through 1949 "and for each fiscal year thereafter such sums as may be necessary to carry on the work of the Service."

Overseeing this expansion and indeed instrumental in the preparation of the legislation that made it possible was Ernest S. Griffith, a political scientist who had been director of the service since 1940. Already at work before the end of fiscal year 1947 were senior specialists in American law, international relations, international economics, agriculture, labor, public finance, social welfare, resources, American government and administration, congressional organization, and District of Columbia affairs. Part-time consultants and specialists of lesser professional

stature were available in other fields of interest. That year the service handled the greatest workload in its history, receiving over 100 inquiries almost every day except Saturday and Sunday from mid-January to mid-May 1947. By the time Griffith retired in 1958 (to become dean of the new School of International Service at American University) the Legislative Reference Service was operating with an appropriation of \$1.3 million and its workload was on a steady rise, 60,443 inquiries in 1957 and 67,843 in 1958.

Recognizing that the service had developed into "one of the principal research and reference arms of the legislative branch," Congress gave it a new charter and a new name in the Legislative Reorganization Act of 1970 (6). The new name, Congressional Research Service (CRS), was intended

to emphasize that the informational needs of Congress involved considerably more than the mere acquisition, storage, and retrieval of data and information produced elsewhere. The research needs of Congress are of such a nature today as to require a pool of experts who, on their own initiative, are capable of creating and producing new information and data that are pertinent to the legislative business of the Congress. . . . The legislative branch requires the kind of creative research that not only analyzes and evaluates but also supplies viable and constructive alternatives to proposed programs and policies. In brief, it is no longer sufficient for the Service to be primarily a reference-oriented entity.

Among the duties to be performed are to supply committees with experts to prepare objective, nonpartisan analyses of legislative proposals, evaluating the advisability of enacting these proposals and alternatives, and estimating their probable results; to prepare and present to each committee at the beginning of each Congress a list of subjects and policy areas that the committee might profitably analyze in depth; at the beginning of each Congress to make available to each committee a list of programs and activities scheduled to expire during that Congress; and upon the request of any member, to prepare legislative histories on measures to be considered in hearings.

The act authorized the appointment of senior specialists in twenty-two broad subject fields, the temporary appointment of consultants, and the appointment of CRS specialists in addition to senior specialists without regard for the statutory supergrade quotas. Overseeing this historic expansion of CRS is Lester S. Jayson, director of the service since the beginning of 1966 and deputy director for almost 4 years before that. Mr. Jayson, who began his career as a practicing lawyer, then served as special assistant to the U.S. Attorney General in the New York field office of the Department of Justice, in the Appellate Section of the Civil Division of the Department of Justice in Washington, and finally as chief of the Torts Section of the Civil Division, joined the staff of the Library of Congress in 1960 as senior specialist in American Public Law and chief of the American Law Division in the Legislative Reference Service.

Given the difficulties of recruiting expert research personnel in a short time, it was decided that the build-up of CRS resources would be scheduled over a 5-year

period. The principal staff increases in this implementation plan will be in the program area of policy analysis and research, with expansion also in documentation and status of legislation and administrative support. A less dramatic growth is planned for information and reference services. By 1973, of a total of 524 positions, 323 were in policy analysis and research areas; 42 in documentation and status of legislation; 132 in information and reference services; and 27 in administration.

The Service is now organized in eight research divisions, one reference division, and an information support division, under the Office of the Director. In April 1974 the director announced a restructuring of CRS management functions. The Office of the Director now consists of the director, the deputy director, the assistant director for Research and Analysis, the assistant director for Congressional Committee Relationships, and supporting staff. Management of the inquiries unit and general oversight of CRS reference work and library support services is in the Office of Assignment and Reference Coordination; administrative duties are now in an Office of Administration; and an Office of Special Programs is responsible for planning, developing, and providing initial direction of new services to the Congress as well as for CRS automation, seminar, and other special programs.

Seven of the eight research divisions, alike in organization, are headed by a chief who also carries the rank of senior specialist and are composed of research assistants, analysts, specialists, and senior specialists. The eighth research division, the Senior Specialists Division, is headed by the director of CRS.

The oldest and the largest of the research divisions is the American Law Division. It performs legal research on requests pertaining to such subjects as constitutional law, election law, civil rights and liberties, the judiciary, separation of powers, criminal law, military justice, antitrust, parliamentary law, and international law. The division also prepares the *Digest of Public General Bills and Resolutions*, *The Constitution of the United States of America—Analysis and Interpretation*, *Major Legislation of the Ninety-third Congress*, and, more recently, the lists of programs and activities scheduled to expire that are called for in the Legislative Reorganization Act.

The Digest of Public General Bills and Resolutions has provided summaries of the public bills and resolutions of each session of Congress since the second session of the 74th Congress in 1936. It includes a subject, author, specific title, and identical bill index and is published in five or more cumulative issues each session, with a final edition at the session's end. Access to the *Digest's* data base has been speeded up by means of automation; since 1970 an increasing number of the research divisions have used cathode-ray tube (CRT) terminals and associated printers to retrieve the legislative information files. A pilot installation of CRTs in selected Senate offices was made at the request of the chairman of the Senate Committee on Rules and Administration in 1973 to provide congressional access to this and other CRS data banks.

Major Legislation of the Ninety-third Congress, a continuing responsibility of the American Law Division with contributions from the other research divisions, provides each month the status and content of selected major bills before the

Congress, relevant background information and references to presidential messages, court decisions, previous CRS reports, and other published materials.

Communications, consumer affairs, domestic economic development, demography, economic growth and stabilization, federal budget, housing, insurance, international trade and development, labor, money and banking, taxation, and transportation are the research responsibilities of the Economics Division. Attached to this division is a graphics unit, first added to the staff in 1946 to make charts and graphs.

The Education and Public Welfare Division handles health, education, income maintenance, and social services programs—including such subjects as aging, crime, drug abuse control, drug pricing, economic opportunity programs, gun control, health facilities and manpower, immigration, medicaid and medicare, national health insurance, public retirement programs, private pension plans, social security, veterans affairs, and welfare reform.

To the newest division, the Environmental Policy Division, established in 1969, come requests on natural resources and the environment, including agricultural marketing and production, agricultural wastes, solid waste management, air and water pollution, chemicals in the environment, energy and fuels, monitoring systems, fisheries and wildlife, forestry and timber, mining and minerals, outdoor recreation, pesticides, public lands, and resources projections.

The Foreign Affairs Division responds to questions about United States foreign policy, the conduct and machinery of United States foreign relations, defense policy and organization, defense budget and weapons systems, military manpower, international cooperation in outer space, international development and foreign aid policy, and regional—African, Asian, European, Latin American, and Middle Eastern—affairs.

The Government and General Research Division covers advisory bodies and commissions, American government, campaign finances, civil liberties, civil service and bureaucracy, Congress, congressional districts, District of Columbia government, electoral college, ethics (congressional and executive), executive reorganization, history, impoundment, Indians, intergovernmental relations, the presidency, public administration, state and local governments, territories and possessions, urban affairs, and women's rights. The division has a speechwriting staff and a translation unit.

The Science Policy Research Division, established in 1964, handles a wide range of subjects, including aviation technology, behavioral sciences, biological and medical problems, earth, atmospheric and marine sciences, engineering, management of science and technology, national science policy, nuclear energy, space exploration and application, and technology assessment.

The Senior Specialists Division prepares authoritative studies bearing on legislative problems for members and committees of Congress and provides assistance when requested in connection with committee hearings and investigations.

In addition to the research divisions, there are the Congressional Reference Division and the Library Services Division. CRD was established in 1967 to handle

the service's short-term reference requests, those which do not require the expertise of a subject specialist but call for speed and versatility in locating information. Responsible for the Congressional Reading Room and the Reference Center operations, this division handles the majority of the inquiries received by the service. In 1973 this meant more than 100,000 inquiries answered either on the same day or within 24 hours. Examples of quick reference queries were: How much gasoline is consumed at the Indianapolis 500 races? Which states forbid the importation of pirana fish? Under what circumstances did President Lincoln appear before a congressional committee? Who invented the peace symbol? Hearings on the Watergate prompted hundreds of requests for biographical, chronological, and other background information, requests that could be filled promptly from a "Watergate Notebook," an indexed compilation of relevant news articles maintained by the division.

The division also develops give-away kits on issues frequently inquired about. There are now kits on over 100 subjects, like amnesty, pollution, and strip mining, and 18,000 are distributed each year by members of Congress, often in response to constituent requests.

The Congressional Reading Room in the library's Main Building provides access to the library's general collections for members of Congress, their families and staff. Reference librarians provide assistance in person and also by means of a telephone "hotline" service for congressional offices, an immediate reference service that handles over 10,000 questions a year. A similar service is available in the Reference Centers in the congressional office buildings; a center, staffed by reference librarians and messengers and a core collection of frequently used reference materials, opened in the Rayburn House Office Building in 1971 and another in the Russell Senate Office Building in 1973. Both have ATS computer terminals and telefacsimile transmitters, and the Rayburn center has a microfilm printer.

The "library" of the Congressional Research Service is the Library Service Division, a support facility staffed by professional reference librarians and library technicians who are responsible for the acquisition, processing, and distribution of research materials and periodicals within the service and for bibliographic support. In 1969 the division converted a manually produced "current awareness" service to a computer-produced selective dissemination of information (SDI) system. Originally intended to keep CRS researchers informed of the latest writings in their fields and to give them bibliographic control when conducting research, it has always had a few congressional subscribers. As its usefulness and its capability have expanded, congressional use has also grown until there were in 1974 over 100 congressional subscribers. Librarian-bibliographers with specialized subject backgrounds screen thousands of publications and feed appropriate bibliographic citations into the computer, using the 5,000-word legislative indexing vocabulary (LIV) developed by the service. Users indicate their research interests to the bibliographers, who make up an "interest profile" for each user; they then weekly match the list of user interest profiles with material indexed during the previous week. If interested in

a citation, the researcher can call for hardcopy. Bibliographers added 24,800 citations to the automated data base in 1973, making a total of nearly 87,000 citations. There were in that fiscal year over 1,400 requests for 13,507 hardcopy items, involving electrostatic reproduction of some 70,000 individual pages.

On-demand bibliographies are prepared from the SDI data base in response to congressional requests, to requests of other legislative branch agencies, and to needs of CRS researchers. Specialized subject catalogs of bibliographic citations on issues of special interest to the research divisions can also be prepared by the Library Services Division.

The work of CRS is confidential. Although its reports are often the most exhaustive and up-to-date investigations of public issues available, they are not available to the public until they are released by the member or committee for whom they are undertaken. Then they may appear in the *Congressional Record*, as Committee Prints, or as part or the whole of House or Senate reports. They are often summarized and discussed in the news or editorial columns of the newspapers as well, having been released to the press by the Congress. Just as CRS does not make public its research reports, it does not reveal what it is looking into or who has asked that what be done. It is safe to assume, however, that on any given day some part of the service is already working on or fielding a request about the topics and issues that are making headlines in the newspapers and are occupying the television news channels. Just how its resources can be brought to bear upon a public issue is described in the *Annual Report of the Congressional Research Service for 1973 (7)*, which chose the energy issue for review:

The majority of the some 3,600 requests pertaining to energy matters were cleared by the research divisions and several resulted in major studies. Early in the year the Environmental Policy Division assisted the House Subcommittee on Natural Resources and Conservation in preparing a committee report which emphasized the importance of energy conservation and efficiency in the formulation of national energy policy. Towards the end of the year the Division was assisting committees with reports on energy conservation technologies and conservation options available to federal agencies. In a major committee print of the Division, *Congress and the Nation's Environment*, was included in a chapter on enacted and proposed energy legislation in the 92d Congress and emerging policy issues in the energy field. An overview of the U.S. energy situation was presented in another study which summarized the supply and demand of energy in the United States by use sectors (residential/commercial, industrial, transportation, and electric-generating utilities); identified major legislative and judicial actions of relevance to current and future energy needs; and discussed some of the principal issues: energy technology research and development, energy-related national growth, environmental impact, land use and energy conservation. An energy primer was prepared for one committee and five case studies were developed for siting energy facilities. Several studies were prepared on various energy sources; for example, the role of coal in meeting future energy needs, proposed strip mining regulations, geothermal development, the oil import quota program and its effect on coal prices, natural gas regulation, a comparison of bills on the recycling of oil, the role of hydroelectric power in the Midwest, and a report based on hearings concerning problems of electrical power production in the Southwest. The growing

concern of the Congress with energy matters was evident in requests received later in the year for: a report on primary factors affecting the current energy crisis; an analysis of pertinent literature for use in developing legislative proposals for establishing government corporations in the energy field; a study of projected depletion dates of non-renewable resources; a summary of energy-related bills introduced to date in the 93d congress; and an analysis of one subcommittee's jurisdiction in the energy field.

The Foreign Affairs Division coordinated a major inter-divisional project in support of hearings on foreign policy implications of the energy crisis. Middle Eastern analysts responded to numerous inquiries on the politics of the oil producing countries, on the cohesiveness and negotiating tactics of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC), and on the competitive strategies of the oil consuming nations. The Economics Division prepared a committee study on tax aspects of the energy shortage and conceivable reforms. For various Members, the Division analyzed the effect on the oil shortage of international monetary changes, such as devaluation of the dollar; the market alternative market arrangements for the present structure of the oil industry; and, for a Senate floor debate, the antitrust aspects of the Alaska pipeline bill.

A major CRS multithread report on North Alaska Oil and Related Issues identifies and reviews the issues surrounding the extraction, production, transportation and environmental modifications associated with the use of oil pipelines, set in historical perspective. The Science Policy Research Division developed a lengthy historical analysis of energy-related research and development activities of the Federal Government and prepared a brief report identifying research and development opportunities for short- and long-term energy applications. Its work included a report on Canada's oil and gas resources for use in a committee study pertaining to national fuels and energy policy, and the preparation of a comprehensive analytical handbook on energy and fuels for a newly-established energy subcommittee.

Certain congressional requests are contracted out by the Service; a study of the organizational aspects of federal research and development in the energy field was one such contract study. When appropriate to the jurisdiction of a committee, the Service identified energy issues in its lists of subject and policy areas of potential interest to committees. As part of its documentation and status of legislation activities, the Service prepared lists of those programs within each committee's jurisdiction scheduled to expire during the 93d Congress, including energy-related programs and activities; and all of the enacted and pending legislation on energy in fiscal 1973 was documented in the *CRS Bill Digest*.

A CRS seminar for Members of Congress addressed the subject of energy and the environment and another seminar for congressional staff examined energy policy options. A diversity of energy reference requests was handled by the Congressional Reference Division. The Division answered 1,538 or 45 percent of all requests cleared on energy (which required only 8 percent of Service research hours devoted to the subject). The Division developed an energy kit to facilitate the handling of constituent requests, containing a pamphlet with tips on energy conservation, a presidential message regarding energy resources, reprints of two magazine articles concerning the energy crisis, and a reprint of the first chapter of the committee print prepared by the Environmental Policy Division, *Congress and the Nation's Environment*, entitled "Energy and Fuels Development." The Graphics Unit prepared charts on world oil and gas production and consumption for one Member of Congress. At the end of the year, materials were being assem-

bled on the FY 1974 national intercollegiate debate topic—Resolved: that the Federal Government should control the supply and utilization of energy in the United States.

Bibliographers of the CRS Library Services Division regularly review more than 65 periodicals which are primarily concerned with energy subjects, in addition to a large number of publications which occasionally feature energy topics. Over 2,000 citations to energy-related articles and other publications were added to the CRS bibliographic data base this year, or approximately 8 percent of all new citations. This bibliographic information was used to provide SDI service to 121 subscribers who had chosen energy topics as part of their interest profiles, and to produce on-demand bibliographies and bibliographic catalogs on energy subjects in support of division research.

Congressional requests on energy accounted for 2 percent of all requests cleared by CRS in fiscal 1973, and 4.5 percent of all research hours worked. Highlights of the additional fiscal year workload and of new Service activities are presented in the following chapters. Organized by program area, these include: analytical and research services, documentation and status of legislation activities, information and reference services, administration, and problems and challenges confronting the Service.

Automation has been used in recent years to expedite the work described above, both research and reference, as well as the administrative operations of the service. Like the rest of the library, the service has moved cautiously in identifying operations and in assessing benefits that might accrue from the application of data processing techniques. It shares the library's two computers with the other departments of the library and uses chiefly the administrative terminal system (ATS) and the cathode-ray tube (CRT) or video screen for input and retrieval.

The service has access to ten data files. Five are maintained by CRS personnel and stored in the library computer: the Legislative Information Data Base, which includes the contents of the *Bill Digest* and other information on public bills and resolutions in the current Congress; the Bibliographic Data Base, a combination of bibliographic files formerly maintained manually which contain not only citations to CRS reports and congressional documents but also articles from professional journals and other periodicals; the Legislative Issues Data Base, used for publication of *Major Legislative Issues*; the Management Control Data Base, which permits administrative reporting, analysis, and correlation; and the Administrative Terminal System, which performs a number of services such as the transmission of written inquiries between CRS centers, storing and printing of reports which need frequent updating, the maintenance of directories and lists of memberships of boards and commissions, etc. CRS also has rental access to five outside data banks: the *New York Times* Information Bank; MEDLINE (a bibliographic service available from the National Library of Medicine); the Service Bureau Corporation's data analysis programs (which include the program grants and expenditures of HEW); Urbanetics, a program designed to project the costs of federal support to education; and a Data Resources, Inc., econometric model of the national economy.

A recently inaugurated program to keep members and staffs informed on current national issues is the seminar program offered jointly with the Advanced Study Program of the Brookings Institution. Beginning in the fall of 1972, nationally

prominent specialists in various subject areas were invited to meet at the library in the evenings with interested members or, alternatively, with senior congressional staff. The seven seminars for members during the 1973 fiscal year included discussions on United States relations with China, perspectives and considerations in welfare reform, crime prevention and law enforcement, energy and the environment, national housing programs, quality and inequality of education, and economic policies and controls; in fiscal 1974 six seminars were held on food scarcity, consumer protection, the media and the government, the multinational corporation, ocean policies for the United States, and the United States and world inflation.

CRS developed and sponsored a series of eight informal seminars on issues related to national growth policy at the request of the Senate Subcommittee on Housing and Urban Affairs, in conjunction with the National Planning Association and Resources for the Future, Inc., and, in response to requests from a number of members, another series to explore basic tax issues.

A little-known responsibility of the Congressional Research Service was assigned in 1963 by Public Law 88-246, that of preparing annual compilations of material to support the two national debate topics. The high school topic is selected in the spring by the National University Extension Association and the collegiate topic is selected in August by the American Speech Association. CRS selects appropriate excerpts from books and magazines bearing on the subject and develops an extensive bibliography of additional sources which might be of use to debaters. The compilation is then printed, the high school topic material as a Senate document and the college topic material as a House document. Copies are not distributed by CRS but by House and Senate offices and by the Joint Committee on Printing. Members receive over 75,000 requests each year from those on the college level.

Other statutory responsibilities of the service are the preparation of *The Constitution of the United States of America—Analysis and Interpretation*, popularly called *The Constitution Annotated*, which has to be revised every 10 years, with biennial supplements between revisions; (and the updating of Hinds' and Cannon's Precedents of the House, a compendium of the proceedings, applications, and interpretations of rules made by the House in the conduct of parliamentary action, every 5 years, with a condensed biennial edition beginning with the 93d Congress).

Pursuant to the House Committee on Rules report accompanying the 1970 Reorganization Act, the service has developed a number of cooperative arrangements with the General Accounting Office: joint meetings of appropriate staff have been held, SDI service has been made available to GAO divisions, certain reports are routinely exchanged, and further cooperative approaches are being explored. Certain research projects are now undertaken jointly by CRS and GAO; in 1973, for example, CRS and GAO together developed an extensive analysis of the impact of proposed budget cuts on health and education programs for the Senate majority leader and the chairman of the Senate Appropriations Subcommittee on Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare.

Other cooperative operations which it is too early to describe will grow out of the Technology Assessment Act of 1972 (Public Law 92-484, enacted on October 13, 1972), which created an Office of Technology Assessment within the legislative

branch "to provide early indications of the probable beneficial and adverse impacts of the applications of technology and to develop other coordinate information which may assist the Congress." OTA policy is set by the Technology Assessment Board, the Advisory Council of which the director of CRS and the comptroller general of GAO are both statutory members.

The Copyright Office

The history of copyright law in the United States antedates the history of the Library of Congress by more than a decade, but it was not until just a little over a century ago that the passage of an enforceable copyright law in 1870 laid the foundation for the breadth and depth of the rich collections of the Library of Congress. Although 1870 marked the beginning of the official relationship of the function of copyright to the work of the library, there had been earlier efforts, both more and less successful ones, to make the Library of Congress the official repository of copyright deposits. But it was the 1870 law which, in the words of David C. Mearns in *The Story up to Now*, created the system that was to be "the keystone of the Library of Congress as the National Library of the United States."

Systems of copyright in the United States date from the colonial era. Even before the delegates to the Federal Convention met in Philadelphia in the summer of 1787, the rights of authors had been protected by the separate states. With the Constitution came the provision that the "Congress shall have power . . . to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries." The first federal copyright law was enacted in 1790, and charged the Department of State with the receipt of one copy of each publication entered in the offices of the district courts throughout the United States. Unfortunately, the law contained no mechanism for enforcing the compliance of authors or publishers. Because the few deposits that found their way to the State Department came through

the circuitous and uncertain medium of court officers in distant places, while no provision was made for forming the books into a copyright library, or rendering them in the least degree available to public inspection, the system was an entire failure so far as concerns the securing of any considerable collection of American copyright books (8).

Some district court clerks never bothered to send a single book to Washington, and between 1790 and 1865 the Department of State accumulated only 10,000 volumes.

The first entry registered under the original copyright law was *The Philadelphia Spelling Book*, logged in the records of the U.S. District Court of Pennsylvania on June 9, 1790. It was the first of only 150,000 entries recorded in the offices of the clerks of the district courts between the enactment of the 1790 law and 1870, when the law was changed to make the Library of Congress the center of copyright registrations. The evidence of a more effective and comprehensive copyright law

was borne out by the significant increase in copyright registrations following 1870. In 1897 alone, the number of entries—75,000—was half that of the entire period between 1790 and 1870; by the time of the centenary of the 1870 legislation, the number of registrations had risen to 316,465 for the year.

In April 1846, Stephen A. Douglas, apparently as an afterthought, introduced an amendment to the legislation creating the Smithsonian Institution which provided that the Library of Congress, along with the Smithsonian and the Department of State, should each be the recipient of one copy of every article registered for copyright. The depository provision of that act, which became law on August 10, 1846, was the “first attempt to recognize by law the importance of building up at the seat of Government a complete representation of American literature” (8). But this act, like the 1790 legislation, contained no redress against those who ignored compliance with the copyright law. While some publishers meticulously observed the spirit and the letter of the new law, others wholly neglected the requirements. The Library of Congress and the Smithsonian Institution received quantities of materials—Sunday school texts, indifferent prints and engravings, and other classes of current publications least likely to serve the needs of research—while much of the nation’s substantial literary production managed to escape the system. In 1855, as an added incentive to compliance, legislation was enacted providing that all copyright deposits might be sent through the mails free of postage, but apparently to little avail. The repeal of the law requiring deposits in 1859, therefore, was accompanied by only a sentimental regret.

In 1865, in a bill to extend copyright protection to photographs and photographic negatives, the provision to require placing depository copies of all copyright items in the Library of Congress was restored to copyright law:

. . . a printed copy of every book, pamphlet, map, chart, musical composition, print, engraving, or photograph, for which copyright shall be secured under said acts, shall be transmitted free of postage within one month from the day of publication to the library of congress at Washington for the use of said Library.

Although the 1870 law is considered the milestone in the history of copyright legislation, the 1865 law contained all the seeds of the modern copyright system—and it supplemented the element of incentive (“free postage”) for the first time with a means of compliance. If a copyright registration was unaccompanied by a deposit copy, the Librarian of Congress had up to 1 year to make a written request for the deposit, and the proprietor had 1 month to comply with the request. Compliance was still far from automatic, and the librarian later observed that “multitudes of publications in all parts of the country are never furnished to the library until after the official demand provided for in the law has been made” (9). If the copyright deposit was still not made, the proprietor forfeited the right of exclusive publication secured under copyright. An amendment of February 18, 1867, added the penalty of \$25 to the forfeiture of copyright rights to the mechanism for enforcing copyright deposits. Once again, the provision also included the ruling that all deposit items might be sent “to the Library of Congress, by mail free of postage, provided the

words 'Copyright matter' be plainly written or printed on the outside of the package containing the same."

Until 1870, however, copyright activities remained scattered, and that year saw the passage of legislation which created both a centralized and an effective system of copyright registration in the United States. Finally, then, the work that had been conducted variously in the Office of the Secretary of State, the Patent Office (in the Department of the Interior), federal district courts, and the Smithsonian Institution was centralized in the Library of Congress, and all copyright records and deposits of the district courts and the Department of the Interior were transferred to the library. When Ulysses S. Grant signed the bill into law on July 8, 1870, the Library of Congress became the first central agency in the United States for the registration and custody of copyright deposits. The effects of the 1865 legislation were already beginning to be felt in the library's collections; the number of articles deposited for copyright rose from 1,996 in 1866 to 5,091 in 1868. With the new law, books received through copyright were quickly becoming an important and regular part of the library's growth.

The 1870 law required for the first time that two depository copies of all items to be registered should be sent to the librarian of Congress, who was "to perform all acts and duties required by the law touching copyrights." The law also increased the significance of the role of the librarian by making him a national officer as well as a servant of the legislative body, and it was fortunate that the librarian of that period, Ainsworth Rand Spofford, was so acutely aware of the role copyright was to play. Justifying his support of the 1870 law by his belief in the importance of copyright in the creation of a national library, Spofford on a later date made his plea to American authors and artists: "The nation gives you exclusive right to make and sell your publication, without limit of quantity, for forty-two years; give the nation, in return, two copies in perpetual evidence of your right." Thus it became possible for the library to devote funds appropriated for the increase of its collections to filling gaps, acquiring rarities, and rounding out the collections. The copyright system created in 1870 has been changed in some of its details, but remains in essence the copyright procedure followed to this day in the United States. Subsequent changes were only an extension of already established principles.

The changes in copyright business as a result of the 1870 law were monumental. The librarian was compelled to request, by December 1, 1870, the assistance of two additional clerks. By the end of Spofford's tenure as librarian in 1897, there were 12 clerks exclusively devoted to copyright matters, and there was still more business than they could handle. Deposits numbered 6,680 in 1869, 11,512 in 1870, and 19,826 in 1871—the first whole year of copyright operations in the library—and by 1896, the year before the library's move into the new Main Building, registrations totaled 72,482. (The number of items deposited was, of course, much larger than 72,482.) The Library of Congress in the Capitol was quite unsuited to becoming a repository for such materials, and little could be done except to pile up on the floor or place in storage the 1,135,530 pieces that poured into the Capitol as copyright deposits between 1870 and 1896: in heaps in the

library rooms, in unlit chambers above the library, and in vaults in the basement. Another development to increase copyright receipts, effective July 1, 1891, was the adoption of an international copyright law, extending the protection of the American copyright law to authors and artists of foreign citizenship, as long as their books, photographs, chromos, and lithographs were manufactured in the United States. This change particularly increased the library's holdings, not so much in books, but in musical compositions and works of art.

In addition to space for staff, files, and deposits, there was a need for a director by the time the Main Building was completed; the work of copyright had grown so great that the librarian could no longer tend to it and the many other library duties he supervised. Thus, under authorization of an appropriations act for 1897–98, a register of copyrights was appointed. On July 22, 1897, Thorvald Solberg, who had been a member of the copyright staff in the 1870s, was named to the office he would hold until his retirement on his 78th birthday on April 22, 1930, an interval marked by the filing of 4,116,560 copyright registrations.

Since 1870 there have been continuing efforts to improve domestic copyright law and to participate in international copyright conventions. One of the more interesting periods of discussion and revision covered the years 1906–1909. In 1906, during hearings conducted by the Congressional Committees on Patents, Mark Twain testified in favor of the proposed legislation:

I like that bill, and I like that extension from the present limit of copyright life of forty-two years to the author's life and fifty years after. I think that will satisfy any reasonable author, because it will take care of his children. Let the grandchildren take care of themselves. . . . But those children of mine have use for that. I can take care of myself as long as I live. I know half a dozen trades, and I can invent half a dozen more. I can get along. But I like the fifty years' extension, because that benefits my two daughters, who are not as competent to earn a living as I am, because I have carefully raised them as young ladies, who don't know anything and can't do anything. So I hope Congress will extend to them that charity which they have failed to get from me.

A bill, which finally passed in March of 1909, did not contain Twain's hoped-for extension of the copyright term, but, among other things, it doubled the length of the renewal term. Thus copyright registrations were set for 28 years, with a possible renewal term of another 28 years. The 1909 bill, the basis in law of copyright practice and procedure in the United States to this day, was signed into law by an advocate of copyright reform as stalwart as Twain—President Theodore Roosevelt, who put his signature on the bill on March 4 at the Capitol en route to the inauguration of President-Elect William Howard Taft.

In the 65 years since the last general revision of copyright law in 1909, commercial radio and television have come into being, motion pictures, recordings, and juke boxes have been developed, and computers, communications satellites, and photocopying devices have been invented. Performing arts societies such as the American Society of Composers, Authors and Publishers (ASCAP) did not exist

then, and the vast potential of "subsidiary rights" in the publishing field was only barely apparent.

Under congressional authorization, the Copyright Office undertook in 1955 a program of studies leading to another general revision of the copyright law. Thirty-five studies were completed, and in 1961 the register of copyrights submitted his report to Congress. Legislation was introduced in 1965, and passed the House of Representatives in April 1967. Following extensive hearings on the problems of photocopying and cable television, a similar bill finally passed the Senate on September 9, 1974; because it contained a number of provisions not in the House version, including one relating to cable antenna television—the problem largely responsible for the delay in the Senate, the bill will require further House action, which is not expected until 1975.

The revision bill, to supersede the copyright statute enacted in 1909, is a general modernization of the United States copyright system. Among other things, it provides for a single term of statutory protection for works created after the new law takes effect. Instead of the present 28-year first term plus a similar renewal term, the period of protection for most such works would be the life of the author plus 50 years after his death, which is the term in most of the other developed nations of the world. The revision bill also specifically recognizes the principle of fair use and outlines the factors to be considered in determining whether a particular use falls within this category. The bill exempts from liability certain reproductions of copyrighted works by libraries and archival agencies. The bill includes provisions dealing with rights in transmissions by cable television systems and in broadcasts and other public performances of sound recordings. Other controversial features of the bill include provisions on library photocopying and educational broadcasting.

In 1972, legislation to amend the copyright law was enacted that made published sound recordings copyrightable under certain conditions. It also provided additional sanctions for infringement—including criminal prosecution in certain cases—where copyrighted musical works are unlawfully used on sound recordings. In September 1974 the Senate adopted a resolution providing for stronger criminal penalties for the infringement of copyright in sound recordings.

At the same time the Senate also adopted the resolution to extend omnibus copyright protection until December 31, 1976. Eight earlier acts of a similar nature had extended the second term of all copyrights in which the total regular term of 56 years would have expired between September 19, 1962, and the end of 1974. The purpose of these acts has been to give the benefits of the extended term of protection contemplated in the revision bill to those works whose second terms might expire while the bill was being considered.

Developments in international copyright have also been significant since the first United States copyright law in 1891 extending protection of American copyright to foreign authors and artists. In 1973 the U.S.S.R. became the sixty-fourth adherent to the 1952 version of the Universal Copyright Convention (UCC). The Russian adherence was a historic event as the Soviet Union had previously declined to adhere to any multilateral copyright treaty and had eschewed copyright relations

with most of the other nations of the world. In September 1972 the United States deposited its instrument of ratification of the UCC as Revised at Paris on July 24, 1971; the new convention took effect on July 10, 1974, after the requisite twelve nations had adhered to it. The latest text of the International Convention for the Protection of Intellectual Property (the Berne Convention), which was also adopted in Paris in July 1971, took effect at the same time in July 1974. The purpose of both of the Paris revisions was primarily to meet the needs of developing countries in the copyright field and generally to restore stability in international copyright. The United States is a party to both the 1952 and 1971 texts of the UCC, but not to the Berne Convention.

The proponents of the 1870 copyright legislation making the library the beneficiary of copyright deposits probably thought that the nearly 20,000 deposits received in 1871 (their first full year of operation) constituted a huge quantity of material; it is doubtful they would have envisioned the more than half million annual deposits 100 years later. Even this figure, however, does not represent all of the literary production in the United States since, contrary to popular assumption, the Library of Congress Copyright Office does not receive nor does the library acquire two copies of every book published in the United States. The Copyright Office, however, does deliver to other departments in the library much of what it receives; 352,639 of the 570,981 articles deposited in fiscal 1973 were transferred.

A product of all this business, and of major interest to librarians, is the records that more than 15,000,000 copyright registrations have produced. The Copyright Office maintains its registration records by class and registration number, and indexes them according to that information so that copyright searches can be made; there are cards for the titles of the works and the names of the authors and copyright claimants. The resulting card catalog numbers more than 30,000,000 cards and is open to the public without charge; those unable to visit the Copyright Office or wishing to have an official search report may have the office do the search for the nominal hourly search fee of \$5. The catalog entries attempt to describe works with sufficient fullness that the searcher may locate the desired record, but the emphasis in the catalog is on the identification and ownership of the works rather than on their intellectual or subject content. This catalog, perhaps the largest card file in the world, is a unique irreplaceable bibliographic tool.

In addition, the Copyright Office has since 1891 published the *Catalog of Copyright Entries*, which contains information available in no other source about books, music, maps, dramas, and motion pictures. The *Catalog* is yet another form of the history of this irreplaceable record of the nation's intellectual production. Published now in semiannual and annual issues, the various parts of the *Catalog* are sold by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

The Copyright Office must deal with many problems of intellectual property and its ownership, and must decide whether a work is eligible for the legal protection of copyright. It is common to see requests for protection of a wide variety of uncopyrightable items, including titles, slogans, blank forms, and calculating de-

vices. Copyright registration must also be denied to those whose works are published without the required copyright notice.

The Copyright Office receives its share of difficult and odd claims. It is not the responsibility of the office to determine questions of originality or plagiarism, and if, for example, copyright is claimed in two apparently identical pieces of music, the office will, in the last analysis, have to register both claims and leave the final decision to the courts. There are also many unusual claims: one in the mid-1950s by a foresighted individual to cover copyright protection on the moon or another inquiring how the applicant could obtain a poetic license. Today, computer programs, fabric designs, and songs of all descriptions are registered along with more conventional and ordinary copyright deposits. Obviously, copyright laws are intended to protect the creator, and discriminating taste is the task of the public, not the government or the Library of Congress.

The mutual interrelationship of the Copyright Office with its parent, the Library of Congress, is now so well established that it is hard to realize that it has existed for only a century. It is through copyright and worldwide exchange arrangements that the Library of Congress automatically receives a great portion of the world's current literary production and maintains its rank among the libraries of the world.

The Law Library

Legal materials have been part of the library's collections since 1800, but the birth and development of the Law Library itself was to come later. Original collections of laws were destroyed in the fire that also consumed the rest of the library's volumes when the U.S. Capitol was burned in 1814. When Congress purchased the private library of Thomas Jefferson early in 1815, there were more than 700 law books among the some 6,000 volumes that the third President sold in his retirement to pay his debts.

As early as 1816 a bill was introduced in the Senate providing for the establishment of a law library for the use of the Supreme Court. Again in 1826 and 1828, Representative Charles Anderson Wickliffe of Kentucky submitted resolutions instructing the Library Committee to study the feasibility of separating the law books from the other books in the library's collections and placing them under the supervision of the Supreme Court; both resolutions failed. Finally, on December 14, 1831, on the motion of Felix Grundy, the Senate resolved "that the Committee on the judiciary be instructed to inquire into the expediency of providing a law library for the use of the Supreme Court of the United States." As a result of this resolution, a bill "to increase and improve the law department of the Library of Congress" was reported in January 1832 and became law on July 14 of that year.

With this law the librarian of Congress moved the legal materials in his custody into a separate room, and access to these books was granted to the Supreme Court justices as well as to the President, Vice President, and members of Congress. The act also earmarked funds specifically for the purchase of law books by the librarian

of Congress, with the advice of the Chief Justice, to increase the law collections over the next 5 years. The new law set the law library apart from the rest of the Library of Congress, but it also made clear that the law collections

shall be part of the library of Congress, subject to the same regulations, except such alternatives as are herein provided for, as now are, or hereafter shall be established for the library of Congress; and the incidental expenses of the law library shall be paid out of the appropriations for the library of Congress.

Thus the integrity of the Library of Congress was preserved by the resistance of the legislators to create separate collections in competition with the library.

A fortunate by-product of moving the law collections—2,011 volumes of legal literature, including 639 volumes from Jefferson's library—to a separate room in the Capitol was that the more than 8,000 volumes that made up the law collections in 1851 escaped the disastrous fire in the Capitol that year which destroyed about 35,000 books in the main library.

The *North American Review* observed in 1837 that the Law Library had been "placed on a sound basis" by including all state laws, by delegating to legal experts the duty of acquisitions, and by consulting the Supreme Court. The annual appropriation of \$1,000 (authorized by the 1832 law) was supplemented by another special grant of \$5,000 in 1837 and was increased to \$2,000 in 1850. By 1861 the Law Library was considered the best developed section of the library, and the 1,400 pages of the *Catalogue of the Library of Congress* printed that year included 250 pages devoted to the law collections (and many of those entries were for multivolume sets).

The rapid growth of the Law Library from 700 volumes in 1815 to 2,000 in 1832 and to nearly 15,000 in 1861 set the pattern for both the pace and diversity of the development of the collections that would continue to characterize the Law Library to the present day. Although the collections in the nineteenth century were composed almost exclusively of American and common law materials, foreign materials and state publications were finding their way into the collections. By the time of the Civil War, the library's law collections were among the largest in the country, and despite some gaps in the holdings of state material, the general collections contained the country's most complete set of state constitutions and constitutional conventions. There were numerous authorities on international law, although these were also kept in the general collections since that branch of law was considered more closely related to history, political science, and diplomacy. Systematic efforts of the Library of Congress to acquire foreign law materials—for example, the acquisition of Spanish and Mexican sources in the 1850s—were not a regular part of the selections program in the nineteenth century, however, and only a fair representation was maintained.

By the time the library moved into its present quarters in the new Main Building in 1897, the law collections had reached nearly 100,000 volumes. Along with a reorganization of the library's collections into separate reference departments, there

was a decision to appoint a superintendent to head each division. Thus a first "law librarian" of the Library of Congress was chosen, and the appointment went to Thomas H. Clark, a lawyer and newspaperman from Montgomery, Alabama, who had won the praise of the American Library Association, which declared that he had "shown the true library spirit." Librarian of Congress John Russell Young had sought the concurrence of the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court Melville W. Fuller in making the appointment. In actuality there had been other, earlier law librarians who had supervised the development and use of the legal collections while they were housed in the Capitol.

When the library's new Main Building was opened in 1897, only a small legal collection was brought into the alcoves of the Main Reading Room. The bulk of the collections followed in 1902, although the law librarian's office and a sizable collection remained in the Capitol until 1917. When a separate building was provided for the Supreme Court in 1935, 50,000 volumes were transferred there to establish a Supreme Court Library. The law library in the Capitol is still in operation to this day, and contains a small collection of 20,000 volumes of American legal materials.

More than 75 years have passed since the move into the Main Building, and the law collections have increased a dozenfold to over 1,200,000 volumes. The twentieth century has left a particularly international stamp on the department, bearing out the words of Librarian Young when he wrote in his *Annual Report for 1898*: "Recent political events have made international law a theme of commanding interest. It has been our aim to seek out and gather in whatever may throw light upon the subject." Building from collections that were largely confined to United States statutory law and Anglo-American common law material, the library began to acquire European legal materials in earnest in the early 1900s. Development of that acquisitions program was followed in the 1920s by similar efforts for the Latin American nations and after World War II for other areas of the globe. The current fundamental policy of the law library is to acquire materials from all nations on an intensive rather than a representative basis.

The international flavor of the library's legal collections is revealed in the organization of the Law Library into five divisions: American-British Law, European Law, Hispanic Law, Far Eastern Law, and Near Eastern and African Law. In addition to the acquisition of American materials through the customary channels of copyright deposits, transfers, exchanges, and purchases, foreign acquisitions are carried out under three broad programs: exchange and gift arrangements with foreign libraries and governments, the PL-480 and NPAC programs (these programs are described fully in the section entitled "The Processing Department"), and blanket-order arrangements with more than 500 dealers and the State Department and regular direct-order purchases.

During the past few years, an average of 30,000 volumes has been added annually to the permanent collections of the Law Library, a figure that does not include the increasing number of microtexts acquired either as additions to the collections or as replacements for printed materials already in the collections. No effort is made

to collect all the world's legal publications, and acquisition is selective in such categories as looseleaf services, casebooks, and subject compilations of statutes; reprints, legislative bills, and pamphlets are not acquired.

Over the years, many valuable and rare materials in the Law Library have been brought together as special collections, including 16,000 volumes of Supreme Court Records and Briefs (dating from 1832 and 1854 respectively), over 20,000 boxes of U.S. Courts of Appeals Records and Briefs (dating from the beginning of each circuit), 300 volumes of English "Year Books," 3,900 volumes of Canon Law, 1,000 volumes of Consilia, 750 volumes of Coutumes, 1,730 volumes from the Imperial Russian Collection of Emperor Nicholas II's Winter Palace, 13,800 volumes of Roman Law, 1,245 volumes on the Holy Roman Empire, and 318 volumes of incunabula. In addition, an estimated 300,000 to 400,000 volumes in the library's general collections on matters related to legal research in the subjects of the social and political sciences would undoubtedly be placed in the law collections if all the library's legal publications were assembled in one department.

A major endeavor to reclassify Law Library materials got underway in 1967 when the Library's Processing Department began the development of classification schedules for Class K (Law) and applying Class KF (Law of the United States) to both current and retrospective materials. This undertaking has begun to yield direct and multifaceted benefits in the Law Library. Consequent to the decision to initiate this project, the Law Library reviewed its acquisitions policies and practices, reassessed its retention policies and weeded the collections scheduled for classification, took steps toward increased preservation measures for classed materials, and incorporated legal materials previously classed in nonlegal classes into the collection. Many retrospective holdings—both monographs and serials—have still not been cataloged, and although temporary cards have been filed for some of these titles, most are not represented in the Law Library card catalog. The work of the Law Library will be greatly facilitated in most respects when the library completes the application of Class K schedules to all legal materials in its collections, and a new and reliable public catalog is available to the users of the Law Library collections.

At present, several other Class K subclass schedules are being applied to the collections, and several are being developed. Class KD for England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales is being applied to current receipts, with the exception of most serials. Of the older holdings, only American legal materials are being reclassified, and this retrospective classification involves both the assignment to Class K and the formulation of complete call numbers. The remainder of the collections, including both older holdings and current receipts, is classed only "Law."

The staff of the Law Library has grown greatly from the one "assistant librarian" who helped readers in 1897, or the seven employees at the time of World War I, to the 84 positions in the department in 1973. The Law Library maintains an exhibit area, a microtext and copying facility, and the Anglo-American Law Reading Room with a working collection of 30,000 American and English books. Open to the public, this reading room seats approximately 150 persons, and numbers among its patrons law students, legal scholars, and members of Congress. The Law Library

maintains a 22,000-volume collection of congressional documents in a nearby gallery of the Main Reading Room of the library. Two small reading areas are available elsewhere in the Law Library's quarters for the use of readers consulting foreign law materials.

While a separate division of the Congressional Research Service handles congressional requests on American public law, the Law Library provides a congressional research service in foreign law, and beyond its first obligation to Congress, the department also serves other government agencies and the judiciary, law libraries, legal scholars and practitioners, and the general public. Because the most important legal materials are published in the vernacular languages and since almost all foreign countries have a legal system different from that of the United States, the Law Library is, in most instances, the only source of information available to Congress and to other federal users on questions involving the law of other nations. Each year, Congress draws increasingly upon the staff for work in foreign and international legal matters, and research services in foreign, comparative, and international law in fiscal 1973 included 490 special studies totaling 20,201 pages. Congress more and more frequently looks to the example of foreign legislation for possibly relevant approaches to concerns it shares with other nations. Multinational surveys of the law of a number of nations on a given subject are of great value to the sponsors and drafters of proposed legislation.

In addition to service to members of Congress, Law Library staff are also occasionally called upon to serve as expert witnesses in court proceedings, as consultants to congressional committees, and as witnesses before congressional hearings. Their ability to conduct research and to provide authoritative opinions on legal matters involving other nations is used extensively by agencies of the federal government, especially in personal status problems and other private legal matters.

Much of the Law Library's bibliographic work of the past 60 years has been disseminated through publications. Guides to the law and legal literature of certain nations have been issued periodically since 1912. The latest in this series, *A Revised Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Mexico*, was issued in 1973. Other notable publications of the Law Library include the seven-volume series of *Legal Sources and Bibliography of Mid-European Nations* (1956-1964), *Anglo-American Legal Bibliographies: An Annotated Guide* (1944), *Guide to Selected Legal Sources of Mainland China* (1967), and the *Index to Latin American Legislation, 1950-1960*, with supplements for 1961-1970. In 1972 the Far Eastern Law staff put out *The People's Republic of China and International Law*. The staff has continued working on such projects as bibliographies of Japanese writings on Communist Chinese law, North Korean legal literature, Communist Chinese newspaper legal literature, a survey of criminal legislation in the French- and Italian-language countries of Africa, and an annotated guide to Iranian legal periodicals in Persian and in Western languages.

Congressional requests, which occupy considerable attention of the Law Library staff, fall into three broad categories: questions involving topical legal issues receiving congressional attention, those for a survey of the law of as many nations as

possible on a particular subject, and those involving a specific aspect of the law of a single country or region. Topics of special studies prepared in 1973 included the regulation of multinational companies in municipal law, the legal aspects of trade and commercial affairs affecting the United States relationship with Japan, the adherence of the Soviet Union to the Universal Copyright Convention, and various features of foreign election laws and regulations. Multinational surveys of the laws of a number of nations included reviews of such subjects as pollution control, financial disclosure requirements for government officials, and the collection and dissemination of criminal arrest and conviction records. Specific studies covered the taxation of automobiles in Europe according to weight or horsepower, the right of an author or artist under French law to collect from the dealer the proceeds of the sale of a work by public auction, the law of negligence in Syria, and the territorial waters of the Republic of Vietnam.

The Law Library of the Library of Congress has reached its present eminence as a national repository of virtually all published law and, effectively, as a congressional research service in foreign law by seeking to develop both historically and geographically comprehensive collections of legal materials—an effort aided especially by the library's foreign acquisitions programs in this century—and by assembling a staff of legal experts and support personnel capable of selecting, maintaining, and utilizing these collections. The great number and diversity of the world's legal systems and the constant and rapid changes in them have made the Law Library's task a challenging one. As the worldwide output of legal literature continues to expand, the Law Library's future holds the promise of an expanded acquisitions program, the completion of the Class K schedules and their application to all the library's legal holdings, and the development of some form of automated indexing system to meet the needs of the Congress and other users for rapid retrieval and analysis of domestic and foreign legal sources. The Law Library's activities in scholarship and research make evident the extent to which information on the world's various legal systems is used in arriving at solutions to our own basic social problems as the law staff seeks an understanding of the complex legal problems resulting from the interrelationships of a multitude of sovereign nation-states.

The Processing Department*

The Processing Department, with almost 2,000 employees and an annual budget of over 20 million dollars, is responsible for acquiring approximately 5 million books and other library materials each year; for cataloging, classifying, assigning subject headings, and otherwise preparing them for use; for maintaining the library's card catalogs; and for preparing a national bibliographic data base in machine-readable

* Some elements of processing in the Library of Congress are of major importance to the library community at large and have been treated in detail elsewhere in these pages. They are therefore only mentioned here.

form. In addition it maintains and develops the Library of Congress and Dewey Decimal classification schemes, operates the Card Distribution Service which sells printed cards to thousands of subscribers, and prepares for publication hundreds of volumes of book catalogs which comprise the American national bibliography.

The department is made up of a number of specialized divisions grouped under assistant directors and individual offices and projects. The assistant director for acquisitions and overseas operations oversees the Exchange and Gift, Order, Overseas Operations Divisions and the Selection Office. The assistant director for cataloging supervises the Decimal Classification, Descriptive Cataloging, MARC Editorial, Shared Cataloging, and Subject Cataloging Divisions. Reporting to the assistant director for processing services are the Card, Catalog Management, Catalog Publication, and Serial Record Divisions. And reporting to the department director are the MARC Development Office, the National Union Catalog Publication Project, and the Technical Processes Research Office.

Of all the parts of the library founded in 1800, the Processing Department would undoubtedly be the most incomprehensible to the congressional founders and, for that matter, to the first librarian of Congress. It is here, more than in any other part of the library, that the applications of technology to library operations are most apparent; such applications have created a whole new language not always understood by librarians not part of the Processing Department. Yet many of the department's activities had their beginnings in the "old" library; one of the department's components, the Order Division, is still carrying out a function performed when the first order for books was placed with London booksellers in 1800; another of its functions is reflected in the *Catalogue of Books, Maps, and Charts Belonging to the Library of the Two Houses of Congress* published in 1802. Its classification function, though vastly different today, had a counterpart in Mr. Jefferson's classification of the three categories of knowledge, broken down into forty-four chapters, a scheme illustrated in the *Catalogue of the Library of the United States . . .* printed in Washington in 1815 and used, with some modifications, until the end of the nineteenth century.

Mr. Spofford published annual catalogs of new accessions and a 1400-page *Catalogue of the Library of Congress* in 1861 and, in 1864, an alphabetical catalog by authors, the only such printed catalog ever to be completed by the Library of Congress. The influx of copyright deposits, however, soon put an end to Mr. Spofford's efforts to keep current catalog information available.

The move into the new building in 1897 focused attention on processing as on so many of the aspects of the library. John Russell Young said in his annual report for 1897, "A library without a catalogue is as a ship without a rudder. . . . Building up a dictionary catalog, as well as a system of classification, is an undertaking of magnitude and requiring technical knowledge." A Catalogue Department was established and to direct it Mr. Young appointed James Christian Hanson, then head cataloger of the University of Wisconsin Library, and to assist him Charles Martel, a member of the staff of the Newbery Library. Both were to become giants of the library profession. At first they considered the Dewey Decimal system for

the classification of the library's collections but it became apparent that the collections were already too vast to fit easily into the Dewey system; so they worked out a different system based on the "expansive collection" principle enunciated by Charles A. Cutter of the Brooklyn Public Library. The Library of Congress system divides man's knowledge into thirty-two volumes of descriptions and tables, new numbers being created each year to reflect changing boundaries of knowledge and experience. The cataloging job that faced the first fourteen persons assigned to the Catalogue Department—the classification of a collection of over 1 million books and pamphlets plus additions of almost 52,000 items in that first year—was a staggering one. It was still under way, it is interesting to note, in 1944 when the *Information Bulletin* reported that the last large segment of materials in the Library of Congress, outside the Rare Book Collection, still bearing the old nineteenth century classification had just been shifted to the Annex Building "where the Descriptive Cataloging Division has begun its reclassification according to the present system. . . . The material . . . numbers some 4,000 volumes" (10).

On October 28, 1901, a circular signed by Herbert Putnam was issued to announce the readiness of the Library of Congress to supply printed catalog cards to other libraries. This service, which Librarian Putnam hoped would place in each local center of research as complete as possible a statement of the contents of the national collections, at the same time saving subscribing libraries the cost of independent cataloging, has grown into a Card Distribution Service which in 1973 supplied bibliographic data in the form of book catalogs, machine-readable records, technical publications, and over 73 million cards to libraries in this and other countries and returned almost \$7 million in revenue to the U.S. Treasury. In 1968 the first stage of the mechanization of the card distribution system was installed, a conversion which speeds distribution and has long-range economic benefits in space and manpower. Orders for cards are now received on machine-readable order forms, and photocomposition has been adopted for catalog cards.

Paralleling the Card Distribution Service is the MARC Distribution Service, which began with an experiment conducted from November 1966 to July 1967, in which MACHine Readable Cataloging (MARC) information on magnetic tapes was distributed weekly to sixteen cooperating libraries. The sixteen libraries, which received in the trial period records for some 16,000 English-language monographs, supplied MARC tapes and/or MARC computer programs to a number of secondary participants for use in printing catalog cards and bibliographic listings. To satisfy the demand created by the interest in this experiment, the library offered for sale a test tape containing about 4,000 records and the tapes for the 7th edition of *Subject Headings*. By March 1969 the library was able to offer subscribers tapes for all the library's current cataloging of American imprints, about 825 titles a week, and in the latter part of July of that year coverage was expanded to include all English-language monographs currently cataloged, about 1,200 titles a week. In September 1972 the Card Division began the sale and distribution of MARC tapes for motion pictures, films, and filmstrips cataloged by the library, and in April 1973 added single- and multi-sheet thematic maps, map sets, and maps treated as serials.

The first MARC tapes of cataloging information for serials were distributed in June 1973; so far these are records of newly cataloged serials in roman-alphabet languages.

Mr. Putnam's hope that libraries could be saved the costs of independent cataloging was fulfilled even more directly when, with the help of the Council on Library Resources, Inc., and the National Endowment for the Humanities and the cooperation of American publishers, the Library of Congress inaugurated in 1971 a project called Cataloging in Publication (CIP). Talked and thought about for a hundred years, the idea of having cataloging information in the book itself has now been realized. Having begun the project with some of the books of just twenty-seven U.S. publishers, the library now provides cataloging data for most of the titles published by the American book trade. Publishers send galley proofs of forthcoming books to the library for cataloging, and within 10 days library catalogers supply those elements of cataloging that require professional decisions—main entry, short title, series statements, bibliographical notes, subject headings, added entries, the LC call number, the Dewey Decimal classification number, and the LC card number. CIP titles are then entered in the MARC system and are distributed to subscribers along with other cataloging data. Publishers usually print the information on the verso of the title page; required not to delete or change the order of any items in the standard entry, they may omit an author's birthdate or substitute a dash for the author's real name if the author uses a pseudonym on the title page.

Today there are four sources from which the Library of Congress acquires books for the collections: copyright deposits (described in the section entitled "The Copyright Office"), exchange, gift, and purchase. Almost 1 million pieces arrive each year from the Public Printer; the library tries to get at least one copy of every federal document and to do so has to go beyond the Public Printer to the agencies themselves to get the items it lists in the publication *Non-GPO Imprints Received in the Library of Congress, a Selective Checklist* (Washington, D.C., 1970—). State documents come to the library for listing in the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* and the agencies in return receive subscriptions to the *Checklist*, which has been published since 1910; 161,219 pieces were received in 1973 through this arrangement. A smaller number of items, 3,848 in 1973, is received each year from county and municipal departments and offices. For documents from foreign governments the library is able to exchange copies of all Government Printing Office publications; in 1973 full sets of government publications were sent to fifty-two exchange partners and partial sets to forty-three, and the Library of Congress acquired over half a million pieces in return. Exchanges with other governments are accomplished by means of international agreements negotiated by the Department of State; other exchanges are initiated by the library's Exchange and Gift Division, suggested by other staff members, or requested by the prospective exchange partners.

Gifts, as indicated earlier, have greatly enriched the library's collections. Although 1969 amendments to the United States tax laws, limiting the value of self-generated papers, music, prints, etc. to the cost of the ink and paper consumed, have seriously diminished the number of significant collections given to the library, gifts still come

from a number of sources, 1,662,838 pieces from individual and unofficial sources in 1973 alone. Some donors, authors and public figures among them, who had planned to give manuscripts and papers to the nation for the benefit of future scholars, are still depositing them in the library, postponing a decision about making outright gifts until a change in the tax laws may make such a decision beneficial. Gifts, like exchanges, are handled by the Exchange and Gift Division of the Processing Department.

There still remain items that the Library of Congress must purchase if it is to acquire them for the collections; these purchases are made by the Order Division. For the most part they fall into the categories of newspapers, both domestic and foreign, foreign periodicals and serials, and foreign books. The first two categories are obtained by subscription and the last, under "blanket-order agreements," from foreign dealers who have been selected to purchase from the national bibliography those books that fall within stated Library of Congress guidelines.

All the incoming material—copyright deposits, exchanges, gifts—is seen by one of the selection officers who decide what should be preserved in the library's collections. Using a manual of selection standards based on the Canons of Selection described earlier, they screen material in all but the Asian languages and decide not only what should be kept but also which should be cataloged first. Major decisions made over the years have settled which areas should be represented and to what degree. In some fields, law and aeronautics for example, the library collects comprehensively; any material in any languages that illuminates any aspect of these subjects is obtained and cataloged. In other fields, like American history, the library tries to build a research collection, keeping the significant documentation or the major books. A reference level of retention indicates that the library will have only a representative sample of the books published in that field, and the minimal level reflects the lack of need for certain subjects. Agreements with the other national libraries, leaving clinical medicine to the National Library of Medicine and agriculture to the National Agricultural Library, relieve the Library of Congress of responsibilities for these areas.

In addition to acquisitions for its own collections, the library also administers a special acquisitions program abroad on behalf of national research resources. An amendment, approved September 6, 1958, of the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954 (Public Law 83-480) authorized the librarian of Congress to use United States-owned foreign currencies, when appropriated by Congress, for the purchase of foreign publications; for cataloging, indexing, abstracting, and related activities; and for the deposit of such materials in libraries and research centers in the United States specializing in the areas to which they relate. Congress appropriated \$400,000 to be used in fiscal year 1962 in India, Pakistan, and the United Arab Republic for such purposes. Programs were added in Indonesia, Israel, Nepal, Poland, Sri Lanka, and Yugoslavia, and by the end of the first decade of the program's existence over 16 million monographs and serial issues had been acquired for some 350 American libraries. Legislation in 1968 requiring payment in United States dollars for future sales of surplus agricultural commodities

foretells the end of the program as existing surplus funds are exhausted; Indonesia and Israel field offices have been closed. But books and cataloging data have been and are being supplied to libraries with special research interest in some of the areas in which they were not getting publications; and the serial *Accessions Lists* published by the American Libraries Book Procurement Centers overseas provide a bibliographic guide to the research materials available to each center in the publishing period.

From the Selection Office material acquired by the library goes to the Descriptive Cataloging Division, which first searches to make sure it is not already in the collections and which produces the main entry; work is distributed to language specialists in the English, Germanic, Romance, Slavic, Far Eastern, or Miscellaneous Languages Sections, or to the specialized format Audiovisual, Manuscripts, or Music Sections. From the Descriptive Cataloging Division material goes to the Subject Cataloging Division, which applies the LC classification schedules and subject headings; if the subject of a book is new, the cataloger in this division has to recommend an addition to the *Library of Congress Subject Heading List* and a place for it in the classification schedules. It is in this division also that the Cutter number is assigned by the Shelflisting Section, which maintains the inventory of the classified collections known as the shelflist.

Although the Library of Congress does not use the Dewey Decimal Classification for its own collections, it does provide the Dewey classification numbers on cards and tapes for virtually all current nonfiction titles published in the United States in any language or published anywhere in the world in English. The Decimal Classification Division of the Processing Department is responsible for developing, continuously revising, and preparing for publication the *Dewey Decimal Classification* in full and abridged editions; for advising on the preparation of special editions and translations; for classing titles in the major Western European languages according to the Dewey system; and for guidance, on a worldwide basis, in the interpretation and use of the system. Forest Press and H. W. Wilson Company have published the 18th edition, the three-volume *Dewey Decimal Classification and Relative Index*, and the 10th abridged edition in one volume.

So many languages are represented in the material cataloged by the Library of Congress that it is not always possible to obtain catalogers fluent in all of them. The library therefore recruits persons with language skills and trains them in cataloging procedures through the Cataloging Instruction Office, which gives courses in cataloging, searching, and filing. (A recent program initiated by the Training Office in the Administrative Department is giving language instruction to paraprofessionals to enable them to advance to positions of higher responsibility in the Processing Department.)

A cataloging project of worldwide significance was initiated in 1966 with the establishment of the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NPAC). Although libraries in this country looked to the Library of Congress for most of their cataloging needs, it was apparent by the 1960s that the library was not acquiring all the library materials needed for research throughout the country and, furthermore, that it could not, without increases in staff, catalog all the books received

annually by major research libraries. With the support of the Association of Research Libraries and other organizations, Title II-C of the Higher Education Act of 1965 was enacted, providing for an effective centralized cataloging program. Funds were appropriated for the purpose of "(a) acquiring so far as possible, all library materials currently published throughout the world of value to scholarship; and (b) providing catalog information for such materials promptly after receipt. . . ." To avoid unnecessary duplication of cataloging already accomplished in other countries, the library has adopted "shared cataloging" techniques wherever possible in cooperation with the producers of foreign national bibliographies, using the data already prepared and speeding it to Washington for completion and publication as quickly as possible. Shared cataloging centers abroad in Austria, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, and Spain and regional acquisitions offices in Brazil, East Africa, and Southeast Asia are staffed chiefly by local personnel. Within the Library of Congress a Shared Cataloging Division adapts the cataloging information received from the various foreign national bibliographies and determines the main and added entries for new works.

The total cataloging output described above has made it possible for college and university libraries to concentrate the time of professionals on original cataloging and the reduction of arrearages. Libraries report coverage by LC cataloging of a majority of their acquisitions, from 65% of all monographs received by Princeton University Library to 80% by Indiana University and Pennsylvania State University.

The Processing Department is responsible not only for the production and distribution of cataloging information on printed cards and magnetic tapes, but for the production of book catalogs as well. From 1901 to 1956 the library maintained, in addition to its own card catalogs which represented the library's own collections, a National Union Catalog in which the locations of important research titles in some 700 North American libraries are recorded by author-entry. One of the library's book catalogs, *Library of Congress Catalog: Books—Authors*, was retitled in 1956 *The National Union Catalog: A Cumulative Author List* and published since that year as a continuation of the information formerly entered in the National Union Catalog on cards. Retrospective publication took the catalog information back to 1952, but publication of all the pre-1956 entries represented too large a project for the library to undertake. A subcommittee of the American Library Association, however, issued an invitation to publishers to bid in 1966, and the contract was awarded to Mansell Information/Publishing Ltd. of London and Chicago who offered the lowest sale price and the most satisfactory format. The firm, assuming all costs and risks, is paying the American Library Association the cost of editing the 16 million cards in the catalog for publication, and the ALA in turn is sponsoring the editorial work at the Library of Congress, where a National Union Catalog Publication Project has been established. The first edited cards for the first of a projected 600 or so volumes went to the publisher in March 1967; by May 1974, 315 volumes had appeared. The largest single bibliographic project in the library's history, the completed work will represent a century of cataloging by the Library of Congress and other research libraries and will provide an invaluable record of retrospective titles. At the same time the library is continuing publication of

the current catalog, completing in 1974 the 1968–1972 Quinquennial Edition of the *National Union Catalog*, a total of 128 volumes which includes a five-volume *Music and Phonorecords* catalog and a four-volume *Motion Pictures and Filmstrips* catalog.

In 1966 the library established the Technical Processes Research Office to develop, coordinate, and administer a comprehensive program of research in bibliographic control. It was specifically charged with evaluating present patterns of cataloging and classification; investigating alternative techniques; considering the effect of automation in this area; and determining the most effective use of the new technology for information storage and retrieval. Its first project was the development of a means of filing machine-readable catalog records by computer; the present head of the office is the library's liaison with the Committee on Computer Filing of the American Library Association's Resources and Technical Services Division. Its studies in recent years have included an evaluation of the International Standard Book Number system as a means of controlling LC catalog cards; the relative efficiency of Dewey Decimal and Library of Congress classification numbers for subject retrieval in an automated system; and the extent to which the Library of Congress and *British National Bibliography* agree in their assignment of LC class numbers, LC subject headings, and Dewey Decimal class numbers, a degree of compatibility which justified exploring ways to broaden the areas of agreement between the two institutions.

The Serial Record Division of the Processing Department records receipt of serial issues in the Roman, Greek, and Cyrillic alphabets and forwards them to appropriate units for immediate use or further processing. Printed card copy prepared by the division's catalogers generates reports to *New Serial Titles*, and since early in 1973 its services provide data for all newly cataloged entries to the new MARC Serials Project and to the National Serials Data Program. In 1970 *New Serial Titles*, the national union list, passed its twentieth anniversary; the 20-year cumulation, published in six volumes by R. R. Bowker Company, contains some 230,000 entries.

The National Serials Data Program, which became operational in January 1973, acts as the United States national center in the international effort to achieve standardized bibliographic control of serial publications. A serials data base is being established as a computer file, with initial input received as current cataloging from the Library of Congress itself, the National Agricultural Library, and the National Library of Medicine. Each serial is assigned an International Standard Serial Number (ISSN), key title, and other data elements to provide unique identification.

The Reference Department

Through the Reference Department of the Library of Congress the library provides reference and reader services in its reading rooms; through published bibliog-

raphies, guides, and other research tools; and by mail and telephone. Its major responsibilities are:

Custody and user service of the collections, excepting those in the custody of the Law Library.

Reference and bibliographic service in all major subjects, excepting law.

Operation of the library's two general reading rooms and eleven other specialized reading rooms.

Interlibrary loan.

Development of the collections, in cooperation with the Processing Department, through the recommending of both current and noncurrent materials and the solicitation of special format materials.

Field trips within the United States and abroad in connection with the library's acquisitions programs.

Organization of the collections, in cooperation with the Processing Department, and establishment of bibliographical control or other means of access for special format material.

Participation in national and international conferences of direct interest to the library and its activities.

Special research services for the federal government on a reimbursed basis.

Selection of materials from the collections for exhibits.

Selection of materials from the collections for preservation treatment.

Preparation of newspapers, serials, and special format materials for micro-filming, binding, or other preservation treatment.

Administration of trust fund activities which support the employment of consultants, the commissioning of artistic works, and the presentation of public programs.

Administration of the library's principal interpretive programs for the public, primarily musical concerts and literary readings.

Administration of the national program to provide library service to blind and physically handicapped readers.

Reference service was probably the most important function of the "old library" in the Capitol, but it depended chiefly on the diligence, wide-ranging knowledge, and memory of the librarian of Congress and his assistants; in the case of Mr. Spofford, the memory was apparently a phenomenal one. There were no specialists, and, although some segregation of material by format was attempted, it was not possible, as acquisitions under the copyright laws piled up in the already crowded quarters, to arrange or to service much of the collections. Removal to the new building in 1897 provided the opportunity not only to organize the general collections but also to establish certain custodial departments to preserve, arrange, and make available for study collections of graphic arts, maps and charts, periodicals, manuscripts, and music. In the next 40 years or so other divisions were created—for orientalia, Slavic literature, and aeronautics, for example—and consultants were appointed in various subject fields to advise on the building of the collections. The special reference divisions not only enlarged the collections in their custody but developed relevant segments of the general book collections. Specialists in the Music Division, for instance, have contributed greatly to the value of the library's

musicological holdings; the curators of prints have strengthened the fine arts book collections; and geographers in the Map Division have helped to build an outstanding collection of geography and cartography. Certain subject areas of the general collections were further strengthened by the establishment in the 1920s of endowed chairs in American history, music, geography, and fine arts for the chiefs of the Manuscripts, Music, Maps, and Fine Arts Divisions, chairs to which the Librarian of Congress was able to attract scholars of special distinction.

In 1940 Librarian of Congress Archibald MacLeish issued a series of general orders which differentiated the administrative, processing, and reference functions of the library. Bibliographic, research, and reference projects and services were centered in a Reference Department, which included at that time the Legislative Reference Service (made an independent department of the library in 1946), eighteen other organizational units, the library's reading rooms (except for the Law Library), its fellowships, and its consultant services. At the same time the library adopted three objectives or Canons of Selection:

1. *The Library of Congress should possess in some useful form all bibliothecal materials necessary to the Congress and to the officers of government of the United States in the performance of their duties.*

To this canon only one exception is made. A large number of special libraries have been established in the various departments, bureaus, and offices of government, as, for example, the Department of Agriculture and the Office of the Surgeon General of the Army (the OSG Library is now the National Library of Medicine). Where the collections of these libraries adequately cover particular fields in which the library is not strong, the Library of Congress will not purchase extensively in these fields but will limit itself to the principal reference works, using its best efforts to strengthen the collections already established elsewhere. Where, however, the collections of the library are already exceptionally strong, they will be maintained regardless of holdings in other libraries. The Reference Department of the Library of Congress will make it its business to know the extent of the collections of these special libraries and will establish, with the librarians in charge, machinery for cooperation both in the maintenance of these collections and in their use.

2. *The Library of Congress should possess all books and other materials (whether in original or in copy) which express and record the life and achievements of the people of the United States.*

To this canon there is one obvious exception. Where official records of the federal government are deposited in the National Archives, the library will secure only such copies as are necessary for the convenience of its readers. It will, however, attempt to secure all printed documents, federal, state, and municipal.

3. *The Library of Congress should possess, in some useful form, the material parts of the records of other societies, past and present, and should accumulate, in original or in copy, full and representative collections of the written records of those societies and peoples whose experience is of most immediate concern to the people of the United States.*

Two exceptions to the third canon should be noted. First, the Library of Congress as the central United States depository for the publications of all foreign governments will attempt to secure all the *official* publications of all governments of the world. Second, where, aside from such official documents, other American libraries whose collections are made broadly available have already accumulated, or are in process of accumulating outstanding collections in well-defined areas in which areas the Library of Congress is not strong, the Library of Congress will satisfy itself with general reference materials and will not attempt to establish intensive collections (II).

The Reference Department divides its responsibilities among fifteen divisions which are either custodial in function or responsible for a particular subject area or service; the department has a staff of about 850.

DIVISION FOR THE BLIND AND PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

Library of Congress service to the blind dates from 1897 when John Russell Young, then librarian of Congress, at the suggestion of his wife, organized a Department for the Blind. A reading room was ready to welcome its public 3 days after the Main Building of the Library of Congress opened its doors in November of that year. Here were assembled the 200 volumes in raised characters already in the collections, and writing slates, typewriting machines, and other devices for the use of the blind. The room was open daily from 9 to 4, and Mrs. Young organized a daily reading hour during which volunteers would read aloud from books not available in braille; musicales to which local musicians contributed their services were held on Wednesday afternoons. Congress ensured the growth of the collection of embossed books by stipulating in 1913 that the American Printing House for the Blind at Louisville, Ky., which received an annual appropriation from Congress, should deposit in the Library of Congress one copy of each book manufactured.

The national service which the library now administers through the Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped and fifty-three cooperating regional libraries began with the passage of the Pratt-Smoot Act of March 3, 1931. This act established a centralized national free library service for adult blind readers. Service was at first limited to the provision of books in braille, but the program was enlarged in 1934 to include "talking books" (books and magazines on unbreakable microgroove records), and a national lending library of braille musical scores was established by legislation passed in 1962. The Pratt-Smoot Act was amended in 1952 to permit service to children as well as to the adults named in the original legislation, and a 1966 amendment extended national books-for-the-blind service to all persons who are unable to read conventional printed materials because of physical or visual limitations.

Forty years ago the blind either had to be read to or had to learn braille if they wanted to use books. Thomas A. Edison, as early as 1878, had predicted the use of "phonographic books, which will speak to blind people without effort on their

part," but for a long time the only recordings available were 78 rpm, with a playing time of about 5 minutes each. Seventy-two of them were needed to record a book that took 12 hours to read. The American Foundation for the Blind, under the leadership of its director, Robert B. Irwin, developed a 33-1/3 rpm record, which it then manufactured, and beginning in 1934 the Library of Congress distributed these talking books to a greatly expanded audience of blind readers—14 years before commercial long-playing records were offered to the general public.

Fiction, nonfiction, and periodicals are now recorded at 8-1/3 rpm, a compressed format which makes it possible to provide almost twice as much material as the 16 rpm recently used and almost four times as much as the first long-playing records. Recording on magnetic tape has made possible the distribution of small cassettes, especially to students and mobile blind persons; cassette books are recorded at 15/16 ips. New technology indicates the possibility of bringing projected books to a wider audience; automation is already being used for the production of books and music. Special devices which allow the partially paralyzed or immobile patient to make use of phonographs and records are available, with similar adaptations being produced for cassette machines.

Inability to utilize ordinary print because of any physical impairment establishes a person's eligibility for the program. A resident of the United States or one of its possessions, or a citizen of the United States living abroad, who feels he may be eligible, can have his disability certified by a physician, social worker, nurse, or therapist, and apply to the Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. 20542. In 1973 there were 400,000 eligible readers enrolled in the program.

Over 1,000 titles—braille, talking books, and cassettes—are selected for production each year; these are professionally produced by the American Printing House for the Blind and the American Foundation for the Blind. Many more are produced by volunteers in religious and community-service organizations who braille or tape individual titles needed by blind readers. Titles available throughout the network of libraries will be recorded in a national automated bibliographic service for which planning funds became available in 1973.

A new building for the District of Columbia Public Library enabled that institution in 1973 to provide library service to blind and physically handicapped readers of the metropolitan area of Washington, D.C. The Library of Congress, which had had a reading room for the blind since 1897 and a regional library for the District of Columbia since 1931, transferred the regional library responsibility to this library. Reading materials are now available to all readers through regional libraries. Music, however, is still provided from division headquarters at the Library of Congress. Over 6,000 users of the music program have access to more than 24,000 volumes of musical instruction and a collection of music scores to which about 3,000 titles are added each year. A grant from a private foundation supported a contract with the American Printing House for the Blind to develop computerized production of braille music; three titles have already been produced under this contract.

FEDERAL RESEARCH DIVISION

The Federal Research Division provides special research services, including cataloging, bibliographical, and abstracting activities, in support of various U.S. Government research programs. Division projects, supported by transferred funds from other government agencies, are based directly on materials generally available in the library's collections or made available to the library for research purposes.

Work in 1973 was performed for the Department of Defense, the Environmental Protection Agency, the National Aeronautics and Space Agency, and the National Institutes of Health.

GENERAL REFERENCE AND BIBLIOGRAPHY DIVISION

The General Reference and Bibliography Division provides reference and bibliographic services in person, by telephone, and through correspondence in all subjects not covered by specialized divisions of the library. Through its Public Reference Section the division provides reference service in the Main, Annex, and Local History and Genealogy Reading Rooms. Two of its sections have special responsibilities, one for a geographic area and the other for a class of literature: the African Section and the Children's Book Section.

The African Section was established within the division in 1960 to fill a need for a specialized reference unit for Africa. Established with the help of a generous grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, it has since been supported by appropriated funds. It advises and cooperates in the library's acquisition program, provides reference and bibliographic services, and maintains liaison with other institutions in the United States and abroad concerned with African studies. Each member of its small staff is responsible for a particular region and for material in certain European and African languages. The staff is competent in all major Western languages such as Swahili, Arabic, Hausa, and Amharic. With no collections in its custody, it directs readers to divisions of the library that have special Africana collections and provides detailed reference service and a number of bibliographic aids on sub-Saharan Africa. The latest in a series of published guides appeared in 1973, *French-Speaking Central Africa; A Guide to Official Publications in American Libraries* and *Spanish-Speaking Africa; A Guide to Official Publications*, while the latest in a series of periodic survey trips to the area produced *Africana Acquisitions: Report of a Publication Survey Trip to Nigeria, Southern Africa, and Europe, 1972*. Articles in the July 1970 issue of the *Quarterly Journal of the Library of Congress*, published to mark the 10th anniversary of the African Section, describe some of the Africana holdings of the library and discuss the work of the section.

The Children's Book Section, established in 1963, gives reference service to visitors, telephone inquirers, and correspondents; recommends children's literature for acquisition by the library; identifies gaps in the existing collections; organizes exhibits of children's books; and prepares numerous bibliographies and other publications.

Since 1870 copyright deposits have created in the library not only valuable resources for adult research but a substantial collection of juvenile literature as well, now estimated at more than 150,000 volumes. There are old and rare juveniles in the Rare Book Division and a number of foreign language books in the collections, some the result of exchange, some of purchase, and some of gifts from donors like the late Irvin Kerlan, appointed in 1957 honorary consultant to the library on the acquisition of children's books. The first study of these resources was made in 1952, when the Joint Committee for Childhood Education International and the American Association of University Women financed a 3-month study by Frances Clarke Sayers, noted children's librarian and author. Mrs. Sayers concluded that the library should establish a center to facilitate the study, by adults, of children's literature.

Ten years later, in July 1962, the Congress appropriated funds for a Children's Book Section, to be established within the General Reference and Bibliography Division of the Reference Department, stating that the "primary purpose of this new Section would be to provide reference and bibliographic services to Government officials, children's librarians, publishers, writers, illustrators, and the general public." In March 1963 the library appointed Virginia Haviland, then of the Boston Public Library and associate editor of the *Horn Book Magazine*, to head the section. In 1964 the first annual issue of the series *Children's Books* was issued; in 1966 *Children's Literature; A Guide to Reference Sources*, with a second supplementary volume in 1972; *Children & Poetry; A Selective Annotated Bibliography* appeared in 1969; *Creating Independence, 1763-1789; Background Reading for Young People* in 1972; and from time to time illustrated annotated exhibit catalogs recording exhibits arranged and shown in the Library of Congress.

The Union Catalog and International Organizations Reference Section of the General Reference and Bibliography Division answers inquiries about titles in that part of the alphabet not yet published in the *National Union Catalog, Pre-1956 Imprints*. The section recently issued a 33-page guide and instruction manual, *The National Union Catalog: Reference and Related Services*.

GEOGRAPHY AND MAP DIVISION

When a Department of Maps and Charts was established in 1897, it had already the best collection in the United States, with the possible exception of Harvard University. Moved to the new building were 25,000 sheet maps, 1,200 atlases, 700 pocket maps, and 800 roller maps. Today the Geography and Map Division has custody of the world's largest cartographic collection, consisting of nearly 3-1/2 million maps and 37,000 atlases, which it services in the Geography and Map Reading Room.

Among the earliest original manuscript maps in the collection are three portolan atlases and seventeen portolan charts drawn on vellum by Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish cartographers in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries. The atlas collection includes representative volumes of all important publishers of

atlases of the last 500 years. One group is of special interest to genealogists and local historians, the large collection of United States county and state atlases from the latter half of the nineteenth century; and another valuable for research is that of atlases published during the last 50 years that cover national, regional, state, and provincial resources.

Historians will find manuscript and printed maps of colonial America, the Revolutionary War, the War of 1812, the Civil War, and the wars of the twentieth century. Supplementing these holdings are photoreproductions of manuscript maps from various American and European archives. The Hummel and Warner collections include rare manuscript and printed maps and atlases of China and Korea from the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries.

About 55% of the maps are individual sheets of large- and medium-scale set maps and charts published during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Official topographic, geologic, soil, mineral, and resource maps and nautical and aeronautical charts are available for most countries of the world. The collection of single maps embraces more than a million and a half general and special subject maps of the world and its various political entities, divisions, and subdivisions, with maps of the Americas and countries of the Western Hemisphere predominating. The United States and each of the fifty states are especially well represented. Among the numerous county maps and city and town plans are some 750,000 large-scale fire insurance maps, in bound and loose sheet series, covering over 12,000 towns and cities. Between 1852 and 1961, as many as seven different editions and revisions of these maps were issued for the various municipalities by the Sanborn Map Company and other publishers. The collection constitutes an unrivaled cartographic and historic record of American urban settlement and growth over more than 100 years.

Also in the division's custody are approximately 200 globes, a growing collection of three-dimensional plastic relief models, and an assortment of varied and interesting cartographic formats.

In 1973 the division received 117,000 maps and 2,000 atlases, two-thirds of which were transferred from those government agencies which have regular surveying and mapping responsibilities. Most private and commercial cartographic works published in the United States are acquired through copyright. Foreign maps are received by exchange or purchase. Many rare and valuable maps in the collections have been presented to the library by generous and public-minded citizens.

The division is responsible not only for the acquisition but also for the processing of its map collection. Since 1968, with the help of a developmental grant from the Council on Library Resources, Inc., it has employed computer-aided cataloging procedures in cataloging its single-sheet maps, about 5,000 annually. MARC Map, as this MACHine-Readable Cataloging format is called, is now fully operational. A number of bibliographies and checklists have been published to describe various cartographic groups, and seven volumes of the *List of Geographical Atlases in the Library of Congress (1909-1969)* have appeared. The latest in a series of guides to the collections is to appear in 1974, *Panoramic Maps of Anglo-American Cities*;

A Checklist of Maps in the Collections of the Library of Congress, Geography and Map Division. The Bibliography of Cartography maintained since the division was established is an analytical card catalog of the literature of maps, mapmaking, and the history of cartography.

LATIN AMERICAN, PORTUGUESE, AND SPANISH DIVISION

Originally established in 1939 as the Hispanic Foundation in the Library of Congress, the Latin American, Portuguese, and Spanish Division was renamed in 1972 to reflect more accurately its fields of interest. It serves as a center for the pursuit of studies in the cultures of Latin America, the Iberian Peninsula, and those areas where the influence of the Iberian Peninsula has been significant, particularly the Philippines and the southwestern part of the United States.

A small staff guides members of Congress, representatives of federal agencies, and the general public to the Hispanic and Portuguese collections, which number about 1 million volumes and which are part of the general collections of the library. These collections have been building for over 100 years, but systematic acquisition can be said to have begun in 1927 with the endowment of \$100,000 by Archer M. Huntington, noted Hispanist and past president of the Hispanic Society of America, for the purpose of "books relating to Spanish, Portuguese, and South American arts, crafts, literature, and history," and a second endowment by Mr. Huntington in 1928 to provide an honorarium for a consultant in the field of Hispanic literature. The first person appointed to this post was a former Spanish ambassador to the United States, Don Juan Riano Y Gayangos.

In 1939 the Hispanic Society Room was formally opened on the second floor of the Main Library building, a gift of the Hispanic Society and its president, Mr. Huntington. Designed by Paul Cret, the room is a gallery 130 feet long and 35 feet wide in the style of the Spanish and Portuguese sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, with study facilities for about twenty-five readers.

Besides the general book collections, other major collections relating to Latin America include manuscripts, government publications, newspapers, periodicals, maps, prints, photographs, and music, all housed separately in various divisions of the library. The division's primary role is to develop these collections and to explain and interpret them through published guides and bibliographies. Since 1944 the division has compiled an annual bibliography, *Handbook of Latin American Studies*, a basic reference and acquisition tool for this area. It is the work of more than eighty contributing editors, each a specialist in his own discipline. To provide current information about individuals with specialized knowledge of Latin America and to foster communication among them, the division compiled the *National Directory of Latin Americanists*, the first edition in 1966 and the second in 1971; the latter contains information on 2,695 specialists. Three editions have appeared of *Latin America, Spain, and Portugal: An Annotated Bibliography of Paperback Books*.

Since 1943 the division has recorded contemporary Iberian and Latin American poets and prose writers reading selections from their own works for the Archive of

Hispanic Literature on Tape. Among the 230 or so distinguished writers already recorded are four Nobel Prize winners: Juan Ramon Jimenez of Spain, Gabriela Mistral of Chile, Miguel Angel Asturias of Guatemala, and Pablo Neruda of Chile.

LOAN DIVISION

The Loan Division circulates materials for use outside the buildings, principally for members of Congress and other government agencies, and searches, identifies, and issues materials for interlibrary loan. The division also maintains the Central Charge File and provides direct service to Congress through bookrooms operated in the Cannon and Longworth House Office Buildings and Russell Senate Office Building and a station in the United States Capitol.

Other libraries may borrow from the Library of Congress for the use of investigators engaged in serious research certain books not available in a local or regional library. Applications for loan and requests for further information about the conditions of loan should be addressed to the Chief, Loan Division, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. 20540.

MANUSCRIPT DIVISION

A Department of Manuscripts was established in 1897 to care for the manuscripts already in the custody of the Library of Congress. Most of these dealt with the colonial and Revolutionary periods of American history and had been acquired in the nineteenth century in the Force and Toner collections. There was in addition correspondence of Gen. John Sullivan, 1775–1783; correspondence of Henry Schoolcraft; minutes of the Council of Safety of Lancaster, Pennsylvania; and some letters from President and Mrs. Madison. Librarian John Russell Young, enumerating these holdings in his Annual Report for 1897, boldly suggested that the archives of the federal government, then held in various government departments—and in which he included the papers of the presidents of the United States—be assembled in the Library of Congress. “It would tend to make our Library the center in this country for the study of American history, and would give an impetus to that study such as it needs, and in which every patriotic citizen must take a deep interest.” The archives of the United States were not assembled until over 35 years later when the National Archives was established, but the library did receive the historical manuscripts acquired by the Department of State, which included papers of Presidents Washington, Madison, Jefferson, and Monroe, papers of Benjamin Franklin and Alexander Hamilton, the records of the Continental Congress, and the charters of the republic, the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution. Both were displayed in a shrine in the library’s Main Building until 1952, when as archives of the central government they were transferred to the National Archives.

Today the holdings of the Manuscript Division total more than 33 million pieces and include the papers of most of the presidents from Washington through Coolidge,

of many other statesmen, military, scientific, and literary leaders of numerous enterprises and institutions. To the papers of early American statesmen have been added papers of other Americans from many walks of life—Walt Whitman, Gutzon Borglum, Truman Capote, Felix Frankfurter, George S. Patton, Jr., J. Robert Oppenheimer, Carl Spaatz, and Owen Wister, to name but a few of hundreds. Many of these manuscripts came to the library as gifts: correspondence of Alexander H. Stephens, vice president of the Confederacy, from Bernard M. Baruch; a complete set of autographs of the signers of the Declaration of Independence in letters presented by J. Pierpont Morgan; and a great collection of manuscripts from the period of the conquistadores in Mexican and Peruvian history from Edward S. Harkness. A gift from John D. Rockefeller, Jr. made possible the photographic reproduction of millions of pages of manuscripts in the archives and other institutions of Great Britain, France, Spain, Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, Russia, Italy, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, the Scandinavian countries, Canada, and Mexico.

The librarian of Congress was able to announce in his Annual Report for 1937 that an anonymous benefactor (it was Archer M. Huntington) had given an endowment for a chair of a "Consultant in Poetry (in the English language)" and that Joseph Auslander had been engaged as consultant for that year. Mr. Auslander's appointment was renewed for 5 years, but the next librarian of Congress, Archibald MacLeish, decided in 1943 that the chair should be filled from year to year by distinguished men of letters. Allen Tate, the first to serve under this new concept, was followed by an extraordinary group of men and women—Elizabeth Bishop, Robert Penn Warren, Robert Frost, to name but three—who supervise the recording of poets reading their own works for the library's recorded archive of contemporary poets, advise the library on its literary collections, and recommend new material. Appointed for 1-year terms, which are sometimes renewed once, the consultants give two public readings, one usually a poetry reading, in the fall, and the other, usually a lecture, in the spring. Mrs. Gertrude Clarke Whittall established a Poetry and Literature Fund, the foundation of many of the library's literary activities, and provided for a Poetry Room which serves as the consultant's headquarters at the library. There are literary programs throughout the winter months, usually on Monday evenings; some are poetry readings by young writers just beginning to be heard, with discussions moderated by the poetry consultant, some are dramatic readings by the small casts the size of the Coolidge Auditorium stage demands, and some bring dancers and singers together in masques or plays. From time to time conferences, symposia, or festivals are held at the library under the auspices of the Gertrude Clarke Whittall Poetry and Literature Fund: an International Poetry Festival in 1970 brought poets from eight countries and their American translators to the Coolidge Auditorium for 3 days of readings, lectures, and discussions; there was a Conference on the Teaching of Creative Writing in 1973; and the library marked in 1974 the anniversary of the birth of Robert Frost with a series of lectures to be followed by an evening presentation of Frost's dramatic work.

MUSIC DIVISION

The first volumes of music and music literature acquired by the Library of Congress were those in Thomas Jefferson's personal library. Although no special efforts were made in the nineteenth century to establish a great music library, this nucleus had grown, with copyright deposits, to a collection of 187,178 vocal and instrumental works by the time the library moved into its own building. A Music Division was established to maintain both music and music literature, and growth was assured with the appointment in 1902 of a distinguished scholar and musicologist, Oscar George Theodore Sonneck. The classification scheme devised in 1904 by Sonneck is, with certain expansions and revisions, still in use.

The division's holdings today number almost 4,000,000 pieces and 400,000 sound recordings which reflect the development of music in Western civilization from earliest times to the present day. The scholar can find research materials that include manuscript scores and letters by master composers and famous musicians, every type of printed music from the classics to rock, pedagogical literature, and books on history, theory, practice, and philosophy. Many of these items came to the library as copyright deposits, although some material is purchased and other comes as gifts from generous donors. As early as 1908 the division began to solicit gifts of original manuscripts of American composers from publishers and from individuals; it acquired holograph scores of Bach, Beethoven, Berg, Bizet, Brahms, Debussy, Delibes, Faure, etc., as well as those of significant American composers like Antheil, Copland, Gershwin, Piston, and Sousa.

A number of foundations, which have given funds that are administered by the Library of Congress Trust Fund Board, have enabled the Music Division to extend its services and influence. The Elizabeth Sprague Coolidge Foundation was established in 1925 for the perpetual promotion and advancement of chamber music through commissions, public concerts, and festivals. In that same year Mrs. Coolidge financed the construction of the 500-seat Coolidge Auditorium in the northwest courtyard of the library. The Gertrude Clarke Whittall Foundation provides funds for chamber music concerts at which the public can hear the five magnificent Stradivari instruments which Mrs. Whittall presented to the library. For almost 25 years the Budapest String Quartet was heard in these concerts; since 1962 the Juilliard String Quartet has been the library's "Quartet in Residence." When not in use the Stradivari instruments are displayed in cases in the Whittall Pavilion, a handsome room which adjoins the Coolidge Auditorium. Both Mrs. Coolidge and Mrs. Whittall also gave the library valuable manuscript gifts.

In 1949 Serge Koussevitzky established the Serge Koussevitzky Music Foundation in the Library of Congress to commission distinguished composers within the United States or abroad to write new works. The original manuscripts produced for this foundation become part of the library's Koussevitzky Music Foundation Collection. Dayton Clarence Miller left the library an unusual collection of flutes, music, books, and objets d'art relating to flutes, and an endowment to maintain and increase

the collection and to foster appreciation of the flute in the art of music. The Rachmaninoff Archives, given to the Library by Sergei Rachmaninoff's widow, is a great family collection of music manuscripts, correspondence, recordings, photographs, and other memorabilia.

Other interesting collections are the George Gershwin Collection, the Jascha Heifetz Collection, the opera collection of Geraldine Farrar, and the autograph manuscripts and letters of Franz Liszt presented by Harry Rosenthal. The Heine-man Foundation for Research, Educational, Charitable, and Scientific Purposes enables the library to acquire rare books, early librettos, early imprints, and important first editions. The Sonneck Memorial Fund, established in memory of the first chief of the division by the Beethoven Association, offers financial aid in publication of historical studies in the field of American music. The Nicholas Longworth Foundation provides for an annual chamber music concert. The Norman P. Scala Memorial Fund supports musical performances, lectures, and research on music of the era of Francis M. Scala, leader of the U.S. Marine Band from 1855-1871. The library can use the Charles Martin Loeffler Fund and the Friends of Music in the Library of Congress Fund to purchase rare items for the Music Division's collections. A bequest just a few years ago established the McKim Fund for the composition or performance of chamber music for violin and piano. And finally the Katie and Walter Louchheim Fund provides support for the preparation of audio and video tapes for broadcasting the library's chamber music concerts and literary programs and for the production of sound recordings and video tapes for dissemination to the general public and to educational institutions.

The Archive of Folk Song in the Library of Congress was established in 1928 with gifts from private sources. Supported since 1937 with congressional appropriations, its collections have grown from a nucleus of 286 recordings to 25,000 recordings containing over 150,000 individual titles which preserve authentic folklore and song from the United States and around the world. A mecca for the serious students of folk music who come to study the collections, the archive has issued for the general public a documentary series of sixty-six recordings. These are available for sale at the library and by mail. The responsibilities of the archive may change or be enlarged if legislation already introduced in Congress to create an American Folklife Center in the Library of Congress is passed within the next few years.

The Recorded Sound Section is responsible for the custody and service of all sound recordings in the Library of Congress, regardless of subject, with the exception of talking books for the blind and physically handicapped. A dramatic increase in the number of sound recordings in the collections has occurred since February 1972 when sound recordings published on or after that date became subject to statutory copyright protection. A technical operating unit of the section is the Recording Laboratory, which enables the library to duplicate audio materials in the collections not under copyright or other restrictions. It also issues, in addition to the recordings of folk music mentioned above, two series of recorded poetry, English and Hispanic, and will distribute a bicentennial album of American music which the Archive of Folk Song has in preparation.

ORIENTALIA DIVISION

The Orientalia Division maintains and provides service on the library's Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Southeast Asian, South Asian, Near Eastern, and Hebraic collections, which total over 1 million volumes in more than forty languages. Of these collections the Chinese is the oldest in the Library of Congress, having begun with a gift from the Emperor of China in June 1869. The first acquisition of ten works in 933 volumes was joined 10 years later when the library acquired the Chinese and Manchu books assembled by Caleb Cushing, the first American Minister to China. Another American Minister to China, William W. Rockhill, presented some 6,000 volumes of Chinese, Manchu, Mongolian, and Tibetan works in 1902, and the Chinese Government made additional gifts in 1904 and in 1908. Perhaps the greatest contributions were made, however, by a botanist in the employ of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Walter T. Swingle; his book purchases in China over a period of 30 years added thousands of volumes to the collections.

In 1911–1912, when the Chinese collection consisted of about 15,500 volumes, the library assigned its classification and cataloging to Dr. Hing Kwai Fung, a native of Canton and a graduate of Cornell University who was then working for the Department of Agriculture. Over the next 15 years Chinese students were hired during the summer to catalog the incoming books, and in 1928 a division of Chinese literature was established with a division chief and an assistant.

The Japanese collection began in 1906 when Professor Kanichi Asakawa of Yale University acquired about 9,000 works in all fields of Japanese literature for the library, although there were some 140 volumes in the Japanese language already in the library. Dr. Swingle was helpful to the growth of this collection as well, and after 1930, when a chief assistant in Japanese was appointed, it was possible to plan systematic development. Since World War II, during which the 50,000 volumes in the Japanese collection were very heavily used, there has been greater interest in Japan and the collection has grown accordingly. It is especially strong in literature, modern history, and the social sciences, and contains complete sets of Japanese laws and statutes and extensive files of legal periodicals.

The first Korean books in the Library of Congress were twenty-two manuscript volumes on the organization of the Korean government presented by the Korean Minister at Washington in 1916. A Korean Unit was set up in 1950 and later combined with the Chinese Section. The collection, about 37,000 volumes, is especially strong in the social sciences and modern history.

The Southern Asia Section, which is concerned with the area from Pakistan to the Philippines, was set up with funding from the Carnegie Corporation and the American Council of Learned Societies in 1938. The Library of Congress already had a significant Indic collection, through the purchase in 1904 of the library of Albrecht Weber, comprising 3,375 books and manuscripts. Systematic efforts have been made to build these collections over the last 30 years, and there are now almost 100,000 volumes in Bengali, Marathi, Hindi, Urdu, Nepali, Indonesian, Vietnamese, Thai, Burmese, and other languages of the area.

A collection of Turkish classics was presented to the library in 1884 by Sultan Abdul-Hamid II, and there were in the collections books in Persian and Arabic, but the Near East Section was not established until 1945. Scholars now have access to a collection of 75,000 volumes in Arabic, Armenian, Persian, Turkish, and other languages, strong in Muslim theology, history, and literature.

A collection of Hebraica was presented to the library in 1912 by Jacob H. Schiff, which was supplemented by another gift in 1914, and in 1913 the library established a Semitic Division which became the Hebraic Section of the Orientalia Division in 1943. The collection of almost 100,000 volumes in Hebrew, Yiddish, Judeo-Arabic, Judeo-Persian, Ladino, Syriac, and Ethiopic is especially strong in Biblical subjects, literature, sociology, and politics. Its holdings span a long period of time, from rare manuscripts and incunabula to the official publications of the State of Israel.

All the Orientalia collections have their own catalogs and are served to readers in separate reading rooms. The staff of the individual sections not only advise readers but also prepare bibliographies and other guides to research and recommend for acquisition books in European languages on the Far East and Near East areas which are then added to the general collections.

PRINTS AND PHOTOGRAPHS DIVISION

This division has custody of the library's pictorial materials which are not in book format—prints, engravings, lithographs, drawings, photographic negatives and prints, slides, and posters. It is responsible for the arrangement of the material in its collections and for providing reference service in the division's reading room.

The division began as the Department of Graphic Arts, formed in 1897 to care for the 54,000 items transferred from the old library in the Capitol, chiefly prints and other commercially available items submitted as copyright deposits. The library's role as a conservator of fine prints was confirmed a year later when Congress authorized the library to accept a collection of engravings and art books from Mrs. Gardiner Greene Hubbard. Mrs. Hubbard advised the library that she would add from time to time to the collection assembled by her late husband; in her will, moreover, she made a bequest with which additional purchases might be made. Such a beginning attracted other donations and the artists prints collection, already strong, was considerably strengthened when the modern printmaker, Joseph Pennell, donated his own collection together with an endowment for the purchase of prints "of the highest quality, executed in the last hundred years by artists of all nationalities." Artists prints in the collections today date from the fifteenth to the twentieth century and number over 70,000. The historical prints collection, equal in size, is made up of engravings and lithographs by Currier & Ives and other nineteenth-century printmakers, theater posters, portraits, advertisements, and views. Political cartoons and caricatures, the work of artists like McCutcheon, Nast, and Kirby, have been brought together in the Archives of

American Graphic Humor; and the Cabinet of American Illustration includes examples of this art form from the Civil War to the 1920s.

The public gets a glimpse of the variety and depth of the poster collection in the exhibits which are mounted from time to time in the library and are then circulated to other libraries. Recent shows have highlighted film posters from Eastern Europe, art nouveau advertising posters from the turn of the century, American beer posters from the nineteenth century, barbers' charts and advertisements in "Hair," and theatrical posters for "Performing Arts in the 19th Century." A small number has been selected from the library's holdings for reproduction in facsimile, and others have been used to illustrate greeting cards distributed as library publications.

Photographs, half of the division's name, account for 8-1/2 million of the division's current holdings of 10 million items. The Master Photographs Collection, which covers the entire history of photography, documents and illustrates significant aspects of the development of this art. Callotypes by Henry Fox Talbot and daguerreotypes by Mathew Brady are represented, outstanding prints from wet-plates by the Civil War photographers George N. Barnard and A. J. Russell, Roger Fenton's Crimean War photographs, and photographs of the exploration of the western United States by William Henry Jackson and Timothy O'Sullivan. One of the finest groups of material consists of work by photographers involved with the early movements in creative and artistic photography—members and associates of the Photo-Secession Group like Alfred Stieglitz and Edward Steichen and independent photographers Frances Benjamin Johnston and F. Holland Day. Photographs taken for the Farm Security Administration and the Office of War Information are a vivid record of the United States in depression and on the eve of war; the photographic files of *Look* magazine portray American life and culture from 1937 to 1971. The latter is a recent acquisition, as is the collection received from contemporary photographer Toni Frissell.

The division also maintains the collection of the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS), an enterprise begun in 1933 with the cooperation of the National Park Service of the Department of Interior and the American Institute of Architects. Thousands of historic structures have been recorded with measured drawings, photographs, and written documentation, a collection of research material greatly in demand as interest in historic preservation increases. The Library of Congress not only provides reference service on this collection but supplies reproductions of drawings and photographs when required.

Items in the Prints and Photographs Division's custody, like the HABS drawings, that are not subject to copyright or other restrictions, can be copied by the library's Photoduplication Service for a fee. They cannot be lent for use outside the library except for exhibition purposes; special arrangements for such use have to be made with the library's Exhibits Office.

The *Motion Picture Section* of the Prints and Photographs Division is responsible for the acquisition, preservation, and reference service on the library's collection of over 183,000 motion picture reels. When the "Edison Kinetoscopic Record of a

"Sneeze" was deposited for copyright in 1894, there was no provision for the registration of moving pictures in the copyright laws; until 1912, when a revision of the law made it possible to register motion pictures as a separate form, early films were treated as photographs and actually deposited as series of photographs on rolls of paper.

Since highly flammable nitrate film was used for motion pictures, the library did not keep the films themselves but only descriptive materials from 1912 to 1942. By the latter year interest in this distinct art form and the realization that its history was being lost as films disappeared led to a decision to retain films. Currently more than a thousand titles, including television films and videotapes, are added to the collection each year, through copyright deposit, purchase, gift, or exchange.

In 1948 the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences supported the development of a method of converting paper prints, which could not be projected, to acetate film and then paid for the conversion of 1,600 titles in the library's collections. In 1958 Congress appropriated funds to complete the project by 1964. To this nucleus of historic pictures, about 3,000 titles, have been added the George Kleine collection, the Mary Pickford collection, and several hundred titles in the American Film Institute collection, most of them before 1915. Studios—Columbia Pictures Corporation, Hal Roach Studios, Monogram Pictures, Paramount Pictures, RKO Radio Pictures, United Artists Corporation, and Warner Brothers—have deposited original motion picture negatives, master positives, and work prints, and the library is working with the American Film Institute (AFI) on other studio collections. With AFI's assistance, the library installed a motion picture preservation laboratory in 1970, where old nitrate film is cleaned, repaired, and transferred frame by frame to acetate stock. The laboratory can convert more than 2 million feet of film a year.

The Motion Picture Section has viewing facilities, 16mm and 35mm viewing machines, which may be used by serious researchers who make appointments in advance. Public projection, preview, and loan services are not provided.

RARE BOOK DIVISION

The library's first curator of rare books was Librarian Ainsworth Rand Spofford, who kept significant books of value in his own office; the word "Office" on some of the older cards in the public catalog still indicates that the book it describes is shelved with the rare book collections. When Spofford became chief assistant librarian in 1897, the collection was shelved in his new quarters in the Main Building and he continued to act as its curator. A separate reading room was not opened for rare books until 1927; as the collection grew, through gifts, withdrawals from the general collections, and purchases, plans were made for an independent reading room and stack area whose construction was completed in 1934. Four levels of stacks with temperature and humidity controls and the reading room, inspired by Independence Hall in Philadelphia, are an addition to the eastern side of the Main Building.

The 350,000 items in the division's custody—there are manuscripts, books, pamphlets, and broadsides—are the Library of Congress in microcosm. They

represent all disciplines and range from medieval times to the present. The nucleus of the Library of Congress itself, the surviving books purchased by the Congress from Thomas Jefferson in 1815, is shelved in the Rare Book Division. So are books and pamphlets collected by Peter Force and sold to the Congress for the library in 1867. In 1930 Congress authorized the purchase of a library of incunabula, some 3,000 fifteenth-century books, from Dr. Otto Vollbehr for \$1,500,000; in this collection the library acquired one of the three known perfect copies on vellum of the Gutenberg Bible, the first major book printed from moveable metal type in the Western World. Gifts also have enriched the rare book collections: books in the private library of Joseph Meredith Toner were a gift in 1882; the library of John Boyd Thacher brought early examples of printing in the Western World, early Americana and books about Columbus, books and manuscripts about the French Revolution, and European autographs; and finally, Lessing J. Rosenwald's magnificent collection is one of the chief treasures of the Library of Congress. Most of the Rosenwald books contain illustrations, but they provide not only a history of book illustration since the fifteenth century but a history of printing and examples of fine bindings from the twelfth century to the present day. The library held a special exhibition of some of these books in 1958, accompanied by a catalog, *Early Printed Books of the Low Countries from the Lessing J. Rosenwald Collection*, and in 1973, on the occasion of the donor's 82nd birthday, *Treasures from the Rosenwald Collection* opened in the library's Great Hall.

Other special collections that should be mentioned are the Chandler and Carpenter Collections of Rudyard Kipling; Theodore Roosevelt's Hunting Library; the Susan B. Anthony, Carrie Chapman Catt, and National American Woman Suffrage Association Collections on woman suffrage; Alfred Whital Stern's Collection of Lincolnia; the Houdini and McManus-Young collections of magic; the Winter Palace Collection on Russian military, administrative, and social history; Adolf Hitler's Library; the Frederick W. Goudy Collection of Type Design; and Woodrow Wilson's Library.

Katherine G. Bitting gave the library a valuable collection of books on nutrition and gastronomy, a "cookbook" collection, and the George Fabyan Collection is concerned with the Bacon-Shakespeare controversy and cryptography. Teachers and others who work with children can study the McGuffey collection of children's school books and the Jean Hersholt Collection of Hans Christian Andersen; Civil War historians can find in the Confederate States imprints a comprehensive picture of the book production of the South during the war years. Popular with visitors is the group of about 1,000 miniature books, less than 10 cm in height; the smallest books in the Library of Congress are three miniature editions in the Rare Book Room—a copy of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, *The Rose Garden of Omar Khayyam* by Eben Francis Thompson, and a Dutch printing of the Lord's Prayer.

Once a year the *Quarterly Journal of the Library of Congress* carries an article describing the recent additions to the rare book collections. Sometimes these are surprisingly nonbook materials like a life mask of Abraham Lincoln, the death mask of James Joyce, or the dessert plates on which Rudyard Kipling painted

verses, added to the collections for safekeeping with the books to which they are related.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DIVISION

The Science and Technology Division has primary responsibility in the Library of Congress for recommending acquisitions and for providing reference, bibliographic, and referral services in the areas of science and technology. The library tries to collect all important works on all aspects of science and technology except technical agriculture, which is the subject specialty of the National Agricultural Library, and clinical medicine, which is the responsibility of the National Library of Medicine.

Over 3 million books in the library's general collections are in the subject fields of science and technology, and in the division's custody are nearly 1-1/2 million technical reports (775,000 in microform), a collection that is currently increasing by about 85,000 a year. They represent all fields of scientific research and development supported by or of interest to government agencies, principally the Atomic Energy Commission, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the Department of Defense, and the National Technical Information Service. Of special interest are the 30,000 reports on World War II research and development by the Office of Scientific Research and Development, the most complete record of OSRD in existence.

The division provides reference and bibliographic services on all the science and technology collections. Readers are served in the Science Reading Room, and technical inquiries requiring a bibliographic response are answered without charge. The division can provide extensive searches of the collections, on either a one-time or a continuing basis, for a charge of \$11 an hour, with a minimum of \$88. An estimate of the cost is provided before the work is undertaken and requesters pay for the fee bibliographies through the National Technical Information Service (NTIS). After a deposit account is established with NTIS and an amount equal to the estimated cost has been deposited, together with an NTIS fee of \$12, the division can begin the search.

The *National Referral Center*, located in the division, directs those who have a question about a particular subject to organizations or individuals with specialized knowledge of that subject. It does not provide technical information or bibliographic assistance but simply advice on where and how to obtain information on scientific and technological topics. Through a continuing survey the center is building a central inventory of data on resources in the physical, biological, social, and engineering sciences—professional societies, university research bureaus, federal and state agencies, industrial laboratories, testing stations, technical libraries, information and document centers, and abstracting and indexing services. Referral service is available without charge to any organization or individual working in any of the scientific fields.

The Aeronautics Project compiles a monthly chronology, *Astronautics and Aeronautics: A Chronology on Science, Technology, and Policy*, which is cumulated annually and published by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. The Cold Regions Bibliography Project compiles two bibliographies, the *Anarctic Bibliography*, sponsored by the National Science Foundation, and *Bibliography on Cold Regions Science and Technology*, an annual listing published and sponsored by the U.S. Army Cold Regions Research and Engineering Laboratory.

The Science and Technology Division is responsible for a number of continuing and occasional publications ranging from directories of information resources in the United States and *Nuclear Science in Mainland China: A Selected Bibliography* to frequent *Tracer Bullets* which provide current access to literature on topics like earthquakes, water pollution, and volcanoes. A publications list is available from the division upon request.

SERIAL DIVISION

The Serial Division has in its custody one of the largest and most extensive collections of serials in the world—and consequently one of the most difficult storage problems of any of the library's divisions. The collections include periodicals, scientific and learned journals in all languages and in all fields except agriculture and medicine, bound newspaper volumes, newspapers on microfilm, and unbound issues of newspapers. Of the 1,600 newspaper titles currently received, 1,000 are from foreign countries; 600 represent all the states of the United States. In addition to newspapers, the serials collections include federal, state, county, and municipal serials, publications from all national foreign governments, and serial publications of autonomous provinces.

The division, which has a staff of sixty-seven, services newspapers and current periodicals in the Newspaper and Current Periodicals Room, located in the library's Annex Building. The severe shortage of stack space has made it necessary to transfer bound newspaper volumes to storage in one of the library's locations outside Washington; they can be recalled within 24 hours for reader use, however.

It is also the division's responsibility to collate and prepare serials and newspapers for binding and microfilming.

SLAVIC AND CENTRAL EUROPEAN DIVISION

Although a respectable collection of Slavic publications had accrued to the Smithsonian Deposit as a result of exchanges by the Smithsonian Institution with learned institutions in East and East Central Europe, the library had at the beginning of the twentieth century few books in the Slavic languages in its own collections. In 1907, however, the collections became significant with the acquisition of the Yudin Library. This famous private library was sold for so small a sum as to constitute a gift by Gennadii Vasil'evich Yudin, a successful Siberian businessman and book collec-

tor, who wished to contribute to closer relations between Russia and the United States. Of the 80,000 books in the collection assembled by Yudin, all but 12,000 were in the Russian language and they all pertained to Russia or Siberia. Strong in Russian history, literature, and bibliography, it included manuscript materials on Russian explorations of the Pacific and Russian settlements in North America and Alaska; complete works of a number of Russian writers and full sets of Russian bibliographic journals; and Russian government publications and publications of learned societies and organizations. After additional Russian materials were donated to the library at the end of World War I by the embassy in Washington of the Russian Provisional Government, a Slavic Division was established, and in 1931 the library purchased from the Soviet government more than 2,000 volumes on Russian administrative, military, and social history, part of the Winter Palace Library of Tsar Nicholas II.

Postwar interest in Eastern Europe increased the demands on the library for information about the area, already marked during World War II, and the Slavic and Central European Division was established in 1951 as a specialized area reference and bibliographic center, with responsibility for selecting for acquisition all types of printed material in the humanities and social sciences. A vigorous acquisition effort in the last 20 years has resulted in the largest collection of books in the Slavic languages in the Western world; the division believes that every fourth book published in East Europe is now added to the library's collections.

Reference tools maintained in the division's reading room in the Main Building include the *Cyrillic Union Catalog*, which records materials in Cyrillic type in the Library of Congress and 185 other research libraries in the United States and Canada as reported to 1956; the *Slavic Union Catalog*, which is current; and microfilmed catalogs of important Slavic and Baltic collections in Europe. Area specialists on the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, on Central Europe, on Poland and East Europe, on Czechoslovakia and East Europe, on Finno-Ugrian publications, and on Greece are available to assist researchers in the reading room. Their knowledge is disseminated to scholars outside the library in a number of bibliographies and guides prepared in the division and published by the library.

STACK AND READER DIVISION

The Stack and Reader Division, which has the largest staff of any of the Reference Department divisions—155 persons—also has one of the most difficult tasks, that of keeping and servicing the general classified book collections, now numbering about 9 million volumes. Deck attendants pull from the shelves and send to the Main Reading Room and Annex Reading Room the books requested by readers and reshelve those no longer in use. The desperately crowded conditions of the stacks make it hard to accomplish these jobs quickly and efficiently, and the division has to deal with complaints from readers who have come to expect the faster service of years past. In the past few years whole classes of the collections have been shifted, involving the relocation of over 2 million volumes, in order to

alleviate the conditions of some stack areas, but no real solution will be possible until the completion of the third building adds more stack space to the library complex.

The division also allocates special study facilities to those scholars doing extensive research and grants stack passes to others. Information about these privileges is available in the brochure *Special Facilities for Research in the Library of Congress*, which is available free from the Central Services Division.

Almost 400,000 reels and strips of microfilm are available to readers in the Microform Reading Room, also under the supervision of the Stack and Reader Division. Use of this facility has increased so dramatically in recent years that additional evening hours have had to be scheduled. The holdings of microforms are as diverse as the collections of the library; manuscripts in St. Catherine's monastery on Mt. Sinai and in the libraries of the Greek and Armenian patriarchates in Jerusalem and selected monasteries on Mt. Athos; Modern Language Association reproductions of manuscripts and rare books; manuscripts of American interest filmed by the American Council of Learned Societies' British manuscripts project; inventories of Latin manuscript books from numerous German, Austrian, and Italian archives and libraries; Pandects of the Notaries of Genoa to 1300; selected inventories relating to American history from the Archives Nationales at Paris; books printed in English before 1640; early English and American literary periodicals; English parish registers from the sixteenth to the nineteenth centuries; early Latin American imprints; Mexican provincial and local archives from Jalisco, Oaxaca, Parral, Puebla, and other cities; early editions of Petrarch and Ronsard; sixteenth- and seventeenth-century Russian imprints; papers of Simon Bolivar; League of Nations documents, official gazettes of India and Pakistan and their states and of certain other countries; press translations from mainland China, Indonesia, Japan, and Yugoslavia; underground newspapers; preservation microfilm of books from the library's general collections; doctoral dissertations; and other miscellaneous items.

Reference Department Office

The acquisitions, processing, and preservation activities of all these divisions are centered in the Office of the Director of the Reference Department, who also provides the liaison between these divisions and other departments and offices of the library. The assistant director for library resources, who is responsible for the day-to-day review and coordination of acquisition, processing, and preservation activities with the Processing and Administrative Departments, has also under his supervision a newly established position, that of coordinator of foreign newspaper microfilming; the periodical *Foreign Newspaper and Gazette Report*, and activity of the officer, keeps research libraries informed of current developments in the acquisition and microfilming of foreign newspapers and official gazettes.

Other officers in the department office are concerned with budgetary, space, and program planning. Special attention is currently focused on reference uses of the

MARC data base; with a substantial and growing number of titles in the data base and a series of successful runs completed for various reference uses within the library, it is hoped that MARC reference can be added eventually to the other reference services offered by the department.

The Office of the Librarian

The administration of the Library of Congress is the responsibility of the librarian of Congress, a responsibility shared with the deputy librarian and the assistant librarian of Congress. Before the reorganization of the library that began under Archibald MacLeish, the heterogeneous units that comprised the Library of Congress reported directly to the librarian, a span of control that is difficult now to envisage. Today the Office of the Librarian, which includes all three officers, receives reports directly from the department directors, the chairman of the U.S. National Libraries Task Force on Cooperative Activities, and the executive director of the Federal Library Committee. The librarian of Congress, the deputy librarian, and the assistant librarian meet regularly in Librarian's Conference with department directors and other officers of the library.

The deputy librarian of Congress, who acts with final authority in specified areas of delegated authority, serves automatically as acting librarian in the absence of the librarian of Congress. Reporting directly to the deputy are the heads of two component offices within his office, the Office of the Chief Internal Auditor and the Equal Opportunity Office.

The assistant librarian of Congress, who acts with final authority in specified areas of delegated responsibility and who automatically serves as acting librarian of Congress in the absence of the librarian and the deputy, is responsible, among other duties, for the external relations of the library. In the immediate office of the assistant librarian of Congress are the legislative liaison officer, with special responsibility for maintaining liaison with members and committees of Congress and their staffs; the international relations officer, who receives and programs all special foreign visitors to the Library of Congress, arranging appropriate tours and appointments for them, and who serves as program officer for visiting librarians, graduate library school students, and class groups; and the interpretive projects officer, a multimedia specialist who coordinates for the library extensive motion picture projects, plans and prepares slides and film strips, and creates scripts for audiovisual presentations. The international relations officer also serves as administrative officer for the Permanent Committee for the Oliver Wendell Holmes Devise, of which the librarian of Congress is chairman *ex officio* and for which the assistant librarian of Congress has general responsibility. The committee, which administers the bequest to the United States by the late U.S. Supreme Court justice, is sponsoring the preparation of a multivolume history of the court—two volumes appeared in 1971 and another in 1974—and an annual lecture series.

Four other offices complete the Office of the Assistant Librarian. The American Revolution Bicentennial Office is responsible for planning, in cooperation with all departments of the library and with the advice of a committee of distinguished historians, programs for the library's participation in the bicentennial of the American Revolution. A foundation grant has made possible a series of symposia on the various aspects of the Revolution; one, on "The Development of a Revolutionary Mentality," was held in 1972, a second, "Fundamental Testaments of the Revolution," in 1973, and a third, "Leadership in the American Revolution," in 1974. The fourth in the series (May 1975) will deal with "The Impact of the American Revolution Abroad." The grant which supports the series also makes possible publication of the papers presented; three volumes have already appeared and the fourth will in 1975. Another foundation grant has enabled the library to undertake the most important documentary publication of the bicentennial, an extensive revision and expansion of Edmund C. Burnett's eight-volume *Letters of Members of the Continental Congress*, which is expected to be published in about twenty-five volumes. The Bicentennial Office maintains liaison with the American Revolution Bicentennial Administration staff, with state bicentennial commissions, and with representatives of other appropriate agencies, institutions, and organizations. It also has in preparation guides to original source materials in the Library of Congress for the study of the Revolutionary period, bibliographies, facsimiles, and compendiums.

The Exhibits Office makes known the library's collections and activities through a program of exhibits. The staff of the office itself recommends, prepares, and installs specific exhibits in the library's major exhibit areas, and supervises and coordinates the exhibits mounted by the various custodial divisions of the library in their own areas. After display at the library, a number of major exhibits, or parts of them, become traveling shows, circulating to libraries and museums in the United States and Canada. Examples of important exhibits created by this office are "Papermaking: Art and Craft," "Preservation Through Documentation," which commemorated the anniversary of the Historic American Buildings Survey, and "Contemporary Photographs from Sweden." A biennial show, the National Exhibition of Prints, is selected by a jury of printmakers and after showing in the library is circulated for 2 years to other institutions. The Exhibits Office prepares catalog copy for a number of these exhibits. Inquiries about traveling exhibits or about the loan of library materials for exhibit purposes should be addressed to the Exhibits Office, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. 20540.

The Information Office, which plans and coordinates the information programs of the library, is the point of contact for representatives of the public information media for information about the library, its collections, its history, its activities, and staff. The *Library of Congress Information Bulletin*, prepared in this office, is the official staff newsletter. It began in the 1940s when, as the number of staff increased, it was no longer possible to have personal communication between the library administration and the majority of staff members. Still distributed to all library

staff members, it is also available free to other libraries expressing a need for it. The Information Office also publishes a monthly *Calendar of Events*, distributed to a large mailing list of residents of the Washington metropolitan area, and a number of information brochures and fact sheets. One brochure, describing the library, its buildings, and its collections for the public at large, is now available in French, Spanish, and Japanese in addition to English. Staff members at the Information Counter maintained in the Main Building answer visitors' questions and distribute free materials about the library; Library of Congress publications are also available for sale at that facility.

The Publications Office is responsible for a publishing program that compares in size to those of a number of university presses. It develops plans for the library's publication program for submission to the assistant librarian, participates in the deliberations of the interdepartmental Bibliography and Publications Committee, which makes specific proposals for publication, and advises officers of the library on the format, style, and tone of Library of Congress publications.

The forty-nine-page list, *Library of Congress Publications in Print March 1974*, has 453 entries, ranging from facsimiles and literary lectures to guides to aeronautical charts and African government publications. The list includes information about ordering these publications, many of which have won awards for excellence of typography and design; many are available from the superintendent of documents, while others, published with gift funds, have to be ordered from the library's Information Office. Technical publications are distributed chiefly by the Card Division, although reprint publishers make available some of the earlier items, like *The National Union Catalog; a Cumulative Author List . . . 1953-57*.

In addition to the editorial and production functions exercised for all Library of Congress publications, the Publications Office is responsible for the *Quarterly Journal of the Library of Congress* (available on subscription from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402) and for the final preparation of the *Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress* (free to libraries on request from the Central Services Division, Library of Congress).

Reporting directly to the librarian is the executive director of the Federal Library Committee, who is also chairman of the U.S. National Libraries Task Force on Cooperative Activities. Established in 1965 by the Library of Congress and the Bureau of the Budget, the Federal Library Committee, with headquarters at the Library of Congress, works to improve coordination and planning among research libraries of the federal government in order that common problems may be identified, solutions reached, and services to the government and the nation bettered. Restructured in 1973, the committee has as permanent members the librarian of Congress, the director of the National Agricultural Library, the director of the National Library of Medicine, representatives from each of the other executive departments, and delegates from the Atomic Energy Commission, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the National Science Foundation, the

Smithsonian Institution, the Supreme Court of the United States, the U.S. Information Agency, the Veterans' Administration, and the Office of Presidential Libraries of the National Archives and Records Service. Six other members are selected on a rotation basis by the permanent members from independent agencies, boards, committees, and commissions. These rotating members serve 2-year terms. Ten regional members are selected on a rotating basis by the permanent members to represent federal libraries following the geographic pattern developed by the Federal Regional Councils.

Six areas were originally selected for attention by the committee: acquisition of materials and correlation of resources; automation of library operations; interlibrary loan arrangements for federal libraries; mission of federal libraries and standards of service; procurement procedures; and recruiting of personnel. It has since sponsored a number of studies, forums, and publications, many of which are listed in *Federal Libraries: A Selected List of Documents Available Through the Educational Resources Information Center*, compiled by Frank Curt Cylke and available from the Federal Library Committee, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. 20540. An intensive investigation in 1970/71 of the federal library community's involvement with library automation was summarized in *Automation and the Federal Library Community*, issued by the committee in 1973. In 1973 the committee entered into a contract with the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) for experimental use of this large cataloging data base by federal libraries; ten federal libraries and one research and development operation are participating in the project, which provides on-line access to the OCLC data base through local phone connections and also with on-line cataloging data and printed catalog cards in individualized formats. These and other projects undertaken by the committee are reported in the *FLC Newsletter*, issued regularly from the committee's headquarters in the Library of Congress.

The Library of Congress Trust Fund Board, created by Act of Congress of March 3, 1925, as a quasi-corporation with perpetual succession, consists of two public members appointed by the President of the United States and three who serve ex officio—the Secretary of the Treasury as Chairman, the Chairman of the Joint Committee on the Library, and the Librarian of Congress as Secretary. The board has the usual powers of trustees, including the power to “invest, reinvest, or retain investments” and specifically the authority “to accept, receive, hold and administer such gifts, bequests, or devises of property for the benefit of, or in connection with the Library, its collections or its services.” It has always sought to encourage gifts and bequests to the Library of Congress as the national library, and the two public members are at this time taking the lead in organizing a group of Fellows of the Library of Congress, whose support will enable the library to acquire rare and needed books, manuscripts, prints, photographs, music, maps, and other research materials, acquisitions not possible with the funds appropriated by the Congress. The organizers believe that their help is needed to ensure the continued development of the Library of Congress as a great library and to enhance the intellectual life of the nation through the expansion of the library's collections.

In addition to his service on the Library of Congress Trust Fund Board and his chairmanship of the Federal Library Committee, the librarian of Congress is a member *ex officio* of a number of commissions and boards—the board of trustees of the Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars, the National Historical Publications Commission, the Federal Council on the Arts and Humanities, the National Library of Medicine, the board of trustees of the John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts, the advisory board for the National Park Service's Historic American Buildings Survey, and the U.S. Capitol Historical Society, to name but a few. On some of these boards and commissions he is regularly represented by the deputy librarian or the assistant librarian of Congress.

One membership, that on the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, is of special interest as it may affect the future role of the Library of Congress. The commission, a permanent and independent agency within the Executive Branch of the government, is charged with primary responsibility for developing and recommending overall plans for library and information services adequate to meet the needs of the people of the United States. The commission's Committee on the Library of Congress formulated in 1973 recommendations which were endorsed, expanded, and made public by the commission in 1974. Recommended were expansion of the lending and lending management function of the Library of Congress to that of a National Lending Library of final resort; expansion and fulfillment of coverage of the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NPAC); expansion of machine-readable cataloging (MARC) to include cataloging in substantially all languages of current monographic, serial, and other significant library and information materials being acquired by the Library of Congress and distribution of this data base; distribution of bibliographic data through on-line communication; development of an expanded general reference program to support the national system for bibliographic service; operation of a comprehensive National Serials Service that will integrate and expand the present serials activities of the library and provide an organized set of serial services for the nation; establishment of a technical services center to provide training in and information about Library of Congress techniques and processes, with emphasis on automation; development of improved access to state and local publications and cooperation with state and local agencies to standardize cataloging and other techniques of organization; and further implementation of the national preservation program. The National Commission also recommended that the work of the Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped be continued and expanded, with special efforts made to enroll more readers and provide them easier access to special format materials. These recommendations are coordinated with others in the draft of the commission's National Program Document, "A National Program for Library and Information Services."

The Library of Congress has come to occupy an important place in the national library community, far different from its place as a legislative reference library in the barely settled capital of a new nation in 1800. As the library approaches its 175th birthday, it seems destined to play a greater role in that community, increasing its importance to the Congress of the United States as well.

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LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CLASSIFICATION

The Library of Congress (LC) Classification is a detailed general system or scheme of enumerative classification for books. It has a bibliographic or book-oriented basis rather than a philosophical basis. Its primary use is as a shelf classification. Herbert Putnam, the eighth librarian of Congress stated this clearly in 1901. He wrote "The system devised has not sought to follow strictly the scientific order of subjects. It has sought rather convenient sequence of the various groups, considering them as groups of *books*, not as groups of mere subjects" (1). The first classes of the system were developed in 1898. The majority of the schedules were completed in the 1920s. It is updated by additions and changes to individual schedules. Its notation is mixed and is both hierarchical and sequential, the largest portion being purely sequential both numerically and alphabetically. Leo E. LaMontagne writes in regard to the order of the individual classes of the system, "The primary purpose of the Library, that of legislative reference, determined their order. The Classification, therefore, although universal in scope, is in its organization a special library classification" (2).

This article shall discuss the LC Classification in the following sections: Extent of Use; History (including the Jefferson scheme); General characteristics (including the format and internal order of the system, and the notation); the Individual classes;

Correlation to the Decimal Classification; Criticism of LC Classification; References and Bibliography.

Extent of Use

The primary use of the LC classification is by the Library of Congress for its own collections. The scheme reflects basically the book collection at the library. In 1966 Charles Bead pointed out,

The LC classification, being completely based on the Library's collections, is coextensive in scope with the book stock of the Library of Congress. Therefore, the LC classification is comprehensive but not truly universal at the present time. Expansion of the classification is governed by and depends upon the acquisition of new material (3).

The system was originally designed and intended as an utilitarian system for the use only of the Library of Congress. This attitude may be readily observed in the following statement from the library's *Annual Report of 1916*.

In contrast with the card catalogue of the Library which, owing to the sale of the printed cards is a matter of general concern to libraries, the classification of our collections was assumed to be of concern solely to ourselves—that is to the efficient administration of this library within itself. Upon this assumption the scheme adopted has been devised with reference (1) to the character and probable development of our own collections, (2) to its operation by our own staff, (3) to the character and habits of our own readers, and (4) to the usages in vogue here, a distinguishing feature of which is the freedom of access to the shelves granted to serious investigators.

With these considerations the resultant scheme, while organic in the sense that certain fundamentals were the basis of each schedule, is unsymmetrical, since each schedule was devised with reference to its own utilities (as applied to that particular group of material) rather than with reference to its proportionate part in an integral whole.

There was therefore no expectation that the scheme would be adopted by other libraries; much less was there any profession that it would be suited to their needs. It is moreover, still incomplete, and various schedules sufficiently advanced for our own use are yet unavailable in printed form.

Under the circumstances the number of other libraries that are already adopting it in whole or part is somewhat surprising (4).

At the present time LC classification is used by a majority of American academic and research libraries as well as some major public libraries in this country. In a recent survey of some 940 British libraries, thirty-six were using LC classification (5). Outside of the United Kingdom the international use of LC classification is limited. This may be seen in the conclusion of Kjeld Birket-Smith's study of *Local Applicability of the Library of Congress Classification*:

The present examination has shown that the classification of the Library of Congress must be considered as unsuited for use in Danish and in all likelihood other non-English language libraries as well. For a number of reasons, it is uncertain how great benefit foreign libraries will have from the preclassified material. The book collection of the Library of Congress, on which its bibliographical service rests, is possibly more special than would first be imagined. Surveys have been made that indicate great differences between the book collections of some of the largest libraries in the world, even surprising differences between such similar institutions as the Library of Congress and the British Museum (6).

The Library of Congress represents a permanent national governmental organization for perpetuating this scheme. LC Classification is used and expanded daily by LC classifiers. From this point of view, LC may be considered to be an organic system. The actual internal process is explained by Dr. Bead in the following:

As stated before, the Library of Congress is revising its schedules every day as new material is added to the collections. After the subject cataloger receives his daily inflow of work, he studies each book, and on the basis of his findings determines whether an appropriate class number already exists within the system. If this is not the case, it is the cataloger's responsibility to suggest new class numbers for topics not yet represented in the LC classification, for example, a new discovery, invention, historic event, etc. The need for updating certain classes may also result in the proposal of more specific topics or revised captions. Research will be carried out to identify the exact nature and scope of the new topic and to determine its proper systematic place in the system in relation to other topics. The proposals are submitted on prescribed form cards to the Editor of Classification Schedules, who will give them editorial scrutiny.

The edited proposals are consolidated weekly, and a list of tentative additions and changes is duplicated for internal use. This weekly list, which is distributed to all subject catalogers for information and comment, serves as the agenda for a weekly editorial conference which is presided over by the Chief of the Division. During the conference, each of the proposals is considered and either approved, rejected, or returned to the subject cataloger for further research and consideration. Once the proposed class numbers have been approved, they will be used immediately and promptly appear on LC printed cards. Subsequently they are published in *LC Classification—Additions and Changes*.

In preparing a new class number the subject cataloger has to examine not only the new work to be classed, but also all pertinent material already in the collections, to determine whether some works should be reclassified under the new class number. This is often the case when a class number for a more specific topic is set up or when new period subdivisions are adopted. It is important to note that the Library of Congress generally does not undertake actual reclassification of old material that might be more appropriately classed in the new number, but simply makes a notation on the shelflist records: "Better [new class number]." It is evident that this practice is the result of the need for economy. A consequence of this policy of not reclassifying is that cards for old material are reprinted with the new class number. There is no guarantee, therefore, that LC class numbers on printed cards, particularly those printed several years ago, will correspond to the latest revision of the LC classification schedules (7).

LC call numbers, i.e., complete classification and book numbers, appear on the LC printed cards, on the LC proof slips of the printed cards, and on the LC magnetic MARC tapes. Further individual schedules for the classification are regularly published by the library as well as the publication of quarterly *Additions and Changes* to the classification.

History

In order to understand the systems of classification used at the Library of Congress in the early nineteenth century, it is helpful to be aware of the library facilities available to Congress from its inception and before. (See *Library of Congress*.) During the Continental Congress in 1774 the Library Company of Philadelphia was opened to the delegates. The first U.S. Congress meeting in New York City used the New York Society Library. When Congress moved to Philadelphia, the site of the Continental Congress meeting, the Library Company of Philadelphia was again made available to the members of Congress. Even during these periods when Congress had metropolitan library collections available, there was concern for a congressional library. On August 6, 1789, Representative Elbridge Gerry from Massachusetts proposed the establishment of a committee to develop a list of necessary books for Congress. The following year Gerry and two other congressmen were appointed to such a committee. The committee reported,

That, as far as the nature of the case will admit, they have in the schedule annexed compiled with the order of the House, having due regard to the state of the Treasury. That the committee have confined themselves in great measure to books necessary for the use of the legislative and executive departments, and not often to be found in private or in circulating libraries. That, nevertheless, without further provision of books on laws and government, to which reference is often necessary, members of the legislature and other offices of the Government may be either deprived of the use of such books when necessary, or be obliged at every session to transport to the seat of the General Government a considerable part of their libraries, it seldom happening that they can otherwise command such books when requisite, without trespassing too much on the indulgence of their friends. The committee are therefore of the opinion that a sum, not exceeding 1,000 dollars be appropriated in the present session, and that the sum of 500 dollars be hereafter annually appropriated to the purchase of books for a public library and be applied to the purpose by the Vice-President, Chief Justice, and Secretary of State of the United States, without confining them to the catalogue reported, until, in the opinion of Congress, the books provided shall be adequate to the purpose.

The books reported were of the following description, viz: Laws of the several States, laws relating to the trade and navigation of the several nations of Europe with whom the United States may have treaties, laws of Ireland and Scotland, laws of Canada, British statutes at large, militia system of Switzerland, the Russian and Frederician codes, sundry authors on the laws of nature and nations, sundry authors on the privilege and duties of diplomatic bodies, a collection of treaties and alliances from the earliest periods, a collection of parliamentary books, sundry books on the civil and common law, etc., etc. (8).

Although this report was tabled, it is interesting to note the special type of governmental material requested. The obviously necessary collections of state laws and relevant European laws as well as the basic political science and theory works are listed. Although the Gerry proposal was not followed through, between this time period and 1802, both houses of Congress did acquire separately some 243 volumes. Besides the legal and political science works recommended by Gerry, this collection included reference works, geographical works, histories, works on economics, periodicals, and others included Burn's *Poems* (9). This leads one to speculate the exact character of material needed by Congress. William Dawson Johnston states that the collection needed to be of the most general character:

Samuel Knapp observed that journals, laws, and state papers were about all the Representatives of the United States could have access to in their public reading room until the Jefferson library was purchased. An examination of the early catalogues does not, however, bear out such a conclusion. On the other hand, the collection may be said to have represented general literature better than it did political literature. There were several reasons for this. The legislators of that time were without academic training in politics, they found their precedents in the poetry, not in the legislation of the past, their political arguments in the verses of Greek and Roman writers, not in the principles of political economy, or of constitutional or international law. This being true, it was natural that members of Congress should require a collection of books of the most general character. Another important reason for the general character of the collection lay in the fact that there was at this time no public library in the city. It was because there were no other sources of amusement that the Library, before 1814, and indeed later, was much resorted to as a place of relaxation (10).

INITIAL SYSTEMS

With the creation of the Library of Congress in 1800, the first collection of books was ordered from Cadell & Davies, London booksellers. The books arrived the following year. The first classification system is recorded in the first catalog to be issued by the library in April 1802. This catalog consisted of ten octavo pages listing some 964 volumes and nine maps. The books were classified by size—212 folios, 164 quartos, 581 octavos, and seven duodecimos. In each of the four categories they were subarranged by accession number.

ORDER OF THE 1802 SCHEME

Folios
 Quartos
 Octavos
 Duodecimos
 Maps and Charts

It may be observed that although such classification schemes based solely on book format (size) were not uncommon in the early nineteenth century, there were definitely forms of subject classification schemes in existence. In fact the members of

Congress had used a subject classification scheme when they were using the Library Company of Philadelphia. Perhaps the initial size of the collection did not demand a subject approach; or perhaps, John Beckley, the clerk of the House and the first librarian of Congress, was not aware of the advantages of a subject approach to a general collection. Moreover, the entire ten-page catalog could easily be perused by any reader.

The first change in the classification systems is recorded in the third catalog issued by the library in 1808 under the second librarian of Congress, Patrick Magruder. Although the size format of the 1802 system was retained, additional categories were added for special bibliographic forms.

ORDER OF THE 1808 SCHEME

Folios
 Quartos
 Octavos
 Duodecimos
 Maps and Charts
 Plans
 State Laws
 Journals of the House of Representatives of the United States
 Reports of Committees of the House
 Executive Reports and Papers
 Receipts and Expenditures
 Bill Books of the House
 Gazettes

The beginning of a federal documents classification system may be seen in the added categories for special materials. LaMontagne states, "Physical format was, even in 1808, yielding to classification by subject and bibliographic form" (11).

By 1812 the library's collection consisted of 3,076 volumes and fifty-three maps, charts, and plans. The catalog issued that year shows the first subject classification in use at the library. Eighteen classes composed this scheme which was based on the system used in the Library Company of Philadelphia since 1789. The LC 1812 scheme actually is a reduction of the 1789 Philadelphia scheme which contained thirty-one classes for subjects. This system was described in the "Advertisement" to the 1789 catalog as:

In conformity to the general delineation of human science, laid down by Bacon, and afterwards illustrated and enlarged by D'Alembert, the books have been divided into three classes, corresponding with the three great divisions of the mental faculties—*Memory, Reason and Imagination.*

It has been attempted to render the subdivisions of the several classes sufficiently ample, to combine only those which proceeded from a common source, and could not be separated without difficulty, and to adapt the arrangement rather to the science than the subject (12).

The seventeenth century philosopher Francis Bacon had divided human knowledge into three parts in the order of memory, imagination, and reason. The encyclopedist

Jean le Rond d'Alembert changed the order of those three parts to memory, reason, and imagination or history, philosophy, and poesy (or fine arts). A full discussion of these two important systems will be given under Jefferson's scheme. The thirty-one classes of the Library Company of Philadelphia in 1789 were

MEMORY

- I. Sacred History
- II. Ecclesiastical History
- III. Civil History—including Biography, Antiquities, Military and Naval History, and Civil History properly so called
- IV. Natural History in all its branches
- V. Voyages and Travels
- VI. Geography and Topography, with Maps, Charts and Plans

REASON

- I. Theology
- II. Mythology
- III. Ethics; or the Moral System in general
- IV. Grammars, Dictionaries, and Treatises on Education
- V. Logic, Rhetoric and Criticism
- VI. General and local Politics
- VII. Trade and Commerce, Treatises on Annuities and Insurance
- VIII. Law
- IX. Metaphysics
- X. Geometry
- XI. Arithmetic and Algebra
- XII. Mechanics
- XIII. Astronomy, Astrology and Chronology
- XIV. Optics, Pneumatics, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Phonics, and Gnomonics
- XV. Navigation and Naval Architecture
- XVI. Civil Architecture
- XVII. The Military Art
- XVIII. Heraldry
- XIX. Anatomy, Medicine and Chemistry
- XX. Agriculture and Gardening
- XXI. Arts and Manufactures
- XXII. Experimental and natural Philosophy, and elementary Treatises on the Arts and Sciences

IMAGINATION

- I. Poetry and the Drama
- II. Works of Fiction, Wit and Humor
- III. The Fine Arts (*13*)

A careful comparison of this scheme with those of Bacon and d'Alembert demonstrates that the order of three major categories is based on d'Alembert. The internal arrangements are only loosely based on that system. However, the close relationship of the LC 1812 scheme to the Library Company of Philadelphia scheme of 1789 may be readily observed in the following:

ORDER OF THE 1812 SCHEME

1. Sacred history
2. Ecclesiastical history
3. Civil history, including chronology, biography, antiquities, etc.
4. Geography and topography; voyages and travels
5. Law
6. Ethics, or the moral system in general; theology and mythology
7. Logic, rhetoric, and criticism
8. Dictionaries, grammars and treatises on education
9. General and local politics; political economy, etc.
10. Trade and commerce
11. Military and naval tactics
12. Agriculture, rural economy, etc.
13. Natural history; natural and experimental philosophy, etc.
14. Medicine, surgery, and chemistry
15. Poetry, and the drama; works of fiction, wit, etc.
16. Arts and sciences. and miscellaneous literature
17. Gazettes
18. Maps, charts, and plans (14)

The relationship may be more clearly seen by adding the three categories of memory or history, reason or philosophy, and imagination or the fine arts.

1812 SCHEME

History

1. Sacred history
2. Ecclesiastical history
3. Civil history, including chronology, biography, antiquities, etc.
4. Geography and topography; voyages and travels

Philosophy

5. Law
6. Ethics, or the moral system in general; theology and mythology
7. Logic, rhetoric, and criticism
8. Dictionaries, grammars and treatises on education
9. General and local politics; political economy, etc.
10. Trade and commerce
11. Military and naval tactics
12. Agriculture, rural economy, etc.
13. Natural history; natural and experimental philosophy, etc.
14. Medicine, surgery, and chemistry

Fine Arts

15. Poetry, and the drama; works of fiction, wit, etc.
16. Arts and sciences. and miscellaneous literature

Form Classes

17. Gazettes
18. Maps, charts, and plans

First the history area has been reduced from six classes to four which include all the material except Class IV, Natural history. This class has been placed in the philosophy area as Class 13 in the LC system. Although the order of the classes in the philosophy area is different in LC, basically all the classes in LC except for the previously mentioned Class 13, Natural history, are taken from the philosophy area of the 1789 scheme. The Fine Arts areas in both schemes are similar. Class 16, Arts and sciences, and miscellaneous literature, is broader than Class III, The Fine Arts, in the 1789 scheme; further this class appears to be a polygraphical class such as is not present in the 1789 scheme. It may be also noted that the LC scheme retains two form classes from the LC 1808 scheme, Class 17, Gazettes, and Class 18, Maps, charts, and plans. Such bibliographic and physical form classes do not exist in the 1789 scheme. Each of the 18 classes in the LC scheme have no further subdivisions and the books were arranged first by size in each class and then subarranged alphabetically.

JEFFERSON'S SCHEME

As a result of the burning of the Capitol building by British soldiers on August 24, 1814, the majority of collection of the library was destroyed. On September 21 of that year Thomas Jefferson, the third president of the United States (1801-1809), offered to sell his personal library of 6,487 books to Congress. The following January the House voted \$23,950 to purchase the Jefferson collection which was already classified according to Jefferson's own system of classification. This scheme consisted of forty-four classes or, as Jefferson referred to them, "Chapters." Jefferson's source, as was that of the 1789 Library Company of Philadelphia scheme, was both Bacon and d'Alembert. Jefferson's work with classification of books and knowledge led him later to assist in revising the curriculum of William and Mary and establishing the curriculum of the University of Virginia. In the preface to catalog for the library of the University of Virginia, Jefferson presented a formal explanation of his system:

An explanation of the Views on which this Catalogue has been prepared.

1. Great standard works of established reputation, too voluminous and too expensive for private libraries, should have a place in every public library, for the free resort of individuals.
2. Not merely the best books in their respective branches of science should be selected, but such also as were deemed good in their day, and which consequently furnish a history of the advance of the science.
3. The opera omnia of writers on various subjects are sometimes placed in that chapter of this Catalogue to which their principal work belongs, and sometimes referred to the Polygraphical chapter.
4. In some cases, besides the opera omnia, a detached tract has been also placed in its proper chapter, on account of editorial or other merit.
5. Books in very rare languages are considered here as specimens of language only, and are placed in the chapter of Philology, without regard to their subject.
6. Of the classical authors, several editions are often set down on account of some peculiar merit in each.

7. Translations are occasionally noted, on account of their peculiar merit or of difficulties of their originals.

8. Indifferent books are sometimes inserted, because none good are known on the same subject.

9. Nothing of mere amusement should lumber a public library.

10. The 8vo. form is generally preferred, for the convenience with which it is handled, and the compactness and symmetry of arrangement on the shelves of the library.

11. Some chapters are defective for the want of a more familiar knowledge of their subjects in the compiler, others from schisms in the science they relate to. In Medicine, e.g., the changes of theory which have successively prevailed, from the age of Hippocrates to the present day, have produced distinct schools acting on different hypotheses, and headed by respected names, such as Stahl, Boerhave, Sydenham, Hoffman, Cullen, and our own good Dr. Rush, whose depletive and mercurial systems have formed a school, or perhaps revived that which arose on Harvey's discovery of the circulation of the blood. In religion, divided as it is into multifarious creeds, differing in their bases, and more or less in their superstructure, such moral works have been chiefly selected as may be approved by all, omitting what is controversial and merely sectarian. Metaphysics have been incorporated with Ethics, and little extention given to them. For, while some attention may be usefully bestowed on the operations of thought, prolonged investigations of a faculty unamenable to the test of our senses, is an expense of time too unprofitable to be worthy of indulgence. Geology, too, has been merged in Mineralogy, which may properly embrace what is useful in this science, that is to say, a knowledge of the general stratification, collocation and sequence of the different species of rocks and other mineral substances, while it takes no cognisance of theories for the self-generation of the universe, or the particular revolutions of our own globe by the agency of water, fire, or other agent, subordinate to the fiat of the Creator (15).

An earlier explanation of his scheme appears in a letter he wrote to the new librarian of Congress, George Watterston, on May 7, 1815:

I have duly received your favor of April 26th, in which you are pleased to ask my opinion on the subject of the arrangement of libraries. I shall communicate with pleasure what occurs to me on it. Two methods offer themselves, the one alphabetical, the other according to the subject of the book. The former is very unsatisfactory, because of the medley it presents to the mind, the difficulty sometimes of recalling an author's name, and the greater difficulty, where the name is not given, of selecting the word in the title, which shall determine its alphabetical place. The arrangement according to subject is far preferable, although sometimes presenting difficulty also, for it is often doubtful to what particular subject a book should be ascribed. This is remarkably the case with books of travels, which often blend together the geography, natural history, civil history, agriculture, manufactures, commerce, arts, occupations, manners, etc. of a country, so as to render it difficult to say to which they chiefly relate. Others again, are polygraphical in their nature, as Encyclopedias, magazines, etc. Yet on the whole I have preferred arrangement according to subject, because of the peculiar satisfaction, when we wish to consider a particular one, of seeing at a glance the books which have been written on it, and selecting those from which we effect most readily the information we seek. On this principle the arrangement of my library

was formed, and I took the basis of its distribution from Lord Bacon's table of science, modifying it to the changes in scientific pursuits which have taken place since his time, and to the greater or less extent of reading in the science which I proposed to myself. Thus the law having been my profession, and politics the occupation to which the circumstances of the times in which I have lived called my particular attention, my provision of books in these lines, and in those most nearly connected with them was more copious, and required in particular instances subdivisions into sections and paragraphs, while other subjects of which general views only were contemplated are thrown into masses. A physician or theologian would have modified differently, the chapters, sections, and paragraphs of a library adapted to their particular pursuits.

You will receive my library arranged very perfectly in the order observed in the catalogue, which I have sent with it. In placing the books on their shelves, I have generally, but not always, collocated distinctly the folios, quarto, octavo, and duodecimo, placing with the last all smaller sizes. On every book is a label, indicating the chapter of the catalogue to which it belongs, and the order it holds among those of the same format. So that, although the numbers seem confused on the catalogue, they are consecutive on the volumes as they stand on their shelves, and indicate at once the place they occupy there. Mr. Milligan in packing them has preserved their arrangement so exactly in their respective presses, that on setting the presses up on end, he will be able readily to replace them in the order corresponding with the catalogue, and thus save you the immense labor which their rearrangement would otherwise require.

To give to my catalogue the convenience of the alphabetical arrangement I have made at the end an alphabet of authors' names and have noted the chapter or chapters, in which the name will be found; where it occurs several times in the same chapter, it is indicated, by one or more perpendicular scores, thus |||], according to the number of times it will be found in the chapter. Where a book bears no author's name, I have selected in its title some leading word for denoting it alphabetically. This member of the catalogue would be more perfect if, instead of the score, the number on the book were particularly noted. This could not be done when I made the catalogue, because no label of numbers had then been put on the books. That alteration can now be readily made, and would add greatly to the convenient use of the catalogue (16).

The following outline demonstrates Jefferson's scheme and its subdivisions. The general influence to d'Alembert may be seen in the order of the three main areas: history, philosophy, and fine arts. La Montagne states, "As a book collector, Jefferson, early in life, adopted Bacon's classification with some of d'Alembert's modifications, made a few changes of his own, and was content with the system ever after" (17).

OUTLINE OF JEFFERSON'S SCHEME

HISTORY	CHAPTER
Civil	
Civil Proper	
Ancient	1
Modern	
Foreign	2
Southern	
General works	

HISTORY

CHAPTER

Civil—Cont.

Italy	
Rome	
Florence	
Naples	
Venice	
Spain	
Portugal	
France	
Northern	
General works	
Lapland	
Russia	
Poland	
Hungary	
Sweden	
Denmark	
Prussia	
Germany	
Flanders	
United Netherlands	
Switzerland	
Geneva	
Turkey	
Asia	
Africa	
British	3
Scotland	
Ireland	
American	4
Ante-Revolutionary	
General	
Particular	
Post-Revolutionary	
General	
Particular	
Newspapers	
Ecclesiastical	5
Natural	
Physics	
Natural philosophy	6
Agriculture	7
Chemistry	8
Surgery	9
Medicine	10
Natural History Proper	
Anatomy	11
Zoology	12
Botany	13
Mineralogy	14
Occupations of Man. Technical Arts	15

PHILOSOPHY	CHAPTER
Moral	
Ethics	
Moral Philosophy	16-1
Law of Nature and Nations	16-2
Jurisprudence	
Religion	17
Municipal	
Domestic	
Equity	18
Common Law	19
Bodies of Law	
Statutes	
Courts	
Entries	
Conveyancing	
Criminal Law	
Tracts	
Reports	
Law, Merchant	20
Law, Maritime	21
Law, Ecclesiastical	22
Foreign	23
Economical	
Politics	24
General theories of government	
Special governments	
Ancient	
Modern	
France	
Monarchical	
Revolutionary	
Imperial	
Her Colonies	
England	
Constitution	
Parliament	
Dependencies	
United States	
Colonial	
Revolutionary	
Reconstituted	
States	
Political economy	
General	
Statistics	
Commerce	
Finance	
Mathematical	
Pure	
Arithmetic	25

PHILOSOPHY	CHAPTER
Mathematical—Cont.	
Geometry	26
Physico-Mathematical	27
Mechanics	
Statics	
Dynamics	
Pneumatics	
Phonics	
Optics	
Astronomy	28
Geography	29
General	
Europe	
Asia	
Africa	
America	
FINE ARTS	
Architecture	30
Gardening, Painting, Sculpturing	31
Music	32
Poetry	
Epic	33
Romance, tales, fables	34
Pastorals, odes, elegies, etc.	35
Didactic	36
Tragedy	37
Comedy	38
Dialogue, epistolary	39
Oratory	
Logic, Rhetoric, Orations	40
Criticism	
Theory	41
Bibliography	42
Languages	43
General	
Polyglot	
Oriental	
Greek	
Latin	
Spanish	
French	
Northern	
English	
Welsh	
Authors who have written on various branches. Polygraphical	44 (18)

Jefferson devotes fifteen chapters, 1–15, to History, fourteen chapters, 16–29, to Philosophy, and fourteen chapters, 30–43, to Fine Arts. The final chapter, 44, is

provided for those polygraphical works which do not naturally fit into any of the three major subject categories and their subdivisions. In order to discuss more fully Jefferson's scheme it seems necessary to examine his two sources—Bacon and d'Alembert.

Bacon divided all knowledge into two categories—human and divine or to use his terminology:

HUMAN KNOWLEDGE: "Information derived from the sense"
THEOLOGY: "Information derived from revelation"

Each of these two categories he subdivided into History, Poesy and Philosophy. History coming from Memory, Poesy from Imagination, and Philosophy from Reason. In examining Bacon's system it must be remembered that his is a philosophical system for categorizing knowledge. It was, of course, not designed as a library classification system. The following is Bacon's outline (taken from LaMontagne's abridgement).

BACON'S OUTLINE

HUMAN KNOWLEDGE: "Information derived from the sense"

History

Natural: deeds and works of nature
Generations: normal developments
Pretergenerations: abnormal developments, monsters, etc.
Arts: mechanical and experimental history
Civil: deeds and works of man
Sacred or Ecclesiastical
Civil proper
Learning and the arts
Appendices: words of men—Speeches, Letters, Apothegms

Poesy

Narrative
Dramatic
Paraboliical

Philosophy

Primary philosophy: fundamental principles and axioms
Natural theology
Natural philosophy
Speculative: inquisition of causes
Physic: efficient and material causes
Metaphysic: formal and final causes
Operative: production of effects
Mechanic: Physic
Magic: Metaphysic
Mathematics
Pure: Geometry and Arithmetic
Mixed: Astronomy, Cosmography, Machinery, etc.
Human philosophy
Philosophy of Humanity (Individual man)
Mind and body

BACON'S OUTLINE—Cont.

Human philosophy—Cont.

Body

Medicine: Health

Cosmetic: Beauty

Athletic: Strength

Voluptuary: Arts

Soul

Psychology

Logic

Art of Inquiry or Invention

Art of Examination or Judgment

Art of Custody or Memory

Art of Elocution or Tradition

Ethics

Civil philosophy (Man in society)

Conversation: Comfort against solitude

Negotiation: Assistance in business

Government: Protection against injuries

Economics

Law

THEOLOGY: "Information derived from revelation"

History

Poesy

Philosophy (19)

Bacon's system appeared first in 1605 in his *Advancement of Learning*. In 1751 d'Alembert published the plans for Diderot's *Encyclopédie in Discours Préliminaire de l'Encyclopédie*. Included in this work is his system for arranging the *Encyclopédie*; in short, his system for the classification. He cited his debt to Bacon as the model for his system. However, d'Alembert made two major changes in Bacon's system as well as numerous minor ones. The first major change was the removal of Bacon's second major category area, Theology or Revealed knowledge, from its separate location. D'Alembert placed Revealed theology with Natural theology as a subdivision of Philosophy. Bacon's separation of Human knowledge and Divine knowledge thus did not exist in d'Alembert's system. The second major change was the previously mentioned order of the main classes. D'Alembert changed Bacon's order of History, Poesy, Philosophy to History, Philosophy, Poesy (or Fine Arts as he called Poesy). The following is an abridgement of d'Alembert's system.

D'ALEMBERT'S OUTLINE

HISTORY

Sacred

Civil

Civil proper

Literary

Natural

Normal developments

Abnormal developments: monsters, etc.

Arts, crafts, manufactures

D'ALEMBERT'S OUTLINE—Cont.

PHILOSOPHY

- General Metaphysics. Ontology
- God
 - Natural theology
 - Revealed theology
- Man
 - Pneumatology. Soul (Psychology)
 - Logic
 - Art of Thinking: Logic proper
 - Art of Retaining: Memory, writing, printing, etc.
 - Art of Communicating: Grammar, rhetoric, etc.
 - Morality
 - Ethics
 - Jurisprudence: Economics, Politics, Commerce, etc.
- Nature
 - General physics: Metaphysics of bodies
 - Mathematics
 - Pure: Arithmetic and Geometry
 - Mixed: Mechanics, Astronomy, Optics, etc.
 - Physico-Mathematics
 - General physics
 - Special physics
 - Zoology: Anatomy, Physiology, Medicine, etc.
 - Physical astronomy
 - Meteorology
 - Cosmology: Geology, Hydrology, etc.
 - Botany: Agriculture, Gardening
 - Mineralogy
 - Chemistry

FINE ARTS

- Poetry
- Music
- Painting
- Sculpture
- Architecture (Civil)
- Engraving (20)

In comparing the two systems, the following may be noted. Both Bacon and d'Alembert begin their first main class with History; however, d'Alembert reverses Bacon's internal order. He removes Sacred history from Civil history and makes it a separate subdivision beginning his division of History. He then presents Civil history followed by Natural history—the reversal of Bacon's order of Natural history then Civil history. As already mentioned, d'Alembert makes Philosophy second and moves Fine Arts (Poesy) to third position. He begins with General Metaphysics and Ontology while Bacon begins with Primary Philosophy. D'Alembert's second division in Philosophy deals with philosophy in relation to God, which is similar to Bacon's Natural theology and its location in his system; however, d'Alembert then follows with Revealed theology or as previously mentioned Bacon's entire second major category. Bacon's Human philosophy area and d'Alembert's philosophy related to man have

similar contents but in very different orders. This is also the case with d'Alembert's Nature section, especially its mathematical breakdown, and Bacon's Natural philosophy. Bacon's Poesy class is expanded by d'Alembert to include Music, Painting, Sculpture, Architecture, and Engraving. It should be noted that although the orders of the two systems have differences, the three main classes contain approximately the same material in either system. It should be also remembered that d'Alembert's purpose was different than Bacon's purpose. D'Alembert was developing the order of the arrangement of a subject encyclopedia. Again the reader must recognize that d'Alembert's purpose was not to develop a system of library classification.

After examining these two systems for the organization of knowledge, Jefferson's use of them may be discussed. Jefferson, as already observed, follows d'Alembert's basic order of History, Philosophy, Fine Arts. Jefferson, however, moved several divisions from one of these major classes to another. He begins his History class with Civil history. Ecclesiastical or sacred history is placed as a subdivision of Civil history as Bacon did but not as d'Alembert did. Jefferson expands Natural history to include all science but mathematics, removing these subdivisions from both Bacon's and d'Alembert's Philosophy class. Only the Occupations of Man, Technical Arts, Chapter 15, remains of the Natural history section of Bacon and d'Alembert. Jefferson divides Philosophy into Moral and Mathematical with many different orders than either Bacon or d'Alembert. Fine Arts are expanded by Jefferson to include Gardening, Oratory, and Criticism. Gardening is taken from d'Alembert's Philosophy—Mathematics—Special Physics—Botany; Oratory from Philosophy in both d'Alembert and Bacon as is Criticism. Finally Jefferson provides the previously mentioned polygraphical class, Chapter 44, which is necessary for the organization of books but not for philosophical systems or encyclopedias. A friend and colleague of Jefferson's, Judge Augustus E. B. Woodward, provides a detailed criticism of Jefferson's system and his use of his sources:

As this system is founded on that of D'Alembert, which is itself derived from Lord Bacon, it will be only necessary to advert to its deviations from the one, or the other, of those; or from both. It is distinguished from both in this particular. It brings out the subjects of human knowledge into forty-four or forty-six distinct heads, which may almost be termed sciences, counted and numbered, and ingeniously concatenated, with an English name for every subject, and that the most usual, and perfectly intelligible; through the boundaries of mechanics, statics, and dynamics, would appear obscure. There is but a single attempt at nomenclature, and that is not a happy one. The mechanic arts are distinguished from the fine arts, by the name of, *technical arts*. Whoever will undertake to contrast the table of Mr. Jefferson against *the emanation of the sciences*, of Lord Bacon; or the *système figure des connoissances humaines*, of D'Alembert; will find a perfect chaos in the two latter, and a clear and lucid exhibition in the classification of Mr. Jefferson. Mr. Jefferson arranges civil history before natural; in which he deviates from Lord Bacon, and corresponds with D'Alembert; but arranges civil history before ecclesiastical; in which he differs from D'Alembert, and corresponds with Lord Bacon. His specification of civil history is much more luminous and clear than that of either D'Alembert, or Lord Bacon. Mr. Jefferson transfers

the physics, of D'Alembert, from his third branch of the second province, and places it in the second branch of the first province: deviating in this also from Lord Bacon. This, it is conceived, is a manifest deterioration. The position assigned by Lord Bacon is better than that given by Mr. Jefferson; and D'Alembert's alterations on Lord Bacon are manifest and indubitable improvements. The whole province of philosophy is altered by Mr. Jefferson. Lord Bacon and D'Alembert beautifully divided it, as relating to, God, man, and, nature. Mr. Jefferson divides it into moral and mathematical. Mathematical philosophy is now, it is believed, first introduced as a scientific denomination. D'Alembert had, very correctly, made mathematics the first branch of natural philosophy; preceding physics. Both adopt the branch physico-mathematics, or mixt mathematics; which, it is conceived, will always be productive of confusion. Mathematics constitute but an auxiliary or instrumental science; and, to whatever they may be applied, are, themselves distinct.

Moral philosophy is singularly divided, by Mr. Jefferson, into ethics and jurisprudence. Religion comes out to be nothing more than *a part of jurisprudence*, and is the commencement of that branch, while commerce is the termination of it; and, in strict language, it may be doubted if either the first or the last subject, if either religion or commerce, are parts of jurisprudence. Governments have, indeed, acted upon them; but both, and more particularly the first, have a substantial existence, entirely independent of the incidental circumstance of their being acted upon by governments. The passage, by the legislature of Virginia, of Mr. Jefferson's immortal "act for the establishment of religious freedom," constitutes, it is believed, the first instance, in the history of the human race, of a government formally disclaiming the right of interfering with religious sentiment. Religion, therefore, even in this respect, that of being acted upon by governments, ceases: at least in our country, so far as the state and general governments leave it free, which they almost perfectly do; from forming any part of jurisprudence.

It may be farther remarked of Mr. Jefferson's system, and which may be fully accounted for, from the circumstance of its being intended only for the arrangement of a library, and not directly as a classification of human knowledge; that many of the terms must include more than they would strictly import. Thus arithmetic must include algebra, logarithms, and fluxions; since they are not elsewhere mentioned. History must include biography, and antiquities; and the extensive department of voyages and travels. Chronology must be a part of some other science; and in the same manner meteorology, and some other subjects. They do not appear nor is it easy to say where they are contained. There must be a reiteration in the chapter of natural philosophy, being the sixth, and those parts of the physico-mathematical sciences contained in the twenty-seventh; nor will a reference to the authors and works included in those chapters tend to render their boundaries more definite; and it would have been far better that natural history proper should have preceded natural philosophy. The separation of agriculture and botany is unquestionably right; but that of gardening from agriculture, and its association with architecture and painting, agreeably to the views of Lord Kames, is more dubious. Romance, comedy, dialogue, epistles, are not necessarily poetry; and indeed it was observed by Mr. Jefferson *that poetry was hard to be defined*. An edition of the elements of Euclid, in the Arabic language, is classed under criticism; and it is remarked that books in rare languages are classed under that head, not according to their subject matter, but philologically, as specimens of the language in which they are written. Some of the chapters are very barren. The ninth, surgery, contains but seven works. Others are very fertile. The twenty-fourth, politics and commerce, contains a large proportion of the library (21).

Although Jefferson's debt to both Bacon and d'Alembert may be discerned in the foregoing discussion, the detail of Jefferson's arrangement obviously represented his own collection of books. Further Jefferson's purpose was different. As La Montagne writes, "Jefferson derived his classification, not as a mere copyist but as an independent thinker. Fundamentally the goals of all three men were practical; Bacon's to survey knowledge—to ascertain what had been done and what remained to be done; d'Alembert's, to provide a framework for a systematic encyclopedia; and Jefferson's, to devise divisions of knowledge to assist him in selecting books and in keeping them in order" (22).

When Watterston received Jefferson's collection in 1815, he did not make use of all of Jefferson's subdivisions. This may be observed in Chapter 2, Modern history, foreign. Rather than subdividing this chapter as Jefferson had done, Watterston simply alphabetized the material. Jefferson pointed this out to Watterston in a letter on March 2, 1816:

you asked how I like the arrangement within the chapters? of course, you know, not so well as my own; yet I think it possible the alphabetical arrangement may be more convenient to readers generally, than mine which was sometimes analytical, sometimes chronological, & sometimes a combination of both (23).

Although Jefferson objected to Watterston's simplifications, the Library Committee of Congress objected to the use of a subject classification such as Jefferson's. This is particularly interesting as the 1812 LC scheme had already introduced subject classification to the library:

Your committee are persuaded, that however ingenious, scientific, philosophical, useful such a catalogue may be in the possession of a gentleman who, as was the case with the former proprietor of this, now the library of Congress, has classed his books himself, who alone has access to them, and has become from long habit and experience as perfectly familiar with every book in his library, as a man who has long lived in a city is familiar with every street, square, lane, and alley in it, still this form of catalogue is much less useful in the present state of our library, consisting chiefly of miscellanies, not always to be classed correctly under any particular head, than a plain catalogue in the form which had been adopted for the formation of the catalogue of the old library, . . . (23).

Not all the opinions were entirely negative as the following from the *Washington City Chronicle* for July 11, 1829, demonstrates:

It is, . . . perhaps, the best that has yet been introduced. It is, indeed, scientific; and by keeping all works upon the same subject together and under one head, it affords facilities that no other mode hitherto adopted has been found to yield. The classification is, however, not so well calculated for display as the common mode of arranging according to size, because one division being often much less than another, large volumes are sometimes placed above smaller ones, or chasms are left in the shelves which are not agreeable to the eye. But the subject being kept apart, each can with more facility be consulted. This arrangement, it will

be seen, requires a knowledge of science and languages on the part of him who has to arrange, because it is necessary that the contents of each volume should be known before it can be correctly classed. . . .

To render this arrangement . . . more complete it would be proper to make some additional subdivisions, as Biography, ancient and modern, Archaeology, Conchology, &c. (24).

In 1829 Watterston was succeeded by John Silva Meehan as Librarian of Congress. Meehan served until 1861 during which period he made certain modifications to Jefferson's scheme. He expanded the Technical arts section of History as well as the Law and Politics divisions of Philosophy. He also modified terminology such as changing Moral philosophy to Ethics. He reduced the separate chapters under poetry in the Fine Arts. Poetry became only one chapter with drama, fiction, and dialogues as separate chapters. Bibliography and criticism were combined into a single chapter. As a result of these modifications, the system was reduced from 44 chapters to 40 chapters. The following is Meehan's outline:

JEFFERSON'S SCHEME MODIFIED BY MEEHAN

- 1 Ancient history and biography
- 2 Modern. Europe, etc.
- 3 ENGLAND, Scotland, Ireland
- 4 AMERICA
- 5 Ecclesiastical
- 6 Physics, geology and meteorology
- 7 Agriculture
- 8 CHEMISTRY
- 9 Surgery
- 10 MEDICINE
- 11 Anatomy
- 12 ZOOLOGY
- 13 BOTANY
- 14 Mineralogy and conchology
- 15 Technical arts
 - AEROSTATION
 - Arts and sciences
 - Bookbinding
 - Bookkeeping
 - Boot and shoe making
 - Brewing, distilling, wine making
 - Building, millwork, naval architecture
 - Canals
 - Cements and mortars
 - Clock and watch making
 - Coal and coal mining
 - COOKERY
 - DYEING
 - Education
 - Electro-magnetic telegraph
 - Engineering and surveying

JEFFERSON'S SCHEME MODIFIED BY MEEHAN—Cont.

Technical arts—Cont.

Engraving and lithography
 Exercises, gymnastic and defensive
 Games
 Gaslighting
 Horsemanship
 Instruments
 Legerdemain
 Light-houses
 Manufactures. Miscellaneous
 Metallurgy
 Military and naval sciences—tactics, fortification, gunnery
NAVIGATION
 Painting and varnishing
 Photography
 Printing
 Pyrotechny
 Roads and railroads
 Spinning, weaving, knitting
 Sporting
 Steam engine
 Tanning
TURNING
 Warming and ventilation
 Waterworks
 Writing

- 16 Ethics
 17 **RELIGION**
 18 Common law. Commentaries. Criminal law. Military law.
 19 **COMMON** law. Reports: British. American. Supreme Court. Circuit
 courts. District courts. General. Digests. Reports of Alabama–Wis-
 consin
 20 **EQUITY**
 21 **ECCLESIASTICAL** law
 22 Maritime law
 23 Civil law, codes. Statutes of Great Britain. Laws of the United States.
 Laws of Alabama–Wisconsin. Miscellany
 24 Law of nature and nations
 25-1 Politics. Colonies
 25-2 American Revolution
 25-3 Commerce, industries, statistics
 25-4 Crime, punishment, police, pauperism, charities
 25-5 Elections
 25-6 Finance, weights, and measures
 25-7 Government
 25-8 Legislation
 25-9 Political economy
 25-10 Registers and directories
 25-11 Secret societies
 25-12 State of nations and state papers
 26 Arithmetic and geometry
 27 Mechanics, statics, dynamics, pneumatics, phonics, and optics

JEFFERSON'S SCHEME MODIFIED BY MEEHAN—Cont.

28	Astronomy
29	GEOGRAPHY. General, Europe, Asia, Africa, America, maps
30	ARCHITECTURE
31	Painting, sculpture, landscape gardening and numismatics
32	MUSIC
33	Poetry
34	Drama
35	Fiction
36	Dialogues and epistles
37	Logic and rhetoric
38	Bibliography and criticism
39	LANGUAGE
40	POLYGRAPHICAL (25)

Although the modifications and expansions developed by Meehan were not major, those made by Ainsworth Rand Spofford were more extensive. Spofford was appointed assistant librarian of Congress in 1861 and became librarian in 1864. He was to remain in this position until 1897 when he retired to become chief assistant librarian. Mearns describes the problems facing Spofford in the following discussion based on Spofford's testimony to the Joint Committee on the Library in 1896:

Upon taking office in 1864 Mr. Spofford had found that he had inherited a library classified according to the Baconian system of knowledge (as adapted to the purpose by Mr. Jefferson), which was suitable enough for philosophical or scientific or educational objects but was not in his opinion of really practical value for a great book collection. He had therefore reorganized and revised it, bringing together books closely related in content and shelving them in as nearly alphabetical an arrangement as could be devised within their subject divisions. (Not the least of his difficulties was the fact that he had shelf room for only 400,000 volumes, requiring the use of much storage space in the Capitol basement for the overflow.) In his classification scheme there were forty-four "chapters," comprising such diverse categories as periodicals, transactions of scientific and literary societies (the Smithsonian collection), literary curiosities, philology, bibliography, oratory, literature published in the form of letters, the drama, music, fine arts, architecture, books relating to the black arts and popular delusions, the newly isolated "social sciences," philosophy, political science, law, the natural sciences, and technology. Certain categories necessarily overlapped; others performed surgery upon a particular author. Thus, writings of John Ruskin might be found in chapters 41 (essays, criticisms, and miscellaneous compositions), 40 (polygraphic, or collected works of authors), 31 (fine arts), and 30 (architecture). However, Mr. Spofford explained, an attendant thoroughly familiar with the Library's subject scheme of arrangement, and nimble in movement from one location to another, might locate any volume without too great delay. When the Library was moved to its spacious new home and a better shelving system could be achieved there would be opportunity for even speedier service to readers (26).

Spofford began the History class with a division for General history. He added a chapter for Archaeology and Genealogy between foreign history and British history, Chapters 2 and 3. He numbered this new chapter "2½" thus introducing fractions to the notation of the chapter numbers. He did not use this device anywhere else in

the classification. He moved Mathematics and Astronomy from Philosophy into the History section. This brought both of these divisions into juxtaposition with the other sciences which Jefferson had originally placed in History rather than Philosophy as both Bacon and d'Alembert had done. Spofford also removed Gardening from Fine Arts and placed it in the chapter for Agriculture—the place where it had originally been placed by d'Alembert. He made extensive additions and changes to the Technical Arts. He further extended the History class to include Chapter 16 which had formerly been the first class of Philosophy. In Chapter 16 he placed Church history. By beginning Philosophy with Chapter 17 for Religion relabeled to Theology, Spofford created a natural bridge between the History and Philosophy classes. He reordered and revised Chapter 25, which Meehan had developed for Politics. He retained Meehan's device of subdividing this chapter numerically i.e., 25-1, 25-2, 25-3, etc. This notational device could also be represented as 25.1 or 25 (1). It was not intended to be a decimal extension but a second order of cardinal numbers of such notation as 25-10, 25-11, or 25-12 demonstrates. Spofford's arrangement of this chapter appears to be a sound division for Political science although it is not called such. Chapter 26 was given to Philosophy proper by Spofford and included 26-1 for Philosophy, 26-2 Logic, 26-3 Ethics, 26-4 Phrenology, 26-5 Physiognomy, and 26-6 Education. In the previous arrangement Education had been situated in Chapter 15 for Technical arts. Although Education may not really be a subdivision of philosophy, it seems appropriate to be juxtaposed to Sociology. Chapter 27 was fully developed by Spofford as a Sociology chapter. Chapter 29 for Mythology and mysticism was also added by Spofford. Fine Arts were edited to remove the previously Gardening division as well as Logic. Spofford also added five form classes to replace and expand the former Polygraphical chapter, 40 in Meehan's scheme and 44 in Jefferson's. These included Chapter 40 for Collected works; 41 Essays; 42 Ana, wit, humor, etc.; 43 Smithsonian collection; and 44 Periodicals, newspapers. Thus Spofford restored the total number of chapters to 44. Besides the changes discussed here and those obvious in the following outline, Spofford introduced additional form classes, geographical subdivisions, and subject subdivisions arranged alphabetically. Truly Jefferson's scheme had become Spofford's scheme by 1896.

SPOFFORD'S SCHEME

- | | |
|----|---|
| 1 | General history |
| 2 | Foreign history |
| 2½ | Archaeology. Genealogy |
| 3 | BRITISH history |
| 4 | AMERICA |
| 5 | Mathematics, e.g., algebra, arithmetic, bookkeeping, geometry, surveying |
| 6 | Geology, mineralogy, etc. |
| 7 | Physics, e.g., acoustics, dynamics, electricity, instruments, mechanics, meteorology, optics, pneumatics, statics |
| 8 | Astronomy |
| 9 | CHEMISTRY |
| 10 | Medicine |

SPOFFORD'S SCHEME—Cont.

- 11 Natural history
- 12 Zoology, anatomy, anthropology, conchology, entomology, etc.
- 13 Botany
- 14 Agriculture, landscape gardening, etc.
- 15 Technical arts, e.g.,
 - Adulteration
 - AEROSTATICS**
 - Army
 - Automobiles
 - Beautifiers
 - Calisthenics
 - Canning
 - Circus
 - Commission merchants
 - COOKERY**
 - Daguerrotypes
 - Distilling
 - Dumb-bells
 - Dyeing
 - Dynamite
 - Fireworks
 - Fortification
 - Gunnery
 - Gymnastics
 - Militia
 - Mills
 - NAVIGATION**
 - Navy
 - Ordnance
 - Papermaking
 - Photography
 - Processions
 - Pumps
 - Racing
 - Railroads
 - River improvements
 - Roads
 - Rowing
 - Rubber
 - Rural sports
 - Servants
 - Shows
 - Siege
 - Silk
 - Tactics
 - TURNING**
 - Ventilation
 - Weaving
 - Wines
- 16 Church history
- 17 **THEOLOGY**
- 18 Law

SPOFFORD'S SCHEME—Cont.

19	LAW REPORTS
20	EQUITY
21	ECCLESIASTICAL law
22	Admiralty law
23	Civil law. Statutes
24	International law
25-1	State of nations
25-2	Colonies
25-3	Statistics, commerce
25-4	Political economy
25-5	Elections
25-6	Finance
25-7	Science of government
25-8	Legislation
25-9	Directories
25-10	Politics
26-1	Philosophy
26-2	Logic
26-3	Ethics
26-4	Phrenology
26-5	Physiognomy
26-6	Education
27-1	Sociology
27-2	Family
27-3	Charities, crime
27-4	Secret societies
27-5	Slavery
28	Mythology, mysticism, etc.
29	GEOGRAPHY
30	ARCHITECTURE
31	Fine arts; e.g., Engraving
32	MUSIC
33	Poetry
34	Drama
35	Fiction
36	Letters and dialogues
37	Rhetoric, reading, etc.
38	Literature and bibliography
39	LANGUAGES
40	COLLECTED WORKS
41	Essays
42	Ana. wit, humor, etc.
43	Smithsonian collection
44	Periodicals, newspapers (27)

Besides these additions and changes to Jefferson's scheme, both Meehan and Spofford were responsible for changing the notation. The notation originally was quite simple. It was represented by a fraction. The numerator stood for the Chapter number and the denominator for the book number within a chapter. For example $\frac{4}{27}$ would have meant Chapter 4, American history, book number 27. Johnston points out,

An inserted book was numbered by adding a letter to the book number of the book next preceding, or by renumbering the entire class. For example, a Collection of papers relating to the history of Massachusetts being numbered $\frac{4}{27}$, the Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society when added to the Library were marked $\frac{4}{27a}$. As many as a dozen or more insertions, arranged in order of accession, were sometimes made and numbered thus by the added letters l, m, etc.

In the reclassification of 1860 the subdivisions of the class Politics were marked 24.1, 24.2, 24.3, etc., as the subdivisions of moral philosophy had been marked in 1815; the book numbers were superseded by shelf numbers, and new book labels and book plates were prepared to correspond to the notation. With the rapid development of the Library after 1861 the shelf numbers came in a measure to have the significance of class numbers, and the fixed location to give way to a movable one (28).

In 1860, as Johnston states, the book number or denominator became the shelf number; thus the system of notation became a fixed location system. Under Spofford, as the library's collections grew, the shelf number came to have only subject significance. LaMontagne demonstrates this in the following.

Chapter 15 was Technology wherever located; but within the class, 9456, one of the shelves devoted to Technology, was the shelf on which books on Inter-ocean canals were placed. As the years passed, however, the shelf number became associated with the subject and ceased to be a mere indication of physical location (29).

In fact, a work with a notation 15/9456 on Inter-ocean canals might or might not be placed on shelf 9456. James C. M. Hanson observed the following type of difficulty that could arise with this type of notation:

As for classification, attention has already been called to the old Jefferson system of forty chapters, expanded to forty-four by Mr. Spofford, without shelf lists or book numbers. The shelves of the old library had been apportioned among the subjects represented in the classification, no extra shelves being left for emergencies. As new subjects turned up, they must be accommodated, therefore, on shelves already occupied by other subjects. For instance, a part of the books on Greek Philology, all the books on Icelandic and Irish Philology were marked chapter 39, shelf 11,025. A number of subjects such as Mechanical Painting, Gilding, Varnishing, Perfumery and Cosmetics, and a part of Photography were marked chapter 15, shelf 9,413. On the adjoining shelf, 9,414, were then found the remainder of the books on Photography and also a part of the works dealing with Textile Industries. The designation "shelf" here stood merely for a number, not for an actual shelf. Years before, the shelving provided in the Capitol had been filled to overflowing, and subjects for which one shelf had once been considered ample, might now fill from fifty to one hundred shelves (30).

THE NEW LC CLASSIFICATION

With the move of the library from the Capitol to the new building in 1897, the need for massive revision of the existing classification scheme of Jefferson-Meehan-Spofford

was obvious. The notation was inadequate and the classification was not specific enough for a collection of nearly a million volumes. Hanson, who was to become the head of the Catalogue Division, writes.

For classification of books on the shelves, there was a broad division into forty-four chapters, a slight expansion of the scheme applied by Thomas Jefferson to his private library at Monticello prior to 1815, inelastic, partly fixed location, without shelf-list records or book numbers, and quite unsuitable for a large and rapidly growing collection of books.

This then was the situation when in 1897 the books constituting the Library of Congress were moved from the Capitol to the new building. In preparation for the opening of the new library, a most meager and inadequate budget had been submitted by the librarian and approved by Congress. The positions and salaries listed had been given the widest publicity, and although there were comparatively few positions at \$1,800 a year or more, there swooped down on Congress, the President, and the library, an eager horde of would-be librarians. There were needy journalists, clergymen without a call, teachers unable to teach, unsuccessful authors, actors without engagements, college and university graduates whose mental development must have been arrested soon after graduation, and the usual assortment of lame ducks from states east and west. All were brimful of confidence that their great love of books and literary inclinations would enable them to solve all difficulties which might arise in connection with the management of a great library. The recording of incunabula and manuscripts, selection and purchase of books, administration of the copyright law, service to Congress and Departments, to scholars of our own and other nations, compilation and application of classification and cataloguing systems, and the many and varied activities which it was hoped might make the new Library of Congress a national library in the real sense of the word a center of library cooperation and research, were all matters of little or no concern to these new aspirants to membership in the library profession (31).

Charles Martel was appointed chief classifier and Hanson's assistant. John Russell Young, Spofford's successor as librarian, assigned these two men to study the problem of the library's classification. He advised them rhetorically,

As an inflexible rule, no method of classification should be favored which would disintegrate the general collection. The Library of Congress must ultimately be the universal library of the Republic. To that end the most magnificent library edifice in the world has been erected and is destined to be, it is to be hoped, the home of America's literary and artistic genius, supplemented and strengthened by that of all lands and all time. And now, when the work of organization in a plastic condition, before what is done hardens and consolidates and becomes difficult of undoing, no step should be taken without considering not alone what is most convenient today, but what will be most useful a hundred years from to-day.

Therefore, in the work of classification, while each department maintains its representative character, the main purpose is the consolidation of the general library. What may have gone from its shelves to strengthen the medical or develop a law library, what may be contemplated in the way of a Congressional library of reference, can and should be replaced. But there must be no invasion of the general library's domain as one of universal reference (32).

The problem and possibilities has been succinctly stated by LaMontagne,

Three main streams of thought were (1) the educational and philosophic system, which, originating in Greece, followed the development of Western thought and culminated in the French System of Jacques-Charles Brunet; (2) the seventeenth-century divisions of Francis Bacon which, modified and adapted by d'Alembert and Jefferson, were transmitted to Melvil Dewey by Johnston and W. T. Harris; (3) the evolutionary order, in the nineteenth century, of Merlin and Lesley, which Cutter transmuted into his Expansive Classification (33).

As the writer of this article has previously written concerning this problem,

Hanson and Martel investigated three major published classification schemes: Melvil Dewey's *Decimal Classification*, then in its fifth edition; the first six expansions of Charles Ammi Cutter's *Expansive Classification*; and the *Halle Schema* devised by Otto Hartwig. All three general systems were considered and evaluated by Hanson and Martel. It is indeed regrettable that the Library of Congress could not adopt Dewey's *Decimal Classification* in 1898. A prime difficulty was Dewey's refusal to allow any major changes in his system at that time; over a hundred libraries had adopted the *Decimal Classification*, and Dewey felt that it would be unfair to these libraries to allow the Library of Congress to make any adjustments in his system. Further, Martel criticized the *Decimal Classification* as a "system bound up in and made to fit the notation, and not the notation to fit the classification." The *Halle Schema* was considered to be too strongly oriented in traditional German philosophical thought to be applicable to the Library of Congress. However, serious consideration was given to Cutter's *Expansive Classification*. Cutter was quite helpful and ready to allow any necessary changes (34).

Hanson provides the following brief summary of his viewpoint of the problem of selecting and developing a new classification scheme for the library.

The situation as to classification was fully appreciated by men like Mr. Spofford and Mr. Hutcheson, and little or no opposition was made, therefore, when plans for a new system were submitted. No attempt will be made here to present a detailed explanation of the new classification. It will be sufficient to say that Cutter's *Expansive Classification* was selected as the chief guide, with, however, radical modifications in the notation. For instance, one, or at most two capital letters were to indicate classes, Arabic numerals in integral, not decimal, sequence, with gaps (Springende Nummer) for subdivisions, and Cutter numbers for individual books. It was Spofford who insisted on the integral, not a decimal, sequence of numbers. Mr. Spofford was inexorably opposed to the decimal system, per se, and his opposition was shared in part by other members of the staff, including the chief of the Catalogue Division, who felt that only by supplying a mixed notation and providing many radical changes would it have been possible for the Library of Congress to consider this system (30).

Actually Cutter's Expansive Classification had only two direct influences on the new LC classification. First Cutter's outline was basically followed by Hanson in developing the outline for LC classification; second Cutter provided a copy of his seventh expansion of Class Z, Book Arts, to Martel who used it as the basis for Class Z,

Bibliography and Library Science. Cutter's notation (see *Expansive Classification*) was not used except for the first letter as initially the LC notation did not use double letters. The carefully study and analysis by Hanson and Martel has been warmly praised by LaMontagne. "Few decisions in library history have been so carefully made. Two Librarians of Congress and their skilled assistants, with the aid of the best professional advice available, had weighed the problem for three years" (35). Prior to his coming to the library, Hanson had worked at the University of Wisconsin Library with Cutter's *Expansive Classification*. The sixth expansion of Cutter's system would have been available to him at that time. (See *Expansive Classification*, Vol. 8, pp. 301-304.) The following is an outline of the main classes of this expansion.

OUTLINE OF CUTTER'S SIXTH "CLASSIFICATION"

A	General works
B	Philosophy
BR-D	Religion
E	Biography
F	History
G	Geography and travels
H-KX	Social sciences
L-PW	Sciences and arts
Q	Medicine
R-VT	Useful arts, Technology
VV-WS	Fine Arts
VV	Music
W	Art, Fine Arts
WL	Arts of design
WS	Decorative Arts
X-Z	Arts of communication by language
X	Language
Y	Literature
Z	Book Arts

This outline demonstrates that Cutter's notation was not consistently hierarchical. For example, Religion begins with the double letter BR and uses single letters C and D as divisions of BR. Also the order of Cutter's main classes shows no direct relationship to the systems of Bacon or d'Alembert. Cutter fully expands Science to a main class, separating it from both Philosophy and History. He also brings Technology into close proximity to Science and Medicine. Although his notation is not consistently hierarchical, it is expanded to subject subdivisions by the addition of letters; numbers are used mnemonically for form and place divisions. To a large extent Hanson followed Cutter's outline of classes in his own outlines. His first outline, probably formulated while he was at the University of Wisconsin, deviates in only two significant instances. First, he moved the Fine Arts, Language, and Literature from the end of the system and placed them immediately after the Social sciences class. Second, he chose not to expand his notation as Cutter did but rather to use cardinal numbers to follow the single letters standing for main classes. For instance, Class A for Polygraphy was allotted the numbers 1-200 with Philosophy being given

A 201–3000. This change, as well as Hanson's order of classes, was to be retained in the development of the new LC classification. Hanson's first outline may be studied in the following example.

EARLY OUTLINE OF LC CLASSIFICATION

A 1–200	Polygraphy; Encyclopedias; General Periodicals; Societies
A 201–3000	Philosophy
A 3001–B999	Religion; Theology; Church history
C 1–9999	Biography; and studies auxiliary to history
D 1–9999	General history; periods; and local (except America)
E–F	America; history and geography
G	Geography; general; and allied studies (e.g., Anthropology and Ethnology)
H 1–2000	Political science
H 2001–9999	Law
I 1–8000	Sociology
I 8001–9999	Women; Societies; clubs, etc.
J 1–2000	Sports; amusements
J 2001–9999	Music
K	Fine arts
L–M	Philology and Literature
N	Science; Mathematics; Astronomy; Physics; Chemistry
O	Natural history; general; Geology
P	Zoology; Botany
Q	Medicine
R	Useful arts; Agriculture
S	Manufactures
T	Engineering
U	Military, Naval science; light houses; life saving; fire extinction
V–Y	Special collections
Z	Bibliography (Book arts)

It is interesting to note that when Hanson moved the Fine Arts, Cutter's Class VV–WS, to the position of Class K, he also moved the preceding class, V for Athletic and Recreative arts, to J 1–2000 for Sports and amusements. This may explain the collocation of sports in the final outline as a division of the social sciences. It may also be noted that Hanson provided four classes, V, W, X, and Y, for special collections in this outline. This provision is dropped in the later outlines, giving rise to the criticism that LC classification has no provision for Rare books and other special collections.

Hanson revised this first outline in 1901. The following changes include the increase in the notation provided for the first class Polygraphy, from A 1–200 to A 1–500. The second class, Philosophy, is reduced by 300 numbers from A 201–3000 to A 501–3000. The term Social sciences was first employed for the expanded classes H, J, and K. Class I as a part of the notation was dropped; its division to be placed in H. Sports and Music were moved out of Class J. Law was given its own separate Class L instead of the range of numbers in H 2001–9999. Education, which possibly had been located but not indicated, in Class I, was placed in Class M along with Sports and amusements. This incidentally further established Sports in the general

Social sciences area. The Fine Arts were located in Class N, having been moved from K and relabeled Architecture and Graphic Arts. Music was given Class P. Two classes L and M for Philosophy and Literature were reduced to a single class Q. Science was changed from N to R; Natural history from O to S, Zoology and Botany from P to T, Medicine from Q to U, and Useful Arts and Agriculture from R to V. Manufacturers were reduced from a separate class S to a place in V also. Engineering, Military and Naval science, Classes T and U, were combined to form Class W. The four classes for special collections were dropped. Class Z, Bibliography, was retained as this schedule had already been completed.

OUTLINE OF 1901 LC CLASSIFICATION

A (in part)	Polygraphy. General works
A 501-3000	Philosophy
A 3001-B	Religion
C	Biography; Studies auxiliary to History
D	History (except America)
E-F	America. History and Geography
G	Geography; and allied studies: Anthropology; etc.
H-J-K	Social science; Economics, Political science
L	Law
M	Education. Sports. Amusements
N	Architecture. Graphic Arts
P	Music
Q	Philology and Literature
R	Science
S	Natural history
T	Botany. Zoology
U	Medicine
V	Useful arts. Agriculture. Manufactures
W	Engineering. Military and Naval science
Z	Bibliography

In 1903 the final outline was completed. By this time it had been decided to use double letters in the notation instead of simply single ones. This may be seen in the assignment of the range of BL-BX for Religion. In this version General works or Polygraphy was given an entire class A. The subdivisions of this class follows some of Cutter's mnemonic notation for this class. For example,

AE	Encyclopedias
AI	Indexes
AM	Museums

Philosophy was allotted the first half of Class B with Religion, as previously mentioned, using the BL-BX section. Class J was specifically assigned to Political science, and Law was moved from J to K. Similarly Education was moved from M to

L. Interestingly enough, Sports were separated from Education and placed in Class G for Geography and Anthropology. The vacated Class M was given to Music, thus creating one of the three mnemonic main classes in the notation—Class G for Geography and Class T for Technology are the other two examples. Language and Literature were moved to Class P. Classes R, S, and T were all combined into Class Q for Science. Medicine became Class R. Agriculture was moved from Class V to a separate Class S. The remainder of Class V and Engineering from Class W became the new Class T for Technology. Both Military science and Naval science were given separate classes, U and V respectively.

THE OUTLINE OF 1903 LC CLASSIFICATION

A	General works. Polygraphy
B	Philosophy
BL–BX	Religion
C	History—Auxiliary sciences
D	History and topography (except America)
E	America General and U.S. General History
F	U.S. Local and America Outside U.S. History
G	Geography, Anthropology, Sports
H	Social sciences
J	Political sciences
K	Law
L	Education
M	Music
N	Fine arts
P	Language and Literature
Q	Science
R	Medicine
S	Agriculture
T	Technology
U	Military science
V	Naval science
Z	Bibliography

Although there have been minor changes and additions of subclasses, this outline of 1903 is still the basic outline of LC classification. In 1929 Martel wrote explaining and justifying the order of the classes as represented by this outline and the classification that was developed to complete it:

The Library of Congress, at the beginning of its reorganization (1898), had a collection of 750,000 volumes and a very inadequate system of classification. What plans for its development were forthwith put in action is perhaps most briefly and comprehensively expressed by the fact that the library now contains over 3,700,000 volumes, of which over one-third belong to history and the social sciences. After a careful study of available schemes and of the experience of other libraries, the decision was reached that the character of its collections and the

conditions of their use called for the construction of a classification designed to satisfy the library's own requirements, with no direct deference to the possible use of it by other libraries. In reaching this conclusion, it had to be taken into account that besides acquisitions by purchase, official exchange with state and foreign governments, and the Smithsonian deposit of the publications of learned institutions and societies, the library contains a large body of copyright material and accumulations from different sources, material of a mixed kind, which in university libraries and those of other learned bodies, developed more exclusively by systematic selection, is represented in comparatively negligible quantities. Provision for this material had to be made and was managed by appropriate form or subject subdivisions without allowing the scientific order of the subjects under which they were introduced to be affected thereby. Critics, troubled at first sight by such provisions not found in more purely theoretical schemes familiar to them, have later recognized their usefulness in classifying left over refractory material which they would find themselves at a loss to dispose of otherwise. These divisions may be ignored or eliminated without other modification of the schemes by libraries which do not need them.

In drafting the general plan of the classification the "order of the sciences," as represented, with important variations, in works on the organization of science and, with more variations, in certain theoretical systems of classification, was not ignored. But in the eventual determination of the order and scope of the classes and in constructing the schemes of individual classes and subclasses and working out their detail, the theory and history of the subjects and their relations as represented in the actually existing books, individually and collectively, constituted the principal basis for the schemes. The character of the collections, the special development in the Library of Congress of the historical and social sciences justified, nay required, the treatment and placing first of the humanistic group. From the standpoint of the reference service of the library the separation of Religion from Philosophy, and the placing of Art, Literature, History, and Religion at the end, with the physico-mathematical, biological, and social sciences proper preceding, would be a positive disadvantage, whatever interest or speculative value that arrangement might possess from the standpoint of methodology of classification, not to mention that there is by no means unanimity as to the scope, coordination, and subordination of physical and cultural anthropology and the social sciences in the canon of the "order of the sciences." Moreover, scientific discoveries revealing truer truths continually affect the understanding of the real, the absolute relation of things and ideas, and call for revised orientation in their theoretically accepted order. In this connection it may be noted that in large libraries the sequence of the main classes in actual location in the stacks rarely follows strictly the order of the classes in the system of classification. Special reference collections, classes most in demand by readers, must be placed nearest to the reading rooms and special reference departments. Distribution of shelving space in the building may compel accommodation in the distribution of classes in other than their order according to the scheme of classification (36).

As Hanson worked with the development of the outline of the scheme in 1898, Martel was concerned with revising Cutter's Class Z, Books Arts, to become the first schedule of LC classification, Class Z, Bibliography and Library Science. Cutter had provided the library with his seventh expansion or "seventh classification" for this class. The following is a summary of the major division of this class.

CUTTER

Z	BOOK ARTS
	Production ZA-ZK
ZA	Authorship
ZB	Rhetoric
ZC	Branches of literature
ZD	Writing: Paleography
ZE	Manuscripts
ZF	Shorthand, Stenography
ZG	Penmanship, Calligraphy
ZH	Printing
ZI-ZJ	Incunabula and Blockbooks
ZK	Binding
	Distribution ZL-ZM
ZL	Publishing and bookselling
ZM	Book Buying
	Storage and Use ZN-ZS
ZN	Private libraries
ZP-ZS	Public libraries
	Description and Use ZT-ZZ
ZT	Publications
ZU	Bibliography in general
ZV	Anonymous and Pseudonymous books
ZW	Subject and class bibliographies
ZX	National bibliography
ZY	Literary history
ZZ	Selection of reading

Five subclasses, ZA Authorship, ZB Rhetoric, ZC Branches of literature, ZY Literary history, and ZZ Selection or reading, were not used by Martel. These were to be covered in subclass PN for General literature in Class P, Language and Literature. The remaining subclasses were all used as the following summary of LC's Class Z shows. Even Cutter's subclass ZF for Shorthand and Stenography was retained and expanded to include typewriting. This location often concerns the user of LC classification as other works on secretarial training occur in Class H.

LC

Z	BIBLIOGRAPHY AND LIBRARY SCIENCE	
4-8	History of books and bookmaking	
40-115	Writing	
41-42	Autographs	
43-48	Calligraphy. Pensmanship	
49-51	Typewriting	
53-100	Shorthand	
105-115	Paleography	

116-550	Book industries and trade
	116-265 Printing
	266-275 Binding
278-550	Publishing and bookselling
551-661	Copyright. Intellectual property
665-997	Libraries and library science
1001-8999	Bibliography
1041-1107	Anonyms and pseudonyms
1201-4941	National bibliography
5051-7999	Subject bibliography
8001-8999	Personal bibliography

Class Z was the first class of the new system to be completed. It had been deliberately chosen as it would contain many reference works necessary for the development of other schedules. The notation was limited to a single letter Z. This was also the case with the next schedule to be developed, Class E-F for American history. It was not until 1902 when Class D for World history was being developed that double letters were introduced to the notation. Both of these early schedules have often been criticized for this notational deficiency as well as other criticisms covered in later sections of this article. In 1901 the publication of individual schedules began with Class E-F. Class Z was published in 1902. By 1904 schedules for Classes D, M, Q, R, S, T, and U were completed, with schedules for A, C, G, H and V in process.

The process of developing the schedules is explained by Dr. Bead:

It is important to note the method of work that the framers of the classification employed. First a theoretical schedule was drafted for each subject class. This preliminary schedule was then applied to the existing LC book collection to reclassify it from the Jeffersonian classification which had governed the placement of the Library's holdings before. It was also used to classify newly acquired material. In this process of application the schedule of each class was modified and adapted to the collections of the Library of Congress by making necessary expansions for additional topics represented by books in the collections. Furthermore, on the basis of the examination of the Library's holdings, decisions were made on the collocation of certain topics and materials. For all schedules, this process of testing, molding, and development lasted several years. Finally, there emerged for each discipline the completed classification schedule which was tailor-made for LC's holdings and, in fact, reflected the nature of the LC collections, their strengths, and their weaknesses (3).

Each of the individual schedules was developed by subject specialists at the library. Bibliographies, treatises, comprehensive histories, and existing classification schemes were used to determine the scope and structure of the literature for an individual class or subclass. Each schedule had an individual editor as well as the specialists for various parts. For example, Martel initially drafted Class D, World history. Alfred Schmidt was appointed editor of this schedule. W. Dawson Johnston, the historian of the library for the years 1800-1864, developed subclasses DA Great

Britain, DK Russia, and the Turkey section of DR. The Balkan states part of DR was planned by Alexis V. Babine. Cecil K. Jones developed DP Spain and Portugal and DT Africa. The remaining subclasses were the responsibility of Editor Schmidt. The former chief of the Subject Cataloging Division, Richard S. Angell, discusses the development of LC classification:

While in general outline and sequence of topics it has affinity with earlier systems, the Library's schedules basically represent a fresh start in the design of a system for its own particular purposes. The schedules were developed one by one, by specialists working under a central direction, but with considerable independence. They were built for the most part inductively, that is, by taking account of the collections of the Library as they existed and as they were expected to develop because of the Library's needs for comprehensive collections in all fields of knowledge.

From these origins and impulses the Library of Congress classification has developed into a comprehensive practical system for the arrangement and management of collections of books. With one obvious exception (i.e., Class K. Law) it is a complete system embracing all of the areas of human knowledge, the various components of this universe of knowledge having been allocated to the respective schedules. The objective in the partitioning of this universe is to secure well-defined areas corresponding to the concepts by which the separate fields are taught and expounded, and on which developmental research is based. Within each area the objective is to provide an orderly and apprehendable arrangement of the volumes in an array which will make direct access to the collections useful and meaningful to qualified students and scholars, and helpful to the staff in the control and servicing of items wanted for reference or circulation. To the extent that this partitioning is successful the classification as a whole becomes a seamless garment in that each of the parts exist basically for its place in the whole structure. At the same time the size and scope of the collections give each of the parts a considerable independence and self-sufficiency within its own field. This is particularly true of the manner in which certain common elements of a general classification scheme are treated in each of the parts of ours. Geographical and chronological arrangements, for example, are framed in accordance with the needs of each subject field; that is, they are not carried out by means of a single division table as is the case in certain other classifications. This feature of the schedules has been both criticized and praised; criticized for resulting in extremely detailed and bulky individual schedules, praised for the freedom allowed in each schedule for development according to its subject field's own intrinsic structure (37).

Characteristics of LC Classification

This section deals with the common characteristics of the physical schedules of LC classification in relation to format and notation. [For a more detailed explanation of the material in this section, see *A Guide to the Library of Congress Classification* (38).]

FORMAT

LC classification is made up of twenty-nine separate schedules for the classes and subclasses. In addition there are presently in use a supplement to subclass PA for

Byzantine and modern Greek literature; an index of languages and dialects for subclass P-PM; a draft outline for Class K, Law; and the general outline of the classes. The individual schedules are:

- A General works, Polygraphy
- B, pt. 1, B-BJ Philosophy
- B, pt. 2, BL-BX Religion
- C Auxiliary-Sciences of History
- D General and Old World History
- E-F American History
- G Geography, Anthropology, Folklore, Manners and Customs, Recreation
- H Social Sciences
- J Political Science
- KF Law of the United States
- L Education
- M Music and Books on Music
- N Fine Arts
- P-PA Philology, Linguistics, Classical Philology, Classical Literature
- PB-PH Modern European Languages
- PG, in part Russian Literature
- PJ-PM Languages and Literatures of Asia, Africa, Oceania, America, Mixed Languages, Artificial Languages
- PN, PR, PS, PZ Literature (General), English and American Literature, Fiction in English, Juvenile Literature
- PQ, pt. 1 French Literature
- PQ, pt. 2 Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese Literatures
- PT, pt. 1 German Literature
- PT, pt. 2 Dutch and Scandinavian Literatures
- Q Science
- R Medicine
- S Agriculture, Plant and Animal Industry, Fish Culture and Fisheries, Hunting Sports
- T Technology
- U Military Science
- V Naval Science
- Z Bibliography and Library Science

The layout or printing format of each of these schedules is similar. The following seven elements occur in most of the schedules.

1. A prefatory note.
2. A synopsis listing all the double letters used in the schedule.
3. An outline, listing in greater detail than the synopsis the material covered in the schedule.
4. The main classification tables.
5. The auxiliary tables.
6. The index.
7. The supplementary pages of Additions and Changes to the schedule.

Not all of the schedules contain all seven of these elements. Some have no synopsis; some have no auxiliary tables; eight schedules do not have indexes; and a new edition of a schedule will not have any pages of additions and changes. The following examples demonstrate these physical elements. The prefatory note contains a brief history of the schedule as well as concise remarks on the scope of the schedule. The following example as well as the other examples in this discussion is taken from Class L for Education.

PREFATORY NOTE

The classification scheme for education was developed on the basis of the Library of Congress collection in the course of its reclassification. The first edition of the schedule, published in 1910, represents the work of several classifiers who have been successively in charge of this subject: Mr. J. C. Bay and Mr. W. D. Johnston, who prepared the schedule for Section L and some portions of Sections LA to LF; Mr. A. F. W. Schmidt completed and partly reconstructed the schedule and classified the greater part of the entire collection; Dr. J. D. Wolcott worked out in detail Sections LC, LJ, and LT, and contributed to the further development of other sections. A second edition was issued in 1928 incorporating such additions and revisions as were made, while Dr. G. M. Churchill and Mr. C. K. Jones were in charge of this class. Since then Mr. C. K. Jones, Mr. L. E. La Montagne, Dr. R. O. Suter, Mr. Philip Kirchbaum, and Dr. Leonard Ellinwood have been successively in charge. They have contributed most of the additions and changes made since 1928 and included in the present (third) edition.

The Library of the United States Office of Education adopted the scheme with the addition of a few subjects of special interest to it, which in the Library of Congress form subdivisions of other subjects. These additions have been included in the schedules only by references to other classification schedules and are distinguished by curves enclosing the respective numbers.

The present edition has been edited and prepared for printing by Miss L. Belle Voegeléin, Editor of Classification Schedules (39).

It may be noted that this particular prefatory note contains only historical remarks.

The synopsis as previously stated is simply a list of the double letters of subclasses used in the schedule. The following example from Class L demonstrates this.

SYNOPSIS

- L** Education (General)
- LA** History of Education
- LB** Theory and Practice of Education
 - Teaching
 - Teacher Training
 - School Administration and Organization
- LC** Special Aspects of Education
 - Forms of Education
 - Social Aspects of Education
 - Moral and Religious Education

SYNOPSIS—Cont.

Special Aspects of Education—Cont.

	Types of Education
	Education of Special Classes of Persons
	Education Extension. Adult Education
LD-LG	Individual Institutions
LD	United States
LE	America (except United States)
LF	Europe
LG	Asia, Africa, Oceania
LH	College and School Magazines and Papers Student Periodicals
LJ	Student Fraternities and their Publications
LT	Textbooks (40)

The outline for the first subclasses of Class L is shown next to demonstrate the greater amount of detail in the outline.

CLASS L OUTLINE

Education (General)

L	
7-97	Periodicals. Societies
101	Yearbooks
106-107	Congresses
111-791	Documents. Reports
797-899	Exhibitions. Museums
900-991	Directories
	History of Education
LA	
5-25	General
31-133	By period
173-185	Higher education
201-396	United States
410-2270	Other countries
2301-2397	Biography
	Theory and Practice of Education
LB	
5-41	General
51-875	Systems
1025-1050	Teaching (principles and practice)
1051-1091	Education psychology
1101-1139	Child study
1140	Preschool education
1141-1499	Kindergarten
1501-1547	Primary education
1555-1601	Elementary education
1603-1695	Secondary education
1705-2285	Education and training of teachers. Teachers colleges, etc.
2300-2411	Higher education

CLASS L OUTLINE.—Cont.

2503-2797	School laws and legislation
2801-3095	School administration and organization
3011-3095	School management and discipline
3205-3325	School architecture
3401-3497	School hygiene. College hygiene
3525-3575	Special days
3062-3640	School life, etc. (41)

The largest part of each schedule is the main classification tables. The first part of subclass LA for History of Education is an example of the main tables. There are brief notes on this example in regard to inclusion and exclusion. Using this schedule, a textbook on History of education would be classed "LA 13" or a pamphlet on the same topic would be "LA 25."

MAIN TABLES

HISTORY OF EDUCATION

General, national, and local
 History of educational theory in LB
 History of individual institutions in LD-LG

LA	Collected works
5	Several authors
7	Individual authors
	Cf. LB 5-7, 51-875, Theory and practice of education
9	Historiography
11	General works
13	Textbooks, compends, etc.
14	Syllabi and topical outlines
21	General special
23	Anecdotes, facelliae, satire, etc.
25	Addresses, essays, lectures. Pamphlets. By period.
	Cf. LB 51-875, Theories and systems
31	General pre-Christian. Ancient
34	Oriental
35	China
36	India

Any auxiliary tables follow the main tables. There are five different types of auxiliary tables. These are form tables, geographic tables, chronological tables, subject subdivision tables, and combination tables. Form tables usually subdivide by bibliographic form and are especially used in subclasses PQ, PR, PS, PT, and B for individual authors and philosophers. Geographic tables allow for division by country, state, and city. These are extensively used in the social sciences and particularly Class H. Chronological tables are often used under the historical division of a subject. The further division of a subject may also be done by subject subdivision tables. Perhaps the most common form of auxiliary table is a combination table. Such a table may

combine the previously mentioned elements completely or in part into a single table. These elements may be observed in the following extract from the auxiliary table to Class L.

AUXILIARY TABLE
TABLES OF SUBDIVISIONS
INSTITUTIONS IN AMERICA

(LD-LE)

Use Tables II-V as indicated in the schedules; Table I for all other institutions, substituting for x1, x2 of Table I the initial and first digit or digits of the Cutter numbers assigned to them in the schedules (see examples, p. 175).

I	II	III	IV	
x17	0	0	0	Charter (and founding)
x175	.5	.5	.5	College statutes, by-laws, etc. Administration General works. Official reports
x18	1	1	1	Board of regents, trustees, etc.
x19	2	2	2	President (or head of the institution)
	.5	.5	.5	Treasurer
	.7	.7	.7	Registrar
x192	.9	.9	.9	Other administrative reports (43)

The index to the schedule is the sixth recurring physical element. Classes A, PB-PH, PG in part, PJ-PM, PQ parts 1 and 2, and PT parts 1 and 2 have no indexes. In the twenty-one indexes there may be references from one schedule to another as the following extract from Class L shows. This feature, however, is not consistently applied and cannot be relied on. Further criticism of the indexes is covered in the criticism section of this article.

INDEX

Accredited schools: LB 2355
Achievement tests: LB 1131
Activity programs: LB 1027
Administration, College: LB 2341
Administration, School: LB 2801-3095
Adolescence
 Child life: HQ 781-85
 Child in the family: HQ 769-79
 Child study: LB 1135
 Somatology: GN 63 (44)

At the end of each schedule, unless it is a new edition, is a section of Additions and Changes. This section is one of three methods of updating the schedules. These

additions and changes are printed on leaves, i.e., with alternate pages blank, to allow the possibility of clipping and tabbing into the main tables of the schedule. The two other methods of updating are the quarterly publication of *L. C. Classification—Additions and Changes* and the periodic publication of new editions of schedules which incorporate all additions and changes into the main tables. The following example is an extract from the Additions and Changes section of Class L.

ADDITIONS AND CHANGES

LA

- 5 *(As fifth line above, insert "Primitive education," see GN 488.5) p. 15*
 99 *(Change citation in "Cl." note below to "LC 901-915.") p. 16*
 (Align with "Renaissance . . ." but insert above.) p. 16
 102 Jewish education.
 (Insert as second line above "201", aligned with "United States.") p. 17
 190-198 America (Table I, nos. 0-8) (45)

The order of entries or foci within a class or subclass or individual subject is another unifying feature of LC classification. This order is called the General Principle of Arrangement within the Classes or "Martel's Seven Points" as Martel is said to have instructed the subject specialists to follow this order as appropriate in the development of any section of the classification. The order is

1. General form divisions
2. Theory, Philosophy
3. History
4. Treatises, General works
5. Law, Regulation, State relations
6. Study and teaching
7. Special subjects and subdivisions

Although this order occurs throughout the individual schedules and classes, it is modified as appropriate to the subject according to the classificationists' view. The exact sequence differs in various contexts.

General form divisions include

Periodicals
 Societies
 Collections
 Dictionaries
 Encyclopedias
 Congresses
 Exhibitions
 Museums
 Yearbooks
 Documents
 Directories

Usually all the general form divisions that are applied precede any other divisions. There is no absolute internal order for the general form divisions.

Theory and philosophy is the second element of the general order. Often this element is represented by a single number although in some cases it is extensively developed. This element is comparable to the standard subdivision "01" in the Decimal Classification.

The third common division is History. A chronological subdivision is often applied with this element. The most common chronological division is

Early to 1800
1801-

Other chronological divisions are used when necessary or appropriate. In actual practice history is often combined with the following element, Treatises and general works.

Comprehensive works covering a particular class, subclass, or subject are called treatises and/or general works. This element may be subdivided chronologically in a fashion similar to history. In addition, the following subdivisions as well as others may be used:

General
General special
Minor

"General" means simply a general comprehensive work covering the material being treated at that point in the classification. "General special" means a general or comprehensive work treated from a particular point-of-view or in a particular relation or aspect. An example of "general special" in work history could be *An Architect's Guide to World History*. "Minor" is used to mean a work covering a comprehensive subject but not in a comprehensive fashion. A pamphlet with a comprehensive title would be considered "minor." This particular subdivision can be used critically by classifiers. All of these divisions are also with the history element.

The fifth element, Law, regulations, state relations, has been used extensively in the social sciences. It is, however, presently being phased out as Class K, Law, develops.

Study and teaching is another element similar to a standard subdivision in the Decimal Classification, "07." Although this element, just as in the case of Theory and philosophy, is often represented by a single number, in a few instances it is fully expanded. In fact, there is an entire subclass MT for the study and teaching of music.

The development of subjects, their subclasses, and foci is the final element of Martel's Seven Points. Obviously this element represents the largest part of the schedules. The subject specialists at LC attempted to expand this point appropriately

and independently for all subjects. Geographic division may well occur at this point. This form of division follows one of two general patterns. Continents and countries are either arranged in a preferred order according to national basis or arranged alphabetically. The preferred order is

- America
 - North America
 - United States
 - British North America. Canada
 - Mexico
 - Central America
 - West Indies
 - South America
- Europe
 - Great Britain
 - Continental Countries
- Asia
- Africa
- Australia and New Zealand
- Pacific Islands
- Arctic regions
- Antarctic regions

Within each region further subdivision is made either regionally or alphabetically. The alphabetical geographic division is used when one number is assigned to geographic division with the instructions "By country, A-Z." In some cases following geographic division by preferred order, further subject divisions may occur. This can allow a geographic area to have its specific and perhaps unique subdivisions. For instance, under the constitutional history of this country we would not need a subdivision for the monarchy although for both the United Kingdom and France we would.

The following example from Subclass GK for Folklore may be used to demonstrate the use of Martel's Seven Points. The range of numbers GR 1-35 are example of general form divisions. Theory is represented by GR 40. Study and teaching appears as the next element receiving three numbers, GR 45-47. The use of geographic division alphabetically may be seen in GR 47, Other countries, A-Z. It may be noted that GR 46 is reserved for the United States. This technique allows the United States, or the favored country, to receive preferred treatment without using the full preferred order. Biography of folklorists, which is a general form division, is collocated to follow Study and teaching. General works is a good example of the previous discussion. The common chronological subdivision of "Early works to 1800" and "1801-" is used for GR 60 and 65. GR 67 is reserved for general special. History follows General works instead of preceding it. General chronological subdivisions of Ancient, Medieval, and Modern are used. The next developments show the subject divided first by race and then geographically using the preferred order. This section is completed by Folklore related to special subjects.

EXAMPLE OF GR 1-114

- GR
- 1 Periodicals. Societies
 - 10 Congresses
 - Collections. Collected works
 - 15 Several authors
 - 20 Individual authors
 - 25 Minor collections of folk tales, legends, etc.
 - 35 Dictionaries
 - 40 Theory. Relations to other studies, etc.
 - Study and teaching
 - 45 General works
 - By country
 - 46 United States
 - 47 Other countries, A-Z
 - Biography of folklorists
 - 50 Collective
 - 55 Individual, A-Z
 - General works
 - 60 Early works to 1800
 - 65 1801-
 - 67 General special
 - Addresses, essays, lectures
 - Collections
 - 70 Several authors
 - 71 Individual authors
 - 72 Individual addresses, essays, lectures
 - 73 Miscellaneous. Minor works
 - 74 Juvenile works
 - 75 Individual folk tales, A-Z
 - Including history and variants, e.g.,
 - .C4 Cinderella
 - .C8 Cupid
 - .G6 Grateful dead
 - .P5 Pent Cuckoo
 - .P6 Polyphemus
 - .S67 Sorcerer's apprentice
 - .S8 Swan maidens
 - .W3 Wandering Jew
 - History
 - 80 General
 - 85 Ancient
 - 90 Medieval
 - 93 Modern
 - By Race
 - 95 Aryan
 - Celtic, *see* GR 137
 - 97 Semitic
 - 98 Jewish
 - Teutonic, *see* GR 139

EXAMPLE OF GR 1-114—Cont.

	By Country
100	America
101	North America
(102)	American Indians, <i>see</i> E 98.F6
103	Afro-American peoples. Negroes
105	United States
106	New England (46)

THE NOTATION

LC Classification uses a mixed notation of one or two letters, cardinal or whole numbers from 1 to 9999 with possible decimal extensions, one or two Cutter numbers, and possibly the year of publication. LC notation literally represents the book and simply the subject matter of the book as is the case with the Decimal Classification's notation. The following two patterns are the most common in LC notation.

Class number:
 One or two letters
 Whole numbers 1 to 9999
 Possible decimal extensions
 One Cutter number
 Possible year of publication

Class number:
 One or two letters
 Whole numbers 1 to 9999
 Possible decimal extensions
 One Cutter number
 A second Cutter number
 Possible year of publication

Usually the last element of the notation before the date is the author number. If there is a second Cutter number, the first Cutter number has probably been used as a further division of the subject. The use of two Cutter numbers in the notation is called double Cutter numbers.

LC Cutter numbers are derived from the following simple table, issued by the library.

Library of Congress call numbers consist in general of two principal elements: class number and author number, to which are added as required symbols designating a particular work and a particular book. This statement offers a brief explanation of the Library's system of author numbers, or, more properly, of assigning the symbols by which names are designated and differentiated in call numbers.

Library of Congress author symbols are composed of initial letters followed by Arabic numbers. The numbers are used decimally and are assigned on the basis of the tables given below in a manner that preserves the alphabetical order of names within a class.

1. After the initial Letter S
for the second letter: a c h e h i m o p t u
use number: 2 3 4 5 6 7-8 9
2. After the initial letters Qu
for the third letter: a e i o r y
use number: 3 4 5 6 7 9
3. After other initial consonants
for second letter: a e i o r u
use number: 3 4 5 6 7 8
4. After initial vowels
for second letter: b d l m n p r s t
use letter: 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Letters not included in the foregoing tables are assigned the next higher or lower number as required by previous assignments in the particular class.

The following examples illustrate the application of these tables:

1. Names beginning with the letter S:

Sabine	.S15	Seaton	.S4	Steel	.S7
Saint	.S2	Shank	.S45	Storch	.S75
Schaefer	.S3	Shipley	.S5	Sturges	.S8
Schwedel	.S35	Smith	.S6	Sullivan	.S9
2. Names beginning with the letters Qu:

Quabbe	.Q3	Quick	.Q5	Qureshi	.Q7
Queener	.Q4	Quoist	.Q6	Quynn	.Q9
3. Names beginning with other consonants:

Carter	.C3	Cinelli	.C5	Crocket	.C7
Cecil	.C4	Corbett	.C6	Croft	.C73
Childs	.C45	Cox	.C65	Cullen	.C8
4. Names beginning with vowels:

Abernathy	.A2	Ames	.A5	Arundel	.A78
Adams	.A3	Appleby	.A6	Atwater	.A87
Aldrich	.A4	Archer	.A7	Austin	.A9

Since the tables provide only a general framework for the assignment of author numbers, it should be noted that the symbol for a particular name is constant only within a single class.

In this writer's *A Guide to the Library of Congress Classification*, the following additional explanation is given:

The user of those tables must realize that L.C. practice does not strictly follow these tables. For instance, the British Museum is cuttered in "AM 101" as ".B8" not as ".B7," the proper number according to the table. Another example may be seen in the first two names of the "S" table, "Sabine" and "Saint." "Saint" is cuttered "S2" as the table recommends for an author whose surname begins with "S" and whose second letter is "a." "Sabine," however, is not cuttered "S2" as the table would recommend but is rather cuttered "S15" to place the name "Sabine" in its proper alphabetical position before the name "Saint." The choice of "S15" is an arbitrary choice; it could have been "S16," "S14," "S17," etc. The purpose of

these cutter numbers is solely for maintaining alphabetization whenever an alphabetical array is desirable. They may be used for personal names, corporate names, geographic names, titles of books, subjects, etc. As the above table demonstrates, these cutter numbers are to be treated decimally and not ordinally. They may be expanded decimally as far as necessary. Also, the user should be advised to take care in the use of either "1" or "9" in cutter numbers. Either of these numbers, if used, can result in unnecessary decimal extensions. In fact, it is the policy of the Library of Congress not to have any cutter number end in the digit "1." In general the preceding table should be used in original classing only when absolutely necessary. It is always preferable to discern the author or cutter number actually used by the Library of Congress (47).

The following list of examples of LC notation is designed to demonstrate some of the many different devices used at the library. First the order of the parts is given as it would be on an LC card at the library. Then the notation is displayed tabularly with each part identified.

Simple LC Notation

Z2011
.A4
1967

A	The main class letter for bibliography.
2011	The subdivision by whole numbers meaning general bibliography of English literature.
.A4	The Cutter number for the author, in this case Altick.
1967	The date of publication.

Z2011 comes directly from the schedule for Class Z, Bibliography and Library science. As there are no further directions for cutting at this point in the schedule, the first Cutter number is used for the main entry, the author's surname.

Double Cutter Numbers

Double Cutter numbers are the use of two Cutter numbers instead of one.

PN6071
.A9J3

PN	The subclass double letters meaning General or World literature.
6071	The subdivision by whole numbers meaning Literary collections to be subarranged by subject alphabetically, A-Z.
.A9	The first Cutter number used for further subdivision of 6071 meaning the specific subject "authors."
J3	The second Cutter number for the author, in this case Jackson.

".A9" is an example of a subject subdivision by a Cutter number. The subject "Authors" or "Authorship" is in an alphabetical sequence of Cutter numbers, A-Z,

and is cuttered using the previously exhibited Cutter number table. Similarly the "J3" is an application of that table.

Reserved Cutter Numbers

A reserved Cutter number is the specific reservation of an individual Cutter number or range of Cutter numbers to be used for a specific subdivision of a subject.

HC57
.A3U5

HC	The subclass double letters meaning economic history and conditions.
57	The subdivision by whole numbers meaning the Reconstruction period of 1919-1939.
.A3	The first Cutter number reserved in the schedules for individual countries.
U5	The second Cutter number for an individual country, in this case the United States.

The reserved Cutter number is ".A3" which the schedule specifically directs to be used for individual countries. The second Cutter number is for geographic division alphabetically. No third Cutter number may be used so that the individual book would have to be indicated by either a decimal extension to the last Cutter number or by date.

Official Cutter Numbers

A reserved Cutter number for official or governmental publications is called an official Cutter number.

HA730
.P6A3

HA	The subclass double letters meaning statistics.
730	The subdivision by whole numbers meaning Cities in the United States to be subdivided alphabetically, A-Z.
.P6	The first Cutter number used for geographic division of 730 and meaning in this case Pittsburgh.
A3	The second Cutter number reserved for official publications.

"A3" is an official Cutter number taken from the range of official Cutter numbers, A1-5, for HA730.

Authors in Literature. Ranges of Numbers

Certain authors in literature prior to the twentieth century are assigned ranges of numbers in the literature schedules. Significant individual works may be given one or more cardinal or whole numbers. Byron, for instance, is given a range of 50 num-

bers, PR4350 to 4398. Yeats is an example of an author with eight numbers, PR5900 to 5908.

Twentieth Century Authors

These authors are only assigned a Cutter number, although a complete auxiliary table for expansion of Cutter numbers allows full development of the author. The second Cutter number can be used for collected works, individual works, and biography and criticism.

PS3537
.T323

- PS** The subclass double letters meaning American Literature.
3537 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning twentieth century authors from 1900 to 1960 whose *last name begins with S*.
T323 The first Cutter number assigned to the author whose last name begins with S, in this case Stein. Note that the second letter of the surname is used to cutter.
M3 The second Cutter number for the title of an individual work of the author, in this case *Making of Americans*.

It must be carefully noted that the Cutter number for author is based on the second letter of the author's last name. This is necessary as the cardinal number refers to the first letter of the author's last name.

Successive Cutter Numbers

Successive Cutter numbers are numbers (i.e., decimal extensions) in an established succession or order used to subdivide further a single Cutter number.

AM101
.B80 to .B89

- AM** The subclass double letters meaning Museums.
101 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning individual museums.
.B8 The first Cutter number assigned to the British Museum.
0-9 The range of successive Cutter numbers used to subdivide the material of the British Museum.

B128
.M31 to .M35

- B** The subclass single letter meaning Philosophy (general).
128 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning individual Chinese philosophers.
.M3 The first Cutter number assigned to the individual Chinese philosopher, Mencius.
1 to 5 The range of successive Cutter numbers to subdivide the works by and about Mencius.

LD5361
.T37 to .T46

- LD The subclass double letters meaning an individual university, college or school in the United States.
- 5361 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning those individual institutions whose first three letters are "Tri."
- .T37-46 The range of Cutter numbers with their successive elements for Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.

A specific table provides the significance for each of these successive numbers. For instance, AM101 has a table of ten subdivisions, e.g.,

- AM Museums
- 101 Individual museums, A-Z.
Alphabetically by name.
Under each (using successive Cutter numbers):
- (0) Collections, etc.
 - (1) Acts of incorporation, statutes, by-laws, rules, and regulations. By date
 - (2) Administration. List of officers, etc.
 - (2.5) Examinations
 - (3) Annual reports
 - (4) Other serials: Periodicals, collections, memoirs, etc.
 - (4.5) Other minor official reports. By date
 - (5) Guidebooks, catalogs. By date
 - (5.2) Special minor exhibits. By date
 - (6) History
 - (6.5) Descriptive works (official). By date
 - (7) General works (nonofficial)
 - (9) Miscellaneous printed matter, circulars, announcements. By date (48)

B128 uses a table of five subdivisions for .M31, .M32, .M33, .M34, and .M35. LD5361 uses a far more complex table. For a complete discussion of successive Cutter numbers, the reader may consult *A Guide to the Library of Congress Classification* (49).

Dates in the Notation

As previously mentioned, the year of publication may be the last element of the notation. The following examples demonstrate this as well as other possible devices for including the date in the notation.

DA566
.9
M33A3
1966

- DA The subclass double letters meaning history of Great Britain.
 566 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning the twentieth century.
 .9 The decimal extension meaning biography and memoirs.
 .M33 The first Cutter number meaning the subject of the biography, in this case Harold Macmillan.
 A3 The second Cutter number meaning that this is an autobiographical work.
 1966 The year of publication.

DA
 566
 .9
 .M33
 A3

- 1966a The year of publication with an "a" attached meaning that this is a different issue published the same year as the preceding one.

HX811
 1887
 .B33

- HX The subclass double letters meaning Socialism, communism, and anarchism.
 811 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning individual Utopian works.
 1887 The date of publication of the first edition of a particular Utopian work, in this case Edward Bellamy's *Looking Backward*.
 .B3 The first Cutter number for the author, Bellamy.
 3 A decimal extension to specify this particular edition.

This particular class number has at least one other variation.

HX811
 1516
 .E965

- HX
 811
 1516 The date of publication of the first edition of a particular Utopian work, in this case Sir Thomas More's *Utopia*.
 .E A translation letter meaning in this case an English translation.
 965 The year of publication of this edition without the first digit "1" meaning 1965.

- HX
 811
 .F A translation letter meaning in this case a French translation.
 966 The year of publication of this edition without the first digit "1" meaning 1966.

These are examples of notation with two dates—one used to identify a particular Utopian work by the date of its first edition and the other to indicate the year of publication of a particular edition.

G3821
 .P2
 1946
 .P4

- G** The subclass single letter meaning Geography (general).
3821 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning Maps of Pennsylvania dealing with a particular subject.
.P2 The subject letter-number meaning the particular subject Roads, i.e., this is a road map of Pennsylvania.
1946 The date of publication.
.P4 The *first* Cutter number for the main entry.

It must be pointed out that “.P2” is not a Cutter number but a subject letter-number. In the classification of maps, it is possible for the notation to appear to have three Cutter numbers as subject letters-numbers look like Cutter numbers. “.P2” comes from a sequence to which arbitrary meaning has been given without the intention of cutting. “.P2” is a subdivision of the subject table for transportation and communication as the following example shows.

Transportation and Communication

P
 1 General
 2 Roads, etc.
 3 Railroads
 4 Pipe lines
 5 Water transportation
 55 Port facilities
 6 Air transportation
 8 Communication (50)

The next example demonstrates the apparent use of three Cutter numbers.

G3824
 .P6P2
 1965
 .P6

- G** The subclass single letter meaning Geography (general).
3824 The subdivision by whole number meaning Maps of individual cities in Pennsylvania.
.P6 The first Cutter number for the specific individual city, in this case Pittsburgh.
P2 The *subject letter-number* meaning road maps.
.P6 The second Cutter number for the main entry.

BS185
 1923
 .C47

- BS The subclass double letters meaning the Bible.
 185 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning the King James Authorized version of 1611.
 1923 The year of publication of this particular edition.
 .C47 The first Cutter number for the place of publication, in this case Chicago.

This example shows the highly unusual instance of Cuttering by place.

PR4350
 .F37

- PR The subclass double letters meaning English literature.
 4350 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning the collected works of Lord Byron.
 .F37 The date letter meaning the year of publication of this particular edition, in this case 1937.

Date letters, such as ".F37," are used in a few cases in literature. In this case the first two digits of a date are replaced by a letter. This particular device may be traced to Cutter's use of Biscoe Date-Letters (51). The following is the LC notation table of date letters.

To 1500:	A00-A99
1500-1599:	B00-B99
1600-1699:	C00-C99
1700-1799:	D00-D99
1800-1899:	E00-E99
1900-1999:	F00-F99 (52)

Perhaps the greatest advantage of this table is that it provides a figure that appears to be a Cutter number in the book's call number.

QB544
 .54
 U6

- QB The subclass double letters meaning Astronomy.
 544 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning Solar eclipses from 1900 to 1999.
 .54 The book number meaning 1954.
 U6 The first Cutter number for main entry.

Although this use is similar to the previous date letters, it is called a book number and originated as a decimal extension of the whole or cardinal number.

Workmarks

Workmarks or the extension of Cutter numbers by letters of the alphabet are occasionally employed in LC notation. They are used extensively and simply in Sub-class PZ for fiction.

PZ3
.H981Cr

- PZ The subclass double letters meaning Fiction in English and Juvenile literature.
3 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning Fiction in English by individual authors publishing prior to 1950.
.H981 The first Cutter number for author, in this case Huxley.
Cr The workmarks for this title, *Chrome Yellow*.

LD5351
.T7gb

- LD The subclass double letters meaning an individual university, college, or school in the United States.
5351 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning those individual institutions whose names are between Th— and Tra—.
.T7 The first Cutter number meaning Transylvania University in Lexington, Ky.
gb The workmarks meaning a publication about honors courses at that university.

G3800
s25
.U5

- G The subclass single letter meaning Geography (general).
3800 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning general maps of New York State.
s The workmark meaning this is a set of maps.
25 The ratio number meaning this set of maps has a ratio of 1:25,000. The final three digits of the ratio number are dropped.
.U5 The first Cutter number for main entry.

Other Variations in the Notation

KFP1
.M6

- KFP The subclass *triple* letters meaning Pennsylvania state law.
1 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning bibliography.
.M6 The first Cutter number for main entry.

M1010
.B41
op.58
.W5

- M The subclass single letter meaning Music.
1010 The subdivision by whole number meaning full scores of piano concertos.
.B41 The first Cutter number for the composer, in this case Beethoven.
op.58 The opus number for this particular piano concerto, i.e., Concerto no. 4 in G.
.W5 The second Cutter number for the name of publisher of this particular edition.

M452
 .B42
 op.18, no.2
 .W5

- M** The subclass single letter meaning Music.
452 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning individual string quartets.
.B42 The first Cutter number for Beethoven.
op.18 The opus number for this particular string quartet which actually is a collection of six quartets making up opus 18.
no.2 The number of this particular quartet in opus 18.
.W5 The second Cutter number for the name of publisher of this particular edition.

M857
 .B4
 K.25
 15p

- M** The subclass single letter meaning Music.
857 The subdivision by whole numbers meaning a wind octet.
.B4 The first Cutter number for Beethoven.
K.25 The Kinsky thematic index number.
15 The second Cutter number for the publisher of the particular edition.
p The workmark indicating that there are separate parts for this work.

In the three previous examples it should be noted that Beethoven has been given three different Cutter numbers. Each reflects the development of an individual class number in the shelf list.

Another variation in LC notation as it appears in the schedules is the use of parentheses enclosing certain cardinal numbers. These numbers are called shelf-list numbers. They are not used for classification but exist as a form of cross references from unused numbers to used numbers. Their purpose is to avoid cross classification.

This section on notation has sought to demonstrate the great variety of possibilities in LC's particular forms of mixed notation. Martel states,

The practically unlimited flexibility and expansibility of the Library of Congress classification, the variety of notation devices for subdividing subjects by form, local, or subject subdivisions without resorting to excessively long and complicated marks or symbols, permit not only the addition and incorporation of new subjects in the schedules wherever desired but would make it possible with a three-letter class symbol to substitute gradually class by class an entirely new set of schedules (53).

There are at least six methods for the possible expansion of LC notations.

1. By using the unused letters I, O, W, X, and Y. (It should be noted that the letter W has been used by the National Library of Medicine for its classification schedule for medicine.)

2. By adding a third capital letter or even a fourth to the existing double letters, e.g., CNA, CNB, CNC, etc. This device is presently being used in Subclass KF for state law.
3. By the assignment of the unused numbers and double letters in the present schedules.
4. By extending the present numbers decimally.
5. By further use of Cutter numbers.
6. By further use of workmarks.

The Schedules, A–Z

This section covers the twenty-nine individual schedules of LC classification. The publishing history of each edition will be given as well as a listing of the subclasses included in each schedule. Full citations are listed in the Bibliography. Examples of particular specific subjects are cited when appropriate. In addition, the placement of selected popular subjects is included. Any significant relationships of similar subject matter in different subclasses are discussed.

CLASS A

Class A: General Works, Polygraphy was developed in 1906 and first published in 1911. A second edition was issued in 1915 and the third and current edition appeared in 1947. The subclasses are:

AC	Collections. Series. Collected Works
AE	Encyclopedias (General)
AG	Dictionaries and other general reference works
AI	Indexes (General)
AM	Museums (General). Collectors and Collecting
AN	Newspapers
AP	Periodicals (General)
AS	Academies and learned societies (General)
AY	Yearbooks. Almanacs. Directories
AZ	History of the sciences in general. Scholarship and learning

This class is for general works only. Works of a subject approach should be classed in the specific subject; i.e., an encyclopedia of English literature would be classed in PR, English literature, not in AE, Encyclopedias (General). This is even true of general language dictionaries which are classed by the language in P and not in subclass AG, Dictionaries and other general works.

The general principle of arrangement of the classes may be observed in this class in most subclasses. The most common form of subject subdivision is geographic using the preferred order. There is no index to this class.

CLASS B, SUBCLASSES B-BJ

Class B, Part 1, B-BJ: Philosophy was first published in 1910. The second edition of this schedule was issued in 1950. The subclasses are:

B	Philosophy (General)
BC	Logic
BD	Speculative philosophy
BF	Psychology
BH	Aesthetics
BJ	Ethics

Subclass **B** includes the works of individual philosophers. There are extensive lists of ancient, medieval, renaissance, and modern philosophers in this subclass. Metaphysics, epistemology, methodology, ontology, and cosmology are all included in Subclass **BD**. Reflecting nineteenth century thought, psychology is included in philosophy in Subclass **BF**. This particular subclass also contains certain popular specific subjects related to psychology such as phrenology, graphology, and palmistry. Other popular subjects include sleep and dreams, hypnotism, spiritualism as subdivisions of parapsychology; ghosts, demonology, Satanism, witchcraft, and magic as subdivision of occult sciences which also includes astrology, oracles, seers, and prophecies, and fortune-telling all in Subclass **BF** for psychology. Works on etiquette are included as a subdivision of **BJ**, Ethics.

CLASS B, SUBCLASSES BL-BX

Class B, Part 2, BL-BX: Religion was not released for its first publication until 1927. An expanded and revised second edition was published in 1962. The subclasses included are:

BL	Religions. Mythology. Rationalism
BM	Judaism
BP	Islam. Bahaim. Theosophy, etc.
BR	Christianity (General)
BS	The Bible and exegesis
BT	Doctrinal theology. Apologetics
BV	Practical theology
BX	Denominations and sects

Subclass **BL** includes a full development for mythology as well as the major religions of Hinduism and Buddhism. Sections for agnosticism, deism, free thought, atheism, and secularism are included under rationalism in this subclass. Sacred Jewish texts are covered in Subclass **BM** just as the Bible and its many versions are listed in Subclass **BS**. Subclass **BX** includes extensive lists of individual sects and demoninations, including a particularly long section for the Roman Catholic Church. As this schedule

was one of the last to be developed, certain material had already been assigned to other classes: Church and social problems in Subclass HN; Education and the Church in Subclass LC; Church music in Subclass M; Art and architecture in Class N; and Biblical languages in Subclasses PA and PJ.

CLASS C

The first edition of *Class C: Auxiliary Sciences of History* was published in 1915. One subclass, CN for Epigraphy, was not published until 1942. The current and second edition for this entire schedule appeared in 1948, including for the first time subclass CN as a part of the schedule. The subclasses are:

C	Auxiliary Sciences of History (General)
CB	History of Civilization and Culture (General)
CC	Archaeology (General)
CD	Diplomatics. Archives. Seals
CE	Technical chronology. Calendar
CJ	Numismatics
CN	Epigraphy. Inscriptions
CR	Heraldry
CS	Genealogy.
CT	Biography

It should be noted that the first three subclasses are for general works only; any works which could be classed by country would be. Works on chivalry and knight-hood are included in CR. Duels and dueling are included in this section although modern dueling, i.e., fencing, is found in Class U. Subclass CT is a complete biography class which contains many shelf-list numbers as classification by subject is preferred in LC for biography.

CLASS D

Class D: History: General and Old World was initially developed by Martel in 1901 and 1902. The first edition was issued in 1916. The second edition was published in 1959. The subclasses included are:

D	History (General)
DA	Great Britain
DB	Austria. Czechoslovakia. Hungary
DC	France
DD	Germany
DE	The Mediterranean region. Greco-Roman world
DF	Greece
DG	Italy
DH-DJ	Belgium. Holland. Luxemburg
DK	Russia
DL	Northern Europe. Scandinavia

DP	Spain. Portugal
DQ	Switzerland
DR	Eastern Europe. Balkan Peninsula. Turkey
DS	Asia
DT	Africa
DU	Oceania (South Seas)
DX	Gypsies

World War I and World War II and Europe in general are all covered in Subclass D. The remaining subclasses all include works of description and travel, antiquities, social life and customs, history, and local history. The outline for this schedule demonstrates the part of the preferred order for geographic division beginning with Europe. It should also be noted that the subclasses for Western European history far outnumber all the other subclasses in this schedule. Subclass DX for Gypsies is nearly a total special classification for this subject including not only history but also religion, magic, folklore, language, literature, and trades of gypsies.

CLASS E-F

Class E-F: History: America was the first schedule to be published by the library. It was issued in January of 1901 as a preliminary and provisional scheme. The second edition appeared in 1913 and the third and current edition in 1958. As Class E-F was developed prior to the decision to use double letters in the notation, the subclasses cannot be indicated by double but rather must be designated by ranges of whole numbers.

E	11-29	America (General)
	31-45	North America
	51-99	Indians. Indians of North America
	101-135	Discovery of America and early explorations
	151-	United States (General)
F	1-975	United States local history
	1001-1140	British America. Canada
	1201-1392	Mexico
	1401-3799	Latin America

The lack of double letters in this schedule causes a great many decimal extensions to be used.

CLASS G

Class G: Geography, Anthropology, Sports and Games first appeared in 1910. This schedule was expanded in 1915 with the separate publication of subclasses GR: Folklore and GT: Manners and Customs. In 1926 the second edition was published of the entire schedule. The section of Subclass G for maps was issued in 1946 to complete this schedule. The third edition was published in 1954. The subclasses are:

G	Geography (General)
GA	Mathematical Geography. Cartography
GB	Physical Geography
GC	Oceanography
GF	Anthropogeography. Human ecology
GN	Anthropology
GR	Folklore
GT	Manners and Customs (General)
GV	Recreation

Walking, mountaineering, adventures, shipwrecks, buried treasure, and pirates are all contained in Subclass G as well as maps and atlases. Although general geography and description of individual countries is classed with the history of the individual country, all maps and atlases are classed in Subclass G. Subclass GT is designed only for general works on manners and customs. Those works dealing with the manners and customs of a particular country are classed with that country's history in D or E-F.

CLASS H

Class H: Social Sciences was first published in 1910. Subclass HT was first published in 1915. This schedule appeared in a second edition in 1920 and in a third edition in 1950. The subclasses included are:

H	Social Sciences (General)
HA	Statistics
HB	Economic Theory
HC	Economic History and Conditions
HD	Land. Agriculture. Industry
HE	Transportation and Communication
HF	Commerce
HG	Finance
HJ	Public Finance
HM	Sociology (General and Theoretical)
HN	Social History. Social Problems. Social Reform
HQ	The Family. Marriage. Woman
HS	Societies: Secret, benevolent, etc. Clubs
HT	Communities. Classes. Races
HV	Social Pathology. Social and Public Welfare. Criminology
HX	Socialism. Communism. Anarchism

Certain individual subjects in this schedule should be pointed out. Stamps and stamp collecting is included in HE. Business mathematics occurs in HF and income tax in HJ. Works on prostitution, erotica, pornography, and abortion are placed in subclass HQ. Utopian works including works of fiction are classed in HX.

CLASS J

The first edition of *Class J: Political Science* was published in 1910. The second edition appeared in 1924. The subclasses are:

J	Official documents
JA	Collections and General Works
JC	Political Theory. Theory of the State. Constitutional History and Administration
JF	General Works. Comparative Works
JK	United States
JL	British America. Latin America
JN	Europe
JQ	Asia. Africa. Australia. Oceania
JS	Local Government
JV	Colonies and Colonization. Emigration and Immigration
JX	International Law. International Relations

Again the preferred order of geographic division may be noted in the subclasses for constitutional history and administration. This schedule demonstrates the concept of subject division under country as the previously cited subclasses demonstrate: each country has its own development for its constitutional history and administration as the classifiers at the library deemed appropriate.

SUBCLASS KF

Class K, Subclass KF: Law of the United States was first issued in May 1967 in an electrostatic copy. The first printed edition appeared in 1969. This is the first subclass of law schedules to be published. The remaining subclasses are currently being developed at the library. The subclasses of KF are:

KF	Law of the United States
KFA-KFW	Law of the Individual States
KFX	Law of Individual Cities
KFZ	Law of Individual Territories

With the development of this subclass, material from the other schedules relating to United States law is being transferred to KF. This, then, is beginning to phase out the fifth element of Martel's Seven Points. For instance, United States copyright law has been moved from Class Z to KF as has United States library law. It may also be noted that this class used triple letters in the notation.

In 1970 an outline for all of Class K was published. The following is a brief abridgement of the synopsis of that outline.

K	Generalia
KB	Ancient Law, Roman Law, Theocratic Legal Systems
KD	United Kingdom
KE	Canada
KF	United States
KG	Latin America (Mexico, Central America, West Indies)
KH	South America
KJ	Europe (General), Western Europe
KK	Central Europe

KL	Southeastern Europe. Northern Europe
KM	Soviet Union
KP	Asia. Southwestern Asia. Southern Asia
KQ	Southeastern Asia
KR	Africa
KT	Australia. New Zealand. Oceania. Antarctica
(KX)	Optional notation for public international law

These subclasses are expanded by triple letters, for example, KQB for Burma, KQP for Japan, or KTC for New Zealand. When this class is completed, all of the individual classes of LC classification will be completed. Subclass KD, Law of the United Kingdom, was issued in draft in 1972. Although Class K for Law existed in the original outlines for LC classification, the development of this class was delayed until 1949. There are at least two basic reasons why Class K was not developed sooner. First, much of the law material at the library is housed in the separate Law Library which used the traditional form arrangement of law libraries; and second, provision for the law of subjects was included in Martel's Seven Points to be applied in the individual classes.

CLASS L

The first edition of *Class L: Education* was issued in 1911. The second edition was published in 1929 and the third and current edition was published in 1951. The subclasses are:

L	Education (General)
LA	History of Education
LB	Theory and Practice of Education
LC	Special Aspects of Education
	Individual Institutions: Universities, Colleges, and Schools
LD	United States
LE	America, except United States
LF	Europe
LG	Asia. Africa. Oceania
LH	College and School Magazines and Papers
LJ	Student Fraternities and Societies
LT	Textbooks

Educational psychology is included in Subclass LB. Subclass LC includes adult education, self, home, and private school education. Subclass LT for textbooks is only used for works covering several subjects that cannot be classed in one of the specific subject classes, B-Z. Subclasses LD-LG contain extensive lists of individual institutions.

CLASS M

Class M: Music and Books on Music was developed in 1902 and had its first edition published in 1904. The second and current edition was issued in 1917. The subclasses are:

M	Music
ML	Literature of Music
MT	Musical Instruction and Study

Subclass M was divided into instrumental music and vocal music. Hymnals are a subdivision of vocal music. Subclass ML includes a range of numbers for bibliography of music. This class as well as Class K are the only two instances in LC classification with provision for bibliography by subject. All other bibliography is provided for in Class Z. Class M is specifically designed to be used in the Music Library at the Library of Congress. The Music Library maintains the only classed catalog at the library. This schedule is supplemented by "imaginary" numbers that are only used in the classed catalog. These numbers are not included in the printed schedule.

CLASS N

Class N: Fine Arts was issued first in 1910. The second edition appeared in 1917. The third edition was published in 1922. The current and fourth edition was issued in 1970. The new edition contains the first major reservations in this class including a new subclass, NX for Arts in General. The subclasses are:

N	Visual Arts (General)
NA	Architecture
NB	Sculpture
NC	Drawing. Design. Illustration
ND	Painting
NE	Print Media
NK	Decorative Arts. Applied Arts. Decoration and Ornament
NX	Arts in General

Art museums and exhibitions are extensively developed in Subclass N. Cartoons, posters, greeting cards, picture post-cards, book jackets, and matchcovers are all included in Subclass NC. The Arts and Crafts movement is covered in NK as interior decoration including furniture, carpets, tapestries, upholstery, and wall-papers. Other crafts in this subclass include ceramics, costume, glass, glyptic arts, metalwork, jewelry, coin banks, chessmen, dolls and doll houses, and toys. Subclass NX includes work dealing with two or more of the fine arts media such as literature, the performing arts, and the visual arts. Bead writes of the new edition,

Perhaps the most striking innovations of this revision are the regrouping of numbers for similar types of publications which had heretofore been dispersed in several places (e.g. works on art collectors and patrons have been brought closer to material on private collections) and the combining in the same numerical sequence of works on the history of art in a particular medium with books of reproductions of works in the same medium. There has also been some relocation in order to provide a more logical collocation of general works and works on the techniques and materials of various art forms. In all cases where class numbers are no longer used by the Library of Congress they have been parenthesized for the continued use of other libraries which may not wish to adopt these changes,

and appropriate references have been made. Extensive additions have been made to update the schedules or to increase their comprehensiveness (54).

There are two subclasses outside of Class N that are often related to the Fine Arts. These are BH for Esthetics and TR for Photography.

CLASS P

Eleven different schedules make up *Class P: Language and Literature*. Work was begun in 1909 and completed in 1948. *Subclasses PN, PR, PS, PZ: Literature (General), English and American Literature, Fiction in English, Juvenile Literature* was the first schedule of this class to be issued. It was issued in 1915. As is the case with all the subject schedules in this class, the first edition is the current edition. In 1928 the second schedule in this class was published: *P-PA: Philology, Linguistics, Classical Philology, Classical Literature*. *Subclasses PB-PH: Modern European Languages* appeared in 1933. Two years later *Subclasses PJ-PM: Languages and Literatures of Asia, Africa, Oceania, America, Mixed Languages, Artificial Languages* was published. The following year, 1936, included the publication of *Index to Languages and Dialects in the Volumes P-PA, PB-PH, PJ-PM* and *Subclass PQ, Part 1: French Literature*. In 1937 *Subclass PQ, Part 2: Italian, Spanish and Portuguese Literatures* was issued to complete subclass PQ. *Subclass PT, Part 1: German Literature* was published the next year, 1938. This subclass was completed in 1942 with the publication of *Subclass PT, Part 2: Dutch and Scandinavian Literatures*. Also issued that year was *Subclass PA Supplement: Byzantine and Modern Greek Literature, Medieval and Modern Latin Literature*. Class P was completed in 1948 with the publication of *Subclass PG, in part: Russian Literature*. Only the index to PA-PM has been issued in a second edition. This occurred in 1957. The subclasses are:

P	Philology and Linguistics (General)
PA	Classical Languages and Literatures
	Modern European Languages
PB	General Works. Celtic Languages and Literatures
PC	Romance Languages
PD	Germanic Languages (General, Scandinavian)
PE	English
PF	West Germanic
PG	Slavic. Baltic, Albanian Languages and Literatures
PH	Finno-Ugrian, Basque Languages and Literatures
PJ-PK	Oriental Languages and Literatures
PL	Languages and Literatures of Eastern Asia, Africa, Oceania
PM	Hyperborean, American (Indian) and Artificial Languages
PN	Literary History and Collections (General)
PQ	Romance Literatures
PR	English Literature

PS	American Literature
PT	Germanic Literatures
PZ	Fiction in English and Juvenile Fiction

Schedule P-PA is perhaps the most detailed and scholarly schedule in LC classification. Hanson said of this schedule, "the high-water mark has been reached in classification systems now available in printed form" (55). There are instructions on the use of schedule in its prefatory note as well as many directions within the main tables. The lists of Greek and Roman classical authors and their works are extensive. None of the other schedules in this class is as detailed as P-PA; however, the lists of authors of the various literatures are extensive. Further, the number of different languages covered in PB-PM is impressive. Although PN is basically designed for literature that cannot be assigned to an individual language, certain items are included for all literatures. These include quotations, wit and humor, ana, anecdotes, aphorisms, epigrams, epitaphs, maxims, sayings, thoughts, toasts, emblems, riddles and proverbs. It should also be noted that Subclass PN has detailed divisions for both theatre and journalism. Subclass PZ is for fiction in English, including fiction translated into English. Only juvenile fiction is now classed in PZ.

CLASS Q

Class Q: Science was first published in 1905. The second edition was issued in 1913, the third edition in 1921, the fourth edition in 1948, and the fifth edition in 1950. The current and sixth edition was published in 1973. Edward J. Blume states in the preface to this edition:

Editions subsequent to the first have incorporated additions and changes made in the course of daily application of the schedules. The present or sixth edition includes those adopted through September 1970 and, in addition, considerable material not heretofore published. The development of the field of nuclear physics during the past decades has necessitated noticeable expansion and rearrangement of topics in Class QC Physics. Detail has been incorporated into the arrangement of works in genetics in QH and virology in QR, where only broad classification was possible before. Classes QK Botany and QL Zoology have been greatly enlarged by printing virtually exhaustive lists of the various taxa representing the level at which classification is effected. Increased provision has also been made for classification by geographical distribution, particularly in Class QL (56).

The subclasses included are:

Q	Science (General)
QA	Mathematics
QB	Astronomy
QC	Physics
QD	Chemistry
QE	Geology
QH	Natural history

QK	Botany
QL	Zoology
QM	Human Anatomy
QP	Physiology
QR	Microbiology

Subclass Q contains works on voyages and expeditions, science readers for the study of foreign languages, cybernetics, and operations research. Computer science is found in Subclass QA. Astronomical myths, legends, and superstitions are classed in Subclass QB. Works on alchemy are included in Subclass QD and marine biology in Subclass QH. Subclass QL contains provisions for both animal intelligence and animal stories and anecdotes. The index to the sixth edition is greatly expanded and improved.

CLASS R

The first edition of *Class R: Medicine* appeared in 1910; 1921 marked the date of the second edition. The third and current edition was issued in 1952. The subclasses are:

R	Medicine (General)
RA	Public Aspects of Medicine
RB	Pathology
RC	Internal Medicine. Practice of Medicine
RD	Surgery
RE	Ophthalmology
RF	Orthinolaryngology
RG	Gynecology and Obstetrics
RJ	Pediatrics
RK	Dentistry
RL	Dermatology
RM	Therapeutics. Pharmacology
RS	Pharmacy and Materia Medica
RT	Nursing
RV	Botanic. Thomsonian, and Eclectic Medicine
RX	Homeopathy
RZ	Other Systems of Medicine

Medical education and schools are contained in Subclass R. Works on the disposal of the dead including undertaking, embalming, burial, cemeteries, and cremation are included in Subclass RA. Subclass RC includes psychiatry and psychopathology as well as a special section for sports medicine. Subclass RZ contains chiropractic medicine, osteopathy, and mental healing.

CLASS S

Class S: Agriculture—Plant and Animal Industry was first published in 1911. The second edition appeared in 1928. In 1948 the third and current edition was published. The subclasses are:

S	Agriculture (General)
SB	Plant Culture
SD	Forestry
SF	Animal Culture
SH	Fish Culture and Fisheries
SK	Hunting

Conservation of natural resources such as land, wildlife, and recreational resources are covered in Subclass S. Horticulture and landscape gardening are included in Subclass SB. Subclass SF includes brands and branding, horses, pets, and birds. The section on horses is most interesting as it represents nearly a complete subclassification or cluster group. Not only are the expected animal culture divisions or foci provided for the subject horses, but also horse shows, essays and light literature, illustrations of horses, horses in art, driving, coaching, riding, care of stables, and an extensive development for racing including betting systems, racing slang, racing colors, racing rules, history, and biography. None of the other animals covered in this subclass is treated as fully as horses. Pet fishes are covered in Subclass SH. Angling is also included in this subclass. Besides hunting in Subclass SK, wildlife management, game protection, camping, and outdoor life are all included. It should be noted that they are not part of sports as they are in the Decimal Classification. The same is true of horse racing in Subclass SF.

CLASS T

In 1910 the first edition of *Class T: Technology* was published. The second edition was issued in 1922, the third in 1937, and the fourth in 1948. The fifth and current edition was published in 1971. The subclasses are:

T	Technology (General)
TA	Engineering (General). Civil Engineering (General)
TC	Hydraulic Engineering
TD	Environmental Engineering. Sanitary Engineering
TE	Highway Engineering. Roads and Pavements
TF	Railroad Engineering and Operation
TG	Bridge Engineering
TH	Building Construction
TJ	Mechanical Engineering and Machinery
TK	Electrical Engineering. Electronics. Nuclear Engineering
TL	Motor Vehicles. Aeronautics. Astronautics
TN	Mining Engineering. Metallurgy
TP	Chemical Technology
TR	Photography
TS	Manufactures
TT	Handicrafts. Arts and Crafts
TX	Home Economics

Mechanical drawing is included in Subclass T as is special technology exhibitions. Model railways are included in Subclass TF for Railroad Engineering and Opera-

tions. Social, economic, and political aspects of railroads are in Subclass HE. Locomotives, incidentally, are in Subclass TJ for Mechanical Engineering. Sewing machines are also treated in Subclass TJ. Radio, television, electricity for amateurs, and electric toys are found in Subclass TK for Electrical Engineering. Subclass TL includes bicycles, motorcycles, balloons, model airplanes, rockets, astronautics, space travel, and kites. Subclass TS, Manufacturers, contains metalworking, wood technology, leather industries, paper manufacture, textile industries, rubber industry, animal products, milling industry, and tobacco industry. Subclass TT, Handicrafts, includes many instruction materials for subjects already covered in NK, Decorative and Applied Arts. In addition, there are works on manual training, dressmaking and tailoring, hair-dressing, needlework, and laundry work. Home Economics, subclass TX, includes division on the house, foods and food supply, cookery (i.e., cook books), hotels, restaurants, taverns, building operation and maintenance, and mobile home living.

CLASS U

Class U: Military Science was first published in 1910. The second edition was issued in 1928. In 1952 the third and current edition was released. The subclasses included are:

U	Military Science (General)
UA	Armies: Organization, Description, Facilities, etc.
UB	Military Administration
UC	Maintenance and Transportation
UD	Infantry
UE	Cavalry. Armored and Mechanized Cavalry
UF	Artillery
UG	Military Engineering
UH	Other Services

Material about the U.S. Military Academy, West Point, is included in Subclass U—not in Subclass LD for United States institutions of higher education. Also in the first subclass is history of arms and armor including fencing. Espionage and spies are included in Subclass UB for Military Administration. Military aeronautics and air warfare are included in Subclass UG for Military Engineering. Other services included in Subclass UH are medical and sanitary service, public relations, social welfare services, and recreation.

CLASS V

In 1910 the first edition of *Class V: Naval Science* was published. The second and current edition was issued in 1953. The subclasses included are:

V	Naval Science (General)
VA	Navies. Organization, Description, Facilities, etc.

VB	Naval Administration
VC	Naval Maintenance
VD	Naval Seamen
VE	Marines
VF	Naval Ordnance
VG	Minor Services of Navies
VK	Navigation. Merchant Marine
VM	Naval Architecture. Shipbuilding

Just as with the case of West Point, the U. S. Naval Academy, Annapolis, is included in Subclass V. Similarly naval spies and espionage are in Subclass VB for Naval Administration as are works on mutiny. The minor services of navies in Subclass VG include communications, bands, air service, medical service, public relations, social work, and recreation. Shipwrecks and fires are included in Subclass VK for Navigation. Subclass VM contains all the material on shipbuilding. This is not covered in Class T, Technology. Subclass VM includes ship models, illustrations of ships of all kinds, and submarines.

CLASS Z

The first class to be completed in 1898 and published in 1902 is *Class Z: Bibliography and Library Science*. In 1910 the second edition was issued. The third edition appeared in 1927 and the fourth and current edition was released in 1959. As double letters are not used in this class, the subclasses are shown by the approximate ranges of whole numbers.

Z	
4-115	Books in General
116-549	Book Industries and Trade
662-1000	Libraries and Library Science
1001-8999	Bibliography

The schedule is displayed in greater detail in the History section of this article. This schedule contains all the bibliographies in LC classification except for music and law. The reason for this is given by Martel:

The great advantage of keeping class Z, Bibliography, together is that in bibliographical research the special subject bibliography fails to answer the purpose of the searcher so frequently that resort must be had to the general, national, and trade bibliographies and to library catalogues and often with good result to other special subject bibliographies. When one source fails, approach from another angle often answers in bibliography. In the Library of Congress the most important bibliographies are to some extent duplicated for the service of special divisions (57).

Correlation to the Decimal Classification

As one studies the outline and the order of the classes and subclasses of LC classification, it is quite natural for Anglo-American librarians to make many compari-

sons and correlations to the Dewey Decimal Classification. There are two important concepts necessary to understand the difference between LC classification and DC. First, one may quickly make general correlations of the outlines of each system.

A	General works is 000 in DC
B	Philosophy and Religion is 100 and 200
C	Auxiliary sciences of History is 900, 913, 920, and 930
D	History (except America) is 940, 930, 950, 960, and 990
E-F	American History is 970 and 980
G	Geography and Anthropology is 910 and 570
H	Social Sciences is 300
J	Political Science is 320
K	Law will be 340
L	Education is 370
M	Music is 780
N	Fine Arts is 700
P	Language and Literature is 400 and 800
Q	Science is 500
R	Medicine is 610
S	Agriculture is 630
T	Technology is 600
U	Military Science is 355-358
V	Naval Science is 359
Z	Bibliography and Library Science is 010, 020, 090, and 655

This conversion can be made by simply transposing letters and numbers.

The other important concept is more complex than simple transposition. LC classification and DC are not just different symbolizations of the same code for universal knowledge. In some instances what was in Dewey's 500's are not in LC's Q's. It is important to understand those areas where more explanation than transposition of number to letter is necessary. From a general point of view these include the following specific examples. Numismatics and all other books on coins are not located in the Fine Arts as a subdivision of sculpture as in DC. These subjects are in Subclass CJ, and in NB, the equivalent of 730. Further, the entire Class C should be carefully studied for its variant inclusions. Books on games, sports, and amusements in the 790's do not occur in Class N but rather in Subclass GV. Also the 390's occur in Subclass GR for folklore and Subclass GT for manners and customs. Fiction in English and juvenile literature go to Subclass PZ. This may be compared to the use of F for all fiction and j for juvenile literature. Physiology, 612 in DC, human anatomy, 611 in DC, and bacteriology, 616, 636, and 589 in DC, become respectively QP, QM, and QR—all subclasses of Class Q, Science not Class R, Medicine. Fishing is not a subdivision of the 790 equivalent in either N or GV, but rather is placed in Subclass SH as a subdivision of the subclass for fish culture. Similarly Subclass SK is the subclass for hunting sports including camping and outdoor life. Photography, which is treated as a subdivision of Fine Art in the 770's, is found in Subclass TR in Class T, Technology. Navigation is included in Class V,

Subclass VK, and not as a subclass of engineering as it is in the 623's in DC. Also shipbuilding and marine engineering are found in Subclass VM. Moreover, there are seemingly endless minor variations between LC classification and DC. Once again it should be stated that LC classification and DC are not just different symbolizations of the same code for universal knowledge. The DC outline may be related to inverted Baconic order whereas LC's outline may be more closely related to Cutter's outline for EC.

The foregoing examples as well as many others may be observed fully in Table 1 which demonstrates the correlation of the outline of LC with DC. The DC numbers are all approximations taken from the current edition of that system.

TABLE 1
Correlation of the Dewey Decimal Classification and the
Outline of the Library of Congress Classification

Dewey	LC	
000	A	General works—Polygraphy
080	AC	Collections. Series. Collected works
030	AE	Encyclopedia (General)
080	AG	General reference works
080; 050	AI	Indexes (General)
069	AM	Museums
070	AN	Newspapers
050	AP	Periodicals (General)
060	AS	Societies. Academies
030	AY	Yearbooks
001	AZ	General history of knowledge and learning
100 and 200	B	Philosophy—Religion
100		Philosophy
180; 190; 108; 101	B	Collections. History. Systems
160	BC	Logic
110	BD	Speculative Philosophy
150	BF	Psychology
701; 801	BH	Aesthetics
170	BJ	Ethics
200	BL	Religions. Mythology. Free thought
296	BM	Judaism
297	BP	Islam. Bahaim. Teosophy. Christianity
260; 270	BR	Generalities, Church history
220	BS	Bible and Exegesis
230	BT	Doctrinal theology. Apologetics
240; 250	BV	Practical theology
280	BX	Denominations and sects
900 et al.	C	History—Auxiliary Sciences

(continued)

TABLE 1 (continued)

Dewey	LC	
901	CB	History of civilization (General)
930; 913	CC	Antiquities (General). Archeology
025; 417	CD	Archives. Diplomats
529; 902	CE	Chronology
737	CJ	Numismatics. Coins
417	CN	Epigraphy. Inscriptions
929	CR	Heraldry
929	CS	Genealogy
920	CT	Biography
900	D	History and Topography (except America)
942	DA	Great Britain
943	DB	Austria-Hungary
944	DC	France
943	DD	Germany
938; 939	DE	Classical antiquity
949.5	DF	Greece
945	DG	Italy
949.2	DH-DJ	Belgium. Holland. Luxemburg
947	DK	Russia
948	DL	Scandinavia
946	DP	Spain and Portugal
949.4	DQ	Switzerland
949.6	DR	Turkey and the Balkan States
950	DS	Asia
960	DT	Africa
990	DU	Australia and Oceania
Area—174+	DX	Gypsies
970 and 980	E-F	America
970-980; 973	E	America (General) and United States (General)
974-979; 970-980	F	United States (Local) and America except the United States
	G	Geography—Anthropology
910	G	Geography (General)
526	GA	Mathematical geography
910.02	GB	Physical geography
551	GC	Oceanography
572; 155; 301	GF	Anthropogeography
570	GN	Anthropology
390	GR	Folklore
390	GT	Manners and customs (General)
790	GV	Sports and amusements. Games
300	H	Social Sciences

(continued)

TABLE 1 (continued)

Dewey	LC	
300	H	Social Sciences (General)
310	HA	Statistics
		Economics
330	HB	Economic theory
330	HC	Economic history and conditions
330	HD	Economic history: Agriculture and industries
380	HE	Transportation and communication
380	HF	Commerce (General)
332	HG	Finance
336	HJ	Public finance
		Sociology
301	HM	Sociology (General and theoretical)
309	HN	Social history. Social reform
		Social groups
301.4	HQ	Family. Marriage. Home
360	HS	Associations: Secret societies, clubs, etc.
301	HT	Communities. Classes. Races
360	HV	Social pathology
335	HX	Socialism. Communism. Anarchism
320	J	Political Science
		Documents
320	JA	General works
320-321	JC	Political science. Theory of the state
		Constitutional History and Administration
342; 351	JF	General works
342; 353	JK	United States
342; 354	JL	British America. Latin America
342; 354	JN	Europe
342; 354	JQ	Asia, Africa, Australia, and Pacific Islands
352	JS	Local government
325	JV	Colonies and colonization. Emigration and immigration
341	JX	International law
340	K	Law
340	KF	Law of the United States
370	L	Education
370	L	General works
370	LA	History of education
371-375	LB	Theory and practice of education
370	LC	Special aspects of education
		Universities and colleges
378	LD	United States
378	LE	Other American

(continued)

TABLE 1 (continued)

Dewey	LC	
378	LF	Europe
378	LG	Asia, Africa, Oceania
378	LH	University, college, and school magazines, etc.
378	LJ	College fraternities and their publications
375	LT	Textbooks
780	M	Music
780	M	Music
780	ML	Literature of music
780	MT	Musical instruction and study
700	N	Fine Arts
700	N	General
710; 720	NA	Architecture
780	NB	Sculpture
760; 740	NC	Graphic Arts in general. Drawing and design. Illustration
750	ND	Painting
760	NE	Engraving. Prints
	NK	Art applied to industry. Decoration and Ornament
	NX	Arts in general
400 and 800	P	Language and Literature
410	P	Philology and linguistics (General)
470; 480; 870; 880	PA	Classical Languages and Literatures
		Modern European Languages
491; 891	PB	Celtic languages and literatures
440; 450; 460	PC	Romance languages
430-439	PD	Germanic (Teutonic) languages
420	PE	English
430-439	PF	Dutch. German
491; 891	PG	Slavic, Baltic, Albanian languages and literatures
494; 894	PH	Finno-Ugrian and Basque languages and literatures
495; 498; 895; 898; 491; 891	PJ-PK	Oriental Languages and Literatures
495; 496; 896; 896	PL	Languages and literatures of Eastern Asia, Oceanic, Africa
497; 499; 897-899	PM	Hyperborean, American, and Artificial languages
801-809; 792; 070; 398.9	PN	Literary history and collections (General)
840; 850; 860	PQ	Romance literatures
820	PR	English literature
810	PS	American literature
830	PT	Teutonic literatures
(F, j)	PZ	Fiction and Juvenile literature
500	Q	Science

(continued)

TABLE 1 (continued)

Dewey	LC	
500	Q	Science (General)
510	QA	Mathematics
520	QB	Astronomy
530	QC	Physics
540	QD	Chemistry
550	QE	Geology
560	QH	Natural history
580	QK	Botany
590	QL	Zoology
611	QM	Human anatomy
612	QP	Physiology
616; 636; 589	QR	Bacteriology
610	R	Medicine
610	R	Medicine (General)
614; 613	RA	State medicine. Hygiene
616	RB	Pathology
616	RC	Practice of medicine
617	RD	Surgery
617.7	RE	Ophthalmology
616; 617	RF	Otology. Rhinology. Laryngology
618	RG	Gynecology and obstetrics
618.92	RJ	Pediatrics
617.6	RK	Dentistry
616	RL	Dermatology
615	RM	Therapeutics
615	RS	Pharmacy and materia medica
610	RT	Nursing
615	RV	Botanic, Thomsonian, and eclectic medicine
615	RX	Homeopathy
615	RZ	Miscellaneous schools and arts
630	S	Agriculture—Plant and Animal Industry
630; 631	S	Agriculture (General)
632; 633; 635; 710; 333	SB	Plant culture
634	SD	Forestry
636	SF	Animal culture
639	SH	Fish culture and fisheries
799		401-691 Angling
799	SK	Hunting sports
636.9		351-579 Game and bird protection
796.5		601-605 Camping. Outdoor life
600	T	Technology
600	T	Technology (General)
609		201-339 Patents
		Engineering and Building Group
620; 624	TA	Engineering (General). Civil Engineering
627	TC	Hydraulic engineering
628	TD	Sanitary and municipal engineering

(continued)

TABLE 1 (continued)

Dewey	LC	
625	TE	Roads and pavements
625	TF	Railroad engineering and operation
624; 695	TG	Bridges and roofs
690	TH	Building construction
		Mechanical Group
627; 621.8	TJ	Mechanical engineering and machinery
621.3	TK	Electrical engineering and industries
629	TL	Motor vehicles. Cycles. Aeronautics
		Chemical Group
622	TN	Mineral Industries. Mining and Metallurgy
660	TP	Chemical technology
770	TR	Photography
		Composite Group
670	TS	Manufactures
680	TT	Trades. Handicrafts
640	TX	Home economics
355-358	U	Military Science
355	U	Military Science (General)
355	UA	Armies. Organization and distribution
355	UB	Administration
355	UC	Maintenance and transportation
356	UD	Infantry
357	UE	Cavalry
358	UF	Artillery
623	UG	Military engineering
355	UH	Other services
359	V	Naval Science
359	V	Naval Science (General)
359.3	VA	Navies. Organization and distribution
359	VB	Naval administration
359	VC	Naval maintenance
359	VD	Naval seaman
359.96	VE	Marines
359	VF	Naval ordnance
359	VG	Other services of navies
623; 527	VK	Navigation
623	VM	Shipbuilding and marine engineering
020 and 010	Z	Bibliography and Library Science
090; 655	4-8	History of books and bookmaking
	40-116	Writing
411		41-42 Autographs
741		43-48 Calligraphy. Penmanship
652.3		49-51 Typewriting
653		53-100 Shorthand
652.8		103-104 Cryptography
417		105-115 Paleography

(continued)

TABLE 1 (continued)

Dewey	LC	
655	116-550	Book industries and trade
340	551-661	Copyright. Intellectual property
020	665-997	Libraries and library science
017-019	998-1000	Book prices. Bookseller's catalogs
010	1001-8999	Bibliography
014		1041-1107 Anonyms and pseudonyms
015	1201-4941	National bibliography
016	6051-7999	Subject bibliography
012	8001-8999	Personal bibliography

Criticism

This section includes a survey of general criticism of LC classification, criticism based on specific principles of classification theory, criticism of LC notation, and the problem of a general index to LC classification. Criticism of individual schedules and/ or classes has been deliberately omitted from this section. References may be found in the Bibliography to such criticism.

As the following select comments show, criticism of LC classification has been both favorable and highly negative. American classificationist Henry Evelyn Bliss finds some positive elements in LC but generally rejects it.

The Library of Congress classification is very commendable in much of its detail, historical, scientific, and technological, and good use can be made of this detail; but the system is too cumbersome and complicated; it has too many faults, and it is on the whole inadaptable. The advantages and economies that may be gained by adopting it are overborne by the disadvantages, inadequacies, and wastes of the system. As an organization of knowledge it is unscientific and inadaptable; as a library classification it is uneconomical; as a standard it is disqualified (58).

On the other hand, British classificationist E. Wyndham Hulme praises LC in the following manner:

Our conclusion is that the Congress schedules are such as will admit of the exact classification of the bulk of the world's literature to date at the lowest possible cost; and that in this respect the class headings of the Congress scheme have reached the theoretical high-water mark of efficiency indicated in the preceding chapters (59).

Margaret Mann cites eleven advantages and four disadvantages to LC classification.

The advantages that a library finds in using the LC classification are:

1. Class numbers are printed on L.C. cards.
2. The notation is elastic.
3. Each class is printed as a separate unit which may be

- (a) shelved in the stacks by subject;
 - (b) shelved in a departmental library;
 - (c) shelved in classrooms;
 - (d) used as desk copies by classifiers.
4. Country and local subdivisions fit particular subjects and are not applied uniformly throughout.
 5. The L.C. list of subject headings can be used as a relative index.
 6. It was developed by competent classifiers for actual application to a very large collection of books.
 7. The subdivisions are minute.
 8. It is fostered by the National Library.
 9. It is an effective and economical scheme to maintain since it emanates from a growing history.
 10. It contains valuable bibliographical information, especially in P Literature.
 11. The scheme has many features that fit in with the organization and needs of university libraries.

Among the disadvantages are:

1. There are no directions for its use.
2. There is as yet no complete index.
3. It lacks mnemonic features.
4. The scheme is of such magnitude (60).

Another British librarian, Ernest Savage, joins Hulme in praising LC classification. Savage particularly notes the advantage of LC classification being based on a collection of books and not being purely a theoretical or philosophical system.

Books are readily grouped by the LC because its tables are hypothetic in origin and empirical in development; the first draft of them was revised, as the classing proceeded, to offer hospitality to the towering quantity of books that had to be accommodated. Books were not rammed into a "true order of the sciences," but insinuated into affined groups in which they, and any published later, would give support to each other: a great library, well-classed on this plan, could adopt the fasces as its symbol with more propriety than the state which Mussolini gummed together with castor oil and blood. The bibliographical foundation of the LC is traceable throughout the schedules. Here is a book difficult to class. But, no. The right place, the heading picked to describe it, is there (61).

Bohdan Wynar states,

it should be emphasized that LC classification is not only the most detailed and comprehensive classification scheme ever published, but because of its structure it has a great deal of flexibility and potential future expansion (62).

Another point of view is stated by Derek Langridge:

Evaluation: The most unsystematic of all the schemes, with frequent possibility of cross-classification. Product of the hardheaded practical school who seem to think that theory has no relation to practice. Like the Dewey scheme, is frequently de-

fended by the comment "it works." Since there is no question of a scheme merely working or not working, but rather of working over a wide range of efficiency, the comment does not have much significance (63).

A frequent critic of the popularity of LC classification, Jean Perreault, succinctly says, "The Library of Congress has always said that its classification was a private system; let's see them have it back" (64).

The administrative staff at the library has not been quiet in the discussions that have caused such remarks as these to be made. Martel states,

Since the schedules first began to appear in print criticisms and notices have not been lacking, many of them valuable and constructively helpful, with here and there a rather unintelligent growl based on hasty prejudice and evident ignorance of the content of the schedules. The library does not recommend the adoption of its classification to other libraries, but has made the schedules as freely accessible for examination as possible. A number of large and smaller university and college libraries, a few public and business libraries, several government department and other special libraries, upward of a hundred to date, including a few libraries outside of the United States, mostly in Great Britain, have after examination adopted the classification, and from some of them and from other quarters highly gratifying appreciations have reached the library. They find in the system as a whole, as well as in the individual schedules, a natural, logical development in the order of the subjects and a provision of detail facilitating the arrangement of the material they actually have to deal with, such as they have not found in any other available scheme known to them (65).

The present director of the Processing Department at the library, William Welsh, observes:

It has been acknowledged that the circumstances under which the classification evolved have led to certain dispositions of material "which could not be defended or advocated as part of a classification offered for general adoption." Among these are the provisions for subject bibliography, fiction in English, and juvenile literature. The separation of language and literature for the "major" languages has been criticized. Other defects recognized and publicly acknowledged are: lack of a schedule for law (about to be remedied for United States federal and state law), lack of a consolidated index, and absence of a manual on the use of the classification. It is true that the Library intends to fill these gaps, but completion of all of the projects is some years off.

To sum up these considerations relating to the schedules themselves: I believe the Library is entitled to feel that both the virtues and the defects of its classification have been adequately expounded in the literature (66).

These examples from general criticism of LC classification demonstrate the wide differences of opinion and comment about these schemes.

More specific criticisms relate to specific principles of classification theory being applied to LC classification. As LC classification developed as a practical system for a specific library and not as an ideal system, A. C. Foskett rightly observes that the classification "is dictated by the organization of the library, rather than the theoretical

considerations" (67). This lack of a theoretical plan or use of modern theoretical considerations is described by the Indian Classificationist S. R. Ranganathan:

The design of LC may be described as an ad hoc one made to suit the organisation of the collection in the Library of Congress. It was developed by a Committee. That means it was largely a product of collective intellection. It is not known whether the Committee had left any record of the principles by which it was guided either in fixing the sequence of classes in the Idea Plane or in implementing it in the Notational Plane (68).

Although much of Ranganathan's comment is valid criticism, it should be remembered that Martel did provide the general Principles for Arrangement of the Classes to the subject specialists developing the scheme. Apparently no rules of logical division were consistently applied or deliberately followed. Certainly the present sophisticated principles for classification scheme construction had not been generated at the time LC classification was being developed.

Phyllis Richmond discerns the lack of logical division in LC classification to be an advantage:

The Library of Congress classification, in contrast, is definitely nonlogical and the notation is largely ordinal. This classification functions as well, if not better, than the others. A nonlogical classification has the great advantage of flexibility, since one may add to it rather freely without upsetting the whole pattern. The fact that the Library of Congress classification is displayed in an almost random fashion, after some initial form divisions in each main class, does not seem to be a disadvantage in its operation. In a nonconventional classification, the elements of each category may be expressed either in a logical or a nonlogical manner. The advantage of variability, rather than the display of relationships, is the chief motivation for choosing a nonlogical arrangement (69).

Richmond expands this advantageous concept in the following:

In a discussion of classification research, the Library of Congress system does not fit any of the categories described. It is a pragmatic, functional system that is widely used with considerable consumer satisfaction. It is not logical; it is not scientifically or probabilistically built; it has little to do with language or linguistics other than to provide the best classification of these subjects extant; in organization it sprawls in all directions; it violates all the postulates, principles and laws that are considered important in classification making; in some areas relationships are shown in hierarchies, but throughout most of the schedules nothing seems to be next to anything for any particular reason; yet it grows steadily without any serious signs of stress. Why does it work? Its broad and apparently unlimited hospitality is certainly one factor. Another, which will show up better if a unified index to the classification is ever compiled, is its diffuseness: if a subject fits into six categories, it is put into six categories. Whether it would be possible to make a mathematical model or description of this classification is a matter of conjecture. It certainly would be a challenge, and might throw some light on the reasons why this anomaly is so successful. The method in the madness, if it can be discovered, might well be applied to other kinds of classification making (70).

In addition to finding the possibility of useful cross classification in LC classification, Richmond points out the possibility of serendipitous browsing.

The disadvantage of LC's illogical sprawl is that it is very difficult to walk along the shelves and figure out what the classes are by reading the title on the backs of books. This is a disadvantage if one is browsing for a purpose, for instance, to see what is available of cohomology. One is better off using subject headings as indicators to classification areas covering the subject, and browsing purposefully in those specific areas. However, for browsing of the serendipity type—just going along and, as pure curiosity suggests, picking off titles to examine—the LC classification is particularly good. It is possible to find titles *and subjects* that chance to be related to the problem whose apparent intractability led to browsing in the first place. Undoubtedly there is enough relatedness among LC class descriptions for the human mind to make connections, and since these connections are not *pre-*formed with any kind of logical pattern, the LC classification allows for fairly free associative linkage to be made by the individual browser (71).

Perreault disagrees with Richmond and finds that LC classification cannot be browsed:

It is claimed that the library's user is not "concerned as to where a specific subject fits into an overall scheme of things or what is adjacent to it." We are concerned to identify the browsability of each classification examined; if a classification is not browsable, the catalog is the only means of searching the collection. The structure of LC is such that one cannot tell "where a specific subject fits in," nor what is the content of the classes adjacent to a particular subject. And I submit that since it is precisely the fit of each subject into a general structure and the awareness of the relation between adjacent classes which enables browsing, and that since LC lacks just these characteristics, that LC is not a good system for browsing. If it is not good for the classed catalog, nor for electronic searching, besides not being good for browsing, what is it good for? (72).

Bliss also criticizes the structure of LC classification. He states,

. . . it is detail that we appreciate in this classification, and again correct detail, selected and arranged by competent specialists. But the structure that incorporates this available detail has, we have seen, too many serious faults (73).

Certainly the first part of Bliss' statement bears out the amount of exhaustive detail in LC classification.

Sidney Jackson has observed, "Incidentally, several of the LC schedules include assemblages of data very helpful for purely reference purposes" (74).

However, Bliss does find in one case that LC classification is too exhaustive. This is when LC classification assigns individual class numbers to individual authors and their works:

For individual authors (except for a few of the greatest) it is wrong principle to use classmarks or numbers other than those of Cutter order-numbers or some other order-notation. In other words individuals should not be specified as classes; they

should be classified in classes and arranged within these classes. It is still worse to have individual writings treated thus. Class-notation should not be extended into such details and particulars. Then under authors subdivision by table should be simple for most authors and elaborate only for the most important authors, and then within practical and economic limits (75).

It should be stated that this characteristic of LC classification may be another advantageous defect if it is a defect at all. This does allow naturally related materials to be grouped together. It certainly enhances serendipitous browsability.

In examining the order of facets and the other within facets, C. D. Needham cited six defects in LC classification:

- (i) Simple subjects cannot always be specified.
- (ii) Many compounds cannot be specified.
- (iii) Following from (ii) it is not only impossible to specify these compounds in the notation, it is also difficult to decide in which class to place the compound.
- (iv) Facets are often clearly distinguished but not always.
- (v) Order of facets in the schedules might be improved in places.
- (vi) Order of foci and sub-facets. Alphabetical order is very often used. Chronological sequences frequently found in operations facet (76).

The extensive use of alphabetical order in LC classification has already been cited in the previous comments. Keith Davidson points out,

Alphabetical order is used excessively. This is a reflection of the American pre-occupation with "words" as opposed to classification, and it is a disadvantage particularly in many of the technologies. LC is too often concerned with shelf location not classification (77).

The use of alphabetical order in LC classification is praised by some critics. Author Maltby writes,

This frequent use of alphabetical order by topic is a method which has been highly praised by Metcalf; obviously the alphabetical order cannot replace the classified one, but it can be used to good effect *within* the classification when there is no obvious systematic order to be adopted. Here it has been used with enterprise and discretion and when employed in this way the method can only be commended; it is one perhaps which might be employed more often with advantage in some other systems (78).

The order of the classes or the sequence and coordination of main classes of LC classification is another area of critical concern. Bliss states,

To summarize these faults: General Science is separated too far from Philosophy, Logic from Mathematics, Physics from Mathematics, Geology from Astronomy, Geography from Geology, and Geodesy from both. Paleontology is misplaced under Geology, and so is Mineralogy, which really belongs under Chemistry.

Four of the seven fundamental sciences, Biology, Psychology, Sociology, and Religion (if we may venture to name this with the sciences in the broad sense of the term), which should have been assigned main classes, are subordinated in divisions, and Biology is even subsumed. Chemical Technology is separated from Chemistry and Electrical Technology from Electricity, which is not distinct in a division. Education is dissevered both from Psychology and from Sociology; and Psychology in BF is remote from Physiology in QP. Anthropology is on the one hand parted from Zoology, and on the other hand Ethnology is severed from the Social Sciences, which it really overlaps; and all these are on the wrong side of History. Mythology is not near Folk-lore; Religion and Ethics are not collocated with the social studies most vitally related to them, particularly Philanthropy and Charity, Social Welfare and Amelioration. History in general and History of Civilization (ethnic, social, and political) are separated from Ethnology, Prehistoric Archaeology, and Sociology by the immense detailed content of national and local history. Economics should follow, not precede, Sociology and Political Science, Aesthetics, the philosophy of the Fine Arts, should be under the Fine Arts rather than under Philosophy. In short, the fundamental sciences are not assigned main classes and are misplaced, and many other important subjects are misrelated (79).

Langridge discerns no principle in the order of the main classes:

Structure: Class structure based on Cutter's *Expansive Classification* (1893)—an early competitor of Dewey's classification and now virtually defunct. There are less than twenty main classes arranged in the order: Humanities, Social sciences, Arts, Science and Technology. There is no apparent principle in the order, as might be expected in a scheme that was prepared as a series of independent classes. Within classes a large number of compound subjects are enumerated and there is hardly any analysis and synthesis except for places. Alphabetical order is very frequently resorted to (which is the antithesis of classified order). Citation order (as implied by enumerated compounds) is not always consistent throughout a class. Despite the many volumes of schedules the scheme is incapable of specifying many subjects of books published today. Quality and detail vary from one part of the scheme to another. Much better in the humanities than in the sciences (80).

Maltby in his revision of Sayers' *Manual* finds such criticism as Bliss and Langridge of "no great moment" as the following shows:

It is said that the main classes are not as effectively arranged as those of the *Expansive Classification*; yet it can also be claimed that some of the changes made by the Congress classifiers in adapting the basis of the EC actually improve the sequence. But the criticism is, in any case, of no great moment, because of the individuality of the classes; each major subject class may be thought of as a library in itself as large as or larger than most other collections of books. The order is usually extremely helpful within the individual classes, despite the rather odd placing of Sports and Games in Class G. Even Bliss is constrained to admit that the "six classes Q-V are well grouped and are, for the most part, well sub-divided." We are inclined to make the same comment of the aesthetic group, M to P. To admit, however, that the scheme in reality is a series of large special classifications is not a disparagement in view of its immense size and compass. One man designed the general outline and supervised the working out of the schedules, but that working out was accomplished by specialists in the various classes, and in the result they have produced a remarkably cohesive whole (81).

The individuality of the individual classes and schedules is further commented on by Richmond:

The schedules themselves give the appearance of being separate and independent, although there is uniformity in structure and format throughout (with the possible exception of the P schedules, which are more hierarchical than the others). Even without the notation it is easy to distinguish the LC classification from all but its forebearer, the Cutter classification (82).

Another theoretical criticism of LC classification is the lack of common facets. Mill states,

The primary objective—to make a scheme exactly suited to the needs of the Library of Congress—is reflected in the complete absence of common facets. No facet is common to the whole scheme and within a given class, common facets are generally restricted to tables for geographical division, for arrangements under an author or under a country, etc. This means that considerable repetition occurs in the schedules, which consequently run into many volumes. Such repetition is perfectly justified if it secures an order superior to, or a notation shorter than one given by using the same one or two facets in all cases. But in many cases it is hard to see that a superior order is achieved. Nevertheless, hospitality of the degree achieved in a more synthetic scheme like UDC is frequently absent (83).

The writer of this article has previously written on the problem of common facets in LC classification:

Further it is my sincere opinion that there are common facets in LC classification. First there are common facets for form of presentation. These are presented by what are called Martel's seven points, or their proper name "The general principles of arrangement within the classes." This is a unifying element in the internal form of arrangement within the classes, subclasses, subjects or facets. This internal form was provided by Martel to the individual subject specialists who were preparing the individual classes of LC classification (84).

These, of course, are not common notational facets and have no fixed order.

LC classification's notation has also generated much critical comment. It is basically an alphanumeric notation and not a decimal or radix base notation. Ranganathan sees this as regressive defect:

The design of LC was started vigorously in 1904. In the idea plane, the sequence of the basic classes was modeled on EC instead of DC. It worked out the subclasses in great detail and in a fairly helpful sequence. The formation of subclasses was based on the actual presence of books. It was still in essence an enumerative scheme as DC and EC. In the notational plane, LC deliberately made a regression. It replaced the infinite hospitality of the decimal fraction notation by the limited one of integer notation with gaps. But a welcome feature was the admission of alphabetical device, where it gave as helpful an arrangement as any other enumeration could give. However, it occasionally resorted to alphabetical device even when other arrangements were more helpful (85).

Although the notation is simple in that it uses only the Roman alphabet and Indo-Arabic numerals, some critics find it not to be brief. Bliss says,

This notation does permit of expansion, but it runs into excessive length. Any division, whatever its content, any subject, whatever its scope, may have hundreds of subdivisions marked with numbers of three or four places, not consecutive but intermittent, with a large proportion of unused numbers for future insertions. Except at the beginning of each sub-class, numbers of three or four places, besides the two letters, are required for important subjects and for much used books. That is, this notation normally requires five or six factors where an economical notation would require but three or four. Indeed figures used decimally are less economical than when used intermittently. But sometimes the consecutive numbers prove insufficient, and decimal extension becomes necessary. In such cases and whenever additional marks from systematic schedules are affixed, the notations become altogether too unwieldy (86).

Richard Angell finds no problems with the notation:

No severe difficulties of accommodation have been encountered in the development of new classes and we believe the notational system is adequate for future developments. The alphabetical base of the class symbols offer wide latitude for the addition of new or alternative classes. Second letters are available in many classes and third letters, of course, in all (87).

However, Mills and Langridge find the notation to be clumsy:

The notation, despite the theoretical clumsiness of the arithmetical sequence, maintains the order of classes provided very well, and with reasonable brevity. But the degree to which it would stand expansion without becoming clumsy is limited. The reliance on sheer enumeration, without synthesis, in many classes, means that despite the bulky schedules, it lacks hospitality and the scheme can make no claim to "universality" in the UDC sense (88).

Notation: Clumsy mixture of letters and integral numbers. Neither hierarchical nor expressive and completely without mnemonics. Hospitality achieved by leaving gaps and some use of decimal divisions when gaps are filled. Impossible to adapt for computer use (80).

Richmond has demonstrated that LC notation is not impossible to adapt for computer use (89). In this case Langridge is simply wrong. It should be discerned that LC's notation is "a non-faceted, non-retroactive, non-discernible notation; it is basically and simply a code" (90).

Perreault makes an interesting comparison of the notations of UDC, DC, and LC in the following:

And it must not be forgotten that a great many are convinced that UDC has too complicated a notational system for use on the shelf. By this may be meant that a UDC code, worked out to its fullest possible conformity to a conceptual complex, may be quite long; and that a DC code similarly fully applied to the same

conceptual complex, is less long; and an LC one shorter yet. I will not deny that for the most part this is true; but what is true too, but all too often not noted, is that the shortening of the code in DC and LC is not accomplished by a more economical translation of the same conceptual complex, but by the unavoidable elimination of some needed or at least desirable elements in the translation. (Think, for instance, of the earlier example about *electrically powered rudders for barges*: no one can deny that 623.829 is shorter than 629.122.3.3.014.6-83, and so is VM 315. But you cannot miss the fact that these shorter codes convey less meaning than does the longer; and, within their respective systems, the smaller ones cannot be expanded to convey the additional meaning.) When DC is capable of giving the same full translation as UDC, its code is generally found to be longer, not shorter. This is not the case with an ordinal notation system like LC, but the lack of the capacity for ad hoc synthesis in LC means that such adequacy of translation from conceptual complex to classificatory expression depends on the precise case having occurred in the past (91).

The use of synthetic devices in UDC certainly allows for greater synthesis than most enumerative schemes can provide. Angell discerns a fascinating possibility for LC notation:

It is accepted as axiomatic that an enumerative "pigeon-hole" classification cannot serve present day needs of information retrieval. While it would not be possible to recast LC as a synthetic classification, it might well, after the completion of certain other steps advocated or suggested in these remarks, be useful to consider the introduction into the LC system of some of the relational symbols and common division tables of synthetic classifications. The result would presumably be used in the Library's own operations for classed catalog purposes only. We have LaMontagne's authority that the classification was originally constructed "to provide both for the arrangement of books and for a classed catalog" and it is so used with evident satisfaction in the Boston University Library.

After the development of tables of common auxiliaries now lacking in the LC schedules, there does not appear to be any reason in principle why LC class numbers could not be "coloned" to show relationships and permuted for regional or chronological catalogs or those organized by other aspects. It seems clear that we would have to expect the result pointed out by Vickery, that in the absence of an originally faceted construction, complete specification of aspects can be shown only by repetition, often frequent, of the main class number (92).

The library has not ever issued a general index to LC classification. Further not all of the individual schedules have indexes. A common concern is expressed by Needham, "The lack of a complete index to the scheme is a serious weakness" (93). In this regard LaMontagne says,

One of the most frequent, non-theoretical criticisms of the L.C. Classification is that it has no general, or combined, index. A start toward the compilation of one was made in 1947, when all existing indexes were cut and mounted on cards. Although lack of funds prevented the cutting of sub-entries, the mounted cards fill 60 trays. Excluding Law index entries, which will not be available for some time, a combined index would constitute a volume of approximately 1,000 pages containing 100,000 entries. In view of the present workload no date of publication can be given (94).

Sayers refers to the potential general index as "an instrument of very great value" (95). (The word "very" is Maltby's addition.)

One standard approach to the generation of a general index would be the combination of the individual existing indexes into one grand cumulative. In this case the value of quality of the individual indexes must be examined. Mann says,

The indexes are very full, including geographical entries, personal names when used as subjects, names of battles, and other topics frequently omitted from such lists. References are made from different forms of names and attention is sometimes directed to related subjects (96).

However, LaMontagne finds the individual indexes of "varying fullness" (97), and Mills writes, "There are often surprising omissions, considering the great care obviously taken with the schedules" (98). Further, Langridge points out, "Many important terms are missing, and cluttered with unnecessary repetition of subdivisions as shown in schedules" (80).

Mary Herrick writes discussing the development of the classed catalog at Boston University,

The absence of a relative index to the LC has always made its application more difficult. Only within the last few years has there been any indication that the LC is working toward one. This is so recent and additions are so few in the Topical indexes, they offer little help at present. The subject heading list and the brief topical indexes at the ends of the separate schedules continue to be the bases of all major approaches to the schedule. It was, therefore, necessary to set up our own index, and in the first two years or so, the LC subject heading list was of considerable help (99).

My own research has shown that the individual indexes vary in fullness and do not represent a consistent pattern of development. In my samples I found 44% of the schedule terms indexed, 53% of the class numbers indexed, and 35% of the Cutter numbers indexed (100). Second, I discerned that the Library of Congress subject headings list contains inaccurate and imprecise classificatory references which weaken its use as a substitute partial index (101).

The possible substitutes for a general index are listed in the Bibliography. Presently there is a new general index issued in 1974 by the United States Historical Documents Institute consisting of fifteen volumes (102). Another general index has been issued by the Canadian Library Association for 1974 (103). Neither of these general indexes is available to the writer of this article.

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LIBRARY CONSULTANTS AND CONSULTING*

The steady development of a body of consultants and the practice of consulting has occurred within the library and information sciences since the 1930s. As in other professions, the consulting business in our profession probably started the first time somebody asked a colleague, "How do you —?" Such common consultation continues to occur today through simply picking up the telephone and calling a colleague, or writing, or sending a questionnaire to several institutions or colleagues. Indeed, one writer has concluded that, in a professional organization such as the American Library Association or a state library association, the referral services, publication programs, conferences, workshops, and institutes (and reports or proceedings of these) are all a form of consultation (1). Timour and Fink have defined consulting as a dialogue about change: "In its simplest sense, consultation can be defined as a dialogue between two (or more) individuals about current operations and potential changes" (2).

As in so many aspects of functions and work in the library and information sciences, we do well to look to the world of business, commerce, and industry for guidance in the profession of consulting. While here, too, consulting had informal roots, it was probably first formalized by Frederick Winslow Taylor who introduced time and motion studies nearly 100 years ago. But it was not until post-World War II in the late '40s and the '50s that consultant work in business and industry matured to the status that it holds today. It was the era of specialization, the increased informational needs, and the changing technology which brought the consultant profession into full focus.

The National Industrial Conference Board (NICB) has identified seven reasons in order of frequency for the use of outside consultants. These are as follows:

1. The inadequacy of technical knowledge or competence within the organization.
2. The insufficiency of manpower within the organization to carry out a new program or to handle a temporary work overload.
3. The lack of experience in a new field.
4. Desire for an independent opinion on a decision facing management.
5. The need for stimulation, broadening, or specialized training.
6. The need for an objective viewpoint on a matter disputed internally.
7. The need for help in selling ideas.

The NICB further identifies six areas of consulting activities, again in order of frequency, as follows:

1. Personnel (labor relations, executive competence, incentive plans, etc.).
2. Manufacturing (product control, quality control, materials handling, machinery selection).
3. Financial (data processing, accounting systems, taxes, investments).

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4. Marketing (marketing research, advertising, sales forecasting, warehousing).
5. Technical (production planning, production design, feasibility studies, engineering audits, production testing).
6. Corporate (acquisitions programs, organizational studies, corporate strategy, planning, information systems, stockholder relations) (3).

Much has been written concerning the theory of consulting practice, and a widespread misconception is that consulting practices are to solve immediate problems; but it is generally agreed that a good consulting experience results in the improvement of the organization's ability to anticipate and solve similar problems in the future. A good consulting experience should result not in the solution of an isolated problem but should have an impact on the organization as a total system. Kolb and Frohman have written that the consulting experience is concerned with two central issues: the client-consultant relationship and the nature of the work—how the problem is defined and what solutions are considered. They then discuss these two issues within the framework of a dynamic seven-stage model of the planned change process. Identified are the following seven stages:

1. Scouting—Successful scouting leads to a wide entry choice.
2. Entry—Entry choice requires knowledge of power (legitimate, expert, coercive, and trust-based), the establishment of a collaborative relationship and negotiating the contract.
3. Diagnosis—The client's felt problem, the client's goals, the client's resources, and the consultant's resources.
4. Planning—The planning stage is more involved and complex. Kolb and Frohman identify the need to define specific behavioral objectives and the generation of alternative solutions or change strategies. They classify alternatives on two dimensions; one, the power source (see number 2 entry, above), and the six organizational subsystems which they have identified as follows: (a) the people subsystem (manpower flow or education for change); (b) the authority subsystem (both formal and informal); (c) the information subsystem (both formal and informal); (d) the task subsystem (the job, the person, and the technology); (e) the policy culture subsystem (the policy consisting of formal and explicit rules, regulations, and rewards, and the culture subsystem consisting of the informal and implicit norms and values); and (f) the environmental subsystem (the internal architecture and spatial relationships and the external relations such as governmental, labor supply, materials, and market). The four powers and the six organizational subsystems interact and can be considered as a check list. They should be reviewed from time to time as a change in one will result in an effect on the others.
5. Action—The best change strategy developed in planning is implemented. Here the writers note importantly that "The dysfunctional aspect of resistance to change can often be alleviated by involving subordinates in the planning stage."
6. Evaluation—An integrated part of the change process. The client should observe and evaluate the action phase himself using the information generated for self-analysis.
7. Termination—The termination stage must be considered throughout, from entry through evaluation. Successful termination is achieved when entry-diagnosis-planning goals have been reached and when the client's system's ability to solve similar problems in the future has been assured.

Kolb and Frohman conclude,

The consultant-client relationship, like any human relationship, can never be reduced to a set of mechanistic rules. We believe, however, that consulting relationships can be improved and organizational changes better implemented if consultant and client attend to the issues and problems raised in each of the seven developmental stages (4).

In agreeing with the theory that consultants and consulting should not be used merely to solve individual and immediate problems, but to improve the organization's ability to anticipate and solve similar future problems, Robert Wright suggests the use of consultants for organizational health rather than first aid. He writes, "The value of consultants could be greatly improved if they were used as organizational physiologists, thereby allowing a comprehensive examination leading to preventive rather than curative measures." Such use of the consultants as organizational physiologists is to be preferred even though "playing the role of organizational pathologist can be of unquestionable value to management." Again, citing that the function of the consulting experience is to effect a change, Wright notes that "consultants have learned that assignments can fail if recommendations abruptly change a client's *modus operandi* or if recommendations threaten individuals in sensitive positions." The consultants should therefore try to sense one's resistance to change or an organization's resistance to change so that an education program can be instituted to prepare for the expected change. Wright also prefers the physiological approach to the pathological one because, "The pressures accompanying most consulting engagements dictate narrowing attention to the issue at hand and the recommendations stemming from such myopic analyses can lead to impractical solutions" (5).

The use of consultants should not be taken lightly by any individual or organization. The consultant's time is limited and expensive. It is important that the organization be prepared to receive the consultant before the consultant arrives on the site. Webster has written on "what to do before the consultant comes." He identifies ten areas of planning before the consultant arrives.

1. Where do you stand with your competition?
2. What about long-range planning?
3. What's your liquidity position?
4. What else can you learn from your sales figures?
5. How is your company structured?
6. What about your personnel policy?
7. How are your staff relations?
8. How's your internal efficiency?
9. What about your marketing policy?
10. Is your advertising fully effective?

Webster concludes, "The whole business of business efficiency depends on continued and unremitting effort," and that, "If you can answer these questions, in

addition you will know why you want a consultant and what you hope he's going to do for you" (6).

If one should be reasonably knowledgeable of one's own shop before working with a consultant, Messing has pointed out "what consultants expect of their clients" as being equally important before beginning to work with the consultant. The work of both the organization, or individual, and the consultant can be facilitated and the consulting experience enhanced if proper preparation and cooperation are given the consultant. First, the client should prepare a candid statement of the problem. Written specifications are best, but it should be remembered that because unforeseen intangible human factors often play a major role, the written specs should not be considered as ironclad. Second, the consultant expects reasonable time in which to perform his assigned task. Both client and consultant should be tolerant if the job is found to entail more than was originally envisioned. Third, the consultant expects a reasonable budget, including funds for an indoctrination period and start-up time. Messing states, "The ideal client-consultant relationship would exist in an atmosphere of enough trust so that a completely open-ended arrangement could be operative and effective," but he notes that most firms are governed by cost accountants and budgets and, therefore, an open-ended arrangement may not be permitted. Fourth, the consultant requires the designation of a contact within the organization, preferably a decision-maker and one who understands the scope of their contract and the relationship of various persons, functions, and departments of the organization. Fifth, a willingness to provide liaison is required. Both sides are responsible for communicating one to the other and for supervising coordination during the project. The initiative might rest with the consultant. Sixth, disclosure of other programs is important. Use of several consultants or changes in programs and operations not communicated to the consultant can create confusion. Seventh, involvement in implementation by the consultant is generally agreed as being necessary to successful implementation. Eighth, the consultant reasonably expects open-mindedness about the results of the consulting experience on the part of the client. Ninth, the consultant expects fair use of the results. Unreasonable application of recommendations and changes should not be permitted. The results should only be applied to the job (both in breadth and depth) for which they were intended. Tenth, and finally, the consultant should expect a post-mortem on the results. Both the client and the consultant can better relate future efforts if there is an opportunity to evaluate the effect of the recommendations and changes on the organization (7).

One of the most difficult tasks for the client is the process of choosing the consultant. A host of problems can occur during the consulting experience, but most of these can be avoided through a careful selection process. The NICB gives guides and criteria for the selection of consultants. The client should do all he can to seek information and recommendations from previous clients of the consultant being considered. Hiring a consultant, after all, is very similar to hiring a permanent staff member. One wants to be certain that the consultant can fit into the organization and function to the best of his abilities. From previous clients, the person seeking the consultant should inquire of the smoothness of the working relationship between the

consultant and the client, the skills demonstrated in dealing with the problem, the practicability of the consultant's recommendations, the support given by the consultant during the implementation of recommendations, the accomplishment of the project objectives within the cost estimate, and the completion of the engagement within the time estimate. Following the gathering of this information, the client should contact the prospective consultant and utilize the following criteria for evaluation:

1. The qualifications and personal attributes of the consulting staff persons who would be assigned.
2. The approach to solving the problem.
3. The time estimated as required to complete the engagement.
4. The estimated costs for completion.
5. The requirement for assistance by the client personnel.
6. Other minor criteria such as convenience of location, whether one is seeking a firm or an individual, and whether one is seeking a consultant for a specific subject or area of expertise or a general consultant (3).

Some of the above information and appraisal of criteria can be met if the client is able to review previous reports of projects carried out for other clients.

There are two national organizations which hold the profession of consulting together. One of these is an organization for private firms only, the Institute of Management Consultants (IMC). The other is an elite organization, the Association of Consulting Management Engineers (ACME), with a membership of only forty member firms. Both organizations are concerned with the ethics of the consultant practice and maintaining competent objectivity and integrity among the members. ACME publishes *Management Consultant* which contributes to the literature and professionalism of the organization. In *Management Consultant*, we read "The relationship between the management consultant and his client is a professional one not unlike that found in the medical and legal professions, but naturally there are significant differences. The management consultant is most often engaged by formal organizations rather than individuals" (8). The management consultant has a three-point responsibility to himself, his client, and to his profession. Daily practice as well as research, writing, communication, and sharing with colleagues all extend and advance the profession.

Recently, both these organizations have been drawn into a conflict in the consultant profession over ownership of firms. The IMC is an organization of individuals or private consultant firms. Several of these firms have recently gone public and such members were technically "in suspension." Some consulting firms have been forced to go public for two main reasons. First, they are experiencing a need for capital and, second, they feel a need for equal opportunity for the professional growth, development, and compensation for their staff that is equal with staff counterparts in other business enterprises. At the heart of the issue is the basic commitment to the code of ethics which will assure the primacy of client interests through objectivity and integrity. Some consultant managers and professionalists

feel that this objectivity and integrity can be lost through the urge and importance of the public firm to be financially responsible above all other responsibilities. In some instances, top partners of private consultant firms have come away with so much money as a result of the change from private to merged or public ownership that their interest in the operation of the firm is no longer the same. Others have made a distinction between public stock ownership of a consulting firm and ownership by another company, particularly the large conglomerates. These latter may wield many strong influences and create conflicts of interest. The chairman of one large consulting firm which is publicly owned counters, "A consultant's reputation is built on the quality of his work" (9). The president of another now public firm also states, "I can only let time demonstrate that our professional integrity will be maintained" (9). Time is answering the conflict, for these consulting firms continue to grow in capital and in reputation. Phillip Shay, executive director of ACME, has said, "It may be fortunate that the changes are happening now (1971) when so many firms that started after World War II are reaching maturity. The older consultants who are leaving probably wouldn't be ready to change. Their successors know it has to come" (9). The real test appears to be whether the needs for capital growth and professional development can force the public owned firms to continue to meet norms of professionalism, objectivity, and integrity to achieve a true and honest code of ethics for the profession.

Some industrial firms have used management consultants to such an extent that they have created "on-call" arrangements with consultants. They cite the following benefits.

1. There is a continuing assistance that is obtained on problems that themselves are continuing.
2. The continuity of knowledge about the company increases the consultant's effectiveness and saves start-up costs.
3. Company executives are more inclined to accept the advice of consultants whom they see regularly.
4. Consultants on retainers are more likely to be available when needed.
5. Consultants take a greater interest in the company's welfare when they are identified with it over a long period of time.
6. The continuing review by the consultant can have the effect of anticipating and preventing problems.

On the other hand, the following objections have been cited to continuing on-call arrangements.

1. This could be an unjustified cost.
2. It creates an unhealthy dependence.
3. There is the possibility for the loss of objectivity by the consultant.
4. It could lead to possible organizational weakness. [This latter, of course, is related to the second, "unhealthy dependence" (3).]

Not surprisingly, the dependence of some organizations on continuous consulting needs has led to the establishment of internal consultant staff within the organiza-

tion. Internal consultants perform in much the same way as external consultants but, as might be expected, there are some advantages and some disadvantages to the practice of internal consulting. One writer, Gale, has pointed out that internal consultants are not new. Staff groups and positions have been common throughout organizations for some time, although they are not called consultants. Often such individuals are called "Assistant to the," or even, "Consultant to," or "Special Consultant to" (10). More recently, whole departments have grown up within organizations and these often carry such titles as "Management Services Division," or "Services and Analysis Department," or some similar appellation. The internal consultant assists the manager by helping him to identify opportunities and problems, studying these opportunities and problems, preparing recommendations that emphasize the manager's point of view and that balance and integrate the recommendations of the specialist members of the consulting team, and being at hand to assist the manager in implementing the recommendations he accepts. Bellman has written, "The key to effective internal consulting is *action*: the action the internal consultant takes and the action he influences others to take" (11). In an organization, the internal consultant has little power, but lots of influence. His authority comes from his competence, not from his position. Some have argued that the internal consultant loses his objectivity, and Gale summarizes that the internal consultant group should not be considered as a completely effective force where questions of objectivity and independence exist, "but," he continues, "in most instances, however, the objectivity of the internal group is as good as that of an external group." Gale suggests that the internal consultant group should review and evaluate priorities periodically and that 75% of manpower time should be devoted to long-term projects and 25% should be reserved as free for training and/or on demand special or urgent projects (10). Some internal consultant staff interact in a special way with external consultants. The internal consultant group can be used to evaluate in the selection of an external consultant and they can be used as a coordinator and support to the external consultant after he is chosen. Gale concludes, "By utilizing the resources of both internal and external consultants, a company will be able to enhance its chances of coping successfully with the rapidly changing competitive demands, technology, and social pressures present in national and international business operations" (10).

Many staff of private firms and individual consultants are university professors who consult along their lines of special expertise. It is not unusual, therefore, that a number of these professors have joined together to form consulting firms. Some of the larger private firms or even public firms have sought a way to have available to them a core of consultants who could be on call as needed. Companies were formed by consulting professors and colleagues, either at the same university or from several. Starting in the mid-60s, organizations were founded to specifically tie into the faculties of universities to form a base core of consultants. *Business Week* magazine reports a unique corporation, Alpha Systems, was set up in 1970 through a major computer service firm (University Computing Company and its board chairman, Sam Wiley) and Southern Methodist University. SMU officials hold three

of the five directorships including board chairman. The firm's primary function is to serve as a university-business interface. It seeks projects and then identifies consultants to carry out the projects. Alpha's original 1,500 shares of stock are owned by two SMU foundations. Incentive purchase of stock is also available to the SMU professors based on their billings through Alpha Systems. Plans are to expand to include faculty of other southwestern campuses and, eventually, Alpha's stock will be split four ways equally: the SMU foundations, the University Computing Company, the participating professors, and the public (12).

Whether the consultant utilized is external or internal, whether it is an individual or a firm, whether it is a specialist or a generalist, and whether private or publicly owned, two basic commitments are necessary to assure success of the consulting experience.

The first basic commitment is that of top management to the project. There must be top management support for the consulting engagement. Top management must become involved in preparing the organization to alleviate the possibility of fear and resentment. Top management has the obligation to render assistance to the consultant. Top management should desire to minimize inconvenience and disruption in the organization during the consulting engagement and, finally, top management needs to establish responsibility for the postengagement decisions. In order to translate recommendations from the consulting engagement into practice within the organization, appropriate members of management must be involved early before the consultant draws his conclusions. Top management must make its own personnel, as well as the consultant, responsible for the results, and top management must prepare personnel to accept continuing responsibility after the consultant leaves. If management is not involved at an early date, then at least management should be involved in the evaluation of the recommendations before implementation. If neither of these should occur, then the entire management must very minimally be informed (familiarized) with what has been accomplished and recommended.

The second basic commitment with the organization using a consultant is that of sharing control and involvement with the line management and as much of the personnel of the organization as is possible. Sharing should occur throughout the project. When sharing does not occur, Baker and Schaffer have noted, "It is little wonder that not having shared in the evolutionary thinking process that led to the conclusions, operating managers are frequently unenthusiastic about the results, divided among themselves on key decisions, and unable to develop the commitment required for success" (13). Sharing and involvement can be accomplished through the use of steering committees and frequent informal work sessions with line people. Baker and Schaffer conclude, "if sharing and involvement are achieved, final reports are summaries of agreements which have already been arrived at."

All of the previous paragraphs on the theory and practice of consulting are certainly applicable to the practice of consulting and the profession of consultants within the library and information sciences. Indeed, there has been very little written in the literature of our field concerning consulting. There have been two recent monographs on the library survey technique, and a fair body of literature has

grown on the role of library building consultants and consulting. The basic ideas inherent in the previous section are all applicable to libraries. Certainly the theory and ethics of the consulting practice, the function of the consulting process, the various stages of the consulting experience, the selection of the consultant, and the application and implementation of consultant recommendations are all relative to consulting practices in the library and information sciences. Library consulting, however, is not organized in any way as are the consultant practices in management science through the IMC or ACME. Murray L. Bob has written that a "shingle, card, and letterhead are almost all that is required to be certified a 'library consultant.'" Bob concludes that the library profession of consulting needs public scrutiny, public accountability, standards of performance, and published fee schedules (14). Donald Bean has suggested that there ought to be an "association of library consultants" which could regulate library consultation work. Bean suggests that such an association might:

1. Define the extent of good consultation work.
2. Set standards for qualification of individuals as members of the association of library consultants.
3. Provide means whereby those who are interested in consultation work can achieve much needed training and experience to replace the hit or miss methods of today.
4. Clarify the fee structure for consultant's work.
5. Provide a clearinghouse of information for the benefit of its members (15).

One librarian, Kenneth Shaffer, has suggested that among criteria for the selection of a library consultant, one should seek a person who holds a present position which "puts him in the mainstream of the library movement"—one who has access to new developments, new ideas, and new ways of doing things in libraries (16).

Within the library and information sciences, there has grown a body of specialty consultants. Consultants are available today for special functions of libraries such as the automation or computerization consultant; the library building consultant; or for special kinds of library services such as the processing services and reference services; or particular subject area library services such as medical library services, engineering library services, and theological library services; or for broader areas such as academic library consultants or public library consultants; a very special kind of consultant—the overseas library consultant; and whole bodies of consultants headquartered at the various state library agencies.

The fifty state library agencies in the United States maintain a permanent staff of consultants. Traditionally, these consultants have worked primarily with the public libraries of the various states, but have now generally been expanded to include services to all types of libraries, and particularly to facilitate cooperative efforts between various types of libraries within the states. In 1967 a conference on state library agency consultants was held at the University of Illinois. The points of general concern raised at this conference were that insufficient distinction had been drawn between the consulting role and other related roles such as program officer

or implementor of plans that state staff, often the same staff, play; and that the state agency should discriminate more clearly among the types and levels of consultant services it provides—such as offering general consultants for problem solving at the local level, providing a variety of specialized consultants on its own staff, and serving as a contact point for consultant services from outside the agency. At the end of the conference, a number of recommendations were drawn up, one of which was aimed at meeting the points of general concern just noted. Specifically, it was recommended

The functions of planning, coordinating, and, where appropriate, regulating should be provided by permanent staff at the state agency. Advisory and cumulative services to libraries of all types should be available, both through permanent state agency staff and through a network of specialist consultants whose services are available on call (17).

A very special kind of consultant within the library and information sciences is the overseas consultant. Particularly since World War II, there have been a number of outstanding librarians who have made a second career of this kind of library consultation. Much of their work has been supported by the federal government or by private foundations. Carl White has written of these foundations that, "Legally, trustees and officers of none of them are committed in the slightest to library development; yet they have all . . . found themselves 'backed into it.'" Through the work of these philanthropic foundations, we find as examples the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center in Mexico and the International Rice Research Institute in the Philippines. The establishment of such information centers has required the use of library consultants to create and develop these centers. As further examples, since the early '50s, library consultants, largely through UNESCO, have organized documentation centers in Israel, Greece, and Jamaica; organized archival services in Tanzania; developed public library services in Colombia, Madagascar, and Israel; established library services in rural areas of Thailand; and developed university library services in Turkey and Thailand. These are but a few examples of the many specialties in consultant work carried on by librarians overseas. In writing of the work of United States consultants overseas, David G. Donovan has pointed out one particular aspect of this kind of consulting that does not pertain to domestic library consulting. Donovan notes, "Mannerisms and personality traits ignored or overlooked in the United States have on occasion taken on added importance in overseas situations and have so prejudiced colleagues and counterparts that effective two-way communication was difficult, if not impossible." Donovan suggests that the consultant should not attempt to duplicate United States institutions overseas. His chief objective is to develop people, not institutions (18). Through good consultants, the people of these foreign lands can develop to a point of self-sufficiency in creating, developing, and maintaining library services indigenous to their own nationalities and cultures.

In the area of library consulting for special subject libraries or functions, the medical library profession has developed the most sophisticated apparatus for library

consulting, largely through the National Library of Medicine and the support of the federal government. There are eleven regional medical libraries (RML) established throughout the nation to meet specific needs in the various regions, and fifty-five regional medical programs (RMP) to provide more specialized services at a more local level. Even so, Timour and Fink, in writing of hospital library consultants, suggest that one try one's next-door neighbor first as often the information that one seeks is close at hand and the special knowledge or expertise required can be provided by a nearby colleague. If this does not work, then the RMPs and the RMLs should be called into service. Failing these services, they suggest that an outside consultant might be required (2).

There are many library building consultants available today; in fact, the field is so full of building consultants that Schell has cautioned,

There are many "experts" around today, each of whom because of his experience while seeing his building to completion will now consider himself a qualified consultant. Nothing could be further from the truth. A consultant in any field must be one of broad and diversified experience rather than one of single or limited experience. A library building consultant must have had several building experiences, preferably with buildings of various sizes and quality of materials; must be knowledgeable of the furnishings and equipment available—both the good and the bad; must be widely travelled, having visited and studied many library buildings and investigated fabrication plants of library equipment; and he must be experienced in dealing with administrative agencies, architects, specialty consultants, contractors, and, of course, other librarians" (19).

Reece, Ellsworth, Metcalf, and Haas have written well concerning the role of consultant for library buildings. They write from a wide experience. Haas has recorded five stages of project development in a consultant's assignment to a library building.

1. There is the initial program wherein the breadth and depth of the wisdom of the consultant is required.
2. There is program development where the technical knowledge gained from the practical building experience of the consultant is paramount. Here, the consultant plays a third-party role between the institution and the architects.
3. There is the early design phase. Here, the principal responsibility shifts from the institutional planners to the architects. In this phase, the consultant must avoid involvement in depth, lest he run the risk of dampening the architectural imagination and thus producing less than optimal solutions to the problems involved.
4. The final design phase wherein the consultant helps the institution verify that the design, in fact, reflects the program.
5. The phase for working drawings and specifications, and here the consultant may be asked to review specific details.

Haas concludes that, in all of these phases, the consultant does not make decisions, but he can help and, at times, force the decision-making process (20). Several

writers disagree as to whom should write the building program statement. Some feel that it should be prepared by the local librarian with the advice of the consultant. Others feel that only the consultant can have sufficient objectivity to develop a fresh program statement. Most, however, agree that the program statement should be prepared before architects are called to the project. One writer has even suggested that the written program statement might be used in the selection process for an architect; that is, the several candidates' reactions to the program might be evaluated in the process of selecting the architect to receive the assignment for the project. Bean has suggested that, to improve consulting standards, a group of three or four consultants might be called to the building project, rather than a single consultant. These consultants can check and countercheck each other. Bean concludes, "A group operation takes advantage of the strong points of each consultant and will avoid errors of judgment which almost inevitably occur in a one-person consultantship" (15).

Perhaps the most general and well-known kind of library consulting is that of the library survey. The general library survey developed in the '30s and continues today as an effective kind of consultant service. However, recently on several occasions it has come under some criticism from the field. Shaffer has stated that outmoded notions of survey techniques and employment of poorly qualified individuals has downgraded the effectiveness and quality of library surveys. He particularly notes that rote measurement of a library against a set of standards passes frequently for a survey, often without even taking into consideration the particular character of a library or community. The library survey often rests on the shelves of the director's office and does not reach the audience for which it should be truly intended. Shaffer suggests that the library survey should really serve a political function. The report should transcend mere technical data and should reach and influence official leaders, trustees, voters, and library users (16). Maurice B. Line has written that too often the result of a library survey "is an indigestible mass of badly interpreted data, collected from a poorly chosen and inadequate sample by unreliable and invalid methods, according to an ill-conceived design." Library surveys, according to Line, are descriptive or analytical. However, this strict categorization is virtually unreal since few surveys fall wholly within either category. The descriptive survey enumerates and describes. The analytical survey is not content with merely collecting and arranging data. It attempts to relate one piece of data to another, to probe beneath the figures to underlying factors and patterns. In practice, most surveys enumerate where enumeration is sufficient and analyze when analysis seems desirable. Line concludes that surveys rarely provide answers. "They can only reduce the area of darkness surrounding any problem or make it less dark. A good survey is as likely to pose further questions as to offer answers." As specialization becomes more predominant in the consulting field, the future of general library surveys is questionable. While some general surveys may still be required because they will remain the chief means of comparing different libraries and probably the only satisfactory means of exploring the social aspects of the library, most consulting in the library and information sciences will zero in on smaller areas of concentration through the

specialty consultant function. Toward the future, it is thought that computers will play an important role in the library consulting profession. Certainly through computers there is a possibility of a continuing survey. Operational research studies will become feasible and, finally, though surveys may be fewer, they may be bigger and better through the computer (21).

There are many other specialist consultants in the library and information sciences too numerous to be listed here. Suffice it to say that for any function or aspect of work in the library and information sciences, there is surely a consultant available, whether it be for audiovisual materials, computerization, chemical literature, engineering libraries, reprography, documents, or whatever. Many professional organizations provide consultant services through the organization or at least act as a contact point between consultants and persons requiring consultant services. The Catholic Library Association and the American Theological Library Association are two of many specialist library organizations which do provide information on consultants and consulting to their memberships. The American Library Association also has a list of general and special consultants. The listing of consultants by these organizations do not generally indicate recommendation or endorsement. Recently, the Association of Research Libraries has established its MRAP (Management Review and Planning). Information on MRAP can be obtained by writing to the Association of Research Libraries. Finally, in 1969 the Bowker Company published its *Directory of Library Consultants*, with listings under thirty-four separate categories of specialization among library consultants. If one is not able to contact a qualified consultant through any of these organizations or services, one can always ask an informed and trusted colleague for a recommendation.

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HAL B. SCHELL

LIBRARY COOPERATION IN LATIN AMERICA

Introduction

The Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Program, which has become famous under the acronym LACAP, is the only full-scale example of library cooperation in Latin America. The idea of cooperative acquisition emerged in the United States during the nineteenth century, but it was not applied, in Latin America or elsewhere, until the twentieth century. When World War II broke out in 1939, United States librarians were concerned—among other things—about its disrupting effect on the acquisition of foreign publications. Their immediate concern was with the book production of Europe, but the method of cooperative acquisition used to obtain European publications could be, and was, applied in Latin America.

Archibald MacLeish, who became librarian of Congress in 1939, was a strong advocate of library cooperation. Under his administration an experimental Division of Library Cooperation was established in the Library of Congress in 1941, and the Farmington Plan—the biggest cooperative acquisitions program yet devised—saw the light in 1942. Although the Farmington Plan was originally focused mainly on Europe, it included publications from Mexico from 1948, and publications from Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru from 1950 onward. It expanded during the 1950s and

was worldwide by the beginning of the 1960s. Under the urging of the dynamic group of librarians and scholars composing SALALM (Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials, now an incorporated body, which organizes annual seminars), it was extended to Latin America at the beginning of the 1960s.

LACAP was launched in 1960, and it immediately began to produce results. Unlike the Farmington Plan, it was a commercial venture, sponsored by Stechert-Hafner, the international book sellers, in cooperation with the Library of Congress, the New York Public Library, and the University of Texas. For the first time in the history of Latin American acquisitions, not only bibliographical information but the books themselves were brought to the United States. It provided a steady flow of publications from virtually all of the Latin American countries at the rate of about 4,000 current titles a year, a remarkable achievement. The reasons for its success and for its ultimate demise merit careful consideration, for LACAP is a milestone in library cooperation. It was a truly seminal experiment, demonstrating as it does what can be done by knowledge, imagination, and enterprise.

In order to see LACAP in a proper perspective, it is necessary to consider the context in which it was organized.

The Context

THE BOOK TRADE AND BIBLIOGRAPHY IN LATIN AMERICA

The book trade in Latin America has certain peculiarities which make book procurement from that area particularly difficult. Furthermore, it functions within a framework of underdevelopment and consequently in a context of economic and political instability. Population growth is high and illiteracy widespread. The book market is therefore relatively small, and book dealers had little incentive to seek out and sell the works of Latin American authors until they grasped, largely through LACAP, the possibilities of the United States library market.

Conditions are not the same in Mexico as they are in Central America, South America, or the Caribbean—all of which are covered by the term "Latin America"—but the countries of this area have, by and large, the same cultural heritage. There are therefore certain common factors which impede procurement from all these countries. These procurement difficulties are well documented. The following list is compiled from papers by Mary Brennan, of the Order Department of the University of Texas Library (1), and Franklyn A. Bright, associate professor on the staff of the Library, University of Wisconsin, Madison (2).

1. Problems of bibliographical control: reliable, up-to-date bibliographies are incomplete or lacking, published late, and of uncertain longevity.
2. Problems of the publishing industry and the book trade: small printings, poor current awareness information, private publishing, disorganization of the book trade, lack of reliable dealers, the dealers' refusal to accept standing orders, failure to elicit replies to correspondence, language problems, mysterious

bookkeeping systems, difficulty in obtaining government documents, and decentralization of government and academic agencies.

3. Shipping and legal or political problems: poor postal service, a confusing freight service, export restrictions, necessity for prepayment, and monetary control laws.

Problems of Bibliographical Control

One of the major stumbling blocks to book procurement from Latin America has always been the incompleteness or lack of reliable, up-to-date national or general bibliographies. Even where depository laws exist in the Latin American countries, they are not usually respected, or only partially so. Funds to support the work of individual bibliographers or of bibliographical groups are scanty, and publication is often dependent on financial assistance from outside agencies such as the OAS or UNESCO. Some of the countries, such as Panama, Paraguay, and the Dominican Republic, still have no national bibliographies, and others, such as Argentina and Colombia, have only partial compilations (3). United States librarians have had to depend on the *Handbook of Latin American Studies* published by the Hispanic Foundation (now the Latin American, Portuguese and Spanish Division) of the Library of Congress, which appeared late for many years, the accessions lists of the Columbus Memorial Library, publication of which has now ceased, and publishers' and dealers' catalogs and lists, mainly originating outside Latin America.

Problems of the Publishing Industry and the Book Trade

Small printings are due partly to lack of awareness of possible markets, partly to lack of capital, and partly to private publishing. Publishers used to catering to small local markets have no incentive to produce large printings, and they make so little profit on the works of national authors that they are little inclined to publish a large number of copies of any work they print. If they are acting as printers for privately published works, and turning over the whole stock to the author, only a small printing will be required. The high cost of paper is a contributing factor. Whatever the cause of the small printings, the net result is that books go out of print with extreme rapidity. They disappear from the market so fast that they quickly become unobtainable. Many works never reach the commercial market since they are handed over to the author for distribution. Nettie Lee Benson, librarian of the Latin American Collection, University of Texas Library, estimated in 1960 when reporting on her first trip for LACAP that between 50 and 75% of all the titles published in Ecuador, Peru, Chile, and Bolivia were not distributed by publishers (4). Stanley L. West, then director of libraries, University of Florida, put the percentage for all Latin American book production even higher. In his report to the Association of Research Libraries in 1961 in his capacity as chairman of the Farmington Plan Subcommittee on Latin America, he estimated that only 10% found its way into normal commercial channels (5). Small printings combined with lack of storage space mean that publishers and dealers do not maintain large stocks of books. A title which is not snapped up when it appears is soon out of stock at the dealer's and very soon out of print.

Titles that are missed are often difficult to track down, not only because there are so few copies but because the copies that do exist are difficult to locate. If a book is privately printed, it is not unknown for an author to have it published with a fictitious imprint or with no imprint at all.

The reasons for the lack of reliable dealers lie primarily in an attitude to business matters which is peculiar to Latin America and may be summed up as a preference for the personal approach and a hatred of routine. Dr. Benson found that dealers and publishers were delighted to talk to her but loath to seek out the works of national authors. They would accept standing orders and blanket orders, but they would not fulfill them. This is due partly to their dislike of routine but even more to their distaste for doing business by correspondence. She noted that although a library might order a list of titles which were thought to be in a particular dealer's hands, there was no guarantee the books would be sent. The order was often just thrown into the waste paper basket because the processing of orders from United States libraries frequently involved a great deal of red tape and because the personal element was lacking. Filling a blanket order without personal contact with the library's representative was as bad as doing business by correspondence, and the dealers quickly lost interest. And neither personal contact nor correspondence will produce satisfactory results unless the library's representative speaks and writes the dealer's language fluently. However, not even a perfect knowledge of the language will make some dealers' bookkeeping systems intelligible to a United States librarian; conversely, the forms required for purchasing orders under many library regulations are puzzling and discouraging to many dealers. Dr. Benson commiserates with the dealers, who "must try to cope not only with the multiple problems of an almost completely disorganized publishing and distribution system" but also with the, to her, "unreasonable demands of libraries for perfect selection of materials according to intricate and multiple rules." She comments, "Small wonder that few indeed are the dealers who will even agree to supply books under such conditions. And those who do agree do so knowing that far from complete service will be achieved" (6). In view of all these difficulties, the importance of constant contact through a traveling agent is obvious. It was recognized as a necessity when LACAP became operational.

Dr. Benson found that government documents were more difficult to find than current monographs, even by persons living in the country where they were published. As these and university publications often include works of merit, published for the author by the institution concerned and handed over to him for distribution, they are often both valuable and extremely hard to find. Even when they are located, bureaucratic red tape, distance, and lack of communication, to say nothing of the human element, often prevent acquisition of these works. The decentralization of academic and government agencies in a vast country like Brazil, for instance, merely makes this task more difficult and time-consuming.

Shipping and Legal or Political Problems

The postal service is irregular and unreliable in many parts of Latin America. Surface mail may take anything up to 6 months to arrive at its destination. In some

countries it is hardly used at all. The only sure way is by air, and this becomes expensive when large quantities of books have to be dispatched. Freight regulations, requiring the completion of many forms and the expenditure of a great deal of time, are confusing and exasperating, even in the absence of export restrictions. And most of the countries have import restrictions of one kind or another. They may be imposed at short notice, as was the case in Argentina in 1965, when the export of books was practically interdicted overnight.

The Latin American book dealer is very often undercapitalized. He therefore runs into financial difficulties in making shipments and requires prepayment, not only to finance his shipments but to protect himself from fluctuating exchange rates. A dollar in the hand is worth two in the bush. But prepayment is against the regulations of many libraries. There may also be exchange control regulations which make it difficult to transfer dollars for the payment of dealers' bills in local currency. In any event, he usually prefers cash, as the cashing of checks in foreign currencies involves quite lengthy formalities in many cases, and there is often a charge to pay. Furthermore, inflation may wipe out his profit in the interval between the time when the check is drawn and the time when he can present it for payment. Here again, a traveling agent can usually solve the problem and, by easing the dealer's financial position, encourage him to send his books to the waiting libraries.

EFFORTS TO SOLVE THE BOOK PROCUREMENT PROBLEM

Improvement of Bibliographical Access (7)

Many efforts were made to improve bibliographical access to Latin American publications from the 1940s onward. The Library of Congress took over the publication of the *Handbook of Latin American Studies* in 1944 and published the *Guides to the Official Publications of the Other American Republics* from 1945 to 1949. Since the late 1960s bibliographical data on the titles collected under the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NPAC) have been appearing in the National Union Catalog. UNESCO organized two seminars on bibliography in Latin America, one in Havana, Cuba, in 1955, and the other in Mexico City in 1960. It encouraged work by national bibliographical groups and assisted them and individual bibliographers to publish their compilations. The OAS published the *Inter-American Review of Bibliography* and the *List of Books Accessioned and Periodical Articles Indexed by the Columbus Memorial Library*, but its most important contribution to the improvement of bibliography is undoubtedly its sponsorship of SALALM from 1956 to 1968. In the commercial field, the LACAP lists, published under the general title of *New Latin American Books: An Advance Checklist of Newly Published Titles Just Acquired under the Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Project* [later Program] (LACAP) and the LACAP catalogs provide information on some 50,000 titles. Along with *Fichero bibliográfico hispanoamericano* and *Libros en venta*, both published by Bowker in Buenos Aires, they helped to change the bibliographical scene, which showed a striking improvement between the 1940s and the end of the 1960s.

Cooperative Acquisition

Cooperative acquisition was first employed on a large scale in the United States by the Library of Congress in 1945, when the Cooperative Acquisitions Project for Wartime Publications—commonly known as the Wartime Cooperative Acquisitions Project—was organized. The total acquisitions under this scheme were far from negligible—819,022 books and volumes of periodicals had been distributed to the 115 participating libraries by 1948; but its significance for the future lay in the procedure it employed, which was a system of priorities based on the Library of Congress classification. The underlying principles were cooperative acquisition, bibliographical control, and division of responsibility for collecting among the participating libraries.

The same principles were applied on a much vaster scale in the Farmington Plan, of which only a brief account need be given here since it is more than adequately dealt with by Edwin E. Williams (see *Farmington Plan*). The Proposal for a Division of Responsibility among American Libraries in the Acquisition and Recording of Library Materials (8), as the plan was originally called, originated in the Library of Congress and was adopted at a meeting held at Farmington, Connecticut, in 1942. To quote the 1953 *Farmington Plan Handbook*,

The Farmington Plan is an experiment in specialization by voluntary agreement among American research Libraries. Its objective is to make sure that at least one copy of each new foreign book and pamphlet that might reasonably be expected to interest a research worker in the United States will be acquired by an American library, promptly listed in the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress, and made available by inter-library loan or photographic reproduction (9).

The Association of Research Libraries, which had been concerned with the administration of the plan since 1944, took over formal responsibility for its administration in 1947.

Following in the footsteps of the Wartime Cooperative Acquisitions Project, the plan first focused on Europe but it was later extended to other areas. The participating libraries accepted responsibility for comprehensive collection within the subject categories assigned to them, which were based on the Library of Congress classification, and they undertook to make their acquisitions through a single dealer, the Farmington Plan agent in each country.

The procedures were found to be too rigid in practice, particularly for difficult areas, and when the ARL decided in 1959 that there should be area committees with responsibility for specific areas and established area resources subcommittees, it was specifically stated that the expression "Farmington Plan" did not refer to a method of procurement but to a comprehensive plan of acquisition on a worldwide basis (10). When the plan was extended to the whole of Latin America (it had covered Mexico and some of the other countries from its very early years), responsibilities for collection were assigned on a country basis rather than by subject category, and the libraries were left free to choose their own dealers. Following the example of Cornell, many of the participants in LACAP selected Stechert-Hafner as their Farmington Plan agent. For those libraries, Stechert-Hafner therefore had a double responsibility.

THE SEMINARS ON THE ACQUISITION OF LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY MATERIALS

The seminars were sponsored by the OAS as part of its program for the improvement of the library and bibliographical situation in Latin America. The First Seminar, jointly sponsored by the OAS's Columbus Memorial Library and the University of Florida Libraries, was held at Chinsegut Hill, Brooksville, Florida, in 1956. The twentieth was held in Bogotá, Colombia, in June 1975. The seminars bring together librarians, academicians, representatives of international organizations, and members of the book trade in a cooperative effort to solve mutual acquisitions problems. Over the past 19 years, SALALM has moved from being an OAS-sponsored program to being an independent body, and its headquarters have been moved from the Pan American Union in Washington, D.C., to the University of Massachusetts at Amherst. Marietta Daniels Shepard, the permanent executive secretary and mainspring of the organization since 1956, resigned in 1972. The duties of executive secretary have now been taken over by Pauline P. Collins, Latin American specialist of the University of Massachusetts.

The First Seminar was convened to discuss the selection, acquisition, and processing of library materials from Latin America and the Caribbean and to assemble and disseminate information on the acquisition of materials from that area that would be of value to libraries. Besides Mrs. Shepard and many other librarians, bibliographers, and scholars, the participants in the First Seminar included Stanley L. West, then director of the University of Florida Libraries, Robert E. Kingery, chief of the Preparation Division of the New York Public Library, Nettie Lee Benson, head of the Latin American Collection of the University of Texas, Howard F. Cline, director of the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress, and Dominick Coppola, then assistant vice-president of Stechert-Hafner. As Stanley West was to become chairman of the Farmington Plan Subcommittee on Latin American Resources, and Drs. Benson, Kingery, and Coppola were to be associated in LACAP, the first seminar can be said to have held the seeds of future events.

Following the suggestion of Dr. Cline, the seminar agreed to meet annually. It also agreed that research into the book trade and library development would be conducted along geographical rather than functional lines. Working papers would be prepared for each seminar that would (1) examine the commercial book trade of the country under discussion, (2) list institutions offering exchange materials, (3) study what bibliographic controls were then in force, (4) and (5) list the serials and the government publications of each country (11).

According to the permanent secretary's report to the Fourth Seminar (12), the groundwork for the extension of the Farmington Plan to the whole of Latin America was laid at Chinsegut Hill. Discussion continued at the Second Seminar and reached the resolution stage at the third (1958), when Stanley West was asked to convey to the ARL the "concern of the Seminar regarding Farmington Plan coverage of Latin America as a whole" (13). Further resolutions were adopted at subsequent seminars, and cooperation between SALALM and the Farmington Plan Subcom-

mittee on Latin American Resources became so close that the role of the subcommittee was defined at the Tenth Seminar (1965) as that of a "liaison group between the Association of Research Libraries and SALALM, its primary responsibility being to convey information on the Seminars to the Chief Librarians making up the ARL membership, and conversely to keep SALALM informed on ARL" (14). There could be no doubt of SALALM's usefulness. At the Ninth Seminar, Stanley West had pointed out that no other geographical area in the Farmington Plan had a working body comparable to SALALM, and that the Latin American operation had frequently served as a model for programs in other parts of the world (15).

But SALALM was not concerned only with the Farmington Plan; it wished to explore all the possibilities of improving the acquisition of Latin American library materials. Realizing that in order to solve book procurement problems and ensure that Latin American dealers fulfilled their commitments a traveling agent would be required, the First Seminar adopted a resolution inviting interested libraries to "explore the possibilities and feasibility of maintaining on a cooperative basis one or more full-time acquisitions agents in Latin America" (16). This led to the sending of William H. Kurth, then of the Order Division of the Library of Congress, on the Cooperative Library Mission in September 1958. He spent 3 months on the trip visiting Peru, Chile, Paraguay, Bolivia, Colombia, and Venezuela on behalf of the Library of Congress and eleven other participating libraries, all of which had agreed to share the cost, and four other countries on behalf of the Library of Congress alone. The conclusion he reached was that it was necessary to maintain a "cooperative acquisitions representative" in Latin America to ensure a continuing and systematic flow of research materials (17). Kurth reported to the Fourth Seminar (1959), and the resolution adopted on his report recommended that "one or more acquisitions agents be established on a continuing basis on behalf of research libraries in the United States and that the area of cooperation be extended to all the Latin American countries" (12, p. 34).

What had to be done was now clear, but not who was to do it. It was a challenge to provide good service to libraries in a problem area to which comparatively little attention had been paid and where no one had had the courage to launch a business venture. Stechert-Hafner—"The World's Leading International Booksellers"—with interests and a staff that were worldwide, took up the challenge, and LACAP was launched.

The LACAP Operation

LACAP was initiated in 1960 under the informal sponsorship of the University of Texas, the New York Public Library, and Stechert-Hafner and with the support of the Library of Congress and SALALM. In the publicity folder published by Stechert-Hafner at that time, LACAP is described as "a cooperative enterprise that provides its participants with a steady flow of the printed materials currently published in all the countries of Latin America"; and to achieve this purpose it employed a traveling agent and a blanket order procedure.

LACAP was actually born in 1959 at an informal meeting of some of the participants in the Fourth Seminar which included Robert E. Kingery, chief of the Preparation Division of the New York Public Library, and Dominick Coppola, assistant vice-president of Stechert-Hafner. The problems of the acquisition of library materials from Latin America were discussed, and the final sense of the meeting was that a traveling agent or agents, put in Latin America by private enterprise encouraged by the profit motive, might provide a solution (18). Kingery asked "Why shouldn't Stechert-Hafner do it?," and Coppola obtained his firm's approval for conducting the project on the understanding that it was to break even financially within 3 years. Stechert-Hafner assumed full financial responsibility for the project and for any continuation of it. There was no formal agreement or sponsorship.

Nettie Lee Benson of the University of Texas carried out three trips for LACAP between January 1960 and July 1962, in the course of which she visited Ecuador, Peru, Chile, Bolivia, Colombia, Venezuela, Argentina, Paraguay, and Uruguay for exploratory purposes. On her third trip, in 1962, she revisited the first four countries to check the arrangements she had made on her first trip. She also visited Panama and Guatemala to check arrangements made by Coppola. Coppola was responsible for the administration of the program but he also carried out some field trips, notably to Central America, Colombia, and Mexico. Dr. Benson's instructions were to purchase a given number of copies of all the 1958, 1959, and 1960 imprints that she felt would be of interest to research libraries in the United States, and to make arrangements with dealers or publishers for the shipment of new titles as they appeared.

As the basic procedures of LACAP were defined during these trips, a word may be said about them here. Dr. Benson made her own lists of desirable titles on the spot, using any bibliographical materials available, which included publishers' lists, *anuarios bibliográficos* published by institutions and libraries, newspapers, and talks with local residents. List in hand, she made a round of the local book sellers and publishers, where she sought out the titles on her list and added new ones as she discovered the books. In each title to be purchased she placed a slip specifying the number of copies required and challenged the dealer or publisher to obtain them for her. In many cases she was able to find the requisite number of copies herself. She usually paid cash for them, and often had to pack and mail them to New York herself. She also mailed a duplicate of the slips to New York, and before leaving she made arrangements with one or more dealers for future shipments. The number of copies purchased naturally varied according to the library profiles. Some libraries, such as the Library of Congress and the University of Kansas, required comprehensive coverage by country and by subject. Others, such as the National Agricultural Library and the National Library of Medicine, were interested in broad geographical coverage but only a few subject categories. Others again, such as the University of Florida, wanted in-depth subject coverage of a limited geographical area—in this case the Caribbean. Four or five copies were sufficient at the beginning of the program, but the number increased to forty or more as the program developed, for Stechert-Hafner purchased for stock as well as for LACAP.

The procedures in the New York office were also fairly simple. When the books

arrived, they were checked and sorted, the bibliographical citations were verified, a LACAP number was assigned to each title, and the books were priced. The titles were then matched against the libraries' profiles and the consignments for each library were assembled and dispatched. Normal commercial procedures were employed for the billing.

One very important function carried out by the New York office was the preparation of the LACAP lists, published under the title *New Latin American Books: An Advance Checklist of Newly Published Titles Just Acquired under the Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Project* [later Program] (LACAP). They were numbered and elegantly presented under a distinctive blue masthead. Every title was given a LACAP number to facilitate ordering, a number which, from February 1967 onward, appeared on the Library of Congress catalog cards together with the LC number. Care was taken to give accurate citations of the books listed. As Dr. Zimmerman points out, these lists provided a great deal of information which might be available from national sources at about the same time in some cases, but not on others, particularly in the smaller countries. She would have preferred more complete citations and a cumulative index, but she concedes that their bibliographical value is not altogether negligible (19). They became valuable selection tools.

As to the composition of the shipments, they included current monographs by Latin American authors, the first issue of new periodical publications (subscription orders were dealt with by Stechert-Hafner under its regular program, not under LACAP), and some government and university publications. The following were excluded: serials, textbooks, translations, juveniles and comic books, detective stories and pulp fiction, and works that were too general in character, such as an encyclopedia of religion without special relevance to Latin America, or not related to Latin America, such as a history of French art by a Latin American author.

The distribution of the titles by country and by subject category varied, depending on the library profiles, which were modified to take account of shifts of emphasis in teaching programs of the universities the libraries served, and on changes in the list of participating libraries. The shipments might be expected to contain some works on technical subjects, such as law, medicine, and agriculture; a large proportion of literature and literary criticism; a smaller proportion of works of philology, history, politics, and economics; and a still smaller proportion of government and university publications. No rule can be laid down for the countries represented. A visit to a country by the LACAP traveling agent would naturally be reflected in a higher proportion of titles from that country in the shipments for the period following the trip. The literary value of the works was uneven, as the aim was not to select only important works but to reflect as faithfully as possible the whole gamut of Latin American book production. Even works usually labeled "trash" have their place in that spectrum as an indication of what is currently being produced. Changes in the participants in LACAP, bringing changes in collecting interests, would naturally affect the composition of the shipments.

The New York office also dealt with returns. Stechert-Hafner never clearly defined what could or could not be returned, except very roughly, and it never set a limit to

the period during which returns could be made. In practice, it accepted all returns, relying, quite rightly in most cases, on the loyalty of the participating libraries and assuming they would return only materials that clearly did not fall within their profiles. Nevertheless, the abuse of this privilege by certain libraries was undoubtedly a factor in LACAP's demise.

At the Sixth Seminar (1961), Dr. Coppola, Dr. Benson, and Stechert-Hafner were congratulated on their efforts, and libraries were urged to support a realistic price structure for LACAP materials (20) (the overhead costs of maintaining such a service were high, and these, plus a margin of profit for Stechert-Hafner, were passed on to the libraries in the book prices). There was considerable criticism of the LACAP prices, particularly toward the end of the program, but most of the LACAP libraries accepted them, willingly or unwillingly, as payment for the service rendered. This is borne out by the fact that the number of participants steadily increased over the life-span of the program. From four in 1960, it increased to twenty-two in 1964, thirty-five in 1966, and finally to forty-three in 1972. It is worth noting at this point that library funds for foreign acquisitions were more readily available in the 1960s than at the beginning of the 1970s. This was undoubtedly a factor in the success of the Stechert-Hafner venture. Some libraries remained in the program from start to finish. Others joined and later withdrew for budgetary reasons or because LACAP did not meet their particular needs or because of changes in university curricula. The total number of libraries that were participants in the program at some time or other is much higher than forty-two; it is over seventy (see Appendix II).

Dr. Benson's third trip, in 1962, revealed that many of the dealers with whom she had made arrangements on her earlier trips were not supplying the materials they had promised. Obviously, constant supervision was needed. This necessity had been understood by Stechert-Hafner from the outset, and even before Dr. Benson returned to the University of Texas, in July 1962, Stechert-Hafner had opened an office in Bogotá, Colombia, and engaged a permanent traveling agent. This was Guillermo Baraya Borda, a cultured Colombian with a book business of his own and considerable experience of the Latin American book trade. He took up his duties in May 1962 and started on his first trips to see the dealers at the end of June. During the next few years, he visited all the countries of Latin American at least once, maintaining the arrangements with the dealers through personal contact. Thanks to his efforts, and to careful monitoring and checking of bibliographies in New York, it was possible to ensure a steady flow of books to the participating libraries and to those which bought from stock. The dealers' performance was kept under review and steps taken to see that their commitments were honored. This combination of personal contact and administrative supervision also had the advantage of nipping incipient problems in the bud and ironing out payment and other difficulties affecting relations with the dealers. Furthermore, because the supervision at both the New York and the local level was constant, it produced results which could not be achieved by sporadic buying trips.

The success of these procedures is clear from the figures for acquisitions given in Appendix I, and Coppola was able to announce a breakthrough in Latin American

acquisitions to the Seventh Seminar, held in June 1962 (21). Over the next 2 years Baraya was constantly on the move visiting dealers and publishers, and it might be said that he brought the books back alive.

The Sixth Seminar resolved that United States government agencies should be encouraged to cooperate with LACAP and recorded the view that LACAP seemed to offer the best prospect of obtaining the important books and documents relating to Latin America (22). No new government agencies joined the program, but cooperation had always been close with the three government agencies that were participants—the Library of Congress, the National Agricultural Library, and the National Library of Medicine. Cooperation with the Library of Congress was particularly close. Besides placing the LACAP number on its catalog cards, it gave priority 3 cataloging to all LACAP materials, copies of which were flown direct to Washington for this purpose. When the Library of Congress opened its field office in Rio de Janeiro under the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging in 1966, this cooperation became even closer. Brazil had always been a problem area for LACAP because of its size, the lack of communications, and the amount of publishing done in the provincial centers which never reached the capital, let alone the outside world. The trips made by Baraya in 1962, and by Dr. A. William Bork, then director of the Latin American Institute of Southern Illinois University, in 1964 and 1965 did not produce the hoped-for increase in receipts. Starting in 1966, the Library of Congress field office in Rio de Janeiro obtained one copy of every desirable Brazilian publication it could find and sent them by air to Washington for prompt cataloging. Working in other areas of Brazil, LACAP did the same, and the bibliographical data were exchanged, thus broadening the title selection LACAP could offer. Stechert-Hafner opened a second office in Brazil in 1967, but results were disappointing and it was closed down a few years later.

Brazil was not the only problem area; the Caribbean was one of several others. During a trip to the area in 1963, Baraya was able to obtain enough retrospective materials (titles from the decade of the 1950s) to justify the publication of a special catalog, *Books from the Caribbean*, but acquisitions of current titles were not extensive (see Appendix I) and they were only sporadic. The Caribbean remained a problem area owing to the scattered nature of its geography and the existence of two separate major traditions, one British and the other Spanish. The bibliographical situation has improved, thanks to the efforts of the Association of Caribbean University and Research Libraries (ACURIL), SALALM (which held its Eighteenth Seminar at Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, in 1973), the North-South and Caribbean Regional Library, and universities with special Caribbean interests, notably the University of Florida. But the improvement came too late for LACAP to take advantage of it.

LACAP was repeatedly urged by SALALM to make greater efforts to secure government and university publications, although Stechert-Hafner had made it clear at the outset of the program that LACAP would acquire only those publications of this type that it could pick up easily. Efforts were made, but government publications remained a knotty problem to the end. The situation with regard to university publications improved with the establishment of CILA (the Centro Interamericano del Libro

Académico) which was used by LACAP to obtain university publications and now operates a standing order procedure.

As more and more Latin American publications became available through LACAP, the program ran into difficulties and criticisms which will be discussed in the next section. Suffice it to say here that, despite its really outstanding success in obtaining a steady flow of publications from a previously inaccessible area—some 45,000 current titles over an 11-year period (see Appendix I)—and its contribution in opening the United States book market to Latin American dealers, LACAP did not escape the fate of other cooperative acquisitions programs. The Wartime Cooperative Acquisitions Project, the Farmington Plan, and even the PL 480 Program, under which books were distributed almost free of charge, all ran into strong criticism from their participants. The defects which inevitably accompany any large operation tend to loom larger in the minds of some librarians than the benefits it confers. This attitude of mind is not new, but no one has yet discovered how to eliminate it. A glass that is half full to some will always seem half empty to others.

However that may be, a certain amount of dissatisfaction with the LACAP operation began to be voiced from 1967–1968. A LACAP advisory group was formed within SALALM, and Felix Reichmann, then assistant director of the Cornell University Libraries, undertook an unofficial consumer survey to discover the reasons for this, and also for the volume of returns, which hovered between 8 and 10.6% between 1965 and 1967 and was 9% in 1968. He made his progress report to the Fourteenth Seminar (23) in June 1969 on the basis of replies from 60% of the participating libraries: one-third of the reporting libraries were fully satisfied with the quality and quantity of the LACAP shipments, while two-thirds were only partially satisfied; one-half felt that LACAP met the special needs of their libraries; about two-thirds of the libraries returned part of their LACAP shipments, mainly because the item had been received from another source; as to pricing, opinion was practically evenly divided between “too high” and “fully justified.” No final report was ever submitted, since Dr. Reichmann resigned, and Dr. Benson took over the chairmanship of what had become the SALALM Advisory Committee to LACAP. Donald F. Wisdom of the Serial Division, Library of Congress, succeeded Dr. Benson as chairman in 1970. The other two committee members were Carl W. Deal, acting director of the Center for Latin American Studies, University of Illinois, and Dr. Benson.

THE FINAL PHASE

LACAP had some outstanding achievements to its credit. Not only had it discovered the existence of works by Latin American authors that were not to be found in any bibliography, it had brought the books themselves to New York for distribution to the LACAP participants and for sale to other libraries at the rate of about 4,000 titles a year (see Appendix I). In addition, substantial quantities of retrospective materials had been purchased; several thousand titles that do not appear on the LACAP lists were acquired also. LACAP therefore permanently enriched the collections of the participating libraries.

It is somewhat ironical that one of LACAP's biggest successes—interesting Latin American dealers in the United States library market—was also a factor in its downfall. As the Latin American dealers became more conversant with the needs of United States libraries through their connection with LACAP, they began to compete with the program and to offer the same titles at lower prices. This was comparatively easy for them to do, since their overhead costs were not so heavy as those of LACAP. When these dealers' offers were accepted and the copies of the same titles from the LACAP shipments were returned, the program ran into trouble. Libraries in the United States had, of course, always used Latin American book dealers. They continued to do so after they became participants in LACAP, either to establish their own coverage of certain areas or to complete the LACAP coverage. The fact remains that it was through LACAP that many Latin American dealers became aware of the possibilities of the United States market. It was a victory which cost LACAP dear, but it was a victory. Thanks to LACAP and to NPAC, both the bibliographical access to Latin American publications and their availability have significantly improved.

In order to understand what led to the demise of LACAP, it is necessary to go back to 1969. LACAP had been a successful program up to then, so successful, in fact, that Stechert-Hafner had launched two other programs of a similar kind in other areas (24). Nevertheless, the firm had reached a crisis, due partly to the fact that it was a small family firm in a world of corporate giants and partly to sad events in the Hafner family. Thus, when Crowell Collier and Macmillan made an offer for the firm, it was accepted, and Stechert-Hafner was sold in May 1969. The firm continued to operate under its own name,* with Coppola, as president of Stechert-Hafner since 1966, still at the executive end of the program. He had always been the mainspring of LACAP, but the ultimate responsibility now lay with the new management, and in particular with Eleanor P. Vreeland, director of marketing, and Kenneth S. Clinchy, who became president of Stechert-Hafner after Coppola resigned.

In the meantime, there had been increasing criticism of LACAP, which was reflected in a rising rate of returns. Concerned at the situation, Donald F. Wisdom, chairman of the SALALM Advisory Committee to LACAP, visited the Stechert-Hafner office in New York in 1970 to see how the program was being run. He discussed the problems with Coppola and, in consultation with him, called a meeting of the major participants in the program, to be held on January 16, 1971, at the midwinter meeting of the SALALM Executive Board at Tucson, Arizona. At that meeting the LACAP procedures were discussed and complaints were voiced about incomplete coverage, costs, and administrative defects. The chairman of the Advisory Committee reported on the meeting at the Sixteenth Seminar, held in Puebla, Mexico, in June 1971. The seminar adopted a resolution, submitted in the absence of the sponsor, requesting the Advisory Committee to continue to consult the participants in LACAP (25).

* It continued to do so until the end of 1973. In January 1974 it became part of the corporation Stechert-Macmillan.

Coppola resigned his post as president of Stechert-Hafner on October 1, 1971, and the firm lost the one man who really knew and understood LACAP, the dealers, and both the Latin American approach to life and the needs of the LACAP libraries. After his resignation, the new management began to introduce a number of changes in order to streamline procedures and increase efficiency, which are indicated in a letter from the director of marketing to the chairman of the Advisory Committee dated September 1971 (26). According to that letter, the participating libraries were being asked to review their blanket orders on a new profile to improve selection, a new policy was being introduced for the pricing of LACAP publications through which reductions of between 10 and 30% were to be achieved, and the new policies were to be implemented by a bibliographer-historian and a new Spanish cataloger, who had already been engaged. Mrs. Vreeland, who was anxious to continue the program, kept in touch with the Advisory Committee after Coppola's resignation, and she planned a trip to Latin America to meet the dealers but the trip was never made. Both Mrs. Vreeland and Mr. Clinchy, the new president of Stechert-Hafner, attended the Seventeenth Seminar, held at Amherst, Massachusetts, in June 1972, in order to meet a clientele that was new to them and familiarize themselves with the libraries' problems and needs.

But LACAP was getting into difficulties. The changes introduced had not immediately produced the results expected of them, and the new management was seriously concerned. After considering the financial aspects of the program and deciding that a greatly increased volume of sales would be required to offset rising costs, they began to think of terminating the program. The director of marketing informed the chairman of the Advisory Committee in October 1972 that they were thinking of doing so by the end of the year (26). The suddenness of this decision produced considerable consternation in the Advisory Committee and among the participating libraries. In the circumstances, the Advisory Committee felt that it was urgent for it to meet with the management of Stechert-Hafner, a meeting which the director of marketing had already suggested. It was held in Washington, D.C., on November 4, 1972.

A report of the November 4 meeting is to be found among the papers of the Eighteenth Seminar, held at Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, in April-May 1973 (27). The report states, among other things, that "Stechert-Hafner outlined its areas of concern: declining sales, projected sales, high rate of returns from libraries (20 percent over the last three years),* and projected costs needed to operate the program correctly." As a result of the meeting, a questionnaire was prepared and sent on November 13 to all the LACAP participants and to the members of SALALM, with the request for a reply by November 30. Part A was intended to elicit information on the sales outlook for Stechert-Hafner and Part B to provide SALALM with some idea of what could be done to fill the gap should LACAP be terminated. The par-

* This does not quite tally with the actual figures for returns in the files of the Advisory Committee (see Table 4). There is no doubt that the rate of returns was rising. It might have reached 20% by the beginning of 1973, but the figures for 1970, 1971, and the first 10 months of 1972 were 5.6, 11.7, and 13.4%, respectively.

ticipating libraries were seriously concerned at the suddenness of LACAP's termination. If many current imprints were not to be lost, immediate steps would have to be taken by the libraries concerned.

By November 30, twenty-eight of the participating libraries had sent in their responses to the questionnaire, a proportion of nearly 70%, which is remarkable considering that the time allowed for the replies was very short and that some of the responding libraries were not in the United States. Three-quarters of the respondents thought that LACAP was beneficial. Half felt, however, that they could find an alternative. Nearly all said that they obtained a larger or a smaller percentage of their materials from other sources, but more than half stated their willingness to take additional materials from LACAP. About three-quarters were willing to accept a policy of no returns, either unconditionally or subject to provisos with regard to stricter adherence to their profiles, better selection and coverage, and an improved pricing policy. Two-thirds were thinking in terms of placing blanket orders to replace LACAP, while an even higher proportion recognized that any alternative arrangement would cost them more. Practically all stated that they did not foresee curtailed spending, for the time being at least, and about a quarter even expected some increase in their budgets. Only two expected a reduction. The dismay expressed by many respondents gives some indication of the extent to which the participating libraries had come to depend on LACAP for certain services, which were taken for granted until they suddenly ceased.

Although these responses showed substantial support for LACAP, the new management of Stechert-Hafner decided to cancel the program as of December 31, 1972. The Advisory Committee was informed of its decision on December 8. The participants themselves were informed by a letter from the president of Stechert-Hafner dated January 3, 1973 (26), that the dealers had received instructions not to make any more shipments after January 15, so that the last shipment they could expect would be in April. They were subsequently informed by a letter from the director of marketing, dated February 28, 1973, that no returns would be accepted for shipments made in 1972 or January 1973 after March 20, and no returns for shipments made in February, March, and April 1973, after June 1 (26). No formal announcement of LACAP's termination was inserted in the library journals, but news of its termination appeared in *American Libraries* (28) and the *Library Journal* (29). In both cases it is mentioned only incidentally in connection with the death of the Farmington Plan.

The abruptness with which LACAP was terminated—the libraries were virtually faced with a *fait accompli*—calls for some comment. When it took over, the new management of Stechert-Hafner wished to continue the program, but the expertise to do so was lacking. Although the changes that were introduced did have some beneficial effect—the new pricing policy is possibly reflected in the slight drop in the unit price of the LACAP books during 1972—the immediate result was disorganization rather than improvement at a time when the program was reaching a crisis. The new management, having discovered for themselves that the overhead costs of the program were tremendous, and realizing that there was little likelihood of a dramatic

increase in their sales, decided to withdraw for fiscal reasons. That was undoubtedly a sound financial decision from their point of view, particularly as the continuation of the program would have forced them to shoulder increased costs for specialists in an area with which they were not familiar, especially for traveling agents to maintain the program. The manner in which the program was terminated, particularly the suddenness of the final decision, and the failure to make any transitional arrangements are, however, open to criticism.

THE AFTERMATH

The sudden demise of LACAP presented libraries with the necessity of making other arrangements, and until those were working smoothly they were bound to lose some of the current imprints. Most of the participating libraries had continued to use other dealers besides LACAP, but now new orders had to be placed or new selections made with the utmost speed. It is clear from the answers to the questionnaire that many of the libraries were intending to place new blanket orders. A future study may show how successful those arrangements have been by comparing the average number of 1972 and 1973 imprints in the collections of the LACAP libraries with the average for the LACAP years.

It is true that the Latin American book dealers, who had become aware of the United States library market largely through LACAP, were not at all reluctant to fill the gap. During the first 6 months of 1973 the libraries received a number of circulars from book dealers mentioning LACAP and proposing their services as suppliers. Delta Editorial (Montevideo), for instance, got smartly off the mark with an offer before the end of January. In March, Bolivar (Kingston, Jamaica) struck a pathetic note, saying that since Stechert-Hafner had "deserted the LACAP operation" it had lost its major single outlet and did not know whether it would be able to continue without the bulk sales to LACAP. In June, Casa Pardo (Buenos Aires) offered its services for Argentine publications. The last two specifically state that they had been LACAP agents. CILA had obviously profited from its experience with LACAP also. In a circular advocating its standing order plan for Latin American scholarly books, dated August 19, 1971, it states "Any preselection or return privileges would mean that we would have to raise the price of our books at least 50 percent over our list price."

The majority of the respondents to the LACAP questionnaire were of the view that any alternative to LACAP would cost more in staff time and money. It is a moot point how far the dealers can be relied upon to fulfill their commitments for standing or blanket orders in the absence of a traveling agent, and if they cannot, how the necessary supervision and encouragement are to be provided at a reasonable cost. SALALM has taken the sensible attitude that Latin American book dealers who are unfamiliar with the United States library market must be helped and informed to enable them to meet the libraries' needs. It has therefore set about organizing dealers' workshops; four were organized in connection with the Eighteenth

Seminar, held at Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, in 1973, and two more were held at Austin, Texas, the following year in connection with the Nineteenth Seminar. In addition, the SALALM Committee on Acquisitions has established a Library/Book Dealer/Publisher Relations Subcommittee to deal with policy and organization in this whole area. It is encouraging to note that the number of book dealers participating in the SALALM annual meetings has increased substantially in recent years. The OAS program for the training of Latin American librarians and such efforts as the establishment of the UNESCO Book Promotion Center in Bogotá, Colombia, may all help to improve the situation; but the books are disappearing *now*.

A critical appraisal of LACAP may give some pointers to the future, but this can only be tentative until more research has been done.

LACAP: A Tentative Critical Appraisal

A program such as LACAP cannot be assessed outside the context of the times in which it was born. In 1960 the librarians of the Latin American collections of the major United States libraries were becoming seriously concerned at their inability to discover what was actually being published in Latin America and to obtain the books when they were known to exist. Several attempts had been made to deal with the problem—under the Farmington Plan and through William H. Kurth's Cooperative Library Mission, for instance—and there had been a thorough discussion of the problems at the first four Seminars on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials. It was clear by 1960 that what was wanted was a cooperative program that would provide systematic coverage through a traveling agent and a blanket order procedure.

LACAP was an intelligent and courageous effort to answer that need. With the encouragement of SALALM, in which the most knowledgeable librarians of Latin American collections participated, Stechert-Hafner set out to obtain the books the libraries desperately needed, accepting the financial risk involved. And it succeeded in doing so; it not only obtained information on what was being published, it got the books to the libraries. Thanks to LACAP, at least 45,000 current titles of the years 1960–1970 are now housed in United States libraries and listed in the National Union Catalog. Besides enriching the Latin American collections of the participating libraries (and of the libraries which ordered from the LACAP lists), those titles are now part of the permanent record. They are the raw material of research. They can also be used by library technical services to check holdings and locate gaps in collections.

The enthusiasm with which the books were received and the congratulations conveyed to Stechert-Hafner and Coppola by SALALM during the first few years are a measure of the program's success. It got results, and it broke even financially within the first 3 years, as Stechert-Hafner had stipulated. Criticism did not arise until the libraries' book-hunger had been somewhat appeased. The fact that times change,

and that book dealers' attitudes and library acquisitions policies change with them, does not detract from the program's achievement. It was a milestone in cooperative acquisitions.

The LACAP lists and catalogs, and above all the books themselves, helped to improve bibliographic access to Latin American publications. Furthermore, LACAP was not just a passive instrument of procurement, a channel through which books could flow; it had an impact on the whole of the book trade in Latin America, a very important area for the United States owing to its proximity and the many ties existing within the hemisphere. This impact was felt in two main areas, that of publishing and that of the book trade.

As publishers became aware of the interest of United States libraries in their production, they were encouraged to publish more. Not only did they show a greater willingness to publish the current works of their national authors, they also reprinted older works that had gone out of print. The printings remained small—500 copies is still not unusual—but if a publisher could be sure of a market for, say, 10% of a printing, it was worth his while to go ahead, and many did so. Second, when the Latin American book dealers became aware of the United States market through LACAP, they became interested enough to list and offer their publications on a larger scale than ever before. Whatever the bibliographical shortcomings of those listings, they do provide an indication of what is currently being published, and that is important now that there are no more LACAP lists.

As has already been said, the results of the LACAP operations were hailed with enthusiasm by the libraries represented in SALALM. They were a vindication of the contention that the Latin American procurement problem could be solved by a traveling agent and a blanket order procedure. Since the receipts from each dealer were checked in New York and compared with his receipts for the previous year, it was possible to detect any falling off in performance; and thanks to the presence of the traveling agent on the spot, the causes of the trouble could be investigated and, as far as possible, removed. But by about 1968 the system was not working so well, and some desirable titles were missed. As the LACAP shipments became commonplace, the program ran into the same difficulties as other blanket plans before it. It was expected to do more than it had set out to do. In response to the urgings of SALALM, Stechert-Hafner made an effort to obtain official publications, for instance, and by 1968 the LACAP shipments included about 10% of such publications but these did not include all the desirable titles. LACAP was criticized. There were complaints about coverage and about administrative defects. As other dealers offered the same publications at lower prices, the LACAP prices came increasingly under fire, and the volume of returns increased. Lastly, competition from the dealers to whom it had shown the way became a serious problem. At the SALALM meeting held in Puebla, Mexico, in 1971, the representative of one of the libraries complained that LACAP had tried to be all things to all men and said it would do better to limit itself to where it could do a good job (30).

Complaints about coverage are based, at least in part, on the assumption that complete coverage is obtainable; but there is no completely satisfactory way of obtaining

really complete coverage of a vast, diverse, and difficult area such as Latin America, or even of a single subject. Nevertheless, the dream of complete coverage is rooted deep in the heart of many librarians. They are in good company. That dream was shared by the founders of the Farmington Plan, and Jerrold Orne, writing in 1960, saw nothing out of the way in United States libraries trying to acquire the entire output of world printing on a single copy basis (31). The librarians of Latin American collections are not immune from that trend. LACAP promised very wide coverage—the publications of all the countries of Latin American—and in the event, the coverage was less than complete. Disappointment inevitably followed.

If 100% coverage is unachievable, what is "satisfactory coverage?" In the case of a given library it might be defined as coverage of all the significant publications required by its users. Taking the library profiles as a measuring rod, how far did LACAP achieve satisfactory coverage? The answer varies. As Dr. Reichmann's consumer survey showed in 1969, one-third of the reporting libraries were fully satisfied, but two-thirds only partially so. No other survey of the same kind was made so it is impossible to compare those results with any of a more recent year. From the criticism voiced at the January 1971 meeting of the major LACAP participants at Tucson, it seems that the tide of dissatisfaction was rising. There were certainly gaps in some of the shipments. Titles that were known to exist were either not acquired by LACAP, in some cases, or not sent to all the libraries that wanted them, in others. However, the criticisms were partly due to a change in the atmosphere of Latin American acquisitions. At the inception of the program there were very few works by Latin American authors that did not fit one or other of the libraries' profiles. It was simply a matter of matching titles with the libraries' specifications. Nevertheless, mistakes were occasionally made, and toward the end of the program they became more numerous. There were some complaints about the inclusion of unwanted materials, but these could hardly be a serious problem since they could be returned. The quality of the paper on which the books were printed gave rise to complaints in some instances, but that was hardly LACAP's fault. Many Latin American books are printed on such bad paper that they must be microfilmed if they are to be preserved.

Some of the purely administrative difficulties, such as the duplication of LACAP numbers and the redispach of returned materials to the library that returned them, could have been avoided. The same could be said about the omission of desirable titles or the inclusion of unwanted materials in a library's consignment. All these are causes of loss of staff time, annoyance, and expense to libraries, but it is the frequency with which they occur that is the measure of their seriousness. If a program is so badly run that mistakes of this kind are constantly occurring, something is seriously wrong, but that was hardly the case. In any event, none of these defects is irremediable. They could all have been eliminated by the introduction of more efficient procedures.

The most constant and serious complaints relate to the LACAP prices. Two points must be made in this connection; one is the mark-up and the other is the pricing policy. The original mark-up pattern may have been a little rigid, but the new

management announced that it was introducing a different system in 1971, which might have proved more flexible. There was, in fact, a drop in the unit price of the LACAP books during the last year of the program, which may have been a reflection of the new policy.

The overall pricing policy is another matter. Many of the criticisms ignore the fact that in becoming a participant in LACAP a library accepted a realistic price structure for LACAP materials (20), as recommended by the Sixth Seminar. The program was based from the beginning on private enterprise encouraged by the profit motive (18). A commercial firm cannot be expected to act like a nonprofit organization. The LACAP prices were intended to cover the purchase price of the materials, the high overhead costs of the program, and a margin of profit for Stechert-Hafner. It was inevitable, in these circumstances, that the LACAP prices should be higher than dealers' prices. They included the cost of a service which the libraries wished to receive and were willing to pay for. In the first half of the 1960s they could well afford to do so, but rising prices and costs and a falling exchange rate for the dollar began to change the situation during the second half of the decade. Stechert-Hafner's own costs were rising at the same time, pushing its prices up. Some of the criticism might have been avoided if Stechert-Hafner had charged lower prices and added a service charge of so much per volume, but that would have prevented some libraries from becoming participants because such charges were unacceptable under their regulations. Some of the criticism might have been forestalled if Stechert-Hafner had taken the libraries more into its confidence where prices were concerned. On the other hand, if instead of purchasing LACAP titles direct from dealers and returning the LACAP duplicates, as some libraries did, they had accepted their part of the responsibility for what was supposed to be a cooperative program, LACAP might still be alive today.

Taking the question of prices in conjunction with the problem of coverage, one is forced to the conclusion that the solutions are mutually exclusive. There was really too much work for a single traveling agent, particularly when it came to collecting official publications. Ideally, there should have been one per country or group of countries, but the cost would have been prohibitive. In any event, whatever the defects of the LACAP prices and coverage, LACAP still provided more systematic coverage than could be achieved through buying trips at irregular intervals.

As has been noted above, Latin American dealers were on the whole reluctant to do business with foreign libraries in 1960 but their attitude changed as they realized the possibilities of the new market. As time went on, an increasing number of dealers offered their titles at prices with which LACAP could not compete. This competition, coming at a time when rising prices were placing a strain on library budgets, had an effect on the LACAP sales, which declined over the last few years of the program. It was therefore judged a bad risk by the new management.

It is interesting to note that, however critical of LACAP some of the participating libraries may have been, most of them rallied to its support when they heard of its threatened demise. There was a nearly 70% response to the questionnaire, and it is clear from the replies themselves that most of the participants were anxious to save

the program. Indeed, the questionnaire elicited a very remarkable statement of support for a program with which many had expressed varying degrees of dissatisfaction.

Could LACAP have survived? The answer is definitely in the affirmative, provided that certain conditions were fulfilled. First, there would have had to be a tightening up of the administration of the program to eliminate the defects discussed above. Second, the participating libraries would have had to support the program by accepting a policy of no returns and purchasing additional materials. Third, the libraries would have had to retain their faith in cooperative acquisition.

There would have been no difficulty in introducing administrative improvements in the New York office, given a thorough understanding of business methods and library needs. Whether much could have been done to tighten up the Latin American end and ensure closer supervision of the dealers and better performance from them is not so sure. It could not have been done without either recruiting additional agents—an expensive solution—or getting the libraries to share the responsibilities of supervision. That might have been done on a cooperative basis, but for how long could the libraries be expected to resist the temptation to buy from non-LACAP dealers at lower prices? Should they even try to resist the temptation, in the interest of providing their users with the greatest amount of resources at the lowest possible cost? In any event, no amount of support from libraries could eliminate dealer competition. Therefore, however willing the libraries might have been to accept additional materials and a policy of no returns, it is unlikely that LACAP could have held its head above the rising tide of competition. If it had been able to do so for a while, it would probably have run into another crisis in a few years' time, from which it might not have emerged victorious.

As to the third proviso, libraries are still digesting their experience with LACAP and with the Farmington Plan and asking themselves whether cooperative endeavors can work. There is a very definite reaction away from cooperative acquisition among some, at least, of the libraries concerned, and they are reluctant, at this time, to engage in even partial cooperative schemes. Whether this feeling of disenchantment is merely a passing reaction or has come to stay, it is as yet too early to tell; but there is at least a chance that in a few years' time the "do-it-yourself" technique will have proved equally disappointing, and probably more expensive in the long run. LACAP has left a gap that will be difficult to fill.

Appendix I

LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY MATERIALS ACQUIRED THROUGH LACAP

Figures for the LACAP acquisitions have been obtained from two sources, the records of the Seminars on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials (SALALM) and the files of the SALALM Advisory Committee to LACAP. Only the SALALM records give a country breakdown, which will be found in Table 1.

TABLE I
Latin American Imprints 1960-1969 Acquired by LACAP*

Country	1960		1961		1962		1963		1964	
	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Imprints	Cost (\$)
Argentina	100	290.75	614	2,357.75	590	2,674.75	860	3,012.05	1,215	4,094.80
Bolivia	103	381.35	182	823.25	165	639.75	142	708.75	245	1,023.25
Brazil	378	932.80	325	829.00	266	967.00	588	2,372.25	732	2,746.75
Chile	209	829.80	312	1,097.75	400	1,251.75	210	888.50	362	1,441.25
Colombia	20	79.75	239	1,025.50	212	802.50	257	1,073.75	510	2,148.75
Costa Rica	13	47.50	16	66.60	34	112.75	41	162.75	44	214.00
Cuba	2	8.75	8	37.75	22	102.50	50	259.00	43	218.50
Dominican Republic	13	54.50	6	33.00	26	95.50	19	73.50	9	36.00
Ecuador	128	375.24	185	525.25	119	369.00	122	301.50	297	859.75
Guatemala	28	116.50	42	130.25	49	196.25	71	259.50	149	781.75
Guyana	4	8.50	—	—	1	5.00	5	17.75	31	117.50
Haiti	15	54.75	25	83.50	30	109.75	18	51.00	35	96.75
Honduras	3	8.00	2	4.50	—	—	7	21.75	18	59.72
Jamaica	10	21.25	15	31.25	7	27.00	15	54.75	58	126.00
Mexico	225	793.90	247	997.25	279	1,172.25	209	1,247.50	465	2,241.50
Nicaragua	16	73.15	35	121.00	16	78.25	13	35.25	14	47.50
Panama	42	149.90	36	108.75	38	100.00	35	87.75	75	212.25
Paraguay	12	45.00	73	236.25	56	223.00	35	133.25	85	346.75
Peru	213	613.95	259	853.97	150	635.85	129	618.25	193	880.75
Puerto Rico	12	47.30	25	84.00	32	136.00	37	179.75	28	102.00
El Salvador	27	69.65	42	106.50	36	80.75	24	54.50	21	53.50
Surinam	3	5.25	7	10.50	7	19.50	6	22.00	14	36.00
Trinidad and Tobago	—	—	7	12.00	6	12.00	—	—	2	5.75
Uruguay	12	77.50	271	825.75	170	520.25	180	610.50	221	695.00
Venezuela	34	190.50	285	1,184.50	205	632.35	183	664.75	443	1,528.00
Total	1,622	5,275.54	3,258	11,585.82	3,016	10,963.70	3,256	12,910.30	5,309	20,113.77

Country	1965		1966		1967		1968		1969	
	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Imprints	Cost (\$)
Argentina	737	2,559.68	952	3,799.75	1,534	6,135.50	1,613	6,821.00	1,312	7,229.00
Bolivia	115	542.50	149	869.00	136	673.25	148	865.00	115	634.75
Brazil	645	2,190.75	722	3,889.75	870	5,284.00	826	7,558.00	715	6,396.75
Chile	246	1,495.74	176	1,189.00	157	901.75	137	1,383.00	128	1,342.25
Colombia	198	935.50	262	1,318.75	602	3,083.50	553	3,089.00	389	2,510.00
Costa Rica	14	62.50	12	61.50	2	20.00	1	7.00	—	—
Cuba	8	34.75	—	—	1	2.00	—	—	—	—
Dominican Republic	1	1.50	13	55.50	1	2.50	17	96.00	10	69.00
Ecuador	121	347.75	79	236.25	86	289.25	112	544.00	175	1,175.00
Guatemala	164	844.50	108	535.15	116	521.00	103	493.00	56	338.75
Guyana	—	—	1	6.00	3	20.00	—	—	—	—
Haiti	11	44.25	20	62.75	34	102.25	17	128.00	7	24.25
Honduras	8	22.00	7	28.50	17	54.50	17	58.00	24	117.50
Jamaica	3	8.25	6	15.50	10	26.75	7	17.00	4	21.25
Mexico	436	1,939.00	480	2,091.75	520	2,360.55	550	2,326.00	467	2,343.25
Nicaragua	—	—	—	—	6	37.00	37	191.00	32	198.00
Panama	19	58.00	32	93.50	22	90.25	12	45.00	3	14.50
Paraguay	47	156.75	36	104.25	56	302.30	53	319.00	59	364.75
Peru	98	450.75	136	753.50	129	755.25	89	610.00	94	847.00
Puerto Rico	27	112.25	33	187.50	43	260.25	62	424.00	28	203.50
El Salvador	13	27.00	5	11.00	—	—	—	—	13	104.75
Surinam	2	4.50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Trinidad and Tobago	2	3.00	2	5.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
Uruguay	164	520.50	167	691.75	211	936.25	174	805.00	187	1,132.50
Venezuela	251	964.15	317	1,487.75	478	2,297.75	219	1,063.00	86	693.50
Total	3,330	13,325.57	3,715	17,413.40	5,033	24,155.85	4,747	26,849.00	3,905*	25,762.75*

*Source: *Final Report and Working Papers of XI through XVI SALALM*, reproduced with the permission of the executive secretary of SALALM.

*Corrected to 3,966 and \$25,820.25 in the Advisory Committee's files.

TABLE 2
Imprints and Cost for 1971 and 1972

Year	Total imprints	Cost (\$)
1970	3,725	25,962.00
1971	2,410	15,386.00 ^a

^aAs of May 1972.

No country-by-country breakdown is available for the 1971 and 1972 imprints, but the totals in Table 2 were provided by the SALALM Advisory Committee to LACAP.

It has not been possible to obtain any figures for the 1971 imprints that arrived after May 1972, or for any 1972 titles included in the shipments up to the end of the phasing-out period (March 1973). The average number of imprints per year for the 11-year period 1960–1970 is 3,725 on the basis of the actual figures. Allowing for retrospective buying, it may be estimated at about 4,000 imprints a year. The available figures are given in Table 3.

Allowing about 2,000 as a conservative estimate for the imprints received after May 1972, there are about 45,000 LACAP imprints in the participating libraries.

TABLE 3
LACAP Acquisitions: Number of Imprints, Total Cost, and Unit Cost, 1960–1971^a

Year	Imprints	Cost (\$)	Unit cost (\$)
1960	1,622	5,275.54	3.25
1961	3,258	11,585.82	3.55
1962	3,016	10,963.70	3.63
1963	3,256	12,910.30	3.96
1964	5,309	20,113.77	3.78
1965	3,330	13,325.57	4.00
1966	3,715	17,413.40	4.68
1967	5,033	24,155.85	4.79
1968	4,747	26,849.00	5.69
1969	3,966	25,820.25	6.05
1970	3,725	25,962.00	6.96
1971	2,410	15,386.00	6.38
Total	43,387	209,703.20	

^aSource: For the 1960–1968 imprints, the *Final Report and Working Papers of XI through XVI SALALM*. For the 1969–1971 imprints, the files of the SALALM Advisory Committee to LACAP. The unit costs were computed on the basis of the figures given.

As has been said in the body of this article, one of the causes of LACAP's demise was Stechert-Hafner's over-liberal policy with regard to returns. The percentage varied being 5.6 in 1970 and averaged about 9% from 1965 through October 1972. No figures for returns are available for the years 1960-1964. They were probably negligible, for the program had only just got under way; the gaps in library collections were greater than they were toward the end of the program, and there was little or no competition from other dealers. The available figures are to be found in Table 4.

TABLE 4
Returns on LACAP Shipments^a

Year	Percentage
1965	8.5
1966	10.6
1967	8.0
1968	9.0
1969	7.0
1970	5.6
1971	11.7
1972 ^b	13.4

^aSource: Files of the SALALM Advisory Committee to LACAP.

^bFigure for the first 10 months of 1972 only.

It is noteworthy that the percentage of returns was rising rapidly during the last 3 years of the program, when the impact of the internal and external factors that brought about its termination was being felt. There are no figures for the returns in 1973, which was the phasing-out period. Shipments were still being made to libraries up to April 1973, and as returns were accepted even beyond the deadline of June 1973,* returns may well have exceeded sales in that year. However, even if a figure could be arrived at, it would be pointless to include it in the figures on which the average for the operating years of the program is based.

Appendix II

LACAP: PARTICIPATING LIBRARIES, 1960-1972

The following libraries were all participants in LACAP in the course of the program. The three original participants—the Library of Congress, the New York

* Letter from Stechert-Hafner to the LACAP participants dated February 28, 1973. Files of the Advisory Committee

Public Library, and the University of Texas—remained in the program from start to finish. Of those that joined later, some withdrew for budgetary and other reasons. There were forty-three participants at the end of 1972. They are marked with an asterisk, and those that responded to the LACAP questionnaire in November 1972 are marked "R."

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. *Baker and McKenzie, Chicago | R |
| 2. Ball State Teachers College, Indiana | |
| 3. *Boston Public Library | |
| 4. Brandeis University | |
| 5. *California State College at Fullerton | |
| 6. *Carleton University, Ottawa | R |
| 7. *Catholic University of Puerto Rico | |
| 8. *Central University Library, Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic | |
| 9. *College of the Virgin Islands | R |
| 10. *Columbia University | R |
| 11. *Cornell University | R |
| 12. Creighton University, Omaha | |
| 13. Duke University | |
| 14. *Florida Presbyterian College | |
| 15. *Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. | |
| 16. Institut Latinoaméricain St. Gall, Switzerland | |
| 17. Institute of Asian and Economic Affairs, Tokyo | |
| 18. *Instituto Nacional de Tecnología, Buenos Aires | |
| 19. *Joint University Libraries, Nashville | R |
| 20. *Library of Congress | R |
| 21. *Loyola University, Chicago | |
| 22. *McGill University, Montreal | R |
| 23. *Memphis State University | |
| 24. Mexico City College | |
| 25. Michigan State University | |
| 26. National Agricultural Library | |
| 27. *National Library of Australia | R |
| 28. *National Library of Medicine | R |
| 29. *New York Public Library | R |
| 30. *New York University, School of Law Library | |
| 31. Ohio State University, Columbus | |
| 32. Pennsylvania State University | |
| 33. St. Louis University, Missouri | |
| 34. *San Diego State College, California | |
| 35. *Slippery Rock State College, Pennsylvania | R |
| 36. *Southern Illinois University | R |
| 37. Southern Methodist University, Dallas | |
| 38. *Stanford University, California | R |
| 39. *State University of New York, Binghamton | R |
| 40. State University of New York, Buffalo | |
| 41. *Tulane University | R |
| 42. Universidad del Valle, Cali, Colombia | |
| 43. University of Alberta, Canada | |
| 44. University of Arizona, Tucson | |
| 45. University of California, Berkeley, Bancroft Library | |

46.	University of California, Berkeley, General Library	
47.	*University of California, Los Angeles	R
48.	*University of California, Riverside	R
49.	*University of California, Santa Barbara	
50.	University of Connecticut	
51.	*University of Essex, England	R
52.	*University of Florida, Gainesville	R
53.	*University of Georgia	R
54.	*University of Illinois, Urbana	R
55.	*University of Iowa	R
56.	*University of Kansas	R
57.	University of Massachusetts	
58.	*University of Miami, Florida	
59.	University of North Carolina	
60.	University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	
61.	University of Sheffield, England	
62.	University of Southern California	
63.	*University of Texas	
64.	University of Toronto, Canada	
65.	University of Virginia	
66.	*University of Wisconsin, Madison, Memorial Library	R
67.	University of Wisconsin, Madison, Land Tenure Center	
68.	*University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	R
69.	*Washington State University, Pullman	R
70.	*Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri	R
71.	*West Georgia College	
72.	Yale University	

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on microfiche from Microcard Editions, Englewood, Colorado, which has also published the reports and papers of the Tenth, and the Twelfth to the Fifteenth Seminars.

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LIBRARY COOPERATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Introduction

The study of library cooperation is made up of three parts: the *organizations* that promote or administer cooperative activities, the *services* provided by cooperative action, and the *evaluation* of the cooperative contribution to librarianship.

The importance of organizations to library cooperation cannot be overstated. In the language of the social psychology of organizations, there is a close relationship between a "structure and its supporting environment" (1). As applied to libraries, the environment supplies the ever-increasing demand for services, which oftentimes leads to the creation of organizations that administer the services demanded. Such administering organizations have been referred to as "systems" or "consortia."

Apparently, the custom is now being established of referring to public library cooperatives as systems, and to those formed by academic libraries as consortia. As used here, the term "cooperative" is meant to include both types.

The main business of some library organizations is to promote *interpersonal* cooperation (as contrasted with *interlibrary* cooperation), and these are known as library associations. The chief difference between library associations and library cooperatives lies precisely in the act of *administering* a cooperative activity, which library associations normally avoid. Interlibrary loans, joint purchasing, and centralized processing, for example, are normally not administered by library associations.

Most writers assume that the definition of cooperation is implicit in the treatment they accord the subject. This avoidance of a definition serves to leave unanswered the scope of cooperation, and in the hands of some authorities, cooperation becomes coterminous with librarianship. Two examples will illustrate the importance of definition. Is a metropolitan library and its branches the proper subject of coop-

eration? Is the recently established National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging in the Library of Congress within the scope of cooperation?

As used here, library cooperation is the

furthering of mutually advantageous projects or programs, agreed to by librarians or laymen, who work towards common goals, most often within organizations; these persons are empowered to make commitments on behalf of their libraries or library associations, and except for these commitments there are no administrative or fiscal relations between these persons (2).

By the terms of this definition, a metropolitan public library and its branches are outside the boundaries of library cooperation. On the other hand, the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NPAC) requires certain commitments on the part of participating libraries, and this fixes it as a cooperative project.

With respect to the treatment of library cooperation that follows, the approach is analytical in the main, rather than descriptive. For a thorough descriptive account, the reader is referred to the essay by Weber and Lynden in the volume on inter-library communications edited by Joseph Becker (3). A brief historical account (by Kaplan) appeared in the *International Library Review* (2). Both of these essays contain useful bibliographical references.

The Typology of Library Organizations in the Service of Cooperation

LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

One of the main objectives of a library association is to provide opportunities for *interpersonal* cooperation, which on occasion leads to a cooperative project. One example of this is the discussion within several associations that ultimately led to the formation of the U.S. Book Exchange.

The Association of Research Libraries (ARL) has been the breeding ground for a number of cooperative activities, one example of which is the large-scale program of microfilming foreign newspapers, the administration of which was turned over to the Center for Research Libraries. On the other hand, when the Farmington Plan machinery was created, the administration stayed within the association.

In the early years of the ARL there was considerable opposition to the administering of projects, but in the 1960s, when a full-time executive secretary was employed, the complaints subsided. Even so, the main objective of the association is to provide an opportunity for exchange of ideas, the execution of which, it is hoped, can be left to others (4).

Like the ARL, other library associations have on occasion administered cooperative projects; the Association of College and Research Libraries, for example, sponsored building institutes for a number of years, and the Medical Library Association still coordinates the exchange of publications. Nevertheless, such activities constitute only a minor part of their total program.

Library associations have had a powerful influence in promoting library cooperation. In fact, it can be truly said that the outstanding successes of cooperation—bibliographic access, interlibrary lending codes, the establishment of performance standards, and the cooperative delivery of catalog copy—owe a great deal to the work of librarians within their associations.

LIBRARY COOPERATIVES

Public library systems are either *consolidated* or *federated*. When a single library board is the sole library governing authority, the system is referred to as consolidated. When the local library boards remain responsible for local affairs, but defer to a separate board in matters relating to the system, the term used to describe the system is federated.

Some authorities identify a third type in which the cooperating libraries contract for specific services. It is doubtful whether these should be regarded as systems. According to *Public Library Systems in the United States* (5), about 56% of public library systems were established between 1945 and 1964, about two-thirds serve an area of less than 1,500 square miles and serve fewer than 100,000 persons, and more than two-thirds of these systems serve a population with a significant rural element. Federated systems comprise 43% of the total, and these, more often than the consolidated type, serve large populations.

Most authorities are agreed that a service area ought to comprise more than 100,000 persons, and experience teaches that those systems with a strong rural element provide less satisfactory service than do systems serving a strong suburban element. Systems financed exclusively by one or more counties (the majority of systems are so financed) are less fortunate than systems deriving support from a combination of governmental units.

According to Nelson Associates, the chief accomplishments of public library systems were:

- Access (greater access to better resources)
- Collections (more books per capita)
- Circulation (greater circulation per capita)
- Funding (stimulation of local and state funding)
- Reference (improved reference collections)

To librarians serving within systems, the most appreciated advantages were larger collections, the availability of professional advice, and contacts with other librarians in the system.

Of significance to the study of academic library consortia was the publication in 1972 of the *Directory of Academic Library Consortia*, compiled by Diana Delanoy and Carlos Cuadra under a grant made by the U.S. Office of Education. A supplement was issued in 1973. In the original volume, 125 consortia are included that meet these tests: they have two or more members, their activities extend beyond traditional interlibrary loans, and a majority of the members serve academic institutions.

From an inspection of the *Directory* it is clear that most of the academic library consortia are modestly financed; in fact 54% had no formal budget. Only 15% had more than twenty members, whereas 70% had ten or fewer members. The great majority of these consortia had been established in the 1960s, which reflected the availability of federal funds. In the absence of funds from external sources, a number of these consortia may disappear.

According to Cuadra (6), the services most often given by consortia are reciprocal borrowing, a more liberal interlibrary loan policy than is found in the national code, union catalogs or union lists, and photocopying.

Library cooperatives (both public and academic) sometimes are created to serve but a single purpose (as when a centralized processing unit or a storage library is established), but the majority provide a variety of services. These services are discussed in the section that follows.

Still another classification of cooperatives relates to the direction in which the services flow. In some, the flow is *unidirectional*; in others, *bidirectional*; and there can be a third type in which the flow is *multidirectional*.

An example of a unidirectional flow is a headquarters library in a public library system which delivers a variety of services to the member libraries, including processing, bookmobiles, and professional consultation. An example of this type serving academic libraries is the Associated Colleges of the Midwest which maintains a central lending bank of microfilm copies of periodicals.

Where a cooperative is made up of members who permit reciprocal borrowing, the flow of service is bidirectional. A more sophisticated example of a bidirectional flow is the Ohio College Library Center to which the members contribute catalog copy, and from which center, in return, they obtain catalog copy stored in a computer-based data bank.

A multidirectional flow of services could result from the establishment of a computer-based library information network. In such a network there could be a number of nodes, each with a computer and a data bank. These nodes would provide information to each other via terminals, and in addition they could transmit information to local libraries either via the mails or over low-cost communication lines. In addition to the nodes, there could be a central switching agency where information would be maintained on computer programs, the subject specialties of the nodes, and the names of persons with special competence (7).

The Methodology of Cooperative Services

ACQUISITIONS

Cooperative acquisitions projects can be either centralized or decentralized. When the materials are shelved in a single library, the cooperative project is said to be centralized. Decentralization is the term employed when the materials are distributed among the cooperating libraries.

With centralization, the expectation is that the materials acquired will be paid for from a central treasury as is true, for example, of most purchases made by the Center for Research Libraries. However, when less than the entire membership makes a supplementary purchase, the funds employed do not come from the central treasury.

When librarians choose decentralization, they must then decide whether the objective is to provide several copies or whether the objective is (through some logical plan of distribution, such as subject specialities) to avoid duplication.

In the years following 1945, three continuing plans of decentralization of acquisitions were inaugurated. These were the Farmington Plan, the Latin American Co-operative Acquisitions Project (LACAP), and the "PL 480" materials. In practice, no one of these served to avoid duplication. PL 480 shipments were clearly intended to spread copies among the various regions of the United States, and as for LACAP, the commercial importing firm that made the plan possible would not have offered its services if the objective had been to distribute single copies. With respect to the Farmington Plan, at the beginning a few librarians viewed it as a means of avoiding duplication, but the stress was not on abstinence but on the need to bring in books that had been overlooked (8). A decade later, when surveying the Farmington Plan, Vosper urged the participants to use the Farmington dealers as sources of additional copies (9).

In the 1970s, when the financial picture changed for the worse, librarians were forced to ask themselves whether any plan of acquisitions that did not encourage economy could be justified. To this question only a provisional answer could be given. Even without the Farmington Plan and LACAP, it was still possible to import a reasonable amount of materials; furthermore, the inauguration within the Library of Congress of NPAC provided the kind of acquisitions program that Farmington had originally intended.

But the attitude toward materials coming from the PL 480 countries was different in that without the help of the Library of Congress, few publications could be imported. Even when Indonesia, for example, was dropped from the list of PL 480 countries, the participating libraries formed a separate cooperative, and with the aid of the Library of Congress made arrangements for continuing shipments.

When the Farmington Plan was inaugurated, some writers greeted it as an example of distribution by subject specialization. While it is true that subject strength was taken into account, there was no obligation to abstain from purchasing in any subject. Thus it can still be said that any plan of distribution based on subject specialities that assumes abstinence is not likely to be acceptable unless the circumstances are exceptional.

These exceptional circumstances are as follows: the cooperating libraries must be able to identify subjects in which they have no competing interests; the libraries involved must be few in number, and in order to expedite interlibrary loans they must be located in close proximity to each other. Among the examples that fit this prescription are the agreements made by Duke and the University of North Carolina.

Both the centralized and the decentralized mode of operation have natural ad-

vantages, depending upon the circumstances. Given a body of materials used relatively infrequently, the advantage lies with centralization. Furthermore, when the central agency is a "neutral" library, the task of persuading readers to accept the loss of immediate physical access is made easier.

Regional schemes of decentralization (as contrasted with local ones) involving a large variety of special subjects have not proven feasible. More than two decades ago one such attempt was made in the Pacific Northwest, but little came of this effort.

On the other hand, few examples can be found of centralized acquisitions. The two best known are the Center for Research Libraries and the Hampshire Inter-Library Center. The membership of the former is national in scope, while the latter is made up of libraries located in Hampshire County, Massachusetts. An attempt was made in the 1950s to establish a regional storage library in the Northeast (not to be confused with the New England Deposit Library), but without success. In the *Directory of Academic Library Consortia* there is a list of cooperatives which either are planning or have already established a central resource or storage center.

EXCHANGES

For many years exchanges remained uncoordinated, with lists of available material being sent from library to library. One of the earliest examples of a move toward coordination is the exchange system developed by the Medical Library Association, in which the association serves as a switching center (10).

A more elaborate plan of coordination was created with the establishment of the United States Book Exchange (USBE), a privately supported organization that maintains a collection of several million periodical issues. Among the services performed by the USBE are searches against want lists as well as lists of available material.

In the years when labor costs were low, libraries could afford to spend considerable time with exchange offers, but now that labor costs are more significant the kinds of services offered by the Medical Library Association and the USBE make for greater economy. Even so, the USBE has experienced difficult times, depending as it mainly does on fees paid in return for specific services. Though these services are highly appreciated, there is no assurance that the USBE can continue without subsidies (11).

THE DELIVERY OF CATALOG COPY

There are two periods to be distinguished in the history of the delivery of catalog copy, the first being the years 1910–1965 and the second being the years since 1965. It was in the second period that the Library of Congress organized NPAC, which some refer to as Shared Cataloging.

Most writers refer to the first period as the period of "cooperative" cataloging, while the method employed in the second is said to be "centralized." So employed,

the terms "cooperative" and "centralized" are misleading. Even in the period 1910–1965, American libraries contributed copy for only 14% of the cards printed by the Library of Congress (12). With the inauguration of NPAC, the situation changed dramatically, but even with the change, the Library of Congress did not become the sole source of catalog copy; that is, for books coming from non-NPAC countries, American libraries are still supplying copy to the National Union Catalog, and, furthermore, much copy is being prepared for the Library of Congress in offices abroad (referred to as Shared Cataloging).

What is also remarkable is the recent creation of the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC), a computer-based MARC II data bank that not only provides a central source of copy, but also receives into its data bank copy supplied by its member libraries. The success of this venture is apparent in the number of cooperatives that plan to tie into the OCLC data base, or to have it replicated. An important feature of OCLC is its expeditious production and delivery of catalog cards.

The prevalence of central processing within public library systems in which catalog cards are produced is additional evidence that the card delivery system of the Library of Congress is regarded by many to be too slow and too expensive.

Among research libraries, NPAC has brought about a significant decrease in the proportion of "original" cataloging. In the period immediately preceding the inauguration of NPAC, American research libraries on the average were cataloging about 50% of their books without the aid of externally supplied copy (13). The improvement brought about by NPAC can be seen in the article by Ishimoto which indicates that in a number of research libraries the percentage of original cataloging has dropped to 30% or less (14).

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL AND PHYSICAL ACCESS

Thomson's study of interlibrary loans (1970) documented the importance of the regional approach to bibliographical and physical access. According to Thomson, in their requests for loans sent to major academic libraries, most libraries experienced a higher rate of success within their own state or within their immediate region. Only the most prestigious libraries could successfully borrow regardless of the region in which they were located (15).

This being true, it becomes clear why the state and regional approach to bibliographical and physical access is essential. All else being equal, a library that used the services of a regional bibliographical center was most likely to enjoy a high rate of success in borrowing.

Two developments mark the great improvement in bibliographical and physical access in the past 20 years. On the national front the most exciting event was the publication in book catalog form of the *National Union Catalog*. For pre-1956 imprints, the task has not yet been finished (1974). Meanwhile the current imprints are being entered to an extent never before experienced; in each region at least one library is now reporting its total current receipts to the nation's union catalog.

From Merritt's study (published 1942) (16), we learned that the *National Union*

Catalog contained no more than one-half of the titles owned by American libraries. A study parallel to Merritt's ought to be conducted when publication of the pre-1956 imprints has been concluded; until such a study is made we will not know the gap between what has been recorded and the percentage of titles yet omitted from the nation's bibliographical record.

A new approach to interlibrary loans made its appearance in 1968 with the adoption of both a national and a regional code, the latter intended to liberalize the restrictions of the former. Among the chief beneficiaries of the regional code were undergraduates in colleges, especially in states such as Ohio, Minnesota, and Wisconsin where newly formed cooperatives raised the level of interlibrary loan service (17).

Among public libraries the inauguration of systems were a boon to interlibrary loans, and in some states (such as New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Wisconsin) large resource libraries were reimbursed with public funds in return for opening their collections via interlibrary loans to public library users.

Meanwhile, among research libraries the belief was growing that the burden of interlibrary loans was falling too heavily on large libraries, among which the cost of providing the service was proving intolerable. In these circumstances it was inevitable that a plan would be brought forward recommending that the federal government reimburse these libraries in recognition of their services to the nation's libraries (18).

STORAGE CENTERS

The best known storage centers are the Center for Research Libraries, the Hampshire Inter-Library Center, and the New England Deposit Library. Each represents a different approach to the problem of central storage.

In the New England Deposit Library each participant pays for the space it occupies, and each keeps its books separate from the others. As a result, no attempt is made to weed out duplicates (19). In the two other storage centers the collections are interfiled and duplicates are disposed of (20). The group that constitutes the Center for Research Libraries occupies a building separate from any other, whereas the Hampshire group makes use of space provided in the library of one of its members.

About 25% of academic library consortia have introduced, or plan to introduce, central storage facilities. One writer (21) has argued that such facilities are a disappointment because the economies expected are not fully realized. About this there can be little doubt, but no student of central storage has attempted an in-depth study to show the difference in cost between central storage and storage provided by individual libraries.

Metcalf claimed that the inconveniences to his readers at Harvard were few, that materials sent to storage could be cataloged less expensively, and that the construction cost of their storage library was much less than the cost of an equal amount of space in a conventional library.

The Evaluation of Cooperative Services

In the sections that follow a selection of studies are reviewed that point to soft spots in the service record of cooperation. A more general evaluation of cooperation, by objectives and by functions, then brings this essay to a close.

STUDIES RELATING TO ACQUISITIONS

In a study published in 1945, Williams demonstrated the need for the proposed Farmington Plan. Of the books published in eight foreign countries, sixty North American research libraries had acquired only 39%, and from some of these countries less than 25% had been imported. Furthermore, most of the copies of these titles could be found only in the District of Columbia or in the Northeast (22). Unfortunately, the Farmington Plan, while it did improve upon the distribution of *titles*, did little to improve the regional distribution of *copies*.

When, after a decade of experience, Vosper surveyed the Farmington Plan, he discovered that of the Farmington receipts 39% were owned only by the Farmington libraries; in other words, most of those books would otherwise not have been available. But Vosper, in addition, properly declared that the Farmington dealers ought to have been used to bring in extra copies (9).

Vosper also reported on complaints commonly expressed by the participating libraries, which led one observer to remark, after the plan was dismantled, that the "cumbersome administration, the inevitable duplication and the limited scope of the program created more trouble than it was worth" (23). This criticism is reminiscent of a broken marriage—the recriminations rise to a peak after the break has become inevitable.

Those who promoted the Farmington Plan understood very well that centralization of the acquisitions would bring about fewer complications, just as they understood that the plan was too limited in scope, but to win acceptance, decentralization and delimitation could not be avoided. Despite the unfortunate ground rules, the Farmington Plan endured for more than 20 years and did not disappear until after NPAC was firmly established.

Neither LACAP (now dismantled) nor PL 480 (slowly disappearing) has been subjected to surveys of the kind performed by Vosper on the Farmington Plan. LACAP brought in only a modest amount of material, but because the publications came through a single dealer, the complications of the Farmington Plan were avoided. PL 480 brought its own brand of complications in that each participant must keep almost everything, or else spend a frightful number of hours in discarding what is really not essential.

Despite the defects enumerated, these acquisitions projects do not die easily. Farmington ran concurrently with NPAC for 7 years; LACAP might have remained a viable operation except for a change in management; and PL 480 will continue, despite sizable local expenditures in space and labor, so long as the foreign currencies that support the program remain available.

In 1968 there appeared a study by Gordon Williams (24) analyzing the cost of owning serials as compared with borrowing them from a periodicals lending bank. As is widely understood, in a research library only a small percentage of serials are consulted in any one year. Realizing this, Williams demonstrated that substantial savings could be realized if a central periodicals lending bank were created as a joint acquisitions program of the Center for Research Libraries.

Though there was much sentiment in favor of a national serials lending bank, that is, one that would be supported by federal funds, the decision to create a lending bank within the Center for Research Libraries was made final when the Carnegie Corporation gave \$450,000 in support of a 5-year experimental program.

STUDIES RELATING TO PHYSICAL ACCESS

Thomson's study (15) revealed that of the requests for loans received by major academic libraries, about 64% were filled. Palmour's investigation, which included a larger number of academic libraries, indicated that 71% of the requests were filled (25).

Both studies reveal that most libraries are more successful in obtaining loans when their requests are sent to libraries within their state or region. Apparently, the chief device that can be used in refusing to make a loan is to declare the title wanted to be "noncirculating," and Thomson revealed that this explanation was used most frequently in connection with requests coming from outside the state or region. Only the most prestigious libraries could normally ignore regional boundaries.

The wider the area into which borrowing libraries send out their requests, the greater is the percentage of books described as "noncirculating." Thus, among the requests filtered by the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center, 20% were said to be noncirculating. This is to be compared with 3% in the Ohio network (RAILS) and with 6.6% in the Minnesota network known as MINITEX. The parallel figures nationwide were 31% according to Thomson and 15.7% according to Palmour.

It is not surprising, then, that the networks within the states fill a larger percentage of requests for loans than do the nation's libraries as a whole. Compared to Palmour's overall average of 71%, RAILS (academic borrowers only) filled 83% while MINITEX (academic and public) filled 80%. An exception to the above is NYSILL in New York State which in 1972-1973 filled only 59%. In New York the requests flow through a hierarchical system of libraries, but a shortage of funding does not permit the New York State library to refer a request to more than one resource library in the hierarchy.

Geographical considerations alone do not explain why state networks such as those in Ohio, Minnesota, and Wisconsin fill a larger percentage of requests for loans. Undoubtedly, a contributing factor is the central lending units serving RAILS, MINITEX and WILS (Wisconsin Interlibrary Loan Service) which are proud of their service record. Thomson found the same to be true elsewhere; that is, the greatest success among comparable libraries was experienced by those that filtered

their requests through regional bibliographic centers where, among other services, citations were verified when necessary (26).

One of the encouraging results of the formation of regional or state lending networks is the increased availability of books to undergraduates in academic institutions. In the Ohio network, for example, undergraduates were not discouraged from making requests, and their rate of success was equal to that enjoyed by their professors (27).

On the national scene, as the financial situation worsened for research libraries, there arose a greater resistance to shouldering so great a proportion of the lending burden. Palmour's study included figures on the cost of handling interlibrary loans, which served as a warning that research libraries would soon ask for remuneration. This was reflected in the later statement by Stevens (18) recommending a hierarchy within which libraries would be reimbursed for their contributions to a national network of interlibrary lending. Within this network some libraries would serve as regional bibliographic centers, the whole of which would be supported by federal funding. Should these arrangements come to pass, the percentage of requests filled will rise above the existing national average.

STUDIES RELATING TO BIBLIOGRAPHIC ACCESS AND TO REGIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHIC CENTERS

No investigation has been made of the *National Union Catalog* similar to the one conducted about 1940 by Le Roy Merritt (16). Even though the *National Union Catalog* now includes a greater proportion of both titles and copies owned by American libraries, regional union catalogs remain essential. For this reason we are fortunate to have available a number of studies analyzing the work done by regional bibliographic centers (28). Even among the largest of these, conditions require improvement: there is a large backlog of unfiled and uncoded cards, and funding is penurious (as one writer put it, the typical center is in the position of begging alms from "indulgent benefactors who believe in its essential virtue but give only enough to keep it barely alive").

Still other unfavorable conditions can be said to prevail. In some regions the union catalog contains no record of the holdings of major libraries, and judging from some of these studies, the regional centers have not all formulated precise rules as to the types of material wanted in their union catalogs.

These conditions can be improved with time and money, and there are signs of progress; in some regions support of the bibliographic centers is now coming from state agencies instead of from the individual libraries. In some, a process of rationalization with respect to the union catalog is underway.

In view of the difficulties encountered by regional bibliographic centers in support of the interlibrary loan function, it seems ironic to give serious consideration to other functions they might perform. Among those that have been recommended are these: promote regional acquisitions by specialization (hopeless?); facilitate cooperative purchases and exchanges (doubtful?); index periodicals cooperatively (un-

exciting?); and organize a computer-based card catalog production service (excellent).

STUDIES RELATING TO THE DELIVERY OF CATALOG COPY

Dawson in 1957 (29) demonstrated that in major libraries, 52% of their cataloging was performed with the aid of externally supplied copy, and that another 8% had been available but was not used. In 1966, Dawson conducted a similar study for the Association of Research Libraries [described by Skipper (13)], the results of which were no different from those determined earlier.

Dawson's second study was helpful in persuading the U.S. Congress to pass the legislation that led to NPAC. Since then a significant improvement has come about, but the situation is not yet unblemished. For example, the suspicion still remains that local catalogers are not making full use of the copy made available externally.

Ishimoto (14) has demonstrated the remarkable upswing in the availability and use of catalog copy provided externally, but some part of this improvement has been made possible by the practice of deferring cataloging for 6 months or longer while awaiting copy from the Library of Congress. The deferral of cataloging does not necessarily mean that the reader is meanwhile deprived of the book, but it does mean that the reader's bibliographic access to the book is limited.

An inspection of the list of countries whose books are given NPAC priority in cataloging reveals serious omissions, namely, South and Central America, Africa (with the exception of South Africa), and China. A recent study of the cataloging of Chinese books in several major libraries revealed that external copy was used in the cataloging of only 22% (30). Improvements in the coverage of NPAC must await additional funding by the U.S. Congress.

STUDIES RELATING TO ACADEMIC LIBRARY CONSORTIA

Except for the descriptive details it provides, the *Directory of Academic Library Consortia* cannot rightfully be included among examples of evaluative studies. From this directory, however, it is possible to make several deductions. In most of these, an outstandingly strong library is lacking, and in general, the financial and material resources available to them are painfully limited. This is unfortunate because one of the paradoxes of cooperation is that the wealthier the participants, the greater is the probable pay-off.

Some critics claim that when little money is available, the money is better spent at home. This, however, depends upon the type of activity into which the cooperative enters; reciprocal borrowing, for example, costs little, and can make a difference.

Cuadra (6) has remarked upon the evaluative techniques employed by academic library consortia, few of which, in his opinion, are trustworthy. Most frequently employed was the method of informal feedback, and only among consortia employing large-scale computer-based activities was there a tendency to employ the more formal evaluative techniques.

STUDIES RELATING TO PUBLIC LIBRARY SYSTEMS

What Cuadra has said about the evaluative techniques employed by academic library consortia can also be said about those used by public library systems.

Fortunately, even though eschewing the formal evaluative techniques, the publication in 1969 of *Public Library Systems in the United States* made available an important body of information (5). According to the authors of this study, the problems of public library systems (in part) were these: in too many instances the systems comprise only weak libraries; the economics of centralized processing are too often overlooked or foiled; many poverty-stricken areas are served poorly or are still without any service at all; and few systems have given much thought to providing help to school libraries. On this last point another commentator said at a conference in 1969 that, "Mostly I find school libraries are not a part of a statewide network of interlibrary loan service" (31).

Another insight into the unfinished business of public library systems can be gleaned from the long-range plans published in the several states. In Massachusetts they stressed programs and materials that would make possible better service to low-income families and that would bring libraries up to systems standards (32). In Pennsylvania the long-range program included bringing systems libraries up to standards, giving greater support to metropolitan libraries serving as regional resource centers, and establishing regional processing and bibliographical centers (33).

STUDIES RELATING TO CENTRALIZED PROCESSING CENTERS

Vann (1967) (34) and Krikelas (1970) (35) reviewed a number of studies related to centralized processing centers. Though Vann concluded that a state-wide processing center for Pennsylvania ought to be considered, she warned of the need for "more preliminary planning and deliberate speed in decision making." Krikelas came to the conclusion that a centralized purchasing and processing operation ought not to be established for public libraries in Wisconsin; instead, he proposed consideration of a central card production unit.

Krikelas warned that savings in a central operation could be disappointing, among the reasons being that centers require more elaborate accounting procedures, discounts are smaller than expected, the cost and amortization of equipment must be considered, and finally, that processing itself is accomplished at less cost in member libraries.

Alongside these somber warning signals there is the optimistic (but untested) report of the Nelson Associates who recommended a statewide centralized processing unit for the public libraries of the state of New York (36). After studying centralized purchasing, processing, and cataloging, the Nelson Associates came to the conclusion that this combination of services ought to be provided centrally because there is "a curvilinear relationship between the number of items processed in a centralized processing operation and the cost per item of doing the processing."

Veaner's survey of the Colorado Academic Libraries Book Processing Center

came at a time when the operation was encountering bad weather. Centralized purchasing, concluded Veaner, could be made efficient only where there is a coordination of orders (which he found unlikely), and furthermore, the number of orders being generated was not large enough to ensure the viability of the operation. Veaner also indicated that the participants were reluctant to surrender certain local practices, and that the products of the center were not highly regarded. As a result, Veaner recommended shifting to a computer-based card production unit (37).

STUDIES RELATING TO REFERENCE SERVICE

Despite the wide use of the term "reference," there are few examples of cooperation that go much beyond interlibrary loans. Of the few studies that have been made of a true reference situation, Crowley (38) recites a discouraging tale: reference departments in five system headquarters libraries gave no better service than did other libraries less well stocked with reference tools.

Bunge (39) has remarked upon the difficulty of giving reference service in a network when the patron has no direct contact with the referral library. No less a matter of concern is the reference network that is under-used; Sybert (40) showed that of those failing to use the Colorado reference network, 39% had no knowledge of its existence. Though Sybert does not say so, the Colorado experience may be telling us that some librarians are reluctant to refer reference questions.

EVALUATION BY OBJECTIVES

One approach to a generalized evaluation of cooperation is through consideration of its objectives, some examples of which are

1. To hold down rising costs.
2. To win additional support for libraries from local, state, and federal governments.
3. To introduce nonconventional (computerized) services.
4. To widen the base (from state to region and to nation) of library support.
5. To narrow the gap within cooperatives between readers who are best and worst served.
6. To provide improved and new services at the lowest possible additional cost.

There is little evidence to indicate that cooperation has had a significant impact in slowing down rising costs.

There is widespread evidence that cooperation has brought increased support for libraries, not only from private foundations but also from local, state, and federal units of government.

Except in libraries associated with departments of the federal government, and in certain special libraries, nonconventional services are seldom rendered. To give such services, librarians would need to create information centers staffed by technicians who are familiar with computer-based operations and by subject specialists. Considering the great cost of developing computer-based services, and the

shortage of the kind of personnel needed in information centers, here is an area in which cooperation might in the years ahead make a great contribution.

Cooperation has in many ways widened the base of support for library services, but only a few examples can here be cited. Multiple units of government now support many public library systems; without regional support some of the most useful bibliographic centers could not exist; some of the most interesting academic library consortia, such as the New England Library Information Network (NELINET) and the State University of New York Biomedical Network, are regionally supported; the Ohio College Library Center began as a state project but is now making its services available beyond its original boundaries; the Center for Research Libraries, which began as a regional cooperative, now has a truly national membership; and in the delivery of catalog copy, the United States passed from a national to an international phase with the establishment of NPAC.

Within cooperatives where one or two libraries are much stronger than the others, cooperation serves to narrow the gap between the best and worst served readers. In a few states the so-called "equalization" factor has been introduced to provide additional help to those communities where even a high mill tax on property fails to garner sufficient support for library services. In a centralized acquisitions cooperative (such as the Center for Research Libraries), by virtue of the expanded collections made available, readers served by the least wealthy libraries are put in a position where they might profit most. An acquisitions project such as PL 480 has made possible "area studies" in universities previously lacking such instruction.

There is probably no objective more important to cooperation than the provision of improved services at the least possible additional cost, and no doubt a considerable contribution has been made along these lines. Unfortunately, its actual extent cannot be demonstrated until a series of formal studies has been concluded.

A BALANCE SHEET OF COOPERATION

Relative to the process of evaluation, in which type libraries has the greatest progress been made, and in which library functions has cooperation brought about the greatest improvement?

In general, cooperation has brought a greater *rate* of improvement to readers served by public library systems in comparison to those readers serviced by college library consortia. Though cooperation has brought improved services to readers in research libraries, the *rate* of improvement has been less than in public library systems. Left far behind have been readers depending on cooperative services rendered by school libraries, but this is not to say that no progress has been made.

By function, it appears that the greatest amount of progress has been made in the delivery of catalog copy. In 1901, when the Library of Congress began to print and sell its cards, American libraries could (with few exceptions) obtain copy for no other books. Today, NPAC, in theory, delivers copy based on the principle that the Library of Congress will purchase a duplicate copy and will catalog almost every book acquired by any American research library.

Less impressive, but only because the improvement has been gradual, has been the progress made in bibliographic access. Over the years a growing percentage of the acquisitions of American libraries have come to be represented in the *National Union Catalog*. Regionally, the story of bibliographic access does not really begin until about 40 years ago when an economic depression brought federal funds in support of the establishment of union catalogs. Not less important have been the many national, regional, and local union lists of serials, the compilation of which has been generously supported.

Recent liberalization in the rules governing regional and state interlibrary loans has been important, but on the whole, studies of loans give the impression that while American libraries have been generous, the general state of interlibrary loans calls for additional attention.

Cooperative acquisitions have on the whole been less than impressive, as the preceding account of the Farmington Plan, LACAP, and PL 480 has indicated.

Least impressive has been the improvement that cooperation has contributed to reference service.

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LIBRARY FUNCTIONS OF THE STATES

The conception of a state library as a particular type of library with particular responsibilities within the realm of state library affairs receives and maintains its vitality because of a few well-known state libraries, not because state libraries with a well-defined set of common characteristics are to be found in all states. When the American Library Association undertook a study of library services at the state level some years ago, it called the study "A Survey of the Library Functions of the States." Indeed, the listing of "State Library Agencies" in the current *Book of the States* prepared by the director of the Association of State Library Agencies concentrates on agencies with library development responsibilities and therefore omits at least one well-established "state library" which has no development responsibility. One possible definition, consistent with historical origins, would be that a "state library" is an agency which provides a variety of library services with a special concentration on services and materials which are helpful to the legislative, executive, and judicial agencies of state government. This is not all that a state library is or may be. A number of libraries which could be so characterized have added other activities, most especially the administrative and fiscal support of efforts to improve and extend library services within the state, concentrating on public library services at the local level. In this article the principal focus is on those libraries which provide, among other things, specialized services to state government. With a few exceptions such libraries also provide a variety of other services and fulfill other responsibilities, which will be reviewed. Over half of the states have such a library agency, called by various names, but most often "state library." The

character of organization for library services at the state level where there is no such concentration in a single agency is reviewed briefly and the types of organizations for various sorts of services noted.

The persistence of the conception of a state library as a standard type of library can be attributed in part to the very continuity of the effort of the several states to organize library services for the specific needs of state legislative and executive officials. Quite early in the history of the United States, leaders of both the national government and the several states believed that a library with appropriate materials was essential to the work of making governmental policy, and authorized book collections for legislative use. It was only later that the book collections came under the management of a librarian and that a library as opposed to a book collection was set up.

An excellent source for the early history of state libraries is the report on state libraries by Henry A. Holmes, Director of the New York State Library, part of a series of studies of the conditions of libraries in the United States which was published by the U.S. Bureau of Education in 1876. Holmes traced state libraries back to the book collections assembled for the use of state legislatures while in session, the earliest of which was authorized in 1776. He assigns the first state library to Pennsylvania in 1816. New Hampshire had a state library by 1818 and Vermont by 1825. By 1829 twenty-four states, all of the states then in the Union, had taken steps to organize a library or at least a book collection. South Carolina, Ohio, and Illinois set up libraries in this period. By 1876, when Holmes wrote, he was able to assert that every existing state and territory had a library of some kind. Among existing state libraries that of Washington has its origin in such a territorial library.

A table which accompanies Holmes' article characterizes the book collections of the several libraries. It is obvious that nearly all of the libraries then existing were law libraries, with essentially law collections. It is said of only half a dozen, including the libraries of Indiana, New York, California, and Pennsylvania, that the collection included general reference, statistical materials, politics, history, biography, and economics. A number of the libraries then in existence continue as law libraries, though still called "state libraries" as in Wisconsin and Minnesota. These libraries are used primarily by the judges of the state's high court and by the attorney general's staff, though they are open to reading room use by any interested person. Some of the libraries which had primarily legal collections in 1876 have become general reference libraries with a stress on governmental and legislative reference; others have undergone a very great diversification and expansion. In the general course of expansion, reading facilities were provided to any interested person coming into the library, though circulation was limited to official users. Later loans were made to other libraries in the state. Collections were expanded by the addition of historical materials and works, accepting the responsibility for state and local records and adding materials in science, philosophy, and literature. As the depositary system for United States documents was organized, the existing state libraries were designated as depositaries and built up extensive documents collections. Universally they exchanged documents with other states, and sometimes local documents,

especially legislative documents and law reports. Exchanges were also conducted with foreign governments. Holmes credits South Carolina with originating the systematic exchange of documents with other states in 1844 and a Frenchman, Alexander Vattermore, with originating an international exchange of documents in which the officers of state legislatures in the United States were directly requested to participate. Some of the older state libraries have maintained international exchanges of governmental and scientific publication, often with the assistance of a State Academy of Science, for over a century and have extraordinarily varied and interesting collections in a number of languages.

Despite the origins of state libraries in the early days of the history of the United States as an independent nation, the present character of state libraries as multiple-purpose institutions has been shaped largely in the last 60 or 70 years. Three major developments converged in the case of the multipurpose libraries. The first was the increase of specialized knowledge and the increasing resort to specialized knowledge in connection with governmental problems. This resulted both in changes in the library's collection and staff and in the development of independent legislative research and reference agencies separate from the state library. The second was the identification of the state itself as a distinctive political and social community and a widespread interest in its history and in the identification and preservation of materials related to that history. The Civil War seems to have been an important factor in this development, especially in the states of the Confederacy. As with legislative reference service, this development both affected existing state libraries and led to new agencies separate from the state library. A third trend, related to the second, but becoming independent of it, was the effort to collect, protect, and index for use state documents and reports, especially from the early period of state history. As a result of these developments, some state libraries have taken on archival and records management functions, they have developed extensive manuscript, genealogical, and state history collections, and have built up collections of works by persons identified with the state by birth or career. A fourth development was the acceptance of the expansion of local library services as a state responsibility, the creation of special agencies to help localities set up libraries, and assistance in the management of those already organized. This particular state responsibility has been rapidly expanded in the last two decades to include the development of regional systems, the effort to link libraries of a specialized character into informational and reference networks, and the provision of centralized services of various kinds. These trends have not necessarily been mutually supporting: as noted, in most states they have often resulted in the building of parallel institutions, as well as in the expansion and elaboration of existing institutions. In some notable cases, however, they have converged in a single agency, and its strength in one area has been an asset in the development of others. Nationally the most closely linked trends are the building of the state library as a strong general reference collection and its assuming the role of political and administrative leadership in the development of increased and improved library services throughout the state.

To place these developments in time, the movement to establish a state responsibility for improved and more widely available local library service had its first

expression in the Massachusetts legislation of 1890 which created a Board of Library Commissioners. Similar agencies were set up in New Hampshire, New York, and Wisconsin in the next few years. By 1909, they existed in thirty-four states. In some instances these agencies were called "travelling libraries," and circulated book collections to localities where local people would take the responsibility for providing access to them; in other cases they were "free library commissions" which offered technical and organizational assistance to local groups desiring to set up library services. The separate agencies in some states were later merged into the state library, as in Indiana. In other instances they became divisions of the state department of education or of public instruction.

The first state agency with legal responsibility for archives management was the Department of History and Archives in Alabama in 1901. Historical societies organized by state law and supported at least in part by state funds had their origin earlier, and in many cases later assumed archival responsibilities. The creation of a separate agency with exclusively archival responsibility seems to have begun with Delaware in 1903. The early years of this century saw legislation in a number of states providing historical and archives agencies, usually conjoint.

Specialized agencies for legislative reference and legislative research also began in the first decade of this century. The Wisconsin Legislative Reference Bureau, a model for many which came later, was organized in 1901. Such bureaus were never universal, and in the 1930s were exceeded in number by Legislative Councils which had a closer relationship to legislative leadership and were designed for more ambitious programs of policy oriented research. Councils generally developed only minimal library collections compared to the extensive and extensively cross indexed vertical file material characteristic of the Reference Bureaus. More recent versions of legislative service agencies have been even less oriented to reliance on reference collections of their own development.

As is evident from the brief survey above, the result of these independent developments was a multiple organization of a series of activities in many states which in others were conducted within a single agency. The Association of State Libraries, an agency antecedent to the present Association of State Library Agencies, always regarded the development of parallel organizations for particular functions which had strong library or informational service components as a deviation from an ideal model of service through a single institution. On the other hand archivists, while recognizing, as Posner does in his account of the development of state archives, the important role of state librarians both in calling for the organization of state archives and in actually providing them within the state library organization, as in Illinois, strongly asserts the essentially separate and independent nature of their activity. Similarly the state historical societies do not regret at all the often large and comprehensive libraries which they have developed, libraries whose informational services to state government is sometimes highly prized. Perhaps the thing most troubling to people interested in state library developments is the separation of library development responsibility from the operation of a strong state library, where one exists. In states where such a situation existed, there have recently been several mergers of previously separate agencies.

In general the states may be separated roughly into two groups: those which have a multipurpose state library with a responsibility, among other things, for statewide library development, and those which have no such agency. About half of the states are in each group. Hawaii is a special case not fitting in either grouping. There is a single statewide system of library services in Hawaii, with all local libraries as branches of a single state-operated library. There are some specialized state-operated libraries for governmental reference and historical purposes in Hawaii, but the state central library combines the character of a multipurpose state library and the central library of a public library system.

Among the best examples of the centralization of various library functions into a single agency are New York, New Jersey, Vermont, New Hampshire, Oklahoma, Virginia, Maine, and Connecticut. In these states the governmental reference services sections of the library are extensively developed; legal materials are primarily provided through the state library, rather than a separate law library, the state library has responsibility for archives and the protection of local records; there is a large collection of historical documents and records, including manuscripts of all kinds; the general collection covers all or a substantial part of the whole range of knowledge, and is used as a supplemental collection for other libraries in the state as well as for direct lending; the library cooperates in regional systems development, undertakes the upgrading of library staffs by institutes and short courses, administers state aid, and takes responsibility for organizing research libraries into a statewide reference net. Serials collections, an important asset for all specialized reference, are extensive, as are bibliographic materials; there is no state-supported historical or archival work outside of the libraries control. States like California, Pennsylvania, Washington, Oregon, Indiana, and Illinois are close to this comprehensive model. In these states there are separate legislative research agencies which depend in some measure on the state library for reference services; there are separate historical agencies with strong libraries; the archival function is separate from the library; there is a separate law library or libraries. Nevertheless, collections are comprehensive, extensive governmental service is provided, and the library is legally responsible in general library development and in the administration of state aid. In all of these states, both the first group and the second, the development and improvement of library services in the state is combined with the provision of high quality library service to governmental users and other persons with serious intellectual interest, both by direct loan and by interlibrary lending.

At the other extreme is a group of states in which active programs of library development are carried on without the active participation of a state library. In a few such state libraries, libraries with substantial collections and staffs exist but are administratively distinct and play no role in library development. This is the case in Massachusetts, where the state library is essentially a legislative reference library, as in South Carolina, in Mississippi, and in Georgia. Before recent consolidations it was the case as well in Kansas, Connecticut, and Vermont. In still other states there is no substantial state-operated library, though there is an active development pro-

gram. The most striking example is Maryland, which gave up its supplementary circulating collection and contracted with the Enoch Pratt Library in Baltimore to provide supplementary lending and reference services to other public libraries and library systems within the state. Other states which maintain library collections and staffs largely as incidents to the general library development program, and have no "state library" in the sense given at the beginning of this article, are Alaska, Alabama, Mississippi, Minnesota, Kentucky, Missouri, Arkansas, Iowa, Wisconsin, Nebraska, North Dakota, West Virginia, South Dakota, Utah, and Nevada. Montana and Wyoming should probably be in this group since their state libraries are fairly small and undeveloped. In all of these states, book collections are directed to the general reader, except in library science, though substantial bibliographic collections may be maintained which are used to locate titles for interlibrary lending.

The states not mentioned in these two large categories of comprehensive state libraries, and of states supporting only library development agencies, often have large and rather comprehensive libraries which are less complete in their range of functions than those in the first group. The Texas State Library recently lost its legislative reference function to independent status. There is a separate law library; nevertheless Texas is still a multiple program library. Somewhat the same could be said of Louisiana; of Florida, which recently lost its archives and history responsibility; of Tennessee, which has a series of independent divisions for library development, law, and history; and of Ohio, which is less oriented to governmental reference work than to library development, despite a strong collection.

No praise or derogation is intended by the characterization of state libraries or state library agencies as being more or less comprehensive. State library organizations and state library developments vary so widely that the only reliable way to comprehend them is by characteristic examples or the recognition of characteristic types. There is no particular virtue to either unified or fragmented library organization, although management people in state government are often concerned about what they regard as duplication of facilities. There are conveniences and probably economies in grouping functions within a common organization and management: contrariwise there is an ease and simplicity of operation, and perhaps more adequate attention to development when functions that are only loosely related are carried on independently from each other. There is no ideal way of organizing informational services to state government: political leaders in the various states differ greatly in what information they require in the course of their work; library resources of a specialized character other than state libraries are very richly available in some states, and much more scant in others. The preferred working locations for state political and administrative leadership, whether in the state capital itself or in one of the state's larger metropolitan centers, vary among states. Continuity and turnover vary even more, and this affects resort to state-provided informational services. The accessibility of the state capital from various parts of the state, where officials may be resident, varies greatly. Problems of conflict between the roles of library administrators in a complex organization, which affect the question of

optimum organization, and the advantages and disadvantages of subordination or independence in the location of the library in the state administrative setup is discussed in another place.

Some state library statutes define the library as a book collection; others provide considerable detail as to the internal organization of the library, and by implication define its collection and services. A classical view of the scope of the state library as an intellectual resource for state government, which in this article is viewed as its essence, is contained in the statutory provisions for the Maine State Library (Revised Maine Statutes, 1954; chapter 42m, sec. 2):

There shall be procured and kept in the library digests, law reports and public laws of the United States and the several states, English and Canadian law reports, digests and laws: general works of law and practice: histories of all countries including those of this state, its counties and towns: family histories: works on the arts and sciences with special reference to agriculture, forestry, fishing, manufacturing, shipbuilding, and roadmaking; maps, charts, plans and manuscripts, statistical and other publications relating to the financial, social, religious and educational conditions of the world and more especially of this state, as fast as the means are furnished for the state therefore: full and complete sets of reports of the towns, cities, and counties of this state. For the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this section the library may conduct a system of exchanges with other libraries and institutions of learning.

The New Hampshire statutes have virtually an identical provision and add to this "books and related materials which will supplement and reinforce the resources of public and school libraries" (*New Hampshire Revised Statutes Annotated*, 1963, supp. sec. 201 a2). The extension of the library responsibility from direct service to a particular patronage to being a supporting facility for other libraries in the state is evident in this additional sentence.

More recent statutes, such as the recent revision of the charter of the Indiana State Library or of the New Mexico Department of Library and Archives, add specifics with respect to responsibilities in state history, consultation to other libraries, the statewide improvement of library services, the development of statewide networks for information and reference service, and statewide planning. Where the library administers a system of state aid this is, of course, mentioned somewhere in the statutes relative to libraries. By contrast with this specificity, a few reports on state library operations, such as the survey of libraries of the Pacific Northwest, mention the lack of specificity of the statutes with respect to the responsibility of such active and many-functioned libraries as that of Washington. One responsibility which is imposed by law on many libraries and library agencies is the certification of libraries. In some cases state aid to local libraries is made dependent on the hiring of a certified librarian.

Statutes not only provide for the general purposes or functions of a state library. They also provide for its organizational relationship to other agencies of state government; in short, its governance. The most common provision is for the state library to be set up as a separate agency whose statutory powers are vested in a

board appointed by the governor; the board in turn appoints the librarian. Normally the librarian is given a specific authority to appoint the remaining members of the library staff. Statutes vary markedly as to whether the librarian is given specific authority to set out library policy and manage the library, or whether the board has powers which it presumptively delegates to the librarian. In a few instances, California and Maine being examples, the librarian is appointed by the governor and the board is only advisory. The appointment of the state librarian in California has recently been made subject to the consent of the state senate. In other instances the librarian is appointed by the head of the state's department of public instruction, who may himself be appointive or elective. In such instances the library functions as an administrative unit within the state department of public instruction or of education. In New York, which has one of the oldest, largest, best financed, and most influential state libraries, the librarian is appointed by the Board of Regents of the State of New York which has very broad powers over all agencies of public and private education in New York and which heads something called the University of New York of which all educational enterprises are presumptively units. In New Jersey the state library is formally the Division of Library Archives and History within the state department of education. The State Library of Pennsylvania is similarly situated. In Ohio the elected State Board of Education appoints the Library Board which appoints the librarian.

These exceptions to the general rule of independent status are noted because each of them is a large library of some prominence, despite the general opinion that the health of the state library depends on its independence from other state government agencies. Subordination to a larger administrative unit is not necessarily antithetical to the development of an effective library with an effective statewide program. A careful study by Douglas St. Angelo and a group of associates for the American Library Association concluded that there is a high correlation between library budgets and the size of the state library aid budget and location with a department of education or other larger administrative unit. The most anomalous situation is to be found in Illinois where the state library is a division within the office of the elective Secretary of State, the principal executive rival to the governor, and the Secretary of State has the formal title of librarian. It should be noted that state administrative reorganization movement, with a strong antipathy to separate administrative units, has been particularly effective in the large industrial states, and it is in these where the consolidation of the library into a larger administrative unit is most likely to be found. These states are also in a better position to fund local libraries from local revenue and to provide state aid as an inducement to reorganization and the development of regional systems. The correlation between formal organization and the scale of library financing is therefore not entirely coincidental.

Statutes in a number of states not only provide for a library governing board, usually of five to seven members with overlapping terms, but specify requirements which the governor must meet in appointments. Most often specified are at least one member who is a practicing librarian and one who is an active library trustee. Some

states severely limit the governor's appointing powers, as does Indiana, by limiting him to persons nominated by library organizations such as the state library association, the association of library trustees, or friends of the library. The General Federation of Women's Clubs is often mentioned as a nominating agency as is the Home Bureau Federation, and in at least one instance, the American Legion Auxiliary. Library boards often have ex-officio members such as the chief justice of the state supreme court or his nominee, the superintendent of public instruction, or the librarian, or librarians, from the state's major state-supported university or universities. Terms are usually longer than the governor's term, which is only 2 years in many states. Neither in the Library Survey of the States, however, nor in De Angelo's later study did the particular provisions of the statute with respect to library governance seem to have marked importance. Stability of library administrators and library staff was the rule, except for the turnover produced by career mobility. The library was rarely a political issue, and its principal problem was securing a sufficient budget to achieve its programs.

The last 10 years have seen a number of reorganizations which have tended in general to the consolidation of previously separate agencies. In Vermont, Connecticut, and Kansas the previously separate state libraries and the state library extension and development agencies were consolidated into a single organization with a separate board. This removed the library services division from the state department of education in Connecticut and joined it with the state library, whose board was reorganized to include members in addition to representatives of the state supreme court, who earlier governed the library. All three consolidated agencies are separate agencies of state government. In Wisconsin the old Free Library Commission was abolished, library services going to the state Department of Education, and the Legislative Reference Bureau to the Legislative Council. The Oklahoma State Library, which had already undertaken an active development program, was removed from the jurisdiction of the supreme court and given a separate status under an appointive board representative of congressional districts. The Michigan State Library, previously independent, was transferred to the control of the State Board of Education. Minor changes in Texas removed legislative reference services to legislative control, and in Florida created an independent Department of Archives and History.

The influence of the library profession appears in the unified organization and in the very general requirement that the state librarian or director of the library be a graduate of an accredited library school and in the provisions for library association and trustee association participation in the selection of members of the state library board. This is also evident in the recently revised statutes for the library in Indiana, Oklahoma, and Rhode Island where the scope of library responsibility and services reflects the ALA standards for the Library Functions of State Government.

More troublesome to the operation of the state library than the specific provisions of the statutes for its governance and its functions are those statutory provisions which govern state finance and state personnel administration. Personnel regulations are especially troublesome. Where there is statewide civil service and inclusion of

librarians in the classified service, where entrance and promotion are by competitive examination, and experience may be substituted for education, all the usual patterns of recruitment, placement, and career movement in the library field are flouted. It has often been difficult also to get adequate recognition in position specifications and examination requirements for subprofessional positions, which are too readily assimilated into general clerical categories by personnel technicians. Salary scales are often obsolete and lack flexibility. In many states the state education agency has won special consideration for its staffs of "educational consultants" who are recruited without formal written examinations. Library extension agencies are able to get "consultant" status for their consulting staffs in such departments but may not be able to do so for straight library positions. Associated questions rise with respect to fiscal controls: it is not easy to buy books or purchase serials by competitive bidding, even equipment specifications may be a matter of sharp disagreement between librarians and purchasing specialists; travel expenditures are a source of conflict; the ability to contract with specialists for special services may be quite limited. Factors such as these probably concern library administrators more than political and policy considerations when reorganization is proposed: independence may be a protection against the very rigid internal requirements of large consolidated agencies.

For those state libraries which fit the general criterion of multiple functions or services including both governmental reference services and public library developmental and planning responsibilities, the most measurable variations between libraries is the size of the collection and staff. It is exceedingly difficult to get a measure of quality without more than the scattering of data from published sources which is available to bring up to date the findings of the 1961 survey. Even in that survey no direct measure of quality was used and very little was eventually published of the tabulated data on some topics. However, the size of the collection is of some importance since it bears on the capacity of the library to handle the very divergent demands for materials for published and unpublished materials arising from its rather diverse clientele, and the size of the staff bears on the possibility of having specialists to function in the quite divergent areas in which the library is called on to be competent. For governmental reference in the broad sense of materials important to policymakers and administrators in the several states, a substantial social science collection is required. It must have both breadth and specialization in the areas of present governmental policy; it must be complemented by materials in science and technology which parallel the areas of current governmental policymaking and execution. Relevant subjects change: the environmental concerns of the present day present a whole new bibliography of required items. People in the administrative and policy staffs of state government need current documentary materials to reflect the experience of other states, the United States government, and even foreign governments. The most recent reports on current research and practice will not be reflected in texts and monographs; they must be found in the periodical literature and often in unpublished papers. Since no library can possibly be complete or completely current, bibliographic services of all kinds

are necessary, including the acquisitions lists of specialized libraries. For effective service there must be a reference staff which knows the collection, the bibliographic materials in the several fields, and the particular needs of the users.

Comparing the state library collections in the governmental reference field with other library collections, the required collection begins to resemble in character the materials in the research-oriented university library, and in limited subject areas it has more depth than will be found in a good municipal reference library. Only the largest cities are likely to have a central library with comparable materials.

The requirements for supplementing the resources of local public libraries in the state run in quite another direction. Even the large state library is not likely to be able to lend much to a metropolitan system; university and other libraries in the metropolitan area are more accessible supplementary sources. On the other hand the intermediate and smaller libraries of the state and the less well developed systems will expect to find materials to supplement their collections over the whole range of their patron's demands. Hence literature, philosophy, religion, most areas of pure and applied science, some technology, arts and crafts, some materials in foreign languages, art and architecture; fields which are little represented in the governmental reference collection will need to be on hand. Further, bound periodicals, popular as well as scholarly, audiovisual materials of all kinds, history, biography, and library science and education are apt to be important since such materials, although widely used, are either too bulky or too specialized or too expensive to be held by many local or regional centers. Only one state, Maryland, at the time of this article, had abandoned its own supplementary collection for a contract with the Enoch Pratt Library of Baltimore to provide supplementary reference and lending service. Most states are maintaining a sort of high level public library collection, whether in a general state library or a library operated by a library development agency. Even the present program of building strong regional collections and of linking the stronger local collections in a regional information and reference network has not eliminated this policy.

Those state libraries with a strong historical program have built a historical collection, sometimes exclusively, sometimes in competition with a private or state-supported historical society. Such a collection requires not only published works and documents but unpublished and manuscript materials, charts, maps, plans, and files of newspapers and local records, and may include business records and other records of private associations and groups. The collection may expand into artifacts of all kinds, especially if an effort is made to preserve the history of indigenous people. State libraries are often the recipients of the collections of private persons as the California State Library received the Sutro collection in San Francisco.

To note some customary additional areas of responsibility: where arrangements with local libraries do not completely cover the state, or even the region, a state library may be responsible for services to the blind and physically handicapped; it may have responsibility for services or helping to organize services to the populations and staffs of state institutions, therapeutic and correctional; it may provide centralized services of processing and acquisition for smaller libraries and systems;

TABLE 1
Comparison of Selected Large State, Municipal, and University Libraries
as to Book Stock, Acquisitions, Budget, and Staff ^a

	Volumes reported	Acquisitions budget (\$)	Full-time staff	
			Total	Professional
California				
State Library	772,000 ^b	236,000	160	70
University of California, Berkeley	3,113,000	1,381,000	394	No data
San Francisco Memorial	1,262,000	862,000	282	110
Illinois				
State Library	1,274,000	160,000	152	No data
University of Illinois, Urbana	3,889,000	1,183,000	266	No data
Chicago Public	4,184,000	1,327,000	1,200	100
Indiana				
State Library	967,000	83,000	63	35
University of Indiana, Bloomington	1,900,000	1,051,000	238	No data
Indianapolis-Marion Co.	874,000	532,000	228	64
New York				
State Library	4,000,000	400,600	270	No data
New York Public	7,000,000 ^c	3,300,000	2,220	698
Columbia University Libraries	4,000,000	1,280,000	363	No data

^a All figures rounded to thousands. State library data on book collections and acquisitions budgets from *American Library Directory*, Bowker, 1970-1971. Staff sizes from latest available state budget. Public library data from *Library Statistics of Service Areas with at least 25,000 population*, 1968, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, U.S. Library Survey, National Center for Educational Statistics. University library data from *Statistics of University Libraries*, 1964-1965, Princeton Univ. Library, mimeographed.

^b Does not include 2 million United States and California documents.

^c Includes all branches: entries for other municipal libraries are apparently for central library only.

it may administer state aid; it may provide direct service through bookmobiles, state-operated regional centers, or mail to people in areas otherwise without adequate library service.

Table 1 shows the general size of a few large state libraries relative to the central libraries of large municipal systems and to the larger university libraries within the state. The university libraries tend to have by far the larger collections, but staffs more nearly comparable in size to those of the state library than to those of the municipal libraries which are far larger. Acquisitions budgets for the state libraries

are a fraction of the university budgets, but compare not unfavorably with the expenditures reported for the central municipal libraries. Unfortunately the available sources do not provide data on the number of serials received or the serials budget of all three types of libraries: serials tend to mark the level to which specialized knowledge is emphasized in the library's collection.

As compared to the scholarly libraries of the universities or to the comprehensive public service of the municipal system, state libraries occupy an intermediate position. The position is one of great stress. Neither of the other two types of libraries need to look much outside of its own boundaries, but the state library organized to meet the specialized demands of a particular set of users must also provide leadership and services to the effort to improve the availability and quality of library services statewide.

No one who studies the operation of state libraries can avoid the impression of a pull between its varied responsibilities. Managing a large library with a substantial circulation and a large acquisitions budget is quite a different matter from providing leadership and supplementary services for external library development. Technical and professional guidance to local libraries and developing library systems is probably easier to provide, through the services of a consulting staff, than public leadership for program development in the state as a whole. Statewide library development requires that cooperation be secured from many individuals, groups, and organizations outside of the library field. The focusing of specialized services and a specialized body of resources on the daily informational needs of state government, which are exceedingly diverse and often unpredictable, is still a third type of obligation different in character from the first two mentioned. Within a large library it becomes the responsibility of a specialized section and a specialized staff, but there is still the need for the administrative leadership of the library to give attention to the adequate performance of that task.

It is expected in nearly all states and realized in some that the state librarian will be a leader in library program development, helping set the goals for library development, getting agreement within the library profession on those goals, acting as spokesman for common library concerns on public and private occasions, and securing the increased resources to meet the costs of the coordinated growth of services and facilities which is the present public goal of the library profession. This implies that the leadership of the state library and of its director will be accepted by the great variety of libraries and the several specialized segments of the library profession within the state. Given the diverse character of libraries and the equally varied interests and priorities of librarians, this is not an easy matter to achieve.

Although any conclusions about relative effectiveness of library leadership in the various states would be impressionistic at best, and quite subject to controversy, it is the impression of this author that the character of the library as a library, the depth and comprehensiveness of its collection, within the fields it chooses to emphasize, the achievements and experience of its staff, the respect with which users and other librarians view it as a library, quite apart from its public role, affect the disposition

to accept its head as a proper spokesman for the library profession. New York has always had a notable librarian just as it has had a notable library. Such has been the case in California. The Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania libraries have visibility within their states as have those of Virginia and North Carolina. Washington, Oregon, and Oklahoma have had positions of state leadership in recent years and others could be mentioned. In some of the cases mentioned, no large municipal library challenges the position of the state library as a predominant public library; in others, the challenge is acute. Metropolitan cities can be expected to have great public libraries, both in size and quality, and the heads of these libraries are possible candidates for state and regional leadership in library affairs, if they care to occupy such a role. Fortunately for state library leadership, unfortunately for statewide library program development, the large city library systems tend to be self-centered and rather withdrawn from statewide efforts to improve the quality of library service.

A basis for state library leadership, which is sometimes alternate to relative size and sometimes coincident with it, is its inclusion within a politically effective agency of more general scope. The two principal units within which libraries and library agencies may be found is the office of the Secretary of State and the state Department of Education or Public Instruction. Only Illinois and Florida are now within the Office of Secretary of State, and of these Illinois has had the more vigorous support for statewide development. Among the libraries within the state educational agency are the state library of New York, that of California, and, at least nominally, those of New Jersey, Michigan, and Pennsylvania. Among the very active library development agencies within such a department are those of Massachusetts, Georgia, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Maryland. The study by St. Angelo and associates notes the effectiveness of this group of agencies in securing substantial budgets and putting into effect schemes of state aid and rather rapid local development.

One of the aspects of the relative size of state libraries, which has been noted earlier as being less than that of very large central city libraries, and less than large university libraries, is that despite the multiple responsibilities of the state library, its internal specialization is limited. The whole group of librarians is divided between those who handle the internal affairs of the library and its direct service to users and those who work directly or indirectly with local library development. Neither the libraries' own specialized internal divisions, such as acquisitions and reference, nor the consultant staff working with local and regional libraries can afford much specialization, except perhaps for the two or three largest state libraries. This comment has been made in all the recent studies cited above. Given the demanding informational needs of state government, and the inability of the library to develop its full potential as a reference and informational agency unless it can respond well to these demands, this is unfortunate. Service must be provided before financial support can be expanded, and service cannot be provided unless financial support is provided. In relation to local development, as efforts to build regional systems and linkages between more specialized libraries for a reference and research net succeed, the supplementary services demanded of a state library will be of a more tech-

nical type. In the more populous states at least the more routine aspects of assistance, both consulting service and supplemental materials and reader services, will be handled through regional centers.

One of the developments in the states which troubles some state budget people and some librarians is the slow but steady increase in book collections and even organized libraries administratively controlled by various state agencies and independent of the state library. Most state libraries, considering the limitations of their own collections and staffs in some specialized fields, cannot oppose this development, but they do hope to coordinate it and bring the special collections and librarians into a cooperative system. Only a few have been successful in this effort. Another area which has not been well developed, though it has been aided by a special grant under the extended Library Services and Construction Act, is service to the populations of state institutions. A few of the departments which manage large institutions within the states have their own library staffs and library programs. In such instances the facilities of the state library are easily drawn on for supplementary services. In most instances, however, the ideal of adequate library services for institutional populations is more hope than a reality.

In states with extensive areas of low-density population, a condition found in the Southwest and the Mountain states, and in parts of New England, the state library has tended to provide direct services rather than to see regional systems as developing to the point of providing satisfactory services. In some instances the regional centers work primarily through local libraries as in Connecticut. In other places they are centers for bookmobile operations which provide direct service as in Maine, Utah, and Nevada. In principle such centers can be used to provide supplementary collections and consultant services for library development. In some cases, however, local resources and populations are too small to provide any type of organized locally sponsored library center.

In considering the character of state libraries and their programs, the part which has been played by the Library Services and Construction Act must be acknowledged. Even though the original act provided only for service to rural areas (places with 10,000 urban population or less), it at once permitted additions to state library consulting staffs, materials collections, and direct aid to local units. In Utah a state library agency was created for the first time. Rhode Island, which had only an obsolete traveling library collection by way of support of local libraries, set up a Division of Rural Library Services, the nucleus of the present Division of Library Services. With the extension and amendment of the Act in 1961, services to all parts of the state could be supported in part with federal funds, and the state library played an expanded role in library development. Provision for state aid, often exceeding considerably the amounts being distributed from federal funds, became much more common, and aid provided financial incentives for cooperative regional systems development. States experimented with various procedures for centralized technical processing, and for the maintenance of union catalogs, which improved their own operations as well as their effectiveness in providing services to local

units. In general, state appropriations increased substantially as the state library agency increased its activity, though in a few states increases in expenditures are almost entirely due to federal funds, if an allowance is made for inflation.

One topic which is still troublesome in the field of state library affairs is the relationship of the state library or the state library agency to school library development. In a few states, state library legislation specifically mentions school libraries as a responsibility of the state library agency. This is most likely to be the case when the state library or library agency is administratively a unit within the state educational agency. In such instances the school library program is often a parallel operation to the public library development activity, under administrative control of a library services division head. Given the disposition to redefine the role of school library services as a part of the service provided by a school instructional materials center, the close relationship of school library programs to the curriculum development and instructional methods staffs of the state departments of education becomes evident. In general, public library oriented librarians would like to define school library services as a responsibility of educational service agencies, not as a responsibility of library agencies. Given the skills and knowledge associated with general library and information services experience, however, some transfer to the public school field is always possible, and in lieu of other attention to school library programs at the state level, the state library or library agency is likely to be called on to help. In a number of states, school library and public library consulting staffs coexist in harmony even while local public library administrators continue to debate how much responsibility they should accept for meeting the demands from youthful users for materials related to their classroom work.

As a practical matter, the continuance of the comprehensive state library in about the form as it has existed and as it has been sketched here is undoubtedly not an issue. In terms of a wholly rational structure of library resources and services, it might be possible to debate it. As noted earlier, the success of the effort to build regional systems with regional material and administrative centers should diminish the importance of the state library both for supplementary material for reader services and for consulting services. There are much larger and more specialized collections in each state, especially in college and university libraries, public and private, than even the largest state libraries can boast. These collections and their supporting staffs might be drawn on for many of the reference and lending services the state library now provides, as in some states they are as contracts are entered into for statewide reference service. Payment for such services provides a much needed supplement to the budgets of these established libraries.

In terms of leadership in library development, the inward orientation of a large library with a small but demanding clientele is not predisposing to the assumption of large external responsibilities. Nor is the state library with its relatively small staff able to provide leadership in the development of specialized library services including new technologies in information storage and retrieval. The state library and its staff may sponsor such developments but the technical leadership will have to come

from elsewhere. There is also a conflict between the library consultant and the specialized technical and subject matter staffs for the attention of the direction of the state library. The character of many specialized subject matter areas of library service is such that there is no particular advantage to them in being associated within a larger library unit: they may be less accessible to their clientele and have more difficulty in getting budget. This is the feeling of many law and legislative reference library staffs, and it is the force behind the development of departmental libraries within state government. Access to the general collection when needed may be provided without administrative unity, and access to even more specialized collections outside the state library system may be a more important consideration than access to the general state library.

There is some question therefore as to whether states which at present have no comprehensive library agency are likely to develop one. In Wisconsin a separate library agency has disappeared by transfer of its parts to other agencies. In Florida the state library, never a large or well-funded agency, has lost its historical and archival functions to a new agency. The Texas library, a large and multifunctional library, has recently lost its legislative reference unit by transfer. The Maine state library, small but quite varied in its services, has lost its archives unit by transfer. Minnesota and Wisconsin are populous states with state governments reputed to be of very high quality. Both get along without a comprehensive state library.

There are some counter trends. Since the Library Finances Act, Oklahoma has expanded the scope and functions of its original law-legislative reference library to include all the usual functions of a state library, and has provided a new representative board to govern it in place of the justices of the Supreme Court. Consolidations have taken the place of state libraries and library services units in Vermont and Connecticut. However, in none of these cases was a library development unit expanded into a state library. Rather, a previously existing, if limited, state library was expanded by taking on library development.

As the central agency in a movement to improve library service statewide and to develop improved library and informational services by means of cooperation and coordination, the established state libraries have great strength and are not likely to lose it unless they deliberately abdicate their state leadership responsibilities. Nevertheless, states which have no such library as a center have been able to provide agencies other than libraries as prodders and organizers of statewide library improvement. An existing state library is an asset; its absence is not an irremedial deficit. Therefore, the variation between the states in the degree to which a comprehensive state agency for library services and development is provided, and in the variety of library activities for which there is a formal provision in state government, is likely to continue. What is impressive in a review of state library activity in the last 15 years is not the similarity of organizational trends but the extent to which early proposals for state responsibility for library development have been realized, primarily through the organized efforts of the library profession, directed through state library organizations of diverse kinds.

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Particular state libraries are reviewed in several surveys. The first volume of the Pacific Northwest Survey, *Public Libraries of the Pacific Northwest*, by R. Campbell and H. T. Drennan, Univ. Washington Press, Seattle, 1960, reviews state libraries and state library programs, pp. 47 et passim and pp. 100 passim. The effect of the library services act on a series of state agencies is incidentally covered in Mersel, Friedman, Holmes, Knudson, and Streich, *An Overview of the Library Services and Construction Act, Title I*, Bowker, New York and London, 1969.

There are several sources on specialized agencies and services. *Library Services to the Legislature, a Symposium*, published under the auspices of the New South Wales Parliamentary Library and the Joint Library Committee of New South Wales, contains articles descriptive of legislative reference services of state libraries in Connecticut, California, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Oklahoma, and Texas by the legislative reference librarians of those libraries. The general statement of the desirable attributes of such services by J. G. Wilson, Chief Librarian, General Assembly Library of New Zealand, pp. 48-55, is excellent.

The classic reference on state archives is by Ernst Posner, *American State Archives*, Univ. Chicago Press, 1964. Historical societies, public and private, are reviewed in Walter M. Whitehill, *Independent Historical Societies*, Athenaeum, Boston; Harvard Univ. Press, Cambridge, 1962. See especially Chaps. XI-XIII.

Some current data on state library agencies are obtainable from the annual *Book of the States*, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Kentucky, especially the section on Educational Activities. The same source provides an article on the current status of legislative service agencies. See especially the volume for 1972-1973, used in this article. Bowker's annual *American Library Directory* lists basic data for state and state-operated as for other libraries, listing them by location and alphabetically by name. State library legislation which includes statutory provisions for state library agencies, legislative reference agencies, archives, and historical societies is conveniently available in Alex Ladenson, ed., *American Library Laws*, 3rd ed., American Library Association, Chicago, 1964. There are annual supplements.

PHILLIP MONYPENNY

LIBRARY HANDBOOKS, COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

Value of Library Handbooks

Instruction in use of the college library has always been a major concern of librarians. Today librarians have accepted the challenge of using improved methods of instruction and recent advances in technology in teaching use of the library. No matter which method of instruction is used, be it the traditional tour, videotape tour or lecture, or a programmed learning text, the library handbook serves to reinforce and supplement the instruction.

The well-planned library handbook has permanent value and can be used not only as an introduction to the library, but as a reference guide to the resources and services it provides. A printed guide reduces misunderstandings which may easily result from oral presentation. It also relieves the student of the responsibility of taking notes, perhaps incorrectly, as the librarian lectures. And lastly, a handbook presents the same precise information to each patron, removing any doubt as to what his responsibilities to the library may be, and at the same time acquaints him with the library privileges which he may enjoy.

Distribution of Handbooks

Handbooks are distributed in various ways, but each library must decide for itself which system is most effective. An organized plan of distribution should, however, be determined and followed.

Some libraries distribute the handbook during freshmen orientation week or in connection with a library tour or session on use of the library. Others distribute the handbook when the students register and some even mail it to them.

Other methods which have proven successful are: presentation by faculty to classes (to all sections of an English Composition I class); display and "take one" signs at certain points in the library; and even selling the library handbooks at the college book store.

The writer recommends that the librarian work with the chairman of the Humanities Department and distribute the handbook in the English Composition I classes. A brief reference assignment is given by the teacher, and a librarian is invited to lecture for a class period on use of the library. The handbook now becomes meaningful.

A plan of action must also be decided upon for distribution of the handbook to faculty, for faculty members as we know are a great force for stimulating students to use the library. The faculty must be knowledgeable of the resources and services of the library in order to be effective teachers.

At most institutions, handbooks are distributed to all new faculty either through the Dean's office with other materials or directly by the librarian. The writer prefers the latter method. Care must be taken to see that all faculty members receive revised editions of the handbook when they are printed.

A Student Handbook and a Faculty Handbook or One Handbook for All Patrons?

A recent study of college and university library handbooks by the writer reveals that most institutions prepare only one handbook for all patrons. Several have faculty and graduate student supplements while others publish library information only relevant to the faculty in the College Faculty Handbook.

This method certainly has some advantages over preparing a handbook for students and another one for faculty. It is less time consuming for the library staff when preparing or revising the handbooks and is definitely a savings for the library budget.

The University of Kansas Libraries do not issue handbooks as such, but distribute a series of numbered guides titled *Guide for Readers*. The guides cover the same topics as do handbooks, but are followed by a number of special bibliographies. (The guides are on $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ paper and are punched to fit a three-ring binder.)

A number of other university libraries have successfully used the guide concept to supplement their handbooks. Texas A&M University, the University of Pittsburgh, the American University, and the University of Massachusetts at Amherst have issued excellent series of guides. The topics of the guides range from "The Card Catalog" to "How to Find Book Reviews" to "Periodicals (serial) Service."

Format and Design

If a college library handbook is to do the job for which it is published, it must be attractively designed. It should be designed to attract attention, to invite the patron to pick it up and explore its contents. No matter how well written, the handbook will lose much of its impact if its physical presentation is not of the highest quality. Size, format, color, and use of illustrations are among some of the physical considerations. Regarding size:

The Committee on Instruction and Use, Junior College Libraries Section, Association of College and Research Libraries recommends an 8×11 size. The Committee feels that 8×11 is a standard size for layout and mimeographing and can be punched for insertion in the student's looseleaf binders (1).

Of all the handbooks studied, however, exactly half do not use the recommended 8×11 size. The writer feels that today most students no longer use the "honored" looseleaf binders of the past, but prefer spiral notebooks and would therefore find the smaller format more convenient to handle.

The cover for the handbook should be prepared with extreme care, as this is probably the most important and most expensive part of the entire booklet and is a determining factor in inducing the patrons to examine the contents of the publication. The cover should not be the work of an amateur:

Today's library user is graphically very sophisticated. He is constantly bombarded with commercials, advertisements, and products of all sorts which all pay great attention to presentation. Although not in commercial competition with these products, the library handbook should be able to present a handbook suitably packaged in order to achieve its purpose of being read.

As a result, the more original and vivid a cover is, the better the chances are of the handbook being noticed. The use of color, bold design, unusual concepts, original typography can all make a cover appealing. The artist and/or designer must make use of his creative ability to contrive a cover design which meets the criteria of originality and good taste (2).

Most institutions do use a colored cover and some employ as many as two colors of ink for printing or illustrations. A library might consider using school colors.

Quite often a photograph or an artist's rendering of the library building is used on the cover. Some libraries choose to use the institution's logo, and others have successfully used an abstract design. A good example of the latter is the handbook of Vernon Roger Alden Library, Ohio University. Other institutions employing good cover designs are: Bloomsburg State College, Sullivan County Community College, and the University of Akron.

Some libraries use the date of the academic year on the covers of their booklets. The writer does not recommend the use of a date unless the library definitely plans to revise its handbook each year. Without dates the handbook may be used over a period of several years. The librarian may wish, however, to use a coded date on the inside of the cover for internal purposes.

Lyle recommends that "from the angle of economy and use, such items as library hours, library staff, and rules might well be printed on the inside cover page both front and back" (3). Since these are the sections most subject to revisions, only the cover need be reprinted while the text can be reproduced from the same type as the original.

The length of the handbook will vary depending, of course, upon the scope of information and the detail with which it is presented. The average number of pages, however, is thirty-one in the smaller size publications and thirteen for the 8 × 11 format.

If properly used, illustrations, diagrams, charts, etc. can enhance the booklet and increase its appeal and usefulness. Great care must be exercised, however, to insure that all illustrations are kept clear and simple. All should be purposeful and be placed strategically close to the printed information to which they are related.

Floor plans are one type of diagram frequently illustrated by many libraries in their handbook. These plans should not be a copy of architectural floor plans for they are much too detailed, but should be a simple line drawing clearly outlining those areas of the library that are of basic interest to the user. This writer recom-

mends that labels be placed directly on the drawing rather than using a numbered key. The numbered key necessitates visually jumping back and forth. The Horr-mann Library, Wagner College, and Manhattan College Libraries have employed excellent techniques in presenting their floor plans.

Another type of illustration frequently used by many libraries is the reproduction of a set of catalog cards and explanation of their contents. Some use the numbered key system, but the writer prefers the arrow and line system employed by the Vernon Roger Alden Library, Ohio University (see Figure 1), or the block system used by Eastern Michigan University Library Handbook (see Figure 2).

Some libraries have successfully used the chart technique to present information in a direct concise style. Cheyney State College charts its "Loan Regulations" in this manner. Students and faculty can determine at a glance what the loan period is for various types of material. Tacoma Community College goes a step further and uses the box technique. It sets its "Circulation Periods" and "Fines and Charges" off in boxes. This means of presentation can break the monotony of prose and at the same time be very effective.

The librarian should use the expertise of a designer to plan the physical layout of the handbook. The designer should be called in during the initial planning stages so that he understands the objectives of the librarian. The designer is responsible for the finished physical product and will coordinate the use of floor plans, illustrations, charts, etc. with the text. It is best, too, if the designer works directly with the printer in determining choice of paper, color, type, etc. The results will then be successful.

Style of Writing

Approach the handbook from the point of the user. Avoid technical jargon and write in a clear, direct manner. Use meaningful headings freely to aid the reader in locating information quickly. "How to Take Out Materials" may be much more meaningful than "Circulation Procedures."

Be brief and concise since an excess of words will only deter the reader. "Like the preacher, too, the librarian will find that in all cases of doubt it is better to err on the side of brevity" (4).

Write in a friendly, positive tone, for the handbook serves as the library staff's personal invitation to the reader to come and enjoy the resources and service provided.

Lastly, use humor with discretion; don't try to be "cute." What may tickle one patron may appear utterly silly to another. Of all the handbooks studied, few attempted a humorous approach; however, Tarrant County Junior College has produced an excellent eight-page guide simply titled *LRC*, which employs the humorous approach technique. It is indeed an excellent informative guide, and the writer feels certain that it lures the student to the Learning Resource Center (see Figure 3).

SAMPLE CARD NUMBER

DATE ACQUIRED **AUTHOR**

PLACE OF PUBLICATION **TITLE** **DATE OF PUBLICATION**

PAGING **EDITION** **SERIALS NOTE** **LEADER NOTE**

BIBLIOGRAPHIC NOTE **LIBRARY OF CONGRESS SUBJECT NUMBER**

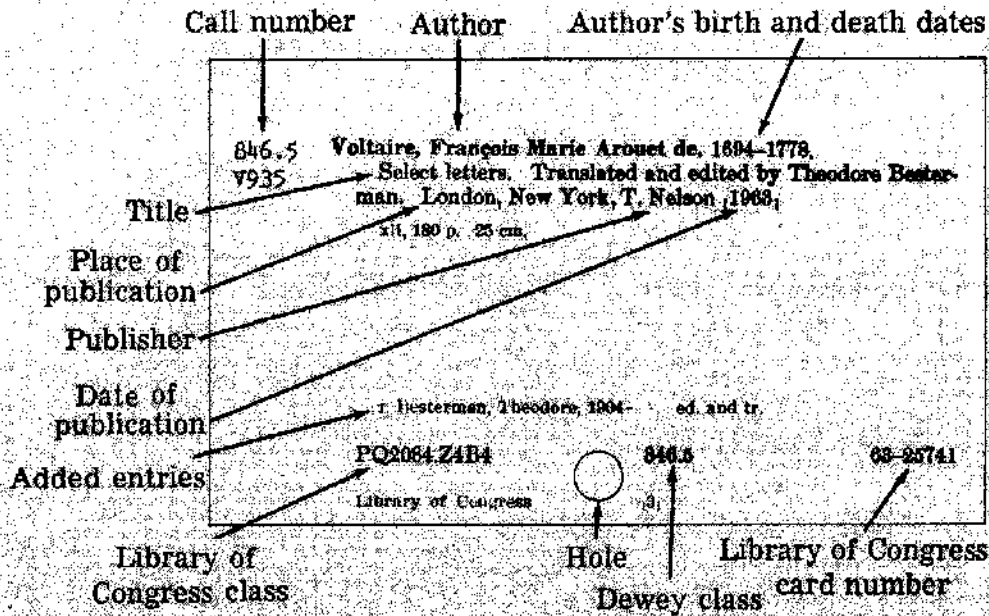
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LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

FIGURE 1. Example of well illustrated catalog card (Ohio University).

Example 1: A DEWEY DECIMAL AUTHOR CARD



Example 2: A LIBRARY OF CONGRESS AUTHOR CARD

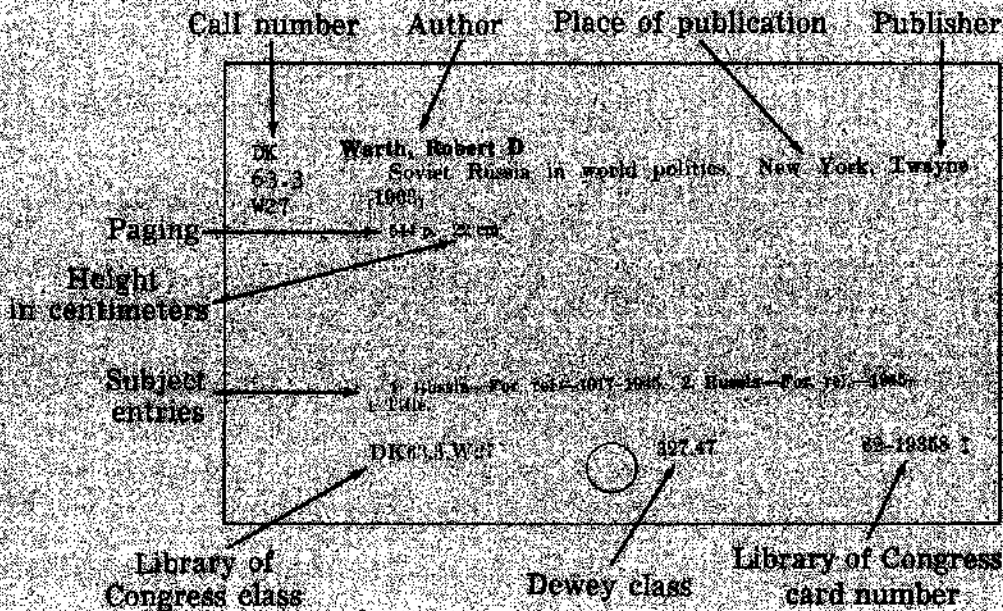


FIGURE 2. Examples of well illustrated catalog cards (Eastern Michigan University).

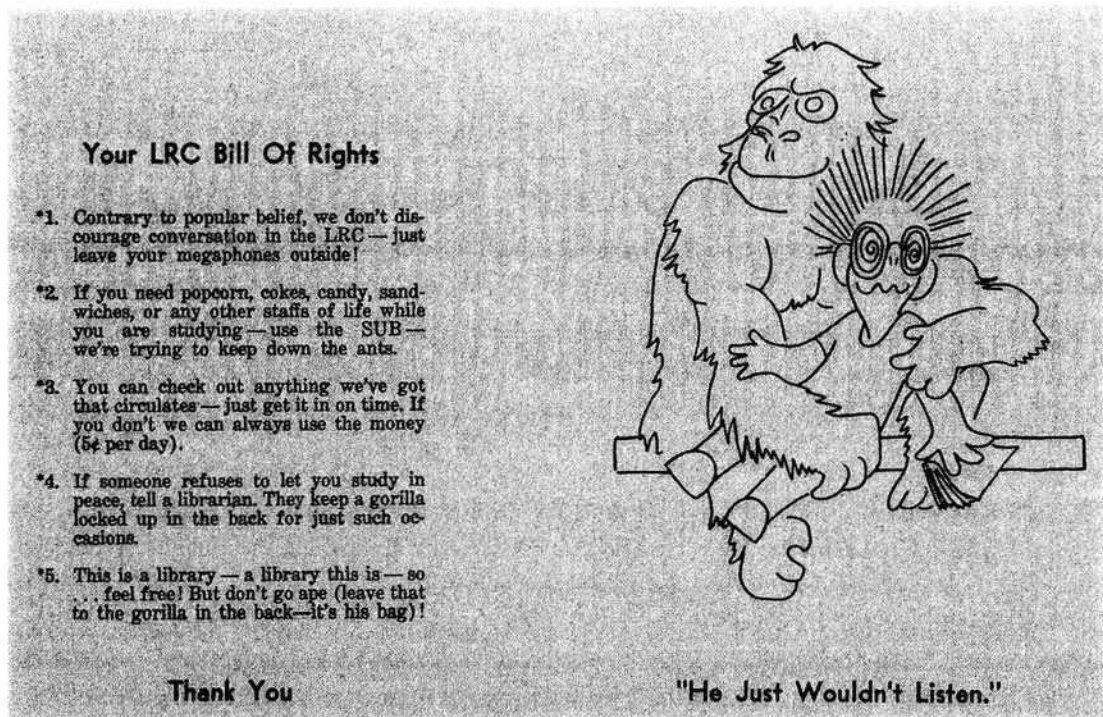


FIGURE 3. Sample of good use of humor (Tarrant County Junior College).

Handbook Contents

Each library must decide for itself what the contents of its handbook will be; however, it may be helpful to know what other libraries do in this regard.

Most libraries do open with a brief introduction, though Lyle feels that "the main body of the text should speak for itself" (5). Perhaps the librarian feels that this is one way of introducing himself to the students.

Table of contents do appear in most handbooks. They help the reader to perceive the organization of the booklet and to quickly locate pertinent information. It is the opinion of the writer that a table of contents should be included in every handbook that contains fifteen pages or more. The table of contents is all the more important if no index is included.

There is no question that library hours are an important part of each manual. Listing of key staff members, telephone numbers, and inclusion of floor plans and campus maps vary from handbook to handbook. A survey of the literature on the subject of staff inclusion reveals that Lyle, Griffith, and Kennemer recommend that the staff be included. Some of the smaller institutions even list the names of supportive staff members. If staff members are listed, consider adding telephone extension numbers also. These may be convenient for faculty. Evergreen State College presents its staff by means of an organization chart.

The majority of libraries do include floor plans in their handbooks. Others have a directory or a description of each floor. The floor plan is a visual, rather than a

directional guide. The writer for one has a problem figuring out which is the west wing and which is the east wing and prefers seeing the plan and following her right or left. Some institutions, particularly those with departmental libraries, include a campus map as well. The University of Pittsburgh has uniquely placed its floor plans and campus map (along with other basic information) on colored pages in the center of its handbook.

All good manuals include an explanation of borrowing procedures, circulation regulations, fine schedules, and policies concerning lost books. The classification schedule is usually presented along with an explanation of the card catalog and a sample set of cards. Some go a step further and illustrate "see" cards and "see also" cards. A number of libraries also choose to include some of the more significant filing rules; however, this practice is more common among college libraries than university ones.

Other significant areas most often covered are interlibrary loan, reserve books, reference and bibliographical services, government documents, periodicals, and indexes. In addition, one may wish to include some of the following: a brief history of the library; a short explanation of departmental libraries; an annotated list of periodical indexes; or an annotated list of selected reference books.

An index is recommended for any handbook of a substantial size. It gives the booklet a finishing touch and adds to its overall usefulness. Great care must be taken, however, to use meaningful entries.

Again, each librarian must decide for himself what items he wishes to include and then plan his handbook accordingly. This writer feels, however, that a handbook should be relevant to the user and should not be overdone—including every little detail. Edwin Willoughby, in his article on college library handbooks, says:

When we approach the problem of compiling a library manual from the student's point of view, we must recognize that he is interested in the subject treated only in so far as it will enable him to make advantageous use of the library for his class work and his recreational reading. In spite of this, librarians take a conscientious delight in showering the student with bibliographical details concerning reference books, although not only will they probably never be used by the student, but also, because they give the guide a forbidding appearance, they prevent him from assimilating those facts which would be of value to him. How important, for example, is it to the student that he learn the names of the publishers of the encyclopedia which he uses? (6).

And he continues:

Again, I feel confident, most manuals present too much material; long lists of reference books too formidable to be favored with a second glance by the average student—the very student which we desire to reach. If the student, on the other hand, becomes well acquainted with a few good reference books in the different classes in the library, he can probably be trusted to begin to use others which stand beside them on the reading-room shelves (6).

As mentioned earlier in this article, some libraries, particularly those of universities, have supplemented their handbooks with guides which present some of the

more sophisticated or advanced information. In this manner the "average" student is not overwhelmed by an abundance of library techniques.

Summary

Handbooks certainly have their place in college and university libraries and serve as a means of acquainting faculty and students with library resources and services. A plan for distribution should be determined and followed so that all new faculty and incoming freshmen receive a copy.

A student library handbook and a faculty library handbook may be prepared separately, which is the practice among some college libraries, or one handbook may be prepared for all patrons. Some libraries have successfully used a faculty and graduate student supplement or have presented library procedures in the college faculty handbook. The one handbook approach may be less time consuming and less costly.

Great care must be exercised in designing the format of the manual, for its effectiveness depends a great deal upon its physical appeal and attractiveness. A positive, warm, and friendly narrative can be totally lost in a poorly designed format. Illustrations, photographs, charts, etc., if properly used, can enhance the overall usefulness of the handbook.

The librarian must prudently determine what essential material he wishes to present in the handbook and limit the extras to a degree that will not overpower the patron. A series of guides may be considered to present additional library information for the faculty and students.

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MARY CELINE MILLER

LIBRARY HISTORIOGRAPHY

Introduction

If an extraterrestrial spaceship had been stationed high above the region of the Tigris, Euphrates, and the Nile for the past five thousand years and its sights had been directed toward libraries, the interpreters of the data would have observed remarkable changes. Clay tablets of Mesopotamia and papyrus rolls of Egypt would have given way centuries later to parchment and paper codices and then to microforms and computer tape. The buildings that house these bibliographic records would have changed from monumental archives to modest private collections and functional public, academic, school, and special libraries. Lastly, the users of the collections would have enlarged in scope from a few priests, royalty, and scribes to masses of students, researchers, and ordinary citizens. From this stream of changes the interpreters of data would have to isolate the main currents of librarianship, to identify the forces that drew them along, and to formulate a theory explaining all the phenomena observed. This process and its product constitute *library historiography*, and its nature, uses, fundamentals, development, and bibliography form the subject of this article. Although the emphasis is on library history in the English language, international tendencies in historiography that relate to this literature will also be discussed.

The Nature of Library Historiography

In accordance with the meaning of *historiography*, which *The Compact Edition of the Oxford English Dictionary* defines compactly but no more so than its illustrious progenitor as "the writing of history; written history" (1), this writer defines *library historiography* as the writing of the history of agencies, people, and movements within or contributing to the development of librarianship; written

history of those agencies, people, or movements. The word *history*, however, has an analogous but more encompassing meaning.

The ancient Greeks gave us a word, but historians of subsequent civilizations have given it meaning. When the Greeks coined the word (*ιστορια*), they provided us so pregnant a term that throughout the ages, philosophically inclined historians have expended much effort in redefining history in accordance with the values of their times. Originally the Greeks intended history to signify inquiry, investigation, and research, but historians to the present day have broadened its meaning, so that history now encompasses three concepts: (1) past human events, (2) the record of the events, and (3) the process or technique of making the record (2).

What is history? And of greater concern to us here, what is library history? Historians from Herodotus to Arnold Toynbee have provided clues and even lengthy discourses on the topic; for example, the American scholar Carl Becker once defined history as "the knowledge of things said and done" (3). The British scholar R. G. Collingwood stated that history was "a science, or an answering of questions; concerned with human actions in the past; pursued by interpretation of evidence for the sake of human self-knowledge" (4). In contrast to historians, librarians, being pragmatic rather than philosophical, have devoted less attention to the nature of their profession's historiography than to the uses of library history; consequently, as an attempt to fill this gap, this writer offers his definition of the field. *Library history* is that branch of history that investigates the actions of people, the activities of agencies, or the effects of social movements within or contributing to the development of librarianship for the sake of professional awareness. History is generally considered one of the social sciences. Although this writer accepts this designation in principle, he believes that the literary attributes of written history give the field a humanistic aspect. Epistemologically considered, history occupies a position midway between the social sciences and the humanities; accordingly, *library history* must also be considered interdisciplinary in nature, occupying the same point on the continuum of the development of knowledge as its parent discipline.

Three types of library history have developed. They may be categorized in terms of (1) the end which the historian has wished to serve, (2) the subject area he has elected to examine, and (3) the method the historian has chosen to employ.

Two examples of the first category—history written with a purpose or end—may illustrate the widely differing purposes that library historians may have:

Thornton, John L., *The Chronology of Librarianship*, Grafton, London, 1941.

Hessel, Alfred, *History of Libraries*, translated by Reuben Peiss, Scarecrow, Metuchen, New Jersey, 1955.

Although both sources were attempts at comprehensive surveys of libraries and librarianship, John L. Thornton was intent upon recording events; in contrast, Alfred Hessel had as his purpose the relating of the events he described to their historical contexts.

Within the category of library history written in terms of the subject area that the historian has elected to examine, three subdivisions may be noted: (1) biography, (2) movement, and (3) agency. The following titles may serve as examples of these subdivisions:

Biography

Holley, Edward G., *Charles Evans: American Bibliographer*, Illinois Univ. Press, Urbana, 1963.

Movement

Ditzion, Sidney Herbert, *Arsenals of a Democratic Culture: A Social History of the American Public Library Movement in New England and the Middle States from 1850 to 1900*, American Library Association, Chicago, 1947.

Agency

Cramer, Clarence H., *Open Shelves and Open Minds: A History of the Cleveland Public Library*, Press of the Case Western Reserve Univ., Cleveland, 1972.

As an example of library history written in terms of a particular method, no work more illustrative of this genre may be found than the statistical survey of Charles C. Jewett:

Jewett, Charles C., *Notices of Public Libraries in the United States*, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C., 1971.

The author's intent was to describe the resources of public libraries statistically as of the middle of 1849. Explaining his purpose, Jewett wrote:

I have endeavored to collect such historical, statistical, and descriptive notices as would be of general interest; together with such special details as would be beneficial to those who are engaged in the organization and case of similar establishments (5).

The Uses of Library History

Why study library history? Or to state the question in the vernacular of today, "Library history? Who needs it?" Intrinsic interest may justify its study to the devotee of library history, but interest alone is insufficient justification for study of the subject to individuals who seek relevance to life in everything they study. We find clues for such justification in the statement of R. G. Collingwood:

It is generally thought to be of importance to man that he should know himself, where knowing himself means knowing not merely personal peculiarities . . . but his nature as man. Knowing yourself means knowing, first, what it is to be a man; secondly, knowing what it is to be the kind of man you are; and thirdly, knowing what it is to be the kind of man *you* are and nobody else is. Knowing yourself means knowing what you can do; and since nobody knows what he can do until he tries, the only clue to what man can do is what man has done. The

value of history, then, is that it teaches us what man has done and thus what man is (6).

Pierce Butler explicitly stated the effects of a librarian's being ignorant of his professional past when he wrote:

Librarianship, as we know it, can be fully apprehended only through an understanding of its historic origins. . . . It is obvious that the librarian's practice will be determined in part by his historical understanding. . . . Unless the librarian has a clear historical consciousness . . . he is quite certain at times to serve his community badly (7).

Commenting on the arguments for the study of library history, James G. Ollé stated:

Whether or not we may profit from the study of history, in the sense of learning to avoid the mistakes that have been made in the past, is an old debating point. Civilisation would hardly progress if we did not learn something. But circumstances change and what would have been the right course of action in the 1870's may not be the right course of action in the 1970's.

One value of library history needs little justification. Properly to understand the library world as it is today, one must know how it has reached its present state.

There are several valid reasons why we should study library history, but I doubt whether anyone who questions its value will be convinced of its usefulness by argument. The study of library history begins as an act of faith. It is easier to believe that it is worthwhile than it is to prove it (8).

This writer believes that significant justification for the study of library history is based on at least three reasons: (1) lessons to be derived, (2) a sense of community with the profession, and (3) inspirational value. Any librarian who attempts to realize an ambitious undertaking, such as the establishment of a depository function within a newly created national library of a developing country, may benefit from the experience of France, the United Kingdom, and the United States, where strong depository laws rigidly enforced contributed to the success of the depository function. A thorough knowledge of the development of librarianship from the time of Ashurbanipal to the present time should instill pride within a librarian and a sense of belonging to a respected profession with a long tradition. Any librarian reading the accomplishments of Gabriel Naudé, Sir Thomas Bodley, Sir Anthony Panizzi, Melvil Dewey, John Shaw Billings, Carl Milam, or Ranganathan surely receives inspiration for carrying out his day by day activities.

Fundamentals of Library Historiography

"I have already explained to you that what is out of the common is usually a guide rather than a hindrance. In solving a problem of this sort, the grand thing

is to be able to reason backwards. That is a very useful accomplishment, and a very easy one, but people do not practice it much. In the everyday affairs of life it is more useful to reason forwards, and so the other comes to be neglected. There are fifty who can reason synthetically for one who can reason analytically."

"I confess," said I, "that I do not quite follow you."

"I hardly expected that you would. Let me see if I can make it clearer. Most people, if you describe a train of events to them, will tell you what the result would be. They can put those events together in their minds, and argue from them that something will come to pass. There are few people, however, who, if you told them a result, would be able to evolve from their own inner consciousness what the steps are which led up to that result. This power is what I mean when I talk of reasoning backwards, or analytically."

"I understand," said I (9).

Thus spoke the great detective Sherlock Holmes to his companion, Dr. John H. Watson, about Holmes' theory of scientific crime detection. Because of the strong similarities common to the reasoning processes of both activities, Sherlock Holmes could just as well have been describing the logic underlying library historiography. If one were to substitute within the theory of crime detection the term "graphic records" for the all essential "clues" of sleuthing, then the analogy would become even closer. In the final analysis a library historian is a social science detective who investigates past events related to the development of librarianship.

Up to this point, library historiography has been treated as interdisciplinary in nature, occupying the same point on the continuum of the development of knowledge as its parent discipline. As a methodology, library historiography is a science, but the moment when that science is applied, it becomes an art. Writing library history is more closely related to composing a symphony—or writing *A Study in Scarlet*—than it is to conducting Pavlov's classic experiment on conditioned reflexes.

Richard F. Clarke described historical method as follows:

... A systematic body of principles and rules designed to aid effectively in gathering the source—materials of history, appraising them critically, and presenting a synthesis (generally in written form) of the results achieved. More briefly, it may be defined as "a system of right procedure for the attainment of [historical] truth" (10).

To aid the researcher in library history in his understanding of the field's underlying research methodology, we cite the following sources as being basic to the subject:

Barzun, Jacques, and Henry F. Graff, *The Modern Researcher*, Harcourt, Brace & World, New York, [1970].

Bernheim, Ernst, *Lehrbuch der historischen Methode*, Duncker and Humblot, Leipzig, 1889.

Garraghan, Gilbert J., *A Guide to Historical Method*, Fordham Univ. Press, New York, 1946.

Shera, Jesse Hauk, *Historians, Books, and Libraries: A Survey of Historical Scholarship in Relation to Library Resources, Organization and Services*. Greenwood, New York, [1953].

The researcher who is fluent in German is referred to the *Lehrbuch der historischen Methode*, but he should be cautioned that Bernheim's classic is no *Emil und die Detektive*; it is a technical treatise on historical method. Garraghan's work covers the same concepts as Bernheim's text in English. Researchers who want a popular introduction to historiography are referred to Barzun's *Modern Researcher*. Anyone wishing a source specifically addressed to the problems of library historiography is referred to *Historians, Books, and Libraries* by Jesse Shera.

"A man writing good history," says Hilaire Belloc, "is driving more horses abreast in his theme than a man writing any other kind of literary matter" (11). In justification of Belloc's statement and another proof of the interdisciplinarity of library historiography is the arsenal of auxiliary sciences from which the library historian must draw such support as his research problem may require. The auxiliary sciences of history include: (1) archacology, (2) epigraphy, (3) paleography, (4) sphragistics or sigillography, (5) numismatics, (6) philately, (7) genealogy, (8) heraldry, (9) chronology, and (10) diplomatics.

ARCHAEOLOGY

For the library historian whose interest lies with investigating ancient temple libraries or royal archives of Mesopotamia, the Nile Valley, the Graeco-Roman world—or for that matter any ancient library—archaeology becomes secondary in importance only to library history itself. Archaeology, or the study of primitive and ancient civilizations through examination of their remains, is similar in scope of interest to history, differing only in the nature and availability of its *materia historica*. Ancient artifacts, a scarce and often fragile commodity, supplement the graphic record for the ancient history historian; consequently, the museum becomes his laboratory as much as the library. There the researcher must search extensively because within the Dewey Decimal and the Library of Congress classification schemes the literature of archaeology is widely scattered.

EPIGRAPHY

Historians classify inscriptions into two categories in terms of the material on which the inscription is written: (1) decipherment of writing on soft surfaces is called paleography, and (2) the decipherment of writing on hard surfaces, such as metal, stone, or clay, is called epigraphy. The latter category serves as a durable link between artifacts and graphic records. Fortunately for the library historian, the *materia historica* of epigraphy is lasting and has survived other kinds of evidence from the ancient period. Parenthetically, it may be added that book burners had a difficult time of it during antiquity when clay tablets were the dominant form of the book.

PALEOGRAPHY

The decipherment of writing on soft surfaces, such as paper, papyrus, vellum, and parchment, are the concern of paleography. In addition, this science inves-

tigates the morphology of written characters and the development of writing styles as they were influenced by the materials and instruments used. Also included within paleography is the development of alphabets and phonetic representation.

SPHRAGISTICS OR SIGILLOGRAPHY

Seals, denoting impressions made on clay, wax, lead, or paper, are the subject of sphragistics or sigillography. They are studied for determining the authenticity or provenance of the document to which the seal is attached. The seal was at first attached to the recto of a document; centuries later, during the medieval period, seals were suspended by thongs or cords. Because the latter process became quite common about the middle of the eleventh century, the historian aided by a knowledge of sphragistics may be able to assign a date to an undated medieval document relating to, let us say, the chartering of a monastery. The science of sphragistics or sigillography is complicated by the possibility that seals can be forged, and valid seals can even be transferred from one document to another.

NUMISMATICS

Undoubtedly the most familiar of all the auxiliary sciences of history is numismatics. Who has not collected coins sometime during his lifetime? A less familiar aspect of numismatics is the study of medals and medallions. Valuable historical information can be gleaned from coins, medals, or medallions; for example, the dates for the reigns of monarchs and the succession of rulers. In some instances the historian owes his knowledge of cities to coins, medallions, or medals because no other extant documents relate to the cities or federal organizations.

PHILATELY

Another harmless hobby that has furnished valuable data for historians is philately. The same type of information that coins, medals, and medallions give may also be provided by postage stamps. Stamps have even been known to commemorate the anniversaries of librarians or the establishment of national or public libraries.

GENEALOGY

Man is a curious animal; thousands of years after families of man swung from trees, man's descendants began to study family trees, and the science of genealogy was born. Although genealogy is commonly known as "the science of pedigree," as an auxiliary science of history, genealogy is more encompassing; it includes not only "family trees" but also lists of officials, such as the succession of librarians of the Alexandrian Library. Family histories are rich sources of genealogical in-

formation and sometimes supply the only data that can be found relating to family relationships.

HERALDRY

The study of armorial bearings—escutcheons, shields, etc.—is the concern of heraldry. Because armor was often marked with a family symbol during the Middle Ages, and the same symbol was often attached to property, such as buildings, establishing the connection between a sponsoring family and a library may be made easier through the science of heraldry.

CHRONOLOGY

Because time is essential to history, chronology, or the science of calendars and other means of measuring time, is indispensable to historical inquiry. Five aspects of chronology are the principal concerns of the subject: (1) beginnings of the years, (2) old style and new style calendars, (3) regnal years, (4) saints' days and feast days, and (5) day of the week.

Although the year most commonly begins throughout the world on January 1, that date was replaced in the Middle Ages, and even later, by December 25 and March 25. In 1582 the Julian calendar then in use was 10 days in arrears of the solar year because of a miscalculation of the calendar, and with the passing of time the discrepancy between the Julian Calendar and the solar year grew. To correct this situation, Pope Gregory XIII compensated for the error by dropping 10 days from the calendar in 1582 (October 5–14); consequently, October 4 of 1582 was immediately followed by October 15, 1582. Pope Gregory's calendar came to be called New Style (N.S.) as opposed to the Old Style (O.S.) Julian calendar that it replaced. In some cases the date of a library event may differ by days in two different sources, if these sources based their reckoning on the Old Style or New Style calendars. The confusion between dates may be compounded when national boundaries are involved because not all countries using the Gregorian calendar adopted it at the same time; France adopted the Gregorian calendar in 1582, Holland in 1700, England in 1752, and Russia in 1917.

Interpreting "regnal years" is another problem included within chronology. Documents, such as laws or other official acts, may refer to a particular year of a sovereign's reign instead of dating by month, day, and year. One example of this practice that will be of considerable interest to the library historian is found on a decree of the British Parliament dated in the "twenty-sixth year of Henry VIII" because that decree closed England's monasteries, and, in effect, most of the country's libraries which were then located in monasteries. When the library historian computes that particular regnal year, he finds it to be 1536.

When interpreting medieval and even later documents, dating is often accomplished by referring to the Saints' Day or Feast Day on which the document was written: e.g., "St. Luke's," October 15; "All Saints Day," November 1; and

"Candlemas Day," February 2. Sometimes documents refer to festivals of the ecclesiastical year, such as Easter or Pentecost.

If it is important for the researcher to determine on which day of the week an event occurred, he may do so by referring to the following article:

Miller, Walter J., "The Calculation of the Day of the Week on any Year," *Jesuit Sci. Bull.*, 10, 120-124 (1933).

DIPLOMATICS

The last of the auxiliary sciences of history is diplomatics, or the science of documents. Diplomatics investigates the date, place, and authenticity of written documents. Although the field includes the study of official documents of governments, it is not restricted to them. Documents relating to agencies, such as libraries, or even private letters are included within the science of diplomatics.

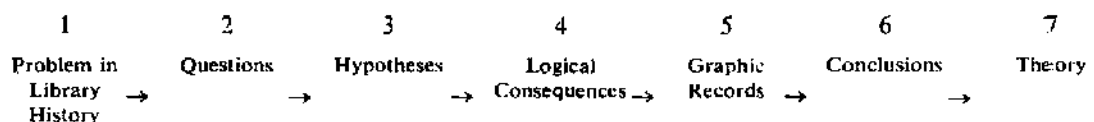
RELATED DISCIPLINES

Other bodies of knowledge, such as philosophy, bibliography, and anthropology are considered disciplines related to history, although not auxiliary sciences of library history. Any library historian should be well grounded in philosophical principles and be conversant with logic, so that his writing may be characterized by clear, orderly thinking. Because books have been the backbone of library collections for centuries, it is of great importance that the library historian understands how books are described. A knowledge of anthropology will allow the library historian to link history with prehistory in an intelligible manner.

The relationships of library historiography to its auxiliary and related sciences are shown graphically in Figure 1.

The Methodology of Library Historiography

The library historian differs from other social scientists in that his domain is the past. In contrast to the psychologist or social worker, who formulate theoretical knowledge from the particular experiences of subjects who are contemporaneous with them, the library historian must always obtain his experience vicariously, and his methods must necessarily be indirect. Reduced to its simplest terms, the historical method is a reasoning process whereby the researcher proceeds from his research problem through the examination of graphic records to a theory explaining the historical problem he is investigating. As applied to library historiography, this seven-step reasoning process may be illustrated graphically as follows:



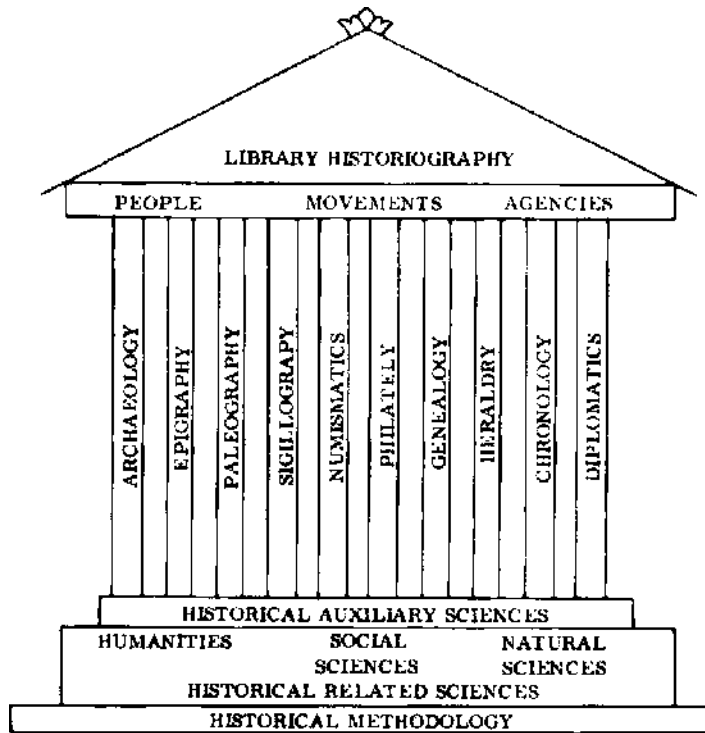


FIGURE 1. *Library historiography and its auxiliary and related sciences.*

Fundamental to the knowledge of the library historian is a thorough understanding of the reasoning process underlying historiography. Most manuals on research dutifully instruct their readers that the first step of the process of historiography is "finding your subject." If a survey were made of the methodologies used by practicing historians, they would probably agree that the first step results so unconsciously from wide reading of the literature of a subject field that, similar to the plot of Luigi Pirandello's *Six Characters in Search of an Author*, the subject usually finds the researcher.

A more conscious decision on the part of the library historian is selecting the point of view from which he wishes to explain the topic; for example, the library historian who chooses as his research problem the development of the book from antiquity to the present time may decide to interpret its development from the sociological viewpoint, and more precisely in accordance with the theory of self-contained "cultures" of the contemporary German historian Oswald Spengler. Spengler theorized that each culture begins in a primitive state, that is, without institutions, then proceeds from developing political organization to artistic expression and technological advances. From the period of scientific and technological achievement comes a classical period, stagnation, decadence, and eventually a return to a primitive state. Characteristic of the ultimate stage of this cycle is a loss of creativity by the culture. Viewed from the sociological viewpoint, and from

Spengler's theory of history, the book may be explained as a product of culture during its stage of technological achievement. As a test of the various hypotheses that can be formulated in accordance with Spengler's theory, the library historian must first predicate a sequence of related questions, for example: has more than one form of the book existed from antiquity to the present time?, if so, what forms has it taken?, when did these forms arise?, where did they originate?, why were they used?, and how did the various forms of the book arise?

For each question the library historian must hypothesize, and then test the validity of the hypothesis through application of its logical consequence to the evidence; for example, as one example of this process, the first question may be treated as follows: we must begin by defining our term. If we define books as "vehicles for the expression of thought and feeling, either directly or in imaginative writing; or of mediums for the deposit and dissemination of knowledge" (12), then we must apply the definition to evidence. Because of its abundance, the item that most readily fits our definition is the codex. But after examination of various examples we find that codices of different types of materials exist, for example, paper, vellum, and parchment codices. In addition to codices, we find that the roll or scroll also meets the specifications of our definition, and again we find papyrus rolls and linen rolls. Another item that satisfies our definition is the clay tablet. From this examination of artifacts—codices, rolls, and tablets—the historian may conclude that various forms of the book exist, but he cannot conclude that the three extant forms are the only ones that have existed. The possibility of books made from perishable materials, such as wood and leather, also exists. Evidence of nonexistent forms of the book that may have been made from perishable materials may be derived from primary or secondary sources; a description on a clay tablet of a leather book that has long since perished would supply primary evidence of the existence of the leather book; whereas a present-day monograph attesting to the one-time existence of leather books derived from the information in the clay tablet would be secondary evidence. In either case—information derived from primary or secondary sources—the library historian would have support for the hypothesis that leather books existed at one time. In order to determine when the identified forms of the book arose, the researcher would have to examine the artifact in question and determine from its writing (or from radiocarbon dating techniques) the approximate date when that particular example of a form of the book existed. By ascertaining two dates—the oldest date for a particular example or a form of a book and its most recent example of that same form—the researcher is able to reach conclusions concerning the time span of a given form of the book; for example, by examining the various examples of extant papyrus rolls, the library historian is able to establish their time span of general use as between the third millennium B.C. and the first century A.D. If the library historian were to repeat this process for all forms of the book known to have existed and to consolidate his facts into a single narrative statement, the researcher would have formulated a theory of the development of the book.

EVIDENCE

Because the library historian deals with indirect sources of information, in other words with artifacts or documents relating to an event rather than the event itself, understanding evidence—its nature, types, and authenticity—is of utmost importance to the library historian. Commenting on the nature of evidence, although he used the term “historical sources,” Garraghan stated:

The term sources in reference to history covers a body of material vast in range and diversified in character. Written records, oral traditions, remains of prehistoric villages, ancient inscriptions on the sides of rocks; in short, any bit of testimony, any object that can throw light on the human story, finds place in the category, “historical sources” (13).

Six types of primary sources of evidence may be distinguished: (1) artifacts, (2) inscriptions, (3) official public records, (4) official private records, (5) newspapers, and (6) personal sources.

A cursory consideration of artifacts may make them appear to be the most reliable type of evidence. After all, what can be more objective than an object itself? But under more careful examination artifacts have a degree of subjectivity in them in that whatever inferences can be drawn from them must be done by a human interpreter; furthermore, survival of the artifact itself, such as the *Book of Kells*, is evidence of the atypical nature of the item. One may erroneously infer from the *Book of Kells* that all medieval manuscripts were beautiful, but in reality, most medieval manuscripts were crude in craftsmanship.

Inscriptions may be described as linking artifacts and graphic records. Although the commemorative nature of inscriptions tends to minimize their subjective element and enhance their reliability as evidence, inscriptions may be falsified as can any other type of historical source. Information may be falsified on hard surfaces, such as metal or stone, as on soft surfaces of paper, parchment, or vellum.

Of all types of sources, primary and secondary, official public records have the greatest reliability. Their very quality of being public makes laws, statutes, treaties, court records, proceedings of governing bodies, official messages of executives, and the reports of commissions and governmental agencies open to criticism as soon as they are recorded. Adding to their reliability is the capability of the compilers of official public records. Because of the consequences that might ensue any inaccuracies in such documents, official public records tend to be accurate and authentic; nevertheless, they are not infallible because state and official records can be nationalistic or partisan.

Official private records, or the archival documents of industrial and commercial enterprises, are comparable in reliability to official public records. Private records run greater risks of having information destroyed or suppressed because its private nature provides fewer opportunities to examine the information being recorded than exist with public records.

Newspapers are almost comparable in reliability to official public records. Certain parts of newspapers, namely market quotations, foreign exchange information, weather reports, and legal notices, are subject to review by so many people that these items take on the character of quasi-official documents. Bias in newspapers can be extremely strong, however, in totalitarian states, such as the Soviet Union, Mussolini's Italy, and Hitler's Germany. Even in democracies, political bias can be strong as it was in the United States of the nineteenth century. Even today newspapers can be biased, although the skill of reporters and editorial writers makes the bias more difficult to detect. Of all newspapers currently being published, the *New York Times* and the (London) *Times* have a high degree of reliability as historical sources.

Many items are contained under the heading of personal sources, including letters, diaries, memoirs, journals, autobiographical writings, and reminiscences. When evaluating personal sources, the library historian must take into consideration the overall veracity of the writer of the documents as well as his purpose in writing the particular document being evaluated.

Of equal importance to the nature of the document being examined is the question of authenticity. Records must be authentic when judged from three criteria: (1) as a physical entity, (2) as to the genuineness of the authorship, and (3) as to the accuracy of the text. Events did not always occur as documents report them to have occurred, and countless forgeries of documents have been executed throughout history with varying degrees of skills. Scientific techniques, such as analysis of paper, inks, etc., an ability to assess "internal evidence" of a document, as well as knowledge of textual criticism, have greatly aided the library historian in judging the authenticity of a document.

Secondary sources, or documents that have been produced by individuals who received their information vicariously, are usually of less reliability than primary sources. The reduction in reliability is attributable to the potential for error inherent in secondary sources. If the source is already in error, the interpreter of the secondary source is only capable of understanding the erroneous information contained in the document. Secondary sources are used for five reasons: (1) general background information, (2) special types of information, particularly in areas where his own knowledge is inadequate, (3) information not otherwise available to him, (4) assurance that the work he is doing has not already been done by others, and (5) profit from the mistakes of his predecessors.

While interpreting all types of sources, the library historian must be aware that no historical source has complete validity although, in general, there is greater potential for validity in primary sources.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LIBRARY HISTORIOGRAPHY

At the start of the preface to his gripping literary work *The Gulag Archipelago*, Aleksandr I. Solzhenitsyn related his reaction to a startling biological discovery:

In 1949 some friends and I came upon a noteworthy news item in *Nature*, a magazine of the Academy of Sciences. It reported in tiny type that in the course of excavations on the Kolyma River a subterranean ice lens had been discovered which was actually a frozen stream—and in it were found frozen specimens of prehistoric fauna some tens of thousands of years old. Whether fish or salamander, these were preserved in so fresh a state, the scientific correspondent reported, that those present immediately broke open the ice encasing the specimens and devoured them with relish on the spot (14).

As surprising as the discovery recounted by Solzhenitsyn may appear to the historian, it is not unique in the annals of paleontology; in 1846, for example, a young Russian surveyor discovered, also in Siberia, a fifteen-foot long mammoth in a life-like state of preservation, and even today numerous specimens of insects millions of years old still come to us preserved so perfectly in amber that they appear to be suspended in midflight (15).

LIBRARY HISTORIOGRAPHY OF ANTIQUITY

In contrast to the paleontologist who in reconstructing prehistory of millions of years ago has on occasion been fortunate to work among integral fossils, the library historian must customarily be content with examining fragmentary remains even when attempting to write library history of the Mesopotamian, oriental, Egyptian, Hebrew, or Graeco-Roman worlds dating back only a few thousand years.

Shortly after the beginnings of writing, which developed among the Sumerians about five thousand years ago (16), archives of governmental, legal, and business records were preserved in religious temples that were erected in the area of the fertile crescent between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. Included within these archives were texts and treatises of religion, astrology, medicine, mathematics, literature, and even the beginnings of history. Shortly after 4000 B.C. the earliest Sumerian history began in the form of inscriptions (17). Among the Sumerians—and their successors, the Babylonians and Assyrians—history characteristically assumed the form of accounts of the accomplishments of kings, such as the Babylonian Gilgamesh Epic, dating from approximately 2000 B.C. This epic may be summarized as follows:

It is the story of Gilgamesh, semimythical king of the ancient city, Erech. Ishtar, the Babylonian Venus, tries to win his love. But he rejects her advances and, instead, with his faithful companion En-Gidu, goes forth to seek immortal life. After many adventures, during which En-Gidu is killed, Gilgamesh finds his ancestors, Ut-Napishtim and his wife, enjoying immortality upon the Isle of the Blessed far to the west across the waters of death. Ut-Napishtim tells Gilgamesh the story of the great flood brought by the gods, from which only he and his companions in the ship escaped, while all the rest of mankind perished (18).

The significance of the Gilgamesh Epic derives from its story of the flood whose details parallel so closely the biblical flood that one might logically conclude that

the account from Genesis was borrowed by the Hebrews from the Babylonians. While acknowledging the debt that library history owes to this ancient writing from Babylonia, the student of library history should not snicker at the inclusion of mythical elements in an early attempt to write history because some present-day library historians still cling to their mythical elements.

When writing library history of the ancient Chinese, the historian is favored with official records dating back thousands of years. According to these records, China had libraries for storing official documents as early as 2650 B.C. (19). Judging from the information recorded, the library tradition in China was similar to the Assyrian, emphasizing the historical and archival function of librarianship. Concerning their librarians, these records indicate that the earliest recorded date for their existence is 600 B.C. (19). The first librarian to be recorded in Chinese history is the philosopher Lao-tse, the founder of Taoism.

Although another people of Mesopotamia—the Assyrians—figure in library historiography in its incipient stages, the earliest inscription known to these writers that refers directly to libraries comes to us from ancient Egypt from the reign of Rameses II (1304–1237 B.C.). On the authority of the Greek historian Diodorus Siculus we know that Rameses II established a great library of sacred literature in Thebes (16). The great significance that the Egyptians attached to libraries may be inferred from the inscription that was placed over the entrance to the library at Thebes. It read “Medicine for the soul” (16).

Even more about ancient libraries and library historiography can be inferred from an inscription on an Assyrian clay tablet dating from the reign of Ashurbanipal (669–626 B.C.). This ruler, known as Sardanapalus among Greek historians of a later era, maintained two vast libraries in his fabulous capital of Nineveh. The inscription found among the clay tablets reveals that not only had the Assyrians, like the Egyptians, a high regard for libraries, but also that the Assyrians had a philosophy of librarianship:

Palace of Sardanapalus, King of the world, King of Assyria, to whom the God Nebo and the Goddess Ourmit have given ears to hear and eyes to see what is the foundation of government. They have revealed to the kings, my predecessors, this cuneiform writing. The manifestation of the God Nebo, . . . of the God of supreme intellect,—I have written it upon clay tablets. I have signed it, I have put it in order, I have placed it in the midst of my palace for the instruction of my subjects (20).

Among the Hebrews a long tradition of history and a deep respect for learning, books, and libraries date back over two thousand years before the Christian era when the Hebrews first appeared as a distinct people in Mesopotamia. As they were led from Mesopotamia by Abraham through the lonely vastness of the Arabian desert, the Israelites pondered deep philosophical questions that culminated in monotheism. The first Hebrew history was probably told under the stars as bards recited around campfires tales and songs relating to the Israelites' search for a homeland. When around 1000 B.C. these tales began to be recorded, the Bible,

the world's most widely read book, was born. From Biblical references—and from archaeological discoveries—library historians have concluded that even in Mesopotamia the Hebrews had libraries (21). As the Hebrews began their trek through the desert, they developed a unique type of library; whereas the Assyrians established their national library in the fixed location of Nineveh, the Hebrews carried their mobile national library in the ark of the covenant. By the time of Solomon's reign (ca. 973–ca. 933 B.C.) an extensive library was developed in Solomon's temple where not only religious texts but many types of archival records, including annals, treaties, and edicts, were collected. Within the Christian Era libraries continued to be important among the Hebrews, a most remarkable example being the Dead Sea Scrolls, dating from between 167 B.C. and A.D. 237 (22).

Significant advances in the development of historiography were made in the Graeco-Roman world. Among the Greeks, beginning with the sixth century B.C. Hecataeus of Miletus and culminating with the second century B.C. Polybius, historiography made a successful transition—mainly through the contributions of Herodotus and Thucydides—from myth to fact. Not only did the Greek historians disally themselves from the fictitious elements that marred the historical writing of earlier cultures, but they also tackled subjects vaster in scope than the writings of their predecessors, and made history into a discipline apart from literature.

Commenting on the contribution to historiography made by Herodotus, Edith Hamilton stated:

Herodotus is a shining instance of the strong Greek bent to examine and prove or disprove. He had a passion for finding out. The task he set himself was nothing less than to find out all about everything in the world. He is always called the "father of history," but he was quite as much the father of geography, of archaeology, of anthropology, of sociology, of whatever has to do with human beings and the places in which they live. He was as free from prejudice as it is possible to be. The Greek contempt for foreigners—in Greek, "barbarians"—never touched him. He was passionately on Athens' side in her struggle against Persia, yet he admired and praised the Persians. He found them brave and chivalrous and truthful. Much that he saw in Phoenicia and Egypt seemed admirable to him, and even in uncivilized Scythia and Libya he saw something to commend. He did not go abroad to find Greek superiority. An occasional inferiority quite pleased him. He quotes with amusement Cyrus' description of a Greek market as "a place set apart for people to go and cheat each other on oath" (23).

As he begins his *History of East and West*, Herodotus comes at us with the directness of a present-day television news analyst, and his purposes become perfectly clear:

Herodotus of Halicarnassus presents the results of his researches in the following work, with the twofold object of saving the past of mankind from oblivion and ensuring that the extraordinary achievements of the Hellenic and the Oriental worlds shall enjoy their just renown—particularly the transitions which brought them into conflict with one another (24).

Thucydides contributed an original concept to historiography; he was responsible for giving us, for better or for worse, the belief that history repeats itself, as he indicated in his *The History of the Peloponnesian War*:

As regards the material facts of the war, I have not been content to follow casual informants or my own imagination. Where I have not been an eye witness myself, I have investigated with the utmost accuracy attainable every detail that I have taken at second hand. The task has been laborious, for witnesses of the same particular events have given versions that have varied according to their sympathies or retentive powers. Possibly the public will find my unromantic narrative forbidding, but I shall be satisfied if it is favorably received by readers whose object is exact knowledge of facts which had not only actually occurred, but which are destined approximately to repeat themselves in all human probability (25).

Polybius of Megalopolis represents an interesting transitional figure in Graeco-Roman historiography; born a Greek, Polybius went to Rome as an enemy, but he stayed in Rome to praise what he considered its superior civilization. Polybius believed that history was a separate discipline, apart from literature, and had, as he stated in his *World History*, a universal value:

If previous historians had omitted to praise their own art, it might have been my duty to make a general appeal for the sympathetic reception of this branch of literature. The knowledge of past events is the sovereign corrective of human nature. This duty, however, is far from having been exceptionally or perfunctorily performed. It is actually the note on which almost all historians have begun and ended their work, when they have eulogized the lessons of history as the truest education and training for political life, and the study of others' vicissitudes as the most effective, or indeed the only, school in which the right spirit for enduring the changes of fortune can be acquired. It is evident, therefore, that no historian would be justified in reiterating what has been so often and so ably said before, and least of all the present writer. The events which he has chosen as his subject are sufficiently extraordinary in themselves to arouse and stimulate the interest of every reader, young or old. What mind, however commonplace or indifferent, could feel no curiosity to learn the process by which almost the whole world fell under the undisputed ascendancy of Rome within a period of less than fifty-three years, or to acquaint itself with the political organization to which this triumph—a phenomenon unprecedented in the annals of mankind—was due? What mind, however infatuated with other spectacles and other studies, could find a field of knowledge more profitable than this (26).

Following Polybius, Roman historiography was further enriched by Livy, Tacitus, and Plutarch. By use of the technique of integrating the writings of his predecessors, Livy succeeded through his "scissors-and-paste" history—a technique that Polybius had brought to Rome from Hellenistic Greece—in writing a complete history of Rome. Because of the ethnocentric conception that the Romans had of their culture, Livy's *History of Rome* gave a grandeur to history that it had never had under previous historians. With Tacitus and Plutarch historiography assumed a moral tone that was foreshadowed only in the writings of Hebrew historians. Tacitus'

Germania, *Histories*, and *Annals* severely criticized contemporary Roman life and urged the return to the virtues and ideals that had existed in the Roman Republic. An earlier ideal was advocated by Plutarch in his *Parallel Lives*; when comparing outstanding Romans with their Greek counterparts, for example the orators Cicero and Demosthenes and the conquerors Julius Caesar and Alexander the Great, the moral superiority of the Greeks was always evident. So real were the emotions and psychological states that the historical personages of Plutarch displayed that his characters provided the raw material for some of Shakespeare's most memorable tragic heroes.

The contributions made to historiography during antiquity were considerable, but to library historiography ancient historians may be said to have contributed only the primordial elements; the historians of Mesopotamia and Egypt established history on a semimythical base which the Hebrews succeeded in shifting to a theocratic one; the Orientals contributed to historiography the concept of detailed chronology; and the great contribution of Gracco-Roman historiography was that its historians found myths and religious tales and through the introduction of effective techniques of inquiry converted history into accounts revealing the true nature of actual events and the actions of man. It is ironic that with the advanced state of history and libraries during antiquity no history of libraries was written then; instead, we find within the works of ancient authors—Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, Plutarch, Cicero, Vitruvius, Seneca, Aulus Gellius, Ammianus Marcellinus, Ovid, and Juvenal, to name a few—references suspended as monocellular organisms must have existed in the first soupy mixture from which life emerged. These scattered references awaited the sixteenth century *deus ex machina* Justus Lipsius (1547–1606) to appear on the scene to write his *A Brief Outline of the History of Libraries* in 1607.

LIBRARY HISTORIOGRAPHY OF THE MEDIEVAL PERIOD

Medieval historiography was dominated by a force that had arisen during antiquity, although it had never permeated historical writing of the ancient period. The religious fervor that had been heard as a solitary voice in the Arabian desert and had been immortalized by Hebraic historians in their sacred writings echoed resoundingly through the Christian and Islamic world. Although ancient historians had been motivated to record events, for example Herodotus wrote "lest the great and wonderful deeds performed by Greeks and barbarians should become lost to fame" (27), no people prior to the Jews recorded past events as a duty symbolizing the unfolding of God's plan for his chosen people. For Christian writers, such as Sextus Julius Africanus, Eusebius, St. Jerome, and St. Benedict, and Muslim historians, Ibn Khaldun for example, the appearance of Jesus Christ fulfilled the prophecies of the hebraic prophets.

Imbued with a new purpose—the recording of God's mysterious will—history assumed a universal importance that it had never had; furthermore, Christian and Islamic historiography gave mankind a new awareness of the unity of history; if all

mankind were elements of God's plan, then all historical writings were indispensable parts to a divine jigsaw puzzle. Sextus Julius Africanus (ca. A.D. 160–ca. 240) was the first Christian writer known to attempt to integrate the pieces of Christian history with Jewish history in his history of the world from creation to A.D. 221. Eusebius (ca. 263–399?) updated the chronology in his *Chronographia* to 324, and St. Jerome (ca. 347–419?) continued the work. The Benedictine rule of St. Benedict of Nursia (ca. 480–ca. 550), besides being the first manual for the conduct of a monastery that was to be adopted by monasteries throughout western Europe, also contributed valuable data for library historiography, as evidenced by the quotation that follows. From it the historian can deduce the rules that Monte Cassino maintained since the monastery was established in A.D. 529:

Between Easter and the Calends of October let them [the monks] apply themselves to reading from the fourth hour till near the sixth hour. From the Calends of October to the beginning of Lent let them apply themselves to reading until the second hour. . . . During Lent, let them apply themselves to reading from morning until the end of the third hour . . . and, in these days of Lent, let them receive a book apiece from the library, and read it straight through.

Then shall he read aloud a note of the books which a year before had been given out to brethren for their reading. When a brother's name is called, he rises, and returns the book that has been given to him; and if it should happen that he has not read it through, he is to ask forgiveness for his want of diligence. A carpet on which these books are to be laid out is to be put down in the Chapter-House; and the titles of those which are distributed to brethren afresh are to be noted, for which purpose a tablet is to be made of somewhat larger size than usual.

The librarian, who is called also precentor, is to take charge of the books of the church; all which he ought to keep and to know under their separate titles; and he should frequently examine them carefully to prevent any damage or injury from insects or decay. He ought also, at the beginning of Lent, in each year, to show them to the convent, in Chapter, when the souls of those who have given them to the Church, or of the brethren who have written them ought to be absolved, and a service in convent be held over them. He ought also to hand to the brethren the books which they see occasion to use, and to enter on his roll the titles of the books, and the names of those who receive them. These, when required, are bound to give surety for the volumes they receive; nor may they lend them to others, whether known or unknown, without first obtaining permission from the librarian. Nor ought the librarian himself to lend books unless he receive a pledge of equal value; and then he ought to enter on his roll the name of the borrower, the title of the book lent, and the pledge taken. The larger and more valuable books he ought not to lend to anyone, known or unknown, without permission of the Prelate . . . (28).

Because Islam represented to orthodox Muslims the manifestation of God's will, Muslim historians scrutinized events of their history to discover in them an inexorable continuity. So successful was he in discovering patterns in events that Ibn Khaldun (1332–1406) in his *al-Mugaddimah*, the introduction to his *Kitāb*

al-'ibar, a universal history, influenced various western historians including Arnold J. Toynbee who called the Arab historian "the most illuminating interpreter of the morphology of history that has appeared anywhere in the world so far" (29).

Although history as a manifestation of God's will assumed greater importance than it had previously, and monastic libraries continued their significant role in the transmitting of culture from antiquity to the Renaissance, no medieval historian saw fit to write a history of libraries. Library historiography continued to be embedded as references about libraries in the writings of medieval historians.

LIBRARY HISTORIOGRAPHY OF THE RENAISSANCE

From the mid-fourteenth century to the end of the sixteenth century the birth of ancient learning that took place in Europe affected all branches of learning to varying degrees, including historiography. The Renaissance that produced Petrarch, Boccaccio, Leonardo da Vinci, and Michelangelo also produced Gutenberg, the bibliographers Trithem and Gesner, as well as historians such as Leonardo Bruni.

More than any other event the invention of printing from movable type motivated the activity of the Renaissance. As the geniuses of that time originated new theories, concepts, and ideas, Gutenberg's invention stimulated their diffusion through multiple copies of books. Libraries, which during the medieval period were agencies owned almost exclusively by the Church, began to appear among wealthy men of the Renaissance; and books, which during the medieval period existed only as manuscripts, took the form of printed copies.

Stimulated by increased book publishing, bibliography, an activity that had been dormant since the ancient period, arose once again. Johann Trithem's *Liber de Scriptoribus Ecclesiasticis*, published in 1494, and his *Catalogus Illustrum Vivorum Germaniae*, published a year later, evidenced a renewed interest in bibliography. In 1545 Konrad Gesner issued his *Bibliotheca Universalis*, a monumental work that encompassed the new concept of universal bibliography. The efforts of Trithem and Gesner, far from being isolated activities, were matched on a more modest scale by various bibliographers who attempted to catalog and classify the manuscript and printed books that existed in libraries. The growth in publishing that followed Gutenberg's invention increased the number of books available to libraries to the extent that the need for classification schemes became apparent, but only modest attempts at organizing bibliographies were made, such as the arrangements found in Gesner's *Pandectarum sive Partitionum Universalium*, a subject arrangement of the author's earlier bibliography, the *Bibliotheca Universalis*.

Renaissance historians, aware of the unique human achievements that their age was producing, gave a new orientation to historiography. As Machiavelli and other authors of the period admired the historical writings of the ancient historians Livy and Polybius, Renaissance historiography became homocentric, and man's actions were no longer reduced to minute elements of the Divine plan; instead, in accordance with the philosophy of Humanism, human achievements were recognized as man-sized with a need to be documented as faithfully as historical scholarship was

capable of recording them. The Renaissance historian whose writing epitomized this humanistic orientation was Leonardo Bruni (1369–1444), Chancellor of Florence from 1427 to 1444. Bruni's *Historiae Florentine Populi*, a history of Florence, retold the city's past in view of facts unearthed through archaeological discovery rather than the legends that had encrusted earlier accounts of Florence.

LIBRARY HISTORIOGRAPHY OF THE SEVENTEENTH AND EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES

Instead of renewing interest in the learning of a previous age, as the Renaissance had done, the age of reason produced its own knowledge. By using scrutiny as a burning glass, thinkers of the age focused their intellectual powers on scientific problems and formulated original theories of astronomy, research, physics, and mathematics. Copernicus, the brilliant Polish astronomer, startled the intellectual community in 1543 with his *De revolutionibus orbium coelestium*, a work that described the sun as the center of a great system with the earth revolving around it. Sir Francis Bacon attempted to reorganize all human knowledge with his *Instauratio Magna*, two parts of which were published in 1605 and 1620 as *The Advancement of Learning* and *Novum Organum*. In his *The New Atlantis*, published in 1627, Bacon even speculated on a utopia established on scientific principles. Copernicus' speculation on the movement of heavenly bodies gained theoretical support in 1632 when Galileo published his *Dialogue*, and received mathematical support in 1687 in Newton's *Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica*. In front of this panoply of scientific achievement, René Descartes, the French philosopher, attempted to apply mathematics to philosophy in his *Discours de la Méthode*. Characteristic of Descartes was doubt. He doubted everything, including the value of history.

In *Historians, Books, and Libraries*, Jesse Shera commented on Descartes' criticism of historians as follows:

Against the work of the historian, Descartes in his *Discourse on Method* brought to bear four major criticisms: (a) The historian is essentially a traveller in a foreign land, and like anyone who remains away from home too long, he becomes an alien to his own age. (b) Historical narratives cannot be trustworthy accounts of the past because of the nature of the record available to the historian. (c) Such untrustworthy history can have no value for the present as an aid to the solution of contemporary problems. (d) History is fantasy, and the picture of the past which it presents is more splendid than it actually was (30).

Historians did not ignore Descartes' attack on historiography. Commenting on the activity of Giovanni Battista Vico (1668–1744) in this regard, Shera also stated:

To historians Vico issued a number of warnings against certain prejudices that he found prevalent in the work of his predecessors and contemporaries. Briefly stated these prejudices were: (a) The belief in the magnificence of antiquity that exaggerates the wealth, power, and grandeur of the civilization that the historian is studying; (b) The propensity of every historian to present the past of his own

nation in more favorable terms than is justified by the facts; (c) The fallacy of the academic mind of the historian which leads him to present the historic figures about whom he is writing as being, like himself, scholars, students, or at least individuals of a reflective, intellectual type; (d) The error which leads the historian to believe that because two civilizations evince the same beliefs or institutions the one must have borrowed it from the other—a prejudice that denies the creative power of the human mind and its capacity to rediscover ideas for itself without learning them from previous society; and (e) The historian's assumption that the ancients knew more about their times than he because of the advantage of temporal propinquity when actually he might know much more about the origins of their own institutions than they themselves knew.

Positively, Vico indicated certain methods and disciplines available to the historian that would contribute to the validity of his results. He demonstrated that the study of language and etymology could contribute much to an understanding of the life of a people or civilization, and he used mythology to exemplify the social structure of a people whose myths he was investigating. Further, he proposed the use of tradition, not as a guide to literal truth, but as a confused group memory of facts, a refraction index that would reveal the social patterns of the ancients. Finally, he emphasized his belief that human minds at like stages of development tend to create similar institutions, social patterns, civilizations; a conviction which was basic to his cyclical concept of the historical continuum.

The thought of Vico was far in advance of his time, and his influence among those historians who were dominated by the Cartesian philosophy was slight. Not until the end of the eighteenth century, when he was discovered by the German scholars, was the magnitude of his contribution to historical method truly appreciated. Today sociologists and economists, as well as historians, acknowledge indebtedness to him (31).

The criticisms that Enlightenment scholars, notably Descartes, made of historiography eventually improved it. Through introducing new methods of historical criticism and broadening the scope of history to include auxiliary sciences, such as geology and geography, rationalist historians became increasingly aware of the importance of social phenomena, customs, mores, and laws to the understanding of human events. The French philosopher Voltaire (1694–1778) espoused a philosophy of “cultural history,” in other words stressing the conditions under which mankind lived, in his article on history in the *Encyclopédie*. His historical writings—*Histoire de Charles XII, roi de Suède*, his *Siècle de Louis XIV*, as well as the “*Essai sur les moeurs et l'esprit des nations*”—exemplified his philosophy of historical writing.

Ironically, the age of reason, which was not an especially propitious era for historiography in general, did produce the first landmark in library historiography, *A Brief Outline of the History of Libraries*, published by the Flemish scholar Justus Lipsius in 1607. Three centuries later Henry W. Kent wrote an informative introductory note to a 1907 edition of Lipsius's work, part of which we quote here:

Few of the biographers of Justus Lipsius have devoted their attention to that part of his writings which, in an English translation by John Cotton Dana, is here offered to lovers of libraries. They have found matters of greater importance to

the world at large in the chief things of his life,—his theological, historical and literary writings.

To Lipsius bibliophiles owe their thanks because he published the first history of libraries, in the modern sense of the word,—a history which is as fresh and useful to-day as it was when it was written. Only a man of great scholarship could have written such a story, requiring the searching of the original authorities in Latin, Greek and Hebrew, and only the scholarship of the sixteenth century—careful, conscientious and leisurely—could have brought together all the facts that Lipsius did. All of the histories since his time have borrowed freely from our author, or, like Edwards, have used his references for further elaboration of their texts (32).

In order to allow the reader to experience the style of Justus Lipsius and to add further proof of the indebtedness of future writers to the Flemish scholar, we quote a part of Chapter II of his work. As one reads this section he becomes aware of not only the free use that library historians have made of Lipsius's work—sometimes without crediting the source—but also the equal indebtedness that some pompous professors of library history have when their seemingly intimate knowledge of library allusions from ancient authors was actually an acquaintance with an English translation of Lipsius's work:

Though other libraries of Egypt are little known, we learn that that of Ptolemy Philadelphus was famous and highly renowned. He was the son of Ptolemy Lagus, second of the name and of the line of the Greek kings of Egypt. Being a patron of the arts and sciences he was, of course, a lover of books, and founded the great library of Alexandria, aided by the instruction and example, perhaps even by the very books themselves, of Aristotle. For Aristotle, as I shall note later, had a library which was remarkable for the number and excellence of its books. Speaking of this library, Strabo says that Aristotle was the first private collector of books of whom we have any knowledge, and that he taught the kings of Egypt the principles of classification. This passage from Strabo, however, must be read with care and be properly interpreted; for Aristotle was by no means the first to form a library, and as he lived before the time of Philadelphus, he could not have taught him, save as I have said, by example. Perhaps what Athenaeus says is true, that Aristotle left his books to Theophrastus, he to Neleus, and that from the latter Ptolemy bought them, and transferred them, with others which he purchased in Athens and Rhodes, to fair Alexandria. Other writers, however, do not assent to this statement, as I shall show presently. This much is admitted, however, that he founded a library and collected for it books of every kind from all parts of the world, even seeking out the sacred books of Hebrews. As soon as the fame of the wisdom of the Hebrews reached his ears, he sent and demanded the books which contained it, and employed men skilled in such matters to translate them into Greek for the common use of all. This translation was called the Septuagint from the number of persons who were engaged in making it. It was made, according to Epiphanius, in the seventeenth year of the reign of Philadelphus, in the one hundred and twenty-seventh Olympiad. Demetrius Phalereus had charge of this library. He was an exile from his native Athens, and was renowned both for his writings and his works. The King held him in high esteem and entrusted to his care the library, and other matters of even greater importance.

Philadelphus likewise collected books from the Chaldeans, the Egyptians and even from the Romans, and had them translated into Greek. I quote Georgius Cedrenus, who says, "Philadelphus had the sacred books of the Chaldeans, Egyptians, and Romans, as well as some in other languages, to the number of a hundred thousand volumes, translated into Greek, and placed them in his library at Alexandria." I note especially two things in this quotation: first, the diligence shown in translating into the common tongue books of foreign languages,—a very useful custom in my opinion and one which should be adopted to-day by you, O Princes; and second, the statement as to the number of books. This number is very large, it is true, but not large enough if it is meant to include all the books in the library. I think it was not so meant; but that Cedrenus had in mind only the translations, and that the works in the original Greek far surpassed the number of translations. Other writers who have mentioned this library say it was much larger than Cedrenus says it was. Our friend Seneca reports that four hundred thousand volumes, a most precious monument of royal munificence, perished in the flames. Most precious, indeed; beyond all gold or rarest gems! How much more precious if their number had been greater still! And greater in fact it was. This number of Seneca's falls short of the truth, and must be extended to seven hundred thousand. Let Josephus tell us. He says that Demetrius, the librarian I have mentioned, was once asked by Philadelphus how many books he had in the library, and replied that he has two hundred thousand volumes, and hoped soon to have five hundred thousand.

So you see how the library grew under his hands; then consider how much larger it must have grown to be in later years, under other kings, successors of Philadelphus. A. Gellius frankly says that the number rose to seven hundred thousand. To quote him exactly, "A prodigious number of books was collected, either by purchase or by copying, by the Ptolemaic kings of Egypt, nearly seven hundred thousand volumes." Ammianus, from whom I shall quote shortly says the same, and Isidore also, if his words be properly emended. "In Alexandria, in the days of Philadelphus, there were," he says, "seventy thousand books." I think that he should have said seven hundred thousand (33).

And Lipsius goes on and on, with references from Julius Caesar, Plutarch, Dion, Livy, Seneca, Tertullian, etc. The reader will note that Lipsius constantly uses the expressions "Ammianus says," "Seneca says," and "A. Gellius says." His use of the present tense was no accident; so intimate was the knowledge of Lipsius with the classics from which he quotes that Lipsius considers them living documents; in fact, in one passage Lipsius refers to "our friend Seneca" (34). To state that Lipsius was a profound classical scholar is to understate the case. Few scholars of today show such facility; to give Lipsius his just due one must admit that few plagiarists in library history have displayed the facility with original works that Lipsius displayed with the classics. He was a linguist whose virtuosity has all but perished from today's scholarship.

But to state, as Henry W. Kent does, that Lipsius published "the first history of libraries, *in the modern sense of the word*" (35) (emphasis added) is to overstate the case for Lipsius. While the present-day reader may be staggered by the classical erudition that Lipsius displays, the reader will note that Lipsius' writing is oblivious of the historiographic tendencies of his day, that little hypothesizing and no theorizing about library development is in evidence. Lipsius' work is nothing

more than commentary on references to libraries as they appeared in the writings of classical authors. Lipsius attempted to present these references in a sensible arrangement and to select the most logical variant where various references referred to the same event or phenomenon. Lipsius himself called his work *A Brief Outline of the History of Libraries*. Why should we call it more? Judged in its historical context of library historiography, Lipsius' work is an excellent history, one built on a magnificent foundation of scholarship.

In 1627—a decade after the publication of Lipsius' book—appeared Gabriel Naudé's *Advis pour dresser une bibliothèque*. Naudé's treatise deserves mention as the first systematic exposition of the essential activities of librarianship—community analysis, selection, acquisition, organization, and use of materials, as well as library administration. Intended by Naudé as an explanation to his patron, Cardinal Mazarin, of the requisites of a good library, the *Advis . . .* became more. Encompassing as it did the state-of-the-art of seventeenth century librarianship, Naudé's *Advis . . .* may be considered the *Encyclopedia of Library and Information Science* of its time. For our time the *Advis . . .* serves the valuable function of being a rich primary source for library historians interested in seventeenth century librarianship. Librarians of today can profit from Naudé's philosophy. Paule Salvan, Directrice honoraire of the Ecole Nationale Supérieure des Bibliothèques, commented on Naudé's professional beliefs as follows:

In 1627 Naudé, librarian to Cardinal Mazarin, stated in his *Advis pour dresser une bibliothèque* a profession of faith, the liberality of which is well known: the "lights of the library must not be hidden under a bushel" and "fruitlessly he strives . . . to make some notable expenditure for books who does not have as a purpose to dedicate and consecrate the usage to the public and never to prohibit access to the least of men who could have need of them . . ." (36).

As a consequence of the vigorous intellectual activity that occurred during the Enlightenment, a need arose for improved communication among scholars; libraries reacted to this need by increasing the size of their book collections. As another attempt to improve communication, scholars began to form associations. As by-products of these associations, journals began to arise, for example, in France the *Journal des savans* and in England the *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society* appeared, both in 1665. Stimulated by this increased literary activity, libraries of various types, including social libraries, national libraries, and archives, began to appear throughout Europe during the eighteenth century.

THE IMPACT OF SCIENTIFIC HISTORY ON LIBRARY HISTORIOGRAPHY

During the nineteenth century historiography underwent a revolutionary change. Aided by the vast libraries and archives that had been established throughout Europe, historical writers developed new research techniques based on critical examination of documents. In the forefront of this development was the school

of historical writing that arose at the University of Berlin and the University of Göttingen.

Among the outstanding historians on the faculty of the University of Berlin were Barthold Georg Niebuhr (1776–1831) and Leopold von Ranke (1795–1886). Through his insistence on minute examination of every bit of evidence relating to his research topic, Niebuhr initiated modern scientific historical method in his *History of Rome*. Carrying on the tradition of Niebuhr while refining further the methodology of historiography was Von Ranke. Not content to examine documentary evidence, Von Ranke subjected all documents that he used as sources to thorough checking with contemporary evidence. His purpose was to write history "*wie es eigentlich gewesen ist*," i.e., as it really happened.

Between the period of Niebuhr and Von Ranke emerged notable library historians in the English-speaking world on both sides of the Atlantic: Josiah Quincy and Edward Edwards. Within the United States, Josiah Quincy (1772–1864) initiated a period of increased activity in library historiography with his *History of the Boston Athenaeum* which appeared in 1851. Rather than history written to satisfy the requirements of modern scientific historical method as formulated by nineteenth century German historians, Quincy's history was written in response to an upsurge of interest in America's colonial past and to satisfy the cravings of an adolescent American public who wanted the popular and dramatic elements of history as supplied by George Bancroft, Francis Parkman, William Prescott, and Mason Weems. Evaluating Quincy's work, Jesse Shera commented:

Its most obvious quality as historical writing is, of course, its factual and narrative character.

. . .

The second quality of the book is its essential didacticism. Quincy was not merely preserving a record of events surrounding the inception and growth of the Athenaeum; he was definitely attempting to present a picture of the Athenaeum that would be an inspiration and hence promote continual financial support.

. . .

Josiah Quincy's object was, then, twofold: first, by commemorating the acts of the Athenaeum's founders, to deepen popular consciousness of the growing American heritage and, second, to impress upon a younger generation the importance and value of the Athenaeum as a cultural asset and, in so doing, to make more certain its future support. In this, too, his work was part and parcel of the stream of contemporary historical writing. Prescott and Motley were writing history that showed the triumph of Protestantism over Catholicism. Weems attempted to teach the youth moral virtue as exemplified in the life of our first president; and Bancroft, by his spiritual exultation over the achievements of God, democracy, and progress in American history, was striving to combat a sensitiveness to European criticism that sprang from the realization that those republican institutions of which America should be so proud were on trial before the world. So, too, was Quincy an exemplar of that intense loyalty to American potentialities which de Tocqueville called *le patriotisme irritable*.

Finally, Quincy's *History* is nostalgic in tone—a quality closely related to its didacticism and originating from the personal elements inherent in its composition.

That the author was an old man, between the ages of 75 and 80, at the time of the book's writing has already been mentioned. As a member of Congress he had violently opposed Jefferson's embargo, had been an advocate of New England secession, and had generally represented a conservative point of view (37).

In England in 1859 appeared a two-volume library history entitled *Memoirs of Libraries* by Edward Edwards, librarian of the Manchester Free Library. Edwards' work attempted to describe historically library development and to survey the state of libraries of his time. Although Edwards is often generously referred to as a scholarly historian, a more honest appraisal of his work is to describe it as a careful synthesis of secondary sources; Edwards depends heavily on Justus Lipsius's *A Brief Outline of the History of Libraries* and Charles C. Jewett's *Notices of Public Libraries in the United States*. In 1869 Edwards published his *Free Town Libraries*, a work dealing mainly with British libraries, but containing some material on libraries in the United States. As in his *Memoirs of Libraries*, Edwards made extensive use of secondary sources, such as William J. Rhees' *Manual of Public Libraries*.

Another valuable contribution to library historiography was made by the Americans in that momentous year for librarianship 1876. In that year the United States Bureau of Education issued its report *Public Libraries in the United States of America, Their History, Condition, and Management*. A brief quotation from its Preface gives us the outline of the work:

After considerable study of the subject and consultation and correspondence with eminent librarians, the following plan was adopted: To present, first, the history of public libraries in the United States; second, to show their present condition and extent; third, to discuss the various questions of library economy and management; and fourth, to present as complete statistical information of all classes of public libraries as practicable (38).

So elephantine is the 1876 Report and so varied is its content that one must examine the source repeatedly to annotate its contents accurately. Descriptions of the Report by various writers who have superficially examined it emerge like the descriptions given of an elephant by a group of blind men in an Oriental folk tale: "the elephant is very like a tree," says one blind man who grasped only the elephant's foot; "the elephant is like a snake," says another who felt its trunk; "the elephant is like a rope," says another blind man who felt its tail. Although the Report includes history, state-of-the-art development, practical directions, and statistics, for our purpose the historical part interests us here. The Report's opening chapter, "Public Libraries a Hundred Years Ago," was written by Horace E. Scudder. Philosophically, Scudder's writing appears to be a premonition of the scientific library historiography that was to result from the ideas of Arnold Borden that appeared in the early 1930s. Judging from the relationship that Scudder indicated between the public library and its milieu, principally public education, he was aware of the need for events to be placed in their proper context and to be related to relevant

concomitant and antecedent phenomena. But Scudder's writing never realized these aspirations; instead, he chronicles event after event in a continuous narrative with no attempt to interpret or relate these events.

Other library history of the nineteenth century included Justin Winsor's *Memorial History of Boston*, published in 1881, and William I. Fletcher's *Public Libraries in America*, dating from 1894. The twentieth century saw the publication of Arthur E. Bostwick's *American Public Library* in 1910. Commenting on American library historiography from mid-nineteenth century to the early part of the twentieth century, Jesse Shera summarized as follows:

Such was the writing of library history during the decades between the work of Josiah Quincy and the beginning of the 1930s. Throughout the later years the scope of library history writing became broader but not much deeper. It was impressive neither in quantity nor quality. On occasion it is doubtful whether it should be called "history," for the writing of true history involves synthesis—evaluation and interpretation of relationships—not just a chronological recital of isolated facts. Factual, and factual only, this writing certainly was, and as such it can hardly be classified into any "historical school." Because its main object was to record the remote event, it contained little analysis or interpretation. This recitation of historic facts revealed a continuing picture of library expansion and development, and there was a didactic impulse, probably quite unconscious, to contrast the library poverty of an earlier day with the relative prosperity of a later time.

At the turn of the century and after, American librarianship entered its professional adolescence. Extremely conscious of its own youth, awkwardness, and rapid growth, it was, nevertheless, quite proud of its approaching maturity—proud, too, to have cast aside the remnants of its infancy. As librarians began to feel this new satisfaction in their professional accomplishments, the urge to point with pride to the contrast between the struggles of the pioneers and the permanence of contemporary achievement became irresistible. Such contrasts did not discredit the work of the founding fathers but emphasized anew the solidity of the structure they had built. Historical narrative, therefore, could give meaning to the efforts of the librarians and, in a sense, become an apologia for their labors. When they viewed in retrospect the progress they had made, they could see themselves as a part of the heritage of a growing nation and identify themselves with the strengthening intellectual fiber of American culture.

But there were influences other than this self-justification that were helping to determine the character of the library historiography during this period. Inherent in the rapid growth and immaturity of the profession was an absence of historical perspective, which denied objectivity. Librarians were themselves insufficiently removed temporally from the events of which they wrote to be able to see them steadily and see them whole. The very expansion of the profession and the constant demands for technical improvement precluded concern with a receding past. The old scholarly librarian of the 19th century was passing from the scene, and in his place came administrators and organizers, and others like them, who were acutely aware of the needs of the present but generally indifferent to the links with the past. A new age of preoccupation with the techniques and economics of the profession had begun, and there was little time for reflecting on or investigating origins (39).

SCIENTIFIC LIBRARY HISTORIOGRAPHY

By the end of the first quarter of the twentieth century a new philosophy began to manifest itself within library history. Scientific library historiography—or the writing of library history in accordance with sound research methodology and representing the library as a “social agency”—was a movement whose most significant repercussions occurred in two countries, Germany and the United States; in 1925 Alfred Hessel’s *Geschichte der Bibliotheken* was published, and in 1931 Arnold Borden’s article entitled “The Sociological Beginnings of the Library Movement in America” appeared in the new *Library Quarterly*, although the two events had no effect on each other.

Hessel’s *Geschichte der Bibliotheken* had a significant impact on the thinking of European librarians, but it did not achieve the exposure it deserved within the English-speaking world until 1950 when Hessel’s work, translated by Reuben Peiss, appeared in an English version as *A History of Libraries*. Today it is fashionable to depreciate the efforts of Alfred Hessel, to criticize his writing for not being scholarly history; to the contrary, Hessel’s work should be applauded for introducing relevant findings from fields outside of history, for example, archaeology, to ancient library history, and for broadening the viewpoint of English-speaking librarians with regard to the beginnings of their profession. Not until Hessel’s *A History of Libraries* did English-speaking librarians become generally aware of the significant contribution that Germany had made to the development of librarianship. Rather than viewing modern librarianship as being an evolutionary development with roots dating back to antiquity, British librarians overemphasized the importance of “The 1850 Act,” and librarians within the United States attached comparable significance to the year 1876. By stressing the European—or more correctly the German—contributions to library development, Hessel was introducing some degree of objectivity to the panorama of library development. Admittedly, Hessel overstated his case because in the sections treating eighteenth and nineteenth century developments Hessel’s message of *Deutsche bibliotekswissenschaft über alles* became rather strong. Not until 1965, when Scarecrow Press published Elmer Johnson’s *A History of Libraries in the Western World*, did readers of library history receive an objective—although not a scholarly—survey of the field. In its 1931 edition Hessel’s history encompassed events of World War I. Peiss extended this coverage to the post-World War II period. In evaluating the contribution of Reuben Peiss, this writer believes that he was a better translator than historian. While reading Peiss’ translation, the reader will note a sharp line of demarcation between the writing of Hessel and that of Peiss; the former’s is marked by the synthesis, evaluation, and interpretation of data that one associates with a historian, whereas the latter’s work reads like a summary of library development that one might find in an encyclopedia yearbook.

Within the United States, library historiography was to receive philosophical guidelines in a journal article that appeared in the 1931 *Library Quarterly*. Arnold Borden, a Harvard alumnus, contributed “The Sociological Beginnings of the

Library Movement in America" in the first volume of the *Library Quarterly*. If Pierce Butler's *Introduction to Library Science* that appeared in 1933 may be considered the epitome of the overall philosophy that was to guide the research approach of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, then Borden's article might be interpreted as an elaboration of the philosophy underlying the "historical problem" to which Pierce Butler referred (40). Borden stated:

Students of library history, therefore, must not look upon the library as an isolated phenomenon or as something which has been struck off the brains of individuals in moments of philanthropic zeal. The universal emergence of the library as a public institution between 1850 and 1890 suggests the presence of common causes working to a common end. From the point of view of history as well as from that of contemporary conditions the library needs to be studied in the light of sociology, economics, and other branches of human knowledge (41).

It is interesting to note that Borden's article had an impact on the writing of that respected library historian Jesse H. Shera. In his "The Literature of American Library History" Shera admitted that Borden's article, or at least the concluding paragraph that was quoted above, was an influence in his philosophy of historical writing (42).

Since the Borden article, library historiography has mainly been the product of the academe. Following the philosophical guidelines that Arnold Borden established were three American library historians: Gwladys Spencer, Sidney Ditzion, and Jesse Shera. Spencer's *The Chicago Public Library: Origins and Backgrounds* began as a doctoral dissertation to be published by the University of Chicago Press in 1943. Four years later Ditzion's *Arsenals of a Democratic Culture: A Study of the American Public Library Movement in New England and the Middle States, 1830-1900* was to appear as another example of library history that had begun as a doctoral dissertation. In the opinion of this writer, Jesse Shera's *Foundations of the Public Library: The Origins of the Public Library Movement in New England, 1629-1850* represents the finest example of scientific library historiography that has been written to date. Recently library historiography has been enriched by George S. Bobinski's *Carnegie Libraries: Their History and Impact on American Library Development* as well as Clarence H. Cramer's *Open Shelves and Open Minds: A History of the Cleveland Public Library*, and Edward Miller's *That Noble Cabinet: A History of the British Museum*. The *Encyclopedia of Library and Information Science*, although not mainly a historical work, is contributing to the advancement of library historiography. Its contribution lies not only in the encyclopedia's inclusion of historical topics but also in its exposure of areas where historical research is needed; for example, the priority of establishment of the open stack system in the United States. That system is attributed to William Howard Brett in the article on the Cleveland Public Library (43) and to John Cotton Dana in the article on the Denver Public Library (44). Historical research on such conflicting data will help to reduce the amount of folklore within library history.

Conclusions

Library historiography has undergone a long and continuous development since its beginnings as references to libraries in the writings of classical writers to its present state of scientific library historiography. During this process the writing of library history has shifted from being the product of the scholar-librarian to the academically trained library researcher who has specialized in history.

Our consideration of library historiography brings us to the following conclusions: (1) library historiography is a branch of historiography; (2) the same disciplines that are auxiliary to history are supportive to library historiography; (3) the same research methodology that history utilizes is also appropriate to library historiography; (4) library historiography has experienced an evolutionary development since antiquity to the present day; (5) prior to the seventeenth century library historiography existed only as references to libraries within literary texts; (6) an integral history of libraries did not appear until the seventeenth century; (7) library historiography of the nineteenth century was mainly the work of the scholar-librarian; (8) between 1876 and 1930 librarians became generally so pragmatic in their preoccupation with practical matters of library management that they tended to neglect the writing of library history; (9) library historiography has tended to remain oblivious of the main currents of historiography and has most generally taken the form of the narrative chronology; (10) when library historiography has been influenced by currents of historiography, the development has been an ancillary one; (11) the scarcity of scholarly library history may be explained by the general lack of training in history among librarians; (12) library historiography is now in the era of scientific library historiography, marked by the philosophy of Arnold Borden and library historians like Jesse Shera and Sidney Ditzion; and (13) today library history is generally being written at academic institutions and takes the form of master's theses or doctoral dissertations.

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LIBRARY AND INFORMATION SCIENCE ABSTRACTS

Library and Information Science Abstracts (LISA) is the continuation of *Library Science Abstracts* (LSA) (1950-1968). *Library Science Abstracts* was "invented" by Dr. Muriel Lock and R. N. Lock who began a private service of preparing abstracts of current periodical articles on librarianship and closely related subjects in 1949-1950. This project was taken over by the (British) Library Association in 1950 to become one of its official publications. Planned as a quarterly publication in octavo size, the first number carried eighty-five abstracts of articles culled from about sixty periodicals. The field of librarianship was divided into twenty broad areas such as Public Libraries, Cataloguing, Library Associations, Library Cooperation, Library Architecture, Documentation, and Archives. The 1950 volume carried 611 abstracts and these were supplied with a detailed index to authors and to the subjects mentioned in the abstracts. (An example of the type of abstract can be seen in Volume 1 of this Encyclopedia on p. 427 under *Annotations*.)

In mid-1951 the editorship changed hands and H. A. Whatley acted as editor from 1951 to 1968 (1). During those years the pattern of the work remained basically unchanged. Minor improvements were made arising from a number of surveys that were made among users, e.g., students and staff at library schools, users overseas, and abstractors (2).

On the completion of Volume 6 a cumulative index was prepared from the separate annual indexes and this was published independently. Two more cumulative indexes were published to cover the years 1956-1960 and 1961-1965, thereby simplifying retrospective searching.

Over the years the number of periodicals examined continued to rise and world coverage came nearer. One hundred abstractors in Britain and in several other countries regularly scanned the periodicals assigned to them and prepared abstracts of the more worthwhile articles. The aim throughout was to ensure a high interest value, keeping readability in mind, coupled with ease of use for either current awareness or for retrospective searching (3).

Whatley felt that there was a possibility of cooperating with the editors of similar abstracting services in order to save duplication of effort and to improve the coverage and quality of LSA. In order to discover what was being done in other countries, a grant was obtained from the Council on Library Resources to enable the editor to examine other types of services in the fields of librarianship and documentation and to have personal discussions with the editors in various countries. Eighteen services were studied and during the discussions ways and means of cooperating were examined, e.g., exchanging abstracts by airmail, sharing the work of preparation of abstracts by organizing language divisions, and problems of translation of abstracts. The greatest obstacle to implementing these ideas was seen to be the sharp dichotomy that existed in some countries between the field of librarianship and that of documentation.

A report (4, 5) was published which showed the great variety of policies and practices in use at that time. Recommendations were made stressing the need for rationalization and cooperation either through mutual agreements between editors or through the influence and persuasion of an international organization. These ideas were drawn to the attention of the Councils of IFLA and FID at a joint meeting in September 1966 (6). (FID had called two meetings in 1957 and in 1962 of editors of librarianship and documentation periodicals at which discussions took place on how to improve the quality and content of these periodicals.)

Whatley's *Survey* had drawn attention to some of the weaknesses in the existing indexing and abstracting services, among them *Library Literature* (Wilson, New York). The H. W. Wilson Foundation organized a Conference on the Bibliographical Control of Library Science Literature (held in Albany 1968) at which editors of library science periodicals and the librarians of library school libraries examined the problems of the location, collection, and identification of the material in their fields (7, 8). Among the papers presented was a study by Corrigan (9) describing previous work and developing a plan for better coverage of the material through current awareness, indexing, and abstracting services. The participants recommended the publication of the following: (1) a current awareness service, (2) a library science book reviewing service, (3) an indexing service, (4) an abstracting service, and (5) an annual review (10, 11).

Meanwhile LSA was being scrutinized (1) for its coverage and (2) for the effectiveness of its indexes (12). For some years criticism had been leveled at LSA that it did not include abstracts of new books, reports, and other items apart from periodicals. This matter had been discussed by the editorial board on several occasions without a satisfactory solution for "comprehensive" coverage being found.

Not for the first time, some librarians in Britain turned their attention to the

idea of a classification scheme for librarianship. Members of the Classification Research Group of the Library Association worked out a first draft. The scheme was a faceted one enabling elements of the treatment of a subject to be described according to a set order. To enable subjects to be retrieved, the chain indexing system is a necessary supplement to the scheme. The scheme was adopted for the library of the Library Association and advocates recommended its use for LSA since the annual subject indexes were considered to be inadequate. Thus the two aspects of coverage of material and the inadequacies of the index led to discussions being held by members of the Library Association and of Aslib to consider how an improved service could be created. (Aslib had pursued FID's interest in the documentation of documentation during 1965-1966.) Studies were made by Gilchrist, Whatley, and Bell (12-14), and a joint editorial board was set up. A plan was adopted whereby the two bodies agreed to share the responsibility for a new publication to be called *Library and Information Science Abstracts* (12). The editorial offices would be taken into the Library Association headquarters in London and a full-time editor appointed. Agreement was reached on the titles of periodicals which would be abstracted by members of each organization. Books, reports, and other publications were to be included. The CRG classification would be used.

LISA first appeared in 1969 under the editorship of Tom Edwards. The frequency of publication was increased from four to six issues a year. LSA had published annually between 1,100 and 1,200 abstracts. LISA has steadily grown; the 1972 volume carried over 3,100 abstracts (15, 16). Coverage of periodicals has been increased also although, as is well known, there is a "core" of periodicals which provides the bulk of the important writings on library science (17). Some forty abstractors are engaged in the work and 370 periodicals from all over the world are regularly examined.

The original classification scheme provided for the main element of classification to be by the type of library since it was felt that librarians working in a particular type of library would wish to read about matters connected with such a library. Reviewers welcomed the new publication but there were some doubts about the CRG scheme, e.g., to the effect that minute classification was not needed and that the cost of indexing must be excessive (18-20). After a year or two, comment and criticism of LISA showed that, in fact, librarians were first interested in reading about technical processes and administration regardless of which type of library was involved. LISA now uses the following order in the classification of library science: processes, operations or agents, materials, libraries and users, place, time, subject, and form.

In format LISA is of A4 size with abstracts in two columns to a page. The abstracts are numbered consecutively and are presented in a classified order within each issue. The very detailed notation is accompanied by an explanation in words. Each issue of LISA is provided with separate author and subject indexes. These are cumulated into an annual index. The following is a specimen entry excluding the abstract:

Bvr/Bx-CURRICULA

Bw(Nj)Byf&- By subject. Library administration. Teaching methods. Computer assisted instruction. Management games. Lancaster University(UK). OSTI project.
72/2774

Simulation in education for library and information service administration.
P. Brophy & M.K. Buckland. *Inf. Scientist*, 6(3) Sept. 72, 93-100. 8 refs.

Index entries will be found under: OSTI; Lancaster; Management games; Computer assisted instruction; Teaching methods; Curricula; Management; Brophy; Buckland.

The writer has expressed disappointment that the chain indexing method excludes the indexing of the *contents* of each abstract as was done in LSA. In this respect the usefulness of LISA is much reduced (21-25). The matter was studied in 1970 and it was agreed that a thorough examination of the classification scheme and of users' reactions and requirements should be undertaken.

Meanwhile a further step toward international cooperation was made in 1972 when UNESCO called a meeting of editors of library science periodicals in Paris (26), thus providing a continuation to the FID meetings. Similar subjects to those of earlier meetings were discussed and among the recommendations was the following:

Countries without an indexing or abstracting service should be encouraged by UNESCO to set up such services to cover their national literature in the field: at least an indexing service should be set up. Such services could be either national or regional.

Further

UNESCO should organise a meeting of editors and publishers of the major abstracting and indexing services and a symposium similar to the present one, not later than 1974 (27).

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H. ALLAN WHATLEY

LIBRARY JOURNAL

The first issue of the *American Library Journal* appeared on September 30, 1876, timed to coincide with the first meeting of the new American Library Association. The magazine's founders were three of librarianship's most prominent leaders: Frederick Leypoldt of *Publishers' Weekly*; Melvil Dewey, then from the Amherst College library; and R. R. Bowker from *Publishers' Weekly*. The initial issue included articles by Dewey, Charles Ammi Cutter, and Justin Winsor. The early

Library Journal masthead—the “American” was dropped from the title in 1877—indicated to readers that the magazine was the “official organ of the American Library Association, chiefly devoted to Library Economy and Bibliography.” It remained the official publication of the association until 1907 when the first issue of the *American Library Association Bulletin*, later *American Libraries*, appeared. *Library Journal* then became a commercial publication, produced for the profession by the R. R. Bowker Company, now a division of the Xerox Corporation.

The early issues of *Library Journal* contained articles by all the great names—Poole, Growoll, Cutter, and Ford, as well as Dewey and Bowker. The established publishers were advertising in *Library Journal* from the beginning as well, reflecting the early interest that publishers had in making sales to libraries and librarians across the country. A glance at early volumes of *Library Journal* (e.g., Volume 13, 1888, and Volume 15, 1890) reveals articles on such basic topics as cooperative cataloging, book vs card catalogs, theft and mutilation of library materials, indices to picture collections, library architecture, the new building for the Library of Congress, censorship and intellectual freedom, and the need for member identification badges at American Library Association meetings. The late nineteenth century issues also contained conference reports on meetings of the ALA and the Children’s Library Association. An angry letter from “A Library Worker” appeared in one issue, complaining about the policy in some libraries that refused interlibrary loan services to other libraries. Humorous library poetry and trenchant aphorisms appeared in *Library Journal*’s columns, as well as regular notes on reference works and bibliographies. A new book column, with reviews, was an early feature of the journal’s service to librarians. A “Librarians” section reported news of positions taken, retirements, and deaths.

The magazine continued to appear regularly, with several changes in editorial direction, but always under the aegis of the R. R. Bowker Company. Its tall size shrank during the paper shortages of World War II, but it returned to the present format in 1967. Its regular features now, and for some time past, have included the large “Book Review” section, with signed reviews by library practitioners, the companion *School Library Journal*, the “Professional Reading” columns, and the section with critical reviews of “Magazines.” A “Buyers Guide” for library furniture and equipment has appeared regularly, as has a “Checklist” of free or inexpensive materials available to libraries from a variety of sources. A “Calendar” column records upcoming meetings of interest to the profession, while the “Classified” section presents information on open positions and available librarians. The “People” page continues the tradition of the early column about “Librarians,” while *Library Journal*’s “News” pages attempt to keep issues on a variety of topics in the public eye, including governmental decisions; items on labor and discrimination problems; innovative practices in university, public, school, and special libraries; and news of the publishing world. New features from the “Book Review” staff include “Books to Come” and “For the Future” columns stressing materials that will appear in the months to come, as well as a “Reviewers’ Corner” column about the various librarians who review for the magazine. The latest service offered by

Library Journal is the HOTLINE, a weekly loose-leaf summary of the news in libraryland plus late-breaking personnel information.

Certain special issues appear annually: one on architecture, one on business books of the year, another on sci-tech books of the year, and several "Books to Come" and "Reprints to Come" issues with extra advertising by publishers announcing their spring and fall lists. There is an annual feature on the news of the year, appearing each January, as well as an annual salary survey with particular emphasis on entering salaries for newly-graduated librarians. Conference reports still appear regularly, just after the major meetings of the American Library Association, Canadian Library Association, Special Library Association, and selected state and international association meetings. A "First Novelists" section appears annually in the "Book Review" pages as well.

The journal's three to four regular articles in each number run a gamut from material on purely professional topics to items on issues of social responsibility and national interest. Annotated bibliographies on topics of current public interest appear frequently, as do symposia on current problems in librarianship. In recent years, *Library Journal* has published information on women's and racial issues, cataloguing in publication, labor relations and librarians' unions, faculty status for college and university librarians, the energy crisis in the 1970s, federal funding for libraries, audiovisual soft- and hardware, the Library and Librarian of Congress, political and censorship problems, and the Freedom to Read Foundation. It attempts to be the journal for general librarianship, with articles and information of interest to any librarian, regardless of his or her type of library, size of clientele, subject speciality, or political persuasion. Its "Letters" columns reflect the wide range of views of its readers, and its popularity among library workers of all ranks and in all places.

Its 1974 circulation hovered around 40,000 copies; it appears on the first and the fifteenth of each month from September to June, and monthly during July and August. Its editorial headquarters are with the R. R. Bowker Company, 1180 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10016, and its editor as the journal enters its one hundredth year in 1976 is John N. Berry III. It is indexed in *Library Literature*, *Library Science Abstracts*, the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, and the *Public Affairs Information Service*. A subscription is currently \$16.20 per year.

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ELLEN GAY DETLEFSEN

LIBRARY LEGISLATION, FEDERAL

Federal financial assistance to libraries evolved with agonizing slowness in the United States over a period of almost half a century. This was not surprising, however, when we consider that until some 10 years after the end of World War II there was a general lack of public concern over the fact that millions of Americans had little or no library service.

In 1897 the United States government began supporting library service for the blind. It was 1956, however, before what might be called the first general library law was enacted at the national level. This was the Library Services Act, a landmark in the history of library legislation and the beginning of a national commitment to the support of libraries in the overall educational program of the nation.

Prior to 1956 the federal government's financial commitment to libraries was limited in the main to providing funds for the development of its own library needs. The prestigious Library of Congress had its beginning in 1800 when the Congress passed an Act appropriating \$5,000 "for the purchase of such books as may be necessary for the use of Congress." What had been the Army Surgeon General's Library, founded in 1836, was transferred by Congress in 1956 to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and renamed the National Library of Medicine. The National Agricultural Library was not officially designated as a national library until its centennial year 1962, although from its beginning as the Library of the Department of Agriculture it has served as a national library. These three great national institutions provide the principal research resources of the United States and a variety of unique services for libraries throughout the nation. Their national cataloging and bibliographical services undergird the collections of all other libraries, particularly those used by scholars and researchers.

Beginning about 1898, mission-oriented libraries were established in other federal departments and agencies independently, and without overall planning. It is curious that there is at present no library, as such, for the U.S. Office of Education, which administers most of the federal library grant programs. The executive branch libraries are of varying sizes and strengths, with research collections of significance to the nation as well as the agency. Since 1965 a Federal Library Committee has been in operation which serves an important coordinating function, even though it has no statutory basis. It is estimated that approximately \$200 million annually is being spent presently by the federal government for its own library services. These expenditures are from agency budgets, not library-aid legislation, with a few exceptions and variations.

The libraries of the federal government belatedly are being recognized as important elements in the development and operation of a national network to meet not only the government's but the nation's need for information, but substantial sums in their budgets, and perhaps specific authorizing legislation, will be necessary if such a network is to become a reality.

Before considering such future developments, however, let us look at the specific library legislation on the statute books at the present time and review how

these laws came into being. The total amount authorized for the four major Acts in fiscal year 1973 is impressive (\$551,850,000) and, if actually made available, would enable the nation's libraries to more adequately serve their respective publics and also bring good library service within the reach of all our citizens. Unfortunately, authorizations and appropriations are not synonymous.

In the development and promotion of federal library legislation the American Library Association (ALA), founded in 1876 and now the oldest and largest library association in the world, has been a significant force. The association's activities in this field evolved naturally and gradually, although not without dissent, as it grew and strove to fulfill its purpose "to promote library service and librarianship" in the belief that libraries were essential tools in the education of a democracy.

As studies were undertaken in the 1930s and facts and figures emerged which showed the appalling lacks which existed in American library services and facilities, it became clear that only with federal aid could a realistic attempt be made to meet the problem. Serious deficiencies in number of volumes, expenditures, and unequal distribution in various parts of the United States were found in every area—school, college, university, research, state, and public libraries. The status of libraries of the time was set forth solidly by L. R. Wilson's *Geography of Reading*, ALA and Univ. Chicago Press, Chicago, 1938. Unfortunately, this was a time of national disaster, the Great Depression of 1930–1938—and people are not likely to react cordially to spending money even for good and needed purposes when confronted by calamitous financial losses. As the years went by, supporting data on library shortcomings continued to accumulate even as debate continued on the dangers of federal control and the merits of local support. A consensus was finally reached among librarians on the necessity of federal aid, and it was agreed that the best chance for success in legislation lay with a proposal to establish service to public libraries in rural areas and for a limited period of time.

Armed with the fact of existing public library deficiencies in the states, with the fact of inequality of tax-paying ability among the states and localities, and with the logical conclusion that adequate public library services and facilities are essential to education and to a properly functioning democracy, public libraries became not only a matter of state and local interest, but also of national interest. The prevailing attitude previously was that libraries were a matter of state and local concern but not a concern of the federal government.

Following the reports on public libraries of the President's Advisory Committee on Education in 1938, the Harrison-Thomas-Fletcher bill proposed federal aid to education and included a title which recommended federal grants to rural public libraries. Representatives from the ALA testified on the bill, but general aid to education did not have a chance at that time. The New Deal gave less attention to education than to Social Security, public welfare, and health, yet there was some school and library construction under the WPA. Congressional opposition to aid-to-education bills centered about racial and church-state issues, as well as the more general questions of fiscal restraint and the traditional responsibilities of government.

Then came the national defense efforts which engaged the people of the United States and finally our entry into World War II. Later on, in 1944, during the war, the ALA made efforts to get legislation drawn up which would permit the surplus army camp libraries to be transferred to rural areas in the event of cessation of hostilities.

The pressing need for ALA representation to be near the scene of national activities led to the establishment of the Washington Office on October 1, 1945.

This event was followed by introduction in 1946 (79th Congress) of the Public Library Demonstration Bill by Representative Emily Taft Douglas (D-Ill.) and Senator Lister Hill (D-Ala.). This bill was based on a draft revised by the ALA Washington representative from notes and a draft which the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress had assisted in preparing. It was patterned after the successful demonstration projects in Louisiana. This bill would have allotted \$40,000 to each state plus from \$40,000 to \$100,000 to be matched on a 50-50 basis by state or local funds for the purpose of providing demonstrations for adequate public library service in areas not adequately served. The bill was reported on favorably by the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare and the House Subcommittee on Education, but the Congress adjourned before any final action was taken.

The bill was reintroduced in the 80th Congress, passed the Senate on the unanimous consent calendar February 25, 1948, and was reported out favorably by the House Subcommittee. But no further action was taken on it. In the 81st Congress the library legislation got to the floor but was defeated after a 5-hour debate, 161 to 164, March 9, 1950.

In the 82nd Congress the bill was revamped. It authorized annual appropriations of \$7.5 million for 5 years to be granted the states on a matching basis. Each state was to receive \$40,000, and its share of the balance in proportion to its rural population as compared with the total population of the United States. This money was to be matched on a basis of the ratio which the state's per capita income bore to the per capita income of the United States. The states were no longer restricted to demonstrations, but each was to submit a plan to improve its library service and to have it approved by the commissioner of education. The state would administer the plan and could not reduce its expenditures for public library services by utilizing federal money. Federal control was not allowed. The bill was reported out favorably, but no floor action was taken.

In the 83rd Congress an increased number of sponsors, many of them very influential, introduced the library services bill again, but it still failed to get to the floor for a vote. The House Education and Labor Committee and the Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee held up all legislation which dealt with federal aid to education.

The 84th Congress was another story. Senators Hill, Douglas, and George Aiken (R-Vt.) sponsored the same bill, joined by fifteen other Senators, many of whom still (in 1973) figure prominently in the activities of the Congress. In the House, 28 representatives introduced identical bills. After hearings, the House Committee on Education and Labor reported it favorably by a vote of 20 to 9, but for 9 months it

was stalled until the Rules Committee finally cleared it for floor action. At the end of 3½ hours of debate—at long last—it passed. This action stirred the Senate subcommittee which had before it the bill introduced by Senator Hill and seventeen other Senators. The subcommittee made a favorable report to the full Senate Committee, which likewise acted favorably on the measure without amendment. The Senate passed it on the unanimous consent calendar, May 14, 1956. President Eisenhower then signed the measure into law June 19, 1956 (Public Law 84-597). Ten years of unflinching but anxious effort had been crowned with success.

The fight for appropriations then began and continues to this day. For the first fiscal year (July 1, 1956–June 30, 1957), only \$2,050,000 was appropriated, and it was not until the last year of the original Library Services Act (FY 1961) that the full authorized amount of \$7.5 million was appropriated.

Two more landmark events in connection with this public library legislation should be noted. One is the harrowing experience involved in the extension of the original Act. It was evident that the legislation had become one of the most successful federal programs, that essential appropriations had been considerably short of the already too meager authorizations for the 5 years of its existence, and that much needed library services were still lacking. In 1960, on this basis, fifty-two House Members introduced bills, and 55 Senators cosponsored bills to extend the life of the public library act for another 5 years. In the House, Rep. Carl Elliott (D-Ala.), who introduced the first bill on January 6, the day Congress convened, was chairman of the subcommittee which held the hearings, and generally bore the brunt of the fight for the measure. Senator Hill managed the Senate bill, which he introduced on January 14. S. 2830 passed the Senate without a dissenting vote on May 26. The administration was backing the legislation for the first time since the original bill was introduced in 1946.

The House bill (H.R. 12125) received favorable committee action on May 12, but the Rules Committee denied a rule to bring the measure to the floor—the vote being a tie, 6 to 6. After exhausting every means of getting a reconsideration of the bill, it was decided to try to by-pass the Rules Committee and to get a favorable vote under Suspension of the Rules. This is a difficult situation because the passage of a bill under these circumstances requires that a quorum of the entire House membership be present and that two-thirds vote affirmatively. The late Representative John Fogarty (D-R.I.) stayed up all night on July 2, and at 5:30 A.M. he obtained the consent of the then Speaker Rayburn to call up the extension of the library act under Suspension of the Rules on August 22, 1960, the last day that bills could be considered under the Suspension Calendar, before final adjournment of the Congress for the Session.

At the end of forty exciting, nerve-wracking minutes of debate, the Speaker banged his gavel and the vote was taken. A division was demanded, whereupon Representatives stood up, 190 in favor and 29 opposed. The Library Services Act was extended to June 30, 1966. President Eisenhower signed the bill on August 31 (P.L. 86-679).

Another landmark might be noted when each national party platform in 1960 for the first time in United States history had specific mention of libraries among the

planks. The Democratic platform pledged to "further Federal support of libraries," and the Republican platform declared, "Support of library services to extend it to all our people." A representative of the American Library Association had presented the case for libraries before the platform committee of each party.

The next great development came in 1964 when the Library Services Act became the Library Services and Construction Act. It eliminated the 10,000 population limitation and provided in a separate title construction funds for the badly needed buildings.

This measure was actually being considered on the floor of the Senate on Friday, November 22, 1963, when news arrived that President John F. Kennedy had been shot. The Senate adjourned immediately. On the following Tuesday, November 26, the library measure was the first to be taken up. After a brief debate, lasting for only 1 hour, the Senate overwhelmingly approved the bill, 89 to 7, a resounding bipartisan victory. The House took no action in that session, but did finally take up the library measure on January 21, 1964, and passed it after 5 hours of spirited debate with amendments, 254 to 107. President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the bill on February 11, 1964 (P.L. 88-269).

In 1966 the Library Services and Construction Act was again amended to include two additional titles: Title III—Inter-Library Cooperation and Title IV—State Institutional Library Services. It was passed by a vote of 336 to 2 in the House after 4 days of hearings and by a unanimous vote in the Senate after one morning of hearing (P.L. 89-511).

In 1970 the Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) was again amended, consolidated into three titles, and extended for 5 years to June 30, 1976 (P.L. 91-600). The total authorization for the LSCA over the 5 years is over a billion dollars as compared to \$37.5 million for the original Library Services Act.

The purpose of LSCA is to assist the states in the extension and improvement of public library services in areas of the states which are without such services or in which such services are inadequate; and with public library construction; and in the improvement of library services for physically handicapped, institutionalized, and disadvantaged persons; and in strengthening state library administrative agencies; and in promoting interlibrary cooperation among all types of libraries. In addition, the Act calls for the strengthening of metropolitan libraries which serve as regional or national resource centers. P.L. 91-600 incorporates amendments designed to lessen the administrative burden upon the states through a reduction in the number of state plans which must be submitted and approved annually, and to give the states greater discretion in planning for the use of LSCA funds.

The authorization extends from fiscal year 1972 through fiscal year 1976 (July 1, 1971 to June 30, 1976). The authorized funding levels increase about 5% each year.

The main provisions of *Title I—Services* are as follows: Grants are awarded to assist the states to: (1) develop and improve public library service in geographical areas and to groups of persons without such service or with inadequate service; (2) provide library services for (a) patients and inmates of state-supported institutions, (b) physically handicapped, (c) disadvantaged persons in low-income areas, both

urban and rural; (3) strengthen metropolitan public libraries which function as regional or national resource centers; (4) strengthen the capacity of the State Library Agency to meet the library and information needs of all the people.

Federal funds may be used for books and other library materials, equipment, salaries, other operating expenses, for statewide planning and evaluation of the programs, and for the administration of the state plan.

The fiscal year 1972 authorization is \$112,000,000; for FY 1973, \$117,600,000; for FY 1974, \$123,500,000; for FY 1975, \$129,675,000; and for FY 1976, \$137,150,000.

In order to participate in Title I, each state, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia must meet minimum qualifications for basic federal allotments of \$200,000; American Samoa, Guam, and the Virgin Islands, each for at least \$40,000. Maintenance of state and local effort is required.

Under *Title II—Construction*, grants are made to the states for public library construction. "Public library construction" is defined as meaning the construction of new public library buildings and the acquisition, expansion, remodeling, and alteration of existing buildings for use as public libraries, and the initial equipment of such buildings (except books). Architects' fees and the cost of the acquisition of land are also eligible expenses.

The fiscal year 1972 authorization is \$80,000,000; for FY 1973, \$84,000,000; for FY 1974, \$88,000,000; for FY 1975, \$92,500,000; and for FY 1976, \$97,000,000. Providing appropriations are sufficient, the basic allotment for each state is \$100,000 and for each outlying territory \$20,000.

Under *Title III—Interlibrary Cooperation*, grants are made to the states for the planning, establishment and maintenance of cooperative networks of libraries at the local, regional, or interstate level. Such cooperative networks should provide for "the systematic and effective coordination of the resources of school, public, academic and special libraries and information center for improved supplementary services for the special clientele served by each type of library or center."

The fiscal year 1972 authorization is \$15,000,000; for FY 1973, \$15,750,000; for FY 1974, \$16,500,000; for FY 1975, \$17,300,000; and for FY 1976, \$18,200,000. Providing appropriations are sufficient, the basic allotment for each state is \$40,000 and for each outlying territory \$10,000.

In order to participate in any LSCA program, each state must have a basic state plan approved by the U.S. Commissioner of Education, plus a long-range program (a comprehensive 5-year plan on state priorities, procedures, and activities for meeting the library and information needs of the people). In addition, for each title in which a state participates, it must submit an annual program, outlining the projects to be achieved during the year.

For each title, any funds remaining after basic allotments have been made are distributed proportionately to the states, each state's share based on its population in relation to the total United States population.

A requirement for Titles I and II stipulates that the states and communities must match the federal contribution on the basis of a ratio of the state's per capita

income to the average per capita income of the United States. In no case shall the federal share be less than 33% or more than 66% of the cost of the program. The federal share for Title III is 100%.

Since 1956 under the Library Services Act and the Library Services and Construction Act, some 17 million Americans have received public library service for the first time, and another 71 million persons have benefited from improved services. Every federal dollar spent in library services in FY 1971 was matched by \$4.44 spent by the states and localities.

Inclusion of urban public libraries within the scope of the law in 1964 has encouraged the following kinds of program directions, among others: (1) improved library and information service to residents of disadvantaged neighborhoods; (2) special projects to implement national priorities in such areas as Right to Read, career and vocational education, drug abuse, and environmental education; and (3) strengthening metropolitan libraries to make their resources more accessible on a national or regional basis.

Title II construction grants, first available in fiscal year 1965, had resulted by the end of the fiscal year 1972 in the approval of over 1,800 public library buildings to serve some 60 million Americans. Some \$159 million in federal funds for public library construction, both new buildings and remodeling projects, had been matched by \$399 million in state and local funds—a ratio of \$1 in federal funds to \$2.50 in state and local.

Over 100 library networks involving 8,700 libraries have been set up under *Title III interlibrary cooperation*, thus enabling the resources of all types of libraries—public libraries, college and university libraries, school libraries, and others—to be utilized jointly to serve people more effectively.

In the battle for federal aid, public libraries started first, and their remarkable accomplishments under the LSA and LSCA were advantageous to the enactment later of legislation in other areas of need. School libraries, college libraries, and medical libraries followed in time with substantial authorizations. Successful legislation in these fields was brought about in part by the surge of the growing population, the explosion of knowledge, a resolution of the church-state issue, and recognition of the fact that libraries are not only a matter of concern to the locality and state, but also to the nation. Outside Washington, and unrecognized by most people in those days, trends were gathering force that would transform the domestic political scene and propel the federal government into support for libraries and many other educational and social agencies on a vastly expanded scale. The first of these trends, the emergence of the Space Age, was signaled when the Soviet Union lofted its Sputnik in 1957. To a generation that had known the Wright Brothers as contemporaries and had built 50,000 airplanes a year during World War II, this was a deeply troubling event. Perhaps all was not well with America despite her apparent prosperity; perhaps as a people we had gone slack; perhaps we were engaged in a critical contest with other powerful nations, whether we liked it or not; and perhaps we were not going to maintain our previously uncontested leadership.

Responding to the new national mood, Congress enacted the *National Defense Education Act* (NDEA) in 1958 (P.L. 85-864). In form and substance, it was midway between the narrow, small enactments of the past and the big, broad legislation yet to come. Nevertheless, the NDEA set a pattern that can still be seen in many federal statutes. It was oriented to parts of the curriculum that were considered "critical," but it provided assistance to both students and institutions, school systems as well as colleges and universities and state agencies. Of prime importance to librarians was Title III of the Act, which authorized federal grants to public schools for purchase of classroom instructional equipment and federal loans to private schools for the same purpose. The concept of the instructional media center was given enormous impetus, and school librarians began to learn the arcane skills of grantsmanship. Librarians began learning other professional skills in the short-term and regular session institutes authorized by Title XI of the Act. (This title has since been eliminated.) P.L. 91-230 revised NDEA by changing the term "critical" to "academic" subjects and deleting the listing of specific subjects. The fiscal year 1972 appropriation for Title III-A was \$50 million. Around 20% of the funds appropriated have gone to school libraries.

The really important piece of legislation for school libraries, however, is the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* of 1965 (P.L. 89-10, as amended by P.L. 89-750, P.L. 90-247, and P.L. 91-230). It is designed to strengthen and improve educational quality and opportunities in elementary and secondary schools and to extend aid to school-related activities. It includes a grant program under Title II for the acquisition of *school library resources*, textbooks, and other printed and published instructional materials for the use of children and teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools. Its purpose is to improve the learning ability of children by making available high-quality instructional materials.

The first year authorized an appropriation of \$100 million for Title II; subsequent amendments increased the funding authority to \$125 million in FY 1967, \$150 million in FY 1968, \$162.5 million in FY 1969, \$200 million in FY 1970 and FY 1971, \$210 million in FY 1972, and \$220 million in FY 1973, plus not more than 3% of these amounts for payments in outlying areas. However, only in FY 1966 did the actual appropriation come up to what had been authorized, \$100 million. The FY 1973 appropriation was \$100 million although the Nixon administration impounded \$10 million of this.

Any state desiring grants under this program must submit to the commissioner of education a state plan which sets forth a program for the acquisition of resources and the administration of the same, based on the criteria specified in the law.

Materials are made available within the state on the basis of the relative need of children and teachers for school library resources, textbooks, and other instructional materials. Library resources are defined as books, periodicals, documents, audiovisual materials, and other related library materials.

The amount used for administration of the state plan for any fiscal year may not exceed 5% of the Title II payment to the state, or \$50,000, whichever is greater.

To insure that this legislation will furnish increased opportunities for learning,

books and materials supplied by Title II must not supplant but must supplement those already being provided.

Allocations to the 50 states and the District of Columbia are based on the number of children enrolled in public and private schools within the state in relation to the number enrolled in all states and the district. Funds also are allotted to the other parts of the nation and to the Department of Defense and the Bureau of Indian Affairs schools.

The record of successful achievement is unmistakable, and has been limited only by the level of funds available (Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *State Departments of Education and Federal Programs; Annual Report Fiscal Year 1970*).

Title II funds have contributed to improvement of educational quality in a number of ways, such as: (1) development and revision of standards for instructional materials; (2) selection of materials appropriate for pupils and teachers who will use them; (3) use of instructional materials in school programs for innovative, curricular, and instructional techniques; (4) demonstration of superior media programs; (5) support of special educational programs such as those for pupils in hospitals, correctional institutions, and schools for the mentally and physically handicapped; (6) provision of materials for use in bilingual and early childhood education programs; (7) implementation of the national Right-to-Read objective by introducing and making accessible a wide range of media designed to assure the acquisition of basic reading skills by all who enter school; and (8) support of instruction in the area of social problems, such as drug abuse and environmental ecological education.

The Title II program also stimulates the employment of professional, paraprofessional, and clerical school library media personnel.

Children in the nation's nonpublic schools also benefit from ESEA Title II. "Virtually all nonpublic authorities, I understand, are happy with their treatment under Title II of ESEA which provides books and other learning materials. . . . The program has come to be regarded by the nonpublic sector as providing the highest degree of equity for their children. Our figures for FY 1973 show 5,300,000 nonpublic children participating—or 98 percent of those eligible. And the average annual Title II expenditure per participating pupil is, by our latest accounting, exactly the same for both—\$1.92" (Sidney P. Marland, Assistant Secretary for Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, in *Urban Education: Partnership for Survival*, January 1973).

Reports from Title II program administrators, supervisors of instruction, and media specialists provide evidence that resources acquired under Title II have effected desirable changes in curriculum and instruction. The additional books, audiovisuals, and other materials available to children and teachers create improved learning situations. A multisensory approach proves more stimulating than the time-worn lecture and recitation methods, and provides reinforcement for retention of learning (Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. *State Departments of Education*, as cited above).

The greatest proportion of funds spent for instructional materials comes from state and local sources. There can be no doubt that Title II, in addition to supplementing these funds, also stimulated state and local efforts even further. Yet despite increased expenditures from all sources, a generally acute need for materials continues to exist in nearly all school districts (*An Evaluative Survey Report on ESEA Title II*, released September 1972 by the U.S. Office of Education). The fiscal year 1973 allocation of \$90 million would not even buy one-half of a book for each child enrolled in school. According to a 1970 USOE report, over 50% of elementary schools and between 45 and 67% of secondary schools fail to meet their state standards for school library resources in one or more areas. Over 30% of public elementary schools still lack libraries, according to the most recent national statistics available.

The regular legislative authorization for the Elementary and Secondary Education Act expired on June 30, 1973, but was automatically extended through fiscal year 1974 (along with other expiring education programs administered by the U.S. Office of Education) by the provisions of Section 413(c) of the General Education Provisions Act. Hearings are under way in the first session of the 93rd Congress (1973) on various proposals for extension. The administration's proposal would substitute Education Revenue Sharing for ESEA. It would consolidate some thirty existing categorical educational programs into broad, general categories of need: education of the disadvantaged, education of the handicapped, vocational education, impact aid, and supporting services. The supporting service funds could be used for a range of services now authorized in some fourteen separate statutory provisions for such activities as school library resources, school pupil personnel services, adult education, and school meals. There is considerable opposition to the measure on Capitol Hill, for it would reduce by hundreds of millions of dollars current programs for elementary and secondary education. Librarians, likewise, oppose the proposed consolidation in the belief that school libraries are fundamental to the total educational process and thus cannot be viewed as providing only "supporting" services.

Another important library bill was also adopted in 1965, a vintage year for library legislation. *The Higher Education Act* (P.L. 89-329, as amended by P.L. 89-752, P.L. 90-575, and P.L. 92-318), was intended to strengthen educational resources of our colleges and universities and to provide financial assistance for students. In 1972 the Act was drastically amended and enlarged and extended through fiscal year 1975. Title II—College Library Assistance and Library Training and Research—is designed to improve college libraries and the quality of library service throughout the nation by providing grants for: (A) acquisition of books, periodicals, and other library materials by colleges and universities; (B) training of all types of librarians, and research and demonstration projects, including the development of new ways of processing, storing, and distributing information; and (C) by authorizing funds for the Library of Congress to acquire and catalog additional scholarly materials.

Authorization extends through fiscal year 1975. Combined authorization for Parts A and B is \$75,000,000 for fiscal year 1973, \$85,000,000 for FY 1974, and

\$100,000,000 for FY 1975. Of amounts authorized for Parts A and B, 70% is for college library resources (Part A) and 30% for training and research (Part B), except that the amount available for the purposes of Part B for any fiscal year shall not be less than the amount appropriated for such purposes for FY 1972 (\$4,750,000). For Part C the authorization is \$12 million for FY 1973, \$15 million for FY 1974, and \$9 million for FY 1975.

College Library Resources (Part A) provides grants on a matching basis to institutions of higher education, their branches in other communities, to combinations of institutions, and to other public and private nonprofit library institutions which provide library and information services to institutions of higher education on a formal, cooperative basis. The grants may be used for books, periodicals, documents, magnetic tapes, phonograph records, audiovisual materials, and other related library materials, including law library resources, and necessary binding.

Three types of grants are specified in the law: *Basic Grants*, *Supplemental Grants*, and *Special Purpose Grants*. All Basic Grants must first be satisfied. From sums remaining, Supplemental and/or Special Purpose Grants may be made. No more than 25% of this amount may be used for Special Purpose Grants.

Basic Grants of up to \$5,000 shall be approved by the commissioner of education provided that the institution maintains the previous level of expenditure for library programs, except in special and unusual circumstances, in addition to matching the grant money on a dollar-for-dollar basis. New institutions may also apply for basic grants in the fiscal year before students are actually enrolled.

Supplemental Grants may be awarded by the commissioner, after all Basic Grants have been satisfied, of up to \$20 per full-time student (or the equivalent) to institutions which demonstrate a special need.

Special Purpose Grants may be made by the commissioner to help meet special institutional, regional, or national library needs, either in a single college or in a combination of colleges. Matching funds of \$1 for every \$3 of federal money are required. There is also a maintenance of effort provision.

An advisory council on College Library Resources is authorized to assist the commissioner in establishing criteria for making supplemental and special purpose grants.

Authorization for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1973, is \$52,500,000 and for FY 1974 \$59,500,000. This amounts to 70% of the overall authorization for Parts A and B as shown above.

Library Training and Research (Part B) provides, in Sec. 222, grants to institutions of higher education and library organizations or agencies for training persons in librarianship, including law librarianship. Grants may be used (1) to assist in covering the cost of courses of training or study (including short-term or regular session institutes); (2) to establish and maintain fellowships or traineeships with stipends (including allowances for travel, subsistence, and other expenses); and (3) to establish, develop, or expand programs of library and information science. Not less than 50% of the grants shall be for the purpose of establishing and maintaining fellowships or traineeships.

The commissioner may make grants only upon application by these institutions

and only upon finding that their library training programs will substantially increase nationwide library training opportunities.

Section 223 provides *research and demonstration* grants to institutions of higher education and other public or private nonprofit agencies, institutions, and organizations to improve libraries and library training, including law librarianship, and to develop new methods and equipment for processing, storing, and distributing information.

The commissioner is authorized to appoint a Special Advisory Committee of not more than nine members to advise him on matters of general policy concerning research and demonstration projects.

Authorization for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1973 for training was \$15,000,000 and for research was \$7,500,000; for FY 1974 for training \$17,000,000 and for research \$8,500,000. The combined amount for the two activities adds up to 30% as provided by law in the overall authorization formula.

Training programs such as the following have been made possible through HEA II-B funding: (1) cable TV for librarians, (2) training American Indians to become school library media specialists, (3) library technician training, (4) statewide library planning and evaluation, (5) model curriculum for library service to the disadvantaged, (6) doctoral program for librarians from minority groups, and (7) graduate library education for Mexican-Americans.

Improvement of library and information service and its effective extension to all American citizens no matter where they may live or work depends to a great extent upon an active program of research and demonstration. The following kinds of projects have been supported by HEA II-B: (1) the effectiveness of urban information centers; (2) the provision of adult basic education through public library extension; (3) development of exemplary right-to-read projects for children, youth, and adults; (4) exploration of the public library approach to nontraditional study; (5) determining the knowledge/information needs of the disadvantaged; (6) providing comprehensive library services for the aged; and (7) surveying library and information needs of prison populations.

Strengthening College and Research Library Resources (Part C) authorizes the commissioner to transfer funds to the librarian of Congress for the purpose of acquiring, so far as possible, all library materials currently published throughout the world which are of value to scholarship, providing and distributing catalog and bibliographic information promptly, and enabling exchange of these materials, not readily obtainable outside of the country of origin, for institutions of higher education or their combinations, or for other public or private nonprofit research libraries. An annual report evaluating the effectiveness of the program is to be submitted by the librarian of Congress to Congress. Appropriations now are included in the legislative appropriations bill.

Funds for the construction of academic facilities, including libraries, were provided in the *Higher Education Facilities Act* of 1963 and are also included in the *Higher Education Amendments* of 1966 (P.L. 89-752) and 1972 (P.L. 92-318). It is estimated that more than \$168 million in grants was distributed in fiscal 1966 for construction of library facilities.

The fourth major piece of library legislation, likewise passed in 1965, is the *Medical Library Assistance Act* (MLAA) (P.L. 89-291, as amended). Although the American Library Association had no part in the introduction of this legislation, it nevertheless supported its passage and subsequent appropriations. This Act establishes several categories of aid for projects to improve medical library services and facilities throughout the country. Grants are authorized for: (1) construction, (2) training, (3) special scientific projects, (4) research and development, (5) improving and expanding basic medical library resources, (6) establishment of regional medical libraries, and (7) support of biomedical scientific publications. In addition, the National Library of Medicine is authorized to establish regional branches to supplement the services of other medical libraries within the region served by it. The Act was extended in 1970 for 3 years and in 1973 for one more year as part of the Health Programs Extension Act of 1973, a stopgap 1-year extension designed to continue a number of public health authorizations to give Congress a year's time to make a careful review of all health legislation. The FY 1974 authorization for MLAA in P.L. 93-45 is reduced to \$8,442,000 and the authorization for construction is repealed. The FY 1973 appropriation for the National Library of Medicine and the Medical Library Assistance Act together was \$25,150,000. The authorization for FY 1973 was \$27,500,000 for MLLA only. Both House and Senate are now considering a multi-year extension bill of the Medical Library Assistance Act.

In 1962 the *Depository Library Act* (P.L. 87-579) was revised and represents the first change in this area since 1895. The first Act provided for the distribution of government documents regularly to a fixed list of libraries designated as depositories, among which were ones which had been named originally by the senators and representatives. The purpose of the new measure was to establish a more comprehensive program for making government publications available to citizens, including scientists, educators, businessmen, students, and housewives. The legislation endeavors to do this by increasing the number of depository libraries and by increasing the number of different government publications to be received by them, especially by adding to the depository list publications printed, not at the Government Printing Office, but by the departments and agencies in their own department and field plants.

The American Library Association took an active part in developing and promoting this needed legislation because of its clear benefits to the users of the valuable printed information issued by the federal government. In view of the vast research and other programs undertaken by the departments and the agencies, this extension of the availability of such knowledge had become urgent. Substantial progress has been made in implementing some sections of the law, but in other respects the pace has been distressingly slow. After 10 years the full benefits of the law have not yet been achieved due to a lack of urgent interest on the part of the agency involved in its administration.

In addition to the laws already described in detail, the federal government assists libraries and librarians through provisions in numerous other Acts, such as its law on the imports of foreign printed, visual and auditory materials, on postal rates on books and other materials, and on surplus property. Noteworthy are The Ap-

palachian Regional Development Act, Title II (P.L. 89-4 as amended), The Older Americans Act (P.L. 89-73 as amended), and The National Foundation on the Arts and Humanities Act (P.L. 89-209 as amended). Some important provisions of hard-won legislation, such as the Networks for Knowledge authorization of 1968 and the International Education Act of 1966, never were funded. Legislation to revise the 1909 Copyright Law (USC Title 17) has been pending in Congress for almost 20 years. The revisions proposed have major implications for libraries and the development of information networks. Pending in the 93rd Congress is S. 1361, a bill for the general revision of the copyright law, which is similar to the measures which have been under consideration since 1969. Major issues delaying revision are cable television and the photocopying of copyrighted works.

Federal legislation involves not only action by the Congress but participation by the president as chief executive, and sometimes the culmination of the legislative process occurs when an interpretation of the legislative intent by the courts becomes necessary. This triple involvement is especially evident at this time in regard to the funding of library programs. Obtaining annual appropriations for the legislation authorized has always been difficult and has never matched the promise of the Acts. In general, they approximated 50% of the amount that could have been provided. As the cost of the Viet Nam conflict mounted year by year, the appropriations for domestic programs dwindled. In an attempt to reverse this trend, the leading educational organizations, including the American Library Association, joined together as a Committee for Full Funding of Education Programs in 1969. Library programs, as well as other essential education programs, have benefited from these joint efforts.

Funding has been a paramount issue since President Nixon took office, but the situation has been critical since the administration recommended only limited or no money at all for a number of education and library programs in fiscal year 1973 and zero funding for all library grant programs and several education programs for fiscal year 1974. The president twice vetoed the FY 1973 appropriations bill for the Departments of Labor, and Health, Education, and Welfare which included money for library programs. He also proposed to rescind or to impound funds appropriated by the Congress. The term impoundment refers to the withholding of appropriated funds. Impoundment occurs when the executive branch, for reasons of its own, avoids expending funds which Congress has explicitly directed to be spent for some particular purpose. A number of bills relating to impoundment control are pending in the 93rd Congress and, on the judicial front, numerous suits have been filed in Federal courts challenging the administration's practice of impounding appropriated funds.

The aim of the president is to scale down federal assistance programs, reduce their number, and replace federal programs with local and state initiatives. *The State and Local Fiscal Assistance Act* of 1972 (P.L. 92-512), known colloquially as "general revenue sharing," is the prototype of this brand of federal aid legislation. Libraries are eligible for funds at the local level as well as the state level under the law. Since libraries must compete with other local agencies for such funds, the amount available to them remains uncertain.

The same pattern of federal funds coupled with local decisions regarding their use was proposed as a replacement for the so-called categories, or earmarked federal assistance programs enacted to support libraries, schools, and higher education during the Eisenhower, Kennedy, and Johnson administrations. Congress, however, has traditionally preferred to enact and fund a series of assistance programs in various areas, including libraries. To move away from categories, in the opinion of many congressmen, would not give assurance that national priorities will be met through the composite decisions of states and local governments.

Other trends will shape the congressional enactments of the future. Year by year, the educational attainment of the American people continues to rise. Even though the absolute numbers of students and teachers may decline, the proportion of youth completing high school and advanced education will no doubt continue to increase, it being a truism that the more education people have, the more they crave for themselves and their children. The absolute number of senior citizens will also continue to rise. These two population groups, the young and the old, constitute the heaviest users of library services. Nevertheless, by whatever name they may be called—resource center, media center, information center—libraries in the United States are called upon to serve all segments of the population, while at the same time accepting responsibility for aiding disadvantaged individuals and groups to enter the mainstream. Technological developments will enable a heterogeneous people in a complex society to gain the information and insight they crave through novel means, such as cable television, computer-assisted instruction, and mechanized storage and retrieval, for example. All these and others already are having an impact on the provision of library and information services, and their impact will not lessen. Implicit in the new technology is not only higher capital costs for libraries but also greater interdependence and more linkages, all of which suggest the necessity for more federal support and national standardization. If state and local libraries and information centers of all kinds are to be linked into a compatible, viable national information system, federal assistance will be required.

There are trends in Congress, too, that reflect past changes and foreshadow new approaches in the legislation of the future. The wisdom of federal assistance to libraries and to education generally is no longer questioned by many legislators. The present programs have proved their worth and evoked popular endorsement. Moreover, the manifest needs of libraries and other elements of the educational system are great and growing.

The need for a national approach to the problems and potential of libraries is becoming increasingly clear. As the present decade opened, Congress declared "that library and information services adequate to meet the needs of the people of the United States are essential to meet national goals and to utilize most effectively the Nation's educational resources and that the Federal Government will cooperate with State and local governments and public and private agencies in assuring optimum provision of such services." Through the *National Commission on Libraries and Information Science Act* (P.L. 91-345), signed into law by President Nixon July 20, 1970, Congress created a permanent mechanism for the appraisal

of the problems and potentials of libraries. For the first time an independent, national, overall planning agency was established.

This permanent commission stemmed from the temporary national presidential commission appointed by President Johnson in 1967, which made an extensive study of library and information services. Its recommendations are contained in *Libraries at Large: The Resource Book Based on the Materials of the National Advisory Commission on Libraries*, Bowker, New York, London, 1969.

The 1970 legislatively established National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, in its first 3 years, has met with a wide range of organizations and individuals, held regional hearings, conducted studies and, currently, has in draft form a proposal for "A New National Program of Library and Information Service." Its implementation will require new federal legislation.

During the nation's bicentennial year, 1976, it is proposed that a White House Conference on Library and Information Services be called by the president and be planned by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science. Resolutions introduced in both House and Senate in 1973 authorize and request the president to call such a conference to focus public attention on the contributions of libraries and information centers to our society, to consider present inequities in resources and services, and to plan future directions including coordination and joint use of technology to make them more responsive to the needs of all Americans. Clear statutory authorization for the coordination of all kinds of library service presently is lacking in many states.

There is increasing concern for the economic challenges presented by other nations, to cite only one of the many factors demanding a citizenry that is ever-better educated and trained. Freedom of access to information is essential for an informed electorate, the basis of a democratic society. Increasing, too, is the realization that the provincialism of the past cannot be permitted to determine the scope of education in a society as dynamic and mobile as that of the United States. It is probable, therefore, that certain minimum national standards of sufficiency if not performance will be required in the future of all educational institutions including libraries. These trends are thus auguries of a greater beneficent interest in libraries on the part of the federal government in the years ahead.

The legislative accomplishments during the past two decades have been many. There must be a continuation of the partnership of federal, state, and local governments if every citizen of the country is to have access to the collective information resources of the nation.

Highlights of Federal Library Legislation, Fiscal Years 1956-1973

1956-1957. Library Services Act signed by President Eisenhower June 19, 1956, authorizing \$7,500,000 for each of 5 years.

1957-1958. \$2,050,000 appropriated. No funds had been recommended in the budget.

1958–1959. President Eisenhower proposed \$3 million for Library Services Act; Congress voted \$5 million. National Defense Education Act provided some assistance for school library resources and training of school librarians. National Library Week proclamation authorized.

1959–1960. President proposed \$3 million for LSA; Congress voted \$6 million.

1960–1961. LSA extended to 1966; president proposed \$6.6 million for LSA; Congress voted \$7.4 million, virtually the full \$7.5 million then authorized. Library plank first included in both political party platforms.

1961–1962. President Kennedy proposed \$7.3 million for LSA; Congress voted \$7.5 million.

1962–1963. President proposed and Congress voted \$7.5 million for LSA, the full authorization. Act amended to include American Samoa. Depository Library Act, first change since 1895.

1963–1964. Higher Education Facilities Act authorized grants and loans for construction of academic libraries.

1964–1965. LSA broadened to become the Library Services and Construction Act with \$45 million authorized for first year. President Johnson proposed and Congress appropriated \$7.5 million.

1965–1966. President proposed and Congress voted \$55 million for LSCA, the full authorization. Elementary and Secondary Education Act provided assistance to school libraries. Higher Education Act provided support for college library resources, library training and research, and cataloging and other bibliographic services. Medical Library Assistance Act established new categories of construction, training, and other forms of assistance.

1966–1967. President proposed and Congress voted the full authorization for LSCA, \$55 million. Act broadened to include interlibrary cooperation, state institutional library services, and services to the physically handicapped.

1967–1968. President proposed \$56 million for LSCA; Congress voted \$76 million, \$12 million less than authorized. Technical amendments to LSCA. President by executive order appointed a temporary National Advisory Commission on Libraries.

1970–1971. President Nixon proposed \$23.2 million for LSCA; Congress voted \$43.2 million and consolidated Act to three titles. National Commission on Libraries and Information Science authorized. Medical Library Assistance Act extended 3 years.

1971–1972. President proposed \$18 million for LSCA, the lowest recommendation in 8 years; Congress voted \$58.7 million. Higher Education Act extended through fiscal year 1975.

1972–1973. President Nixon twice vetoed appropriations for LSCA and ESEA II, the second veto occurring after *sine die* adjournment of the 92nd Congress. Public libraries included as an eligible category for funds at local level in “revenue sharing.” Older Americans Act extended, including a new Title IV to LSCA authorizing grants to the states for 4 years for library services for the aging.

1973–1974. President Nixon’s FY 1974 budget recommended ending all federal support for libraries authorized under the LSCA, Title II of the ESEA, and Title IIA

and B of the HEA. Funding for these programs was added to HEW Appropriations bill pending in Congress. Resolution calling for a White House Conference on Library and Information Services introduced in House and Senate. LSCA amended to include within the definition of "public libraries" certain independent research libraries.

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GERMAINE KRETTEK

LIBRARY LITERATURE

Library Literature: An Author and Subject Index Digest to Current Books, Pamphlets and Periodical Literature Relating to the Library Profession, was first published by The H. W. Wilson Company in 1936. It indexed library literature for the period 1933–1935, continuing the American Library Association's publication entitled *Library Literature*, 1921–1932, a supplement to H. G. T. Cannon's *Bibliography of Library Economy*, 1876–1920. The American Library Association index was compiled by the Junior Members Round Table under the editorship of Lucile M. Morsch, and was reprinted by The H. W. Wilson Company in 1970.

Although periodicals and some monographs were indexed in *Library Literature* from its beginning, the proliferation of material which needed to be indexed became a matter of concern to librarians associated with library science collections. Finally, on April 19 and 20, 1968, at the Albany Conference on Bibliographic Control of Library Science Literature (sponsored by the Library Education Division of the American Library Association and the State University of New York at Albany) and at a subsequent meeting, a number of recommendations were made to increase the scope of *Library Literature*.

Recognizing that an increase in the size of the staff of *Library Literature* would be necessary, the aforementioned conference delegates recommended that the index be published more often than quarterly; that coverage of all library and information science literature, especially monographs, research papers, book reviews, and international publications be expanded; that new periodicals in library science be listed; and that more analytic indexing of these materials and conference papers be included.

Thus *Library Literature: An Index to Library and Information Science*, is now an author and subject index to domestic and foreign materials and is issued bimonthly. Its scope parallels the curricula of graduate study in library and information science. In addition to articles in library periodicals, nonlibrary periodicals are indexed selectively for pertinent material. Books, pamphlets, films, filmstrips, microcards, microfilm, library school theses, and library school research papers dealing with library and information science are also indexed. New library science periodicals are listed under the subject heading "Periodicals, Library Science." A "Checklist of Monographs Cited for the First Time in Library Literature" is included as a regular feature of the bimonthly issues. *Library Literature* is published in February, April, June, August, October, and December, with a bound annual volume and a 2-year permanent cumulation. It is sold on the service basis.

THE H. W. WILSON COMPANY

LIBRARY MANPOWER

See also *Education in Library and Information Science*

Library Personnel Resources

Any discussion of library personnel needs must be concerned with an analysis and forecast of the field's needs as well as a summation of the economic situation and an assessment and inventory of the skills and abilities of existing staffs. According to Ginzberg, chairman of the National Manpower Advisory Committee, manpower "refers usually to human beings who work for wages or who earn income from the work they do. Also included are those out of work and seeking employment" (1). Manpower needs, thus, are an employment forecast for the right number and right kinds of people at the right places and the right times to perform activities that will benefit both the profession and the individuals involved.

The concept of library need must also be distinguished from that of demand. Need is often based on professional standards and expectations, whereas demand is based on a description of what people are willing to pay for a particular service at a given point in time. It cannot be taken for granted that the existing standards of service, the standards of education, the level of personnel needed, and the economic and social conditions in general are as satisfactory for libraries as they could be. Neither can it be taken for granted that all legitimate manpower desires or aspirations can be achieved given the economic and political conditions of the times. Quantitative and qualitative measurements of manpower needs raise several questions which must be answered: What types of personnel resources are required to implement the needed library service, and at what level should they function? What types of training are required and whose responsibility is it to provide such training? How many of the present openings can be amalgamated, fused, and diffused by streamlining the flow of operations? How are optimal staffing levels determined? How much of the present demand for new librarians is for specialists and how much for general practitioners? How can professional library personnel resources be best used? What percentage of the demand is for professionals and how much is for paraprofessionals and what is the ratio of professional to nonprofessional personnel which can ensure the optimum use of both levels?

Librarianship has not had an adequate basis for predicting, with any degree of precision, where, how many, at what level of sophistication, and for what particular purposes personnel will be required in the future. However, in 1972 the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the U.S. Office of Education's National Center for Educational Statistics and Bureau of Libraries and Learning Resources contracted to do a study of library manpower through the 1980s. The soon to be published report, entitled *Library Manpower—A Study of Requirements and Supply* (2), is the first comprehensive study of the library situation in the United States. The study was designed to develop projections of employment requirements by occupational level, and to provide information on job functions and educational requirements—and how each

is changing. Readers are encouraged to refer to the report, when it is published, for a more in-depth analysis of library manpower problems and projections.

According to Van Riper (3), the most important factors in manpower analysis are:

1. Size and growth of the total labor force.
2. Geographic mobility.
3. Occupational distribution and trends.
4. Future demand projections for labor.
5. The methods by which supply and demand are matched.
6. Educational development and trends.

This article will attempt to examine library personnel resources, using those factors as guidelines.

SIZE AND GROWTH OF THE TOTAL LABOR FORCE

In 1965 the *National Inventory of Library Needs* (4) indicated that shortage of personnel resources was the profession's number one problem. The American Library Association described as an "acute shortage" the then current situation. In 1966 the president of the American Library Association announced that she would direct her attention to all four phases of the manpower crisis: recruitment, instruction in the use of libraries, library education, and manpower utilization (5). An outcome of this emphasis was that one priority of the association, recommended by the Activities Committee on New Directions for ALA (ACONDA), was library personnel resources with the establishment of an Office of Library Manpower responsible for all programs relating to manpower—including recruitment, status, salaries, education and training, ethics, and all other personnel concerns. This office, whose name was later changed to Office for Library Personnel Resources, has the primary responsibility of establishing standards relating to those aspects mentioned. In addition, a Staff Committee on Arbitration, Mediation, and Inquiry (SCAMI) of ALA was appointed in December 1970 to handle complaints and conduct inquiries relating to personnel problems in libraries.

The first policy statement prepared by the Office of Library Manpower and adopted by the Council of ALA on June 30, 1969 was on *Library Education and Manpower*. This statement was prepared "to recommend categories of library manpower, and levels of training and education appropriate to the preparation of personnel for these categories, which will support the highest standards of library service for all kinds of libraries and the most effective use of the variety of manpower skills and qualifications needed to provide it" (6). See Table 1.

The *Library Education and Manpower* statement clearly sets standards for education and levels of responsibility of workers in libraries. However, until there is total acceptance of such standards, there will always be difficulties in identifying manpower trends. Asheim points out the major problem in these "crisis" years was perhaps not "one of too few professionally trained persons for professional jobs,

TABLE 1 (7)
Categories of Library Personnel

Title for positions requiring			
Library-related qualifications	Nonlibrary- related qualifications	Basic requirements	Nature of responsibility
<i>Professional</i>			
Senior librarian	Senior specialist	In addition to relevant experience, education beyond the M.A. [i.e., a master's degree in any of its variant designations: M.A., M.L.S., M.S.L.S., M.Ed., etc.] as: post-master's degree; Ph.D.; relevant continuing education in many forms	Top-level responsibilities, including but not limited to administration; superior knowledge of some aspect of librarianship, or of other subject fields of value to the library
Librarian	Specialist	Master's degree	Professional responsibilities including those of management, which require independent judgment, interpretation of rules and procedures, analysis of library problems, and formulation of original and creative solutions for them (normally utilizing knowledge of the subject field represented by the academic degree)
<i>Supportive</i>			
Library associate	Associate specialist	Bachelor's degree (with or without course work in library science); OR bachelor's degree, plus additional academic work short of the master's degree (in librarianship for the Library Associate; in other relevant subject fields for the Associate Specialist)	Supportive responsibilities at a high level, normally working within the established procedures and techniques, and with some supervision by a professional, but requiring judgment, and subject knowledge such as is represented by a full, four-year college education culminating in the bachelor's degree

(continued)

TABLE 1 (continued)

Title for positions requiring			
Library-related qualifications	Nonlibrary- related qualifications	Basic requirements	Nature of responsibility
Library technical assistant	Technical assistant	At least two years of college-level study; OR A.A. degree, with or without Library Technical Assistant training; OR post-secondary school training in relevant skills.	Tasks performed as supportive staff to Associates and higher ranks, following established rules and procedures, and including, at the top level, supervision of such tasks
	Clerk	Business school or commercial courses, supplemented by in-service training or on-the-job experience	Clerical assignments as required by the individual library

but rather one of the misuse of those professionals . . . employed and assigned to non-professional tasks" (8). He further supported this view by maintaining that "it is the obligation of the professionals to engage actively in the establishment and maintenance of standards and norms governing the preparation of people who work at any level in libraries. They should define and guide the kind of training needed by supportive staff and the kinds of preparation most useful at the professional level and not merely the education of those who will hold positions at the level we now call 'professional' " (9).

"To meet the goals of library service, both professional and supportive staff are needed in libraries. Thus the library occupation is much broader than that segment of it which is the library profession, but the library profession has the responsibility for defining the training and education required for the preparation of personnel who work in libraries at any level, supportive or professional" (10). Further support for the acceptance of the standards statement is given by Helen Brown who maintains that "the control of entrance into the occupation through the setting of standards of education and training is a characteristic of a mature profession" (11) and by Richard Logsdon who states that "the master's degree . . . is affirmed as the logical and defensible minimum requirement for full recognition as a member of the library profession" (12).

If the statement is accepted by the profession, that a professional is a person with a master's degree in librarianship, and if this is further refined to include only those who have graduated from an accredited library school, then there is a shortage of librarians. However, when all sources of supply are considered, then the shortage appears to shrink considerably. There is a great deal of confusion as to the definition

of a professional librarian and the positions they hold in library organizations. The U.S. Office of Education defines a professional librarian as one who "performs work requiring education, training, and skill in the theoretical or scientific aspects of library work as distinct from its merely mechanical and clerical aspects" (13). School librarians, particularly, do not accept the Manpower Statement because it strips the bulk of school librarians of their professional status since many of them do not have an earned master's degree. They, therefore, use another standard: "School librarians are certified personnel employed by the school board who have not less than six semester hours of library science, and who are assigned at least half of the regular work week to services as school librarians" (14). In only a few cases, Hawaii, Kentucky, and New Jersey, is a master's degree required along with the state teaching certificate for school librarians. But school librarians are not the only ones who do not require master's degrees. Many individual libraries of other types do not follow the standard in their employment practices as is evidenced by the U.S. Census data of 1960 and 1970. In 1970 only 42% of the professional personnel had completed a master's degree or its equivalent. However, this is up considerably from the 35% of 1960. This indicates a possible trend toward the master's degree as the standard credential for all seekers of a professional position, particularly in academic, public, special, and, to an extent, in school libraries. In 1970-1971 almost seven out of eight library science degrees were conferred at the master's level, with four-fifths of those degrees being conferred by ALA-accredited schools (15). With a keener competition for professional positions in libraries, there seems to be a trend for new librarians to have studied at the master's level in an accredited library school, currently numbering sixty schools.

In the period 1959-1966 the number of professional librarians rose 34% while civilian employment in the United States rose only 13% (16). In the 1960s the fastest growing occupations were typically those requiring a good education, including librarianship. Employment of librarians grew roughly 79% between 1964 and 1970. As late as 1970 projections were being made that librarianship would be a "High Growth Occupation" (17). An estimated 235,000 persons were employed in library work in 1970, including 115,000 librarians and 120,000 library assistants or attendants. Nearly one-half of those were school librarians, while almost one-fourth were public librarians and one-sixth were academic librarians. The rest were special librarians. This represents an average annual increase since 1960 of over 5%. However, there probably "never was a shortage of 100,000 librarians in the sixties—the figure was closer to 67,000" as some sources indicate (18). During this same period of time the number of support staff rose about 12.5% annually, indicating a great reliance on nonprofessional workers in libraries. The manner in which a professional is defined, of course, determines the manpower projections because it affects the number of paraprofessionals needed. However, indications are that the growth rate for all types of personnel has leveled off.

In the late 1960s state and special library associations began to address themselves to the question of qualifications and needs, and began to conduct surveys of their constituencies to determine actual demands (19). Also at this time the Mary-

land Manpower Studies, directed by Wasserman and Bundy and funded by the U.S. Office of Education, the National Science Foundation, and the National Library of Medicine, were started as an attempt to "evolve realistic supply and demand projections" (20).

From all of these surveys it is evident that many people filling the position of "librarian" do not meet the educational requirements proposed in the Manpower Statement. For instance, the survey of medical librarians revealed that less than one-third of all the personnel reported as librarians have master's degrees (21). The Ohio survey of public librarians shows that although 52% of the librarians in very large libraries (in cities of over 500,000) have master's degrees, in the smaller libraries (those serving cities of 25,000 and over) 65% of the librarians have no degree at all (22). The Ohio and Indiana statistics appear to jibe with those from the National Opinion Research Center survey of April 1966 which showed that 27% of all public librarians had obtained a master's degree. This survey estimated that 29% of the school librarians had completed this degree. Further stressing the lack of educational background to meet standards set forth in the Manpower Statement, Bolino found that 40% of all library school graduates are from nonaccredited schools (23).

GEOGRAPHIC MOBILITY

One of the most frequently listed reasons for the difficulty in finding positions, by new librarians coming into the field and by librarians reentering the field, is lack of mobility. This is evidenced by the heavy concentration of unemployed librarians in large urban areas, while many positions in small communities in somewhat remote locations go unfilled.

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION AND TRENDS

"A constant effort must be made to promote the most effective utilization of manpower at all levels, both professional and supportive" (24). The criticism of underutilization and assignment of duties below the intelligence of the individual has caused some restructuring of library organizations to more effectively employ all workers.

At the same time we have seen a shift in backgrounds of those who function as librarians, with many people coming into the profession possessing a second master's degree or a doctorate in subject fields of the sciences and social sciences. Many academic libraries give preference to librarians with advanced degrees in a subject area, although those with highly specialized training and experience are harder to find. With this conscious utilization of personnel there has developed a greater potential for the library technician and the paraprofessional. This is evidenced by the fact that the number of technician programs in junior colleges increased from 24 in 1965 to 117 in 1967 (25). "On the whole the situation would seem to tend toward the same manpower trend seen in many areas: greater demands for highly

skilled specialists (both at the professional and non-professional levels) and less need for clerical and less-skilled types of people" (26).

Several factors seem to have influenced the current numbers, types, and locations of library workers. Among these factors are automation of library operations, centralization of operations and networking, technician programs, finer definition of levels of personnel needed to perform certain functions, recent drastic cutbacks in federal aid to libraries, trends in population and enrollment, skimpy budget allocations from states, declining school enrollments, and general austerity programs resulting in hiring freezes in all types of institutions. The picture is further complicated by the fact that many librarians are not mobile, some limit their interests to type-of-library or type-of-work, and few seek jobs far from major urban centers. This is confirmed by a survey which indicated that of all the graduates in spring and summer 1972, only 15% were still seeking employment in November of that year. Reasons most often given were: restrictions as to the geographical area in which they could or would work; poor economic conditions locally or nationally; poor personalities of the unemployed librarians; lack of jobs of the type or salary the applicant wanted; and lack of vacant positions except those in affirmative action programs which are not available to all applicants (27).

FUTURE DEMAND PROJECTIONS FOR LABOR

All preliminary reactions to personnel needs point to the fact that employment in libraries is expected to grow more slowly over the next couple of decades than during the decade just past. Many organizations and agencies are concerned with the nation's future manpower needs and have made similar projections in regard to library personnel resources. The U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics, among others, publishes projections indicating the probable level of employment in librarianship. The U.S. Office of Education prepares estimates of requirements in the coming decade. The *Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Information* also publishes statistics on library manpower (28). In addition, *Library Journal* and *American Libraries* periodically include articles on library education, manpower, and salaries.

The Job Corps, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Higher Education Act, the Manpower Development and Training Act, and the Vocational Education Act represent indications of the nation's response to the changes in our society that expanded employment opportunities for the well-trained and educated in many fields, including librarianship. Recent legislation relating to training and employment of library personnel includes: Economic Opportunity Act (P.L. 88-452) as amended, Environmental Education Act (P.L. 91-516), Higher Education Act (P.L. 89-329) as amended, Manpower Development and Training Act (P.L. 87-415) as amended, Medical Library Assistance Act (P.L. 89-291) as amended, Mutual Education and Cultural Exchange Act (P.L. 87-256), National Defense Education Act (P.L. 88-665) as amended, and Vocational Education Act (P.L. 88-210) as amended.

A major finding of the study by the National Planning Association's Center for

Priority Analysis is "that the kinds of jobs available in the 1970's are . . . significantly influenced by the nation's choice of priorities. A high priority for a goal such as research and development would substantially increase requirements in professional and technical occupations involving lengthy periods of higher education to qualify for entrance" (29). In 1970 the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* reported "the employment outlook for trained librarians is expected to be very favorable through the mid-1970's. A nationwide shortage . . . is expected to continue despite the anticipated rise in the number of library school graduates" (30).

The situation has changed since that time and without a doubt the country's current economic situation is reflected in library employment: "All governmental jurisdictions are holding the line and keeping new appropriations to a minimum; federal funds are being reduced; and the private sector of the economy is unable, in most cases, to increase its level of library support" (31). Therefore, budget constraints seem to be the major manpower problem in all types of libraries. However, slight increases are still anticipated over the next several years. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1972, there will be approximately 125,000 professional positions in libraries in 1980 and there will be a demand for 9,000 persons annually to fill those positions (32).

The National Advisory Committee's report points out the special needs of libraries of the future: "managers broadly trained and educated generalists with a good sense of educational and cultural goals. More subject specialists will be needed. Staff will have more training in interviewing and counseling techniques and procedures and will be more 'outreach' oriented. More specialists in fields such as publicity, community relations, and business management will be required" (33). In the "outreach" areas this means more active recruitment of minority librarians to perform community relation functions, and a greater demand for specialists to serve other minority groups—the poor, the elderly, etc.—drawing heavily on persons with backgrounds in sociology, psychology, and social work. In addition the whole area of technology—cable television, computers, video cassettes, etc.—as reported by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, among others, will have a great influence on the backgrounds of people working in libraries.

This projection is confirmed by interviews with administrators of academic libraries who indicate that four types of personnel will be needed in the seventies.

- 1) Specialist in specific disciplines will be needed to cope with the bibliographic and research information needs of graduate students and faculty;
- 2) persons trained in systems design and operations will be needed to plan and implement the projected automated systems;
- 3) administrative expertise was recognized as being an increasingly necessary talent; and
- 4) a new type of functionary will be utilized who will receive his/her library training either on the job or in specialized training sessions. Consistently, administrators projected that the non-professional ranks would increase in relation to the professionals. Changes in ratios from 2:1 to 4:1 or even 8:1 were predicted (34).

With the continuing expansion of the media concept in school, public, and academic libraries, there is likelihood that specialists in those areas of audiovisual technology and media specialization will be needed. There is a clear indication that the employ-

ment of library assistants—paraprofessional and clerical—is likely to rise more sharply than that of professional librarians. The Indiana survey supports this view (35).

“If the field could take steps to improve its image, it could at least improve its probabilities of attracting new people” (36). This must happen because the potential for increasing employment and upgrading job opportunities for individuals in certain groups—Blacks, Chicanos, Indians, females—is a strategic consideration for libraries. The number of Black librarians doubled between 1960 and 1970—from about 4,000 to 8,000. However, the proportion of nonwhites only rose from 6 to 8% of the total librarian force. These minority groups have made up a disproportionate share of the library’s unused and underused human resources. The Office of Personnel Resources of ALA is accumulating data on the numbers currently enrolled in accredited library schools and in library positions. The results of that study should be an indication of trends in this area. The 1972 survey of ALA’s Office of Recruitment showed 310 Blacks, 48 Spanish-surnamed, and 1 American Indian enrolled in the spring of 1972, compared to 156 Blacks, 32 Spanish-surnamed, and no American Indians in 1969 (37). The Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 requires libraries to abide by the guidelines of the Act which forbids discrimination by race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. In 1972, P.L. 92-261 amended Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. An ALA ad hoc committee on Equal Opportunity in Libraries has recently prepared a policy statement on the subject.

THE METHODS BY WHICH SUPPLY AND DEMAND ARE MATCHED

The main source of supply of librarians is the schools of library science offering master’s degrees accredited by ALA. Despite this fact, “most school and public librarians do not possess this degree. Moreover, about one-third of the total master’s degrees are awarded by non-accredited schools” (38). However, the trend is toward graduate education at accredited schools. “The graduate accredited programs dominate the placement picture in all parts of the country” (39).

Libraries are being faced, in these days of accountability, with determining the exact number and types of positions necessary to carry out the objectives of the organization. In this process of reevaluating and redesigning jobs, we have isolated tasks which can adequately be performed by persons with less education, thus releasing the librarians to do professional tasks. An attainment of a balance between duties and qualifications is an important task. This proper personnel utilization involves “the use of personnel, by managers, in a way that will allow required tasks to be performed in the most efficient and economical manner consistent with the principles of good personnel management” (40).

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND TRENDS

Recognizing the current situation, most accredited library schools are taking steps to check growth, either through reducing quotas, holding the line, or raising or

enforcing admission standards. At the same time other schools now offering master's degrees are striving to meet the accreditation standards which have been set for library schools by ALA and the National Commission on Accreditation. One possible way of further identifying library personnel needs is to take the recommendations that Boaz proposed: "that a national commission be appointed to: 1) anticipate the conditions, needs and aspirations of society; 2) try to determine the information and knowledge needs of man and society; 3) establish purposes and objectives of libraries as they relate to these needs; 4) work with other institutions and agencies in achieving the library's objectives; 5) prepare a program in library education which will prepare future librarians to be leaders in library development" (41). For a more detailed discussion of this aspect of manpower, see the article on *Education for Librarianship*.

Because of the scope of this topic, this article has not addressed itself to the international aspects of library personnel resources. Readers are referred to articles in this Encyclopedia on specific countries and their education and manpower needs or to *Library Literature*, *Library and Information Science Abstracts*, ERIC's *Research in Education*, and other indexing sources which contain many reports on manpower in other countries. Selected examples are:

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ROBERT D. STUEART

LIBRARY NETWORKS

In 1970 the American Library Association and the U.S. Office of Education cosponsored a landmark National Conference on Interlibrary Communications and Information Networks, held at Airlie House in Warrenton, Virginia from September 28 to October 2 (1). Its purpose was to examine every aspect of the library network

concept and to recommend a program of action for future implementation. The conference grew out of the recognition by all involved that the combined information resources of American libraries were of enormous value to the country's economic and social growth, but that the effective utilization of them required the development of adequate networks among the libraries.

Papers were commissioned as background studies covering wide ranging topics: Network Services for Interlibrary Loan, Jurisdictional Considerations, Compatibility Problems, Social Considerations, etc. In the subsequent discussion at the conference, the librarians saw as their professional responsibility the development of national library networks in order to equalize individual access to knowledge. The specialists in technology identified the contributions that the computer and modern communications could make in both technical processing and public service in such networks. All participants urged the rapid adoption of standards to guide the development of library networks and recommended organization of networks as they developed into a hierarchy, from locality to state to region to nation.

Earlier, the federal government had taken specific action in this area by establishing the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, charged with the responsibility for developing overall plans for library and information services to meet the needs of the people of the United States (2). Therefore, the key resolution to emerge from the Networks Conference called on the National Commission to "devise as a matter of priority a comprehensive plan to facilitate the coordinated development of the nation's libraries, information centers, and other knowledge resources." Other recommendations to the National Commission urged them to assure the financial support required for developing network programs; to generate technical understanding of networks within the library and information science professions; and to provide a broad base of public and legislative understanding of the need for a national network of libraries and information centers.

In part, the interest in library networks lies in the opportunity they provide for economical centralized services. A long-standing example of such services is the production of catalog cards by the Library of Congress. The automation projects of the Library of Congress, the National Library of Medicine, and the National Agricultural Library are designed to support the library community in this way. Even on a local level, we see centralized processing facilities in individual states and localities, serving community libraries; we see university cooperation in centralized acquisition and cataloging of materials. In each case the economic justification of the network and of the use of mechanization becomes clearer as the number of libraries benefiting is increased and as the effects of "economies of scale" are felt.

Even more important than the role of centralized processing is the potential provided by library networks for the sharing of resources. Historically, the recognition of the value of sharing rather than duplicating resources resulted in the development of the existing interlibrary loan system, cooperative arrangements such as the Farmington plan, the National Union Catalog, the Center for Research Libraries. The trend toward the development of library networks was furthered by Title III of the Library Services and Construction Act which explicitly called for them. Interlibrary

cooperation is thus not in any sense a new concept, and the growth of library networks has been a continuing theme in librarianship.

During the past decade the pace in creation of library networks and interinstitutional arrangements has been accelerating, however. Regional library systems and consortia have become widespread and include groupings by both geographic region and subject specialty. Evidence of the pace of progress in recent years is suggested by the fact that "more than 90% of the currently existing academic library consortia have been established since 1960, and over 75% since 1965" (3). Examples of these existing networks include:

EDUCOM (the Interuniversity Communications Council). Many universities are affiliated with EDUCOM and through it are exploring ways of interconnecting their libraries and computer centers.

OCLC (Ohio College Library Center). OCLC operates a bibliographic center for a family of libraries. Since 1967, it has been making catalog cards and performing other, related services for those libraries by processing MARC tapes and cataloging entries contributed by members.

NELINET (New England Library Information Network). This program exemplifies several regional networks. It was originally designed to provide technical processing by-products for six state university libraries in the Northeast; since its inception, its membership and services have both increased.

STATE LIBRARY NETWORKS. Under the stimulus of the LSCA Title III funding, each state has, to one extent or another, created a library network including libraries of all types—public, academic, governmental, and special. Some of them have created processing centers, catalog production facilities, and other centralized services.

REGIONAL MEDICAL LIBRARY NETWORK. The National Library of Medicine, under the charter of the Medical Library Assistance Act, established a network among medical libraries throughout the country, based on establishing eleven regions in each of which one major medical library was designated as the Regional Medical Library. In addition to this organization, the NLM has developed a number of supporting services, among them the MEDLINE on-line bibliographic search service.

These examples illustrate a number of trends in the development of library networks: the sharing of computer power, the production of union catalogs, the provision of centralized technical processing services, the combination of various types of libraries in a single network, and the development of geographic groupings at both a state and regional level.

Among the trends, however, is one of special significance—the use of the computer and communications technology. In 1972 a report of the National Academy of Sciences commented that, "The primary bar to development of national level computer-based library and information systems is no longer a technology feasibility problem. Rather it is a combination of complex institutional and organizational human-related problems and the inadequate economic value system associated with these activities" (4). The present momentum in the creation of a national library and information network is such that the organizational and institutional

problems also appear no longer to be a bar, and the use of computers in that network is a reality, not a speculation.

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ROBERT M. HAYES

LIBRARY AND PROPAGANDA

The question of library attitudes toward propagandistic literature has persistently remained one of the most difficult problems of library administration and collection development. No general policy exists in solving this troublesome issue in the United States. Expediency has been resorted to when the problem has arisen, and the attitudes of the librarian, of individuals, and of groups within the community have generally determined library policy. This leads to precarious control over a very complex process.

Obviously the importance of books and other writings creates vast implications for all libraries. The libraries' part in the development of public opinion prior to and during World War I was mostly incidental. It is now evident that, as propaganda techniques are refined, the libraries, to an increasing extent, have been and will continue to be consciously used in producing the desired configuration of public opinion. In order to understand propaganda's effect on the library, it is essential to understand the theories and techniques of the propagandist.

Propaganda refers to the deliberately oblique dissemination of opinions, views, and other thoughts of man. The forms and styles of this activity are of infinite variety. Likewise, the subject matter of propaganda calls no particular political or social arena home. It is a neutral activity. It can be democratic or communistic, for or against anything. Moreover, the methods of propaganda are also of infinite variety—posters, books, speeches, rumors, etc.—as are the purveyors of this product. These purveyors can be politicians, preachers, educators, or anyone who is deliberately spreading ideas and opinions in order to influence people. Realistically, this fact even holds true for librarians. But the fact remains that the major processes of propaganda deal in deception more than in reason.

The word "propaganda" has developed sinister connotations over the years. The disrepute into which propaganda has fallen in popular usage is especially reflected in the avoidance of the term by pleaders of various causes in the democracies. In democracies, the condemnation of propaganda arises out of ethical abhorrence for selecting information which is disseminated in the interests of the cause of the disseminator and which is often secretly and circuitously insinuated into the stream of communication without any acknowledgment of the source. Democratic man tends to become impractical when ethical questions are involved. In authoritarian regimes, the proliferation, by use of propaganda, of that exclusively correct political ideology is not considered to require defense or ethical justification. Consequently, in contemporary democracies, propaganda has become a derogatory epithet hurled accusingly at opposing views and groups, but elsewhere propaganda is simply considered any organized or consistent group effort to spread a doctrine or doctrines. Even totalitarian regimes, however, recently are having difficulty in spreading ideas to their citizens in overt ways. This is best illustrated by increasingly controversial statements being made as of late by various Soviet authors.

Propaganda does come in written form, and since almost all that is written (fiction or nonfiction) seeks deliberately to sway opinions or views on some subject, the library must be considered as both an information source and the storehouse of all types of propaganda.

The history of propaganda is the history of the deliberate, purposeful spread of ideas. It has existed since the earliest times, as exemplified by the literature bequeathed us by ancient Greece and Rome. However, the history of the library and its relationship to propaganda did not really begin to affect society directly until Johann Gutenberg printed the Bible in Mainz in the fifteenth century.

The advent of printing by movable type signaled a new epoch in the history of propaganda. First, it facilitated the proliferation of new competing ideas on a tremendous scale. Second, it encouraged a large number of people to read and write. Third, it broke, at least to some extent, the partial monopoly of the church over those capable of reproducing written material.

As a matter of fact, the Roman Catholic Church's use of propaganda as a tool of the faith was so widespread during this time that in 1622 Pope Gregory XV formally established the "sacra Congregatio christiano nomino propagando" which brought the word propaganda into wide use because it was frequently referred to as "the propaganda." It was considered by many to be the prototype of the propaganda enterprise.

By the eighteenth century the ability to divulge quickly the ideas of such thinkers as Montesquieu, Montaigne, Samuel Adams, and Thomas Paine could well have been most influential in both the French and American Revolutions. Man began to more clearly perceive the power of this weapon. Montaigne, at this time, said, "So easily doth the world deceive it selfe, namely in things it desireth, or faine would have come to passe" (1).

The nineteenth century proved to be the period when propaganda became more pervasive, more highly organized, and involved an increasingly larger segment of the

population than before. It was also the century that witnessed a great increase in the power of pressure groups and the increasing influence of their propaganda efforts, such as the Chartist Movement in England. This same century also produced Karl Marx and Charles Darwin, whose ideas were propagandized to such an extent that they created vast changes in society and many problems of censorship and freedom for libraries then and in years to come.

By the twentieth century, propaganda was being used with greater effectiveness and in a more prolific manner. The Russian Revolution of 1917 brought to power Soviet leaders who, by virtue of their knowledge of Marx and Engels and their vested interest in propaganda, were vastly aware of the power of words and ideas. Lenin and Stalin used this power to great effect, internally and externally, up to and through World War II.

Adolf Hitler also placed much stress on propaganda in his book, *Mein Kampf*. Consequently, by World War II, under the direction of Joseph Goebbels, Nazi Germany was prepared for vast, prolific propaganda warfare. The Nazi ministry of Propaganda and Popular Enlightenment became a model of a government propaganda machine.

By the end of World War II the western democracies rather hurriedly dismantled their war-time propaganda apparatus, being loathe to accept propaganda, at least on a massive scale and through overt methods, as a normal function of a democratic government. However, the defeat of the Axis powers left many problems to solve. Consequently, overt propaganda became covert and remains so until today, not only among nations, but within the countries, dealing not only with international problems, but also with internal politics, ethics, and ways of life.

One would assume that with the increased public awareness of propaganda's existence and power, coupled with the consequent need to remain extremely covert in their operations, propagandists would be finding their job exceedingly difficult to perform with any degree of success. But it remains no more difficult to successfully influence a populace through deception than it was centuries ago when Niccolò Machiavelli said that one who deceives always finds those who will allow themselves to be deceived (2).

A successful propagandist has to possess two characteristics: he must grasp intuitively the feelings and thoughts of the masses and he must be able to convey messages to hold their attention through any possible means while combining simplicity with attractiveness. He must be a specialist in a new sense; he is a manipulator of words and an organizer, a man who thinks in terms of collectives such as the masses and the movement rather than atomistically. He is active rather than contemplative; amoral rather than moral; practical rather than ethical. Propagandists must, by the very nature of society, organize highly complex campaigns aimed at all strata of society through all methods: posters, speeches, television, books, newspapers, and plain old argument. These tools must therefore be combined in a complete and subtly perfect orchestration of influencing.

These same propagandists know when to publicize or camouflage their campaign properly. They must, perforce, know what medium to use to attack various segments

of the public. Posters and television or radio advertisements may influence some people but not affect many others. Books, magazines, and newspapers may affect many people but not all.

As Aldous Huxley said, "There are two styles of propaganda—rational propaganda which is in favor of action that is consonant with the enlightened self-interest of the society and non-rational propaganda that does not rely on intellect, but rather relies on passion" (3).

It is the both types of propaganda and their relationship to the library—the depository of this form—that is of direct concern in determining the consequences brought about by their mutual coexistence.

Almost any successful propagandistic appeal must be directed toward the intellectuals as well as to the other segments of the masses. Once the minds of leaders in thought and action are convinced, then the tasks of elucidation, simplification, and popularization can be most easily facilitated. Most of the great propaganda of history has been based on, or partially traceable to, treatises and rationalizations of great intellectual eminence, as history will attest. The basis of effective propaganda at this level is not emotional appeals, slogans, or such devices, but rather treatises of scholars. The great propaganda battles of history have been in large part battles over ideas, programs, and doctrines designed primarily to appeal to the minds of men.

Consequently propaganda must attempt to take over literature and history, which must be written according to propaganda's needs. Propaganda does this itself, for it is an intrinsic part of propaganda to take over all that can be of use.

It is through written material, that very material used by information centers called libraries, that intellectuals, students, and the rest of the "reading public" are most often influenced by both logical and spurious methods. It is the librarian who must face this problem and attempt to cultivate a solution within the parameters that constitute the intellectual freedom of the individual.

All propaganda and, for that matter, all other things are related to the library because the library and its holdings reflect society in both its past and present state. The most difficult problem of all is that very little of the literature that is on library shelves could not be construed as propaganda by someone, and much of it is, to some extent. As a matter of fact, if everyone enforced his own personal *Librorum Prohibitorum* on libraries, there would be no books left on library shelves.

As Harper Leach has said, "Except for sciences like astronomy, physics or chemistry, where the personal equation is practically eliminated by distance or by laboratory exclusion, what line of human thought is unflavored by propaganda?" (4).

It is this very nebulous and subjective image of what constitutes propaganda that many believe is the best reason for the inclusion of many points of view on a topic within the collection. Both the freedom of choice and the problems inherent in the same are then passed along to the patron, who should be the true arbiter in any case.

Although some propaganda appears in book form and even more is found in periodical format, much can be saved from the vast amount of unsolicited mail that libraries always receive. This unsolicited material arrives from all varieties of

sources and deals with an incredible melange of subjects ranging from biased literature concerning the "energy crisis" in America today to publications from the John Birch Society, the Young Americans for Freedom, the Americans for Democratic Action, and the American Communist Party.

An exemplary source of literature of a propagandistic nature is the World Anti-Communist League, China Chapter, located, appropriately, in Taipei, Taiwan and which sends unsolicited such pamphlets as *A Witness to Mao's Tyranny* by Yuan Mao-ju (5), *The Chinese Communist Plot to Drug the World* (6), and *Mao's Purge of Senior Military Cadre* (7). All three pamphlets are excellent examples of political propaganda, filled with half-truths and outright lies, but also full of "facts" meant to prove the required points.

There is still another form, perhaps more dangerous, that propaganda takes in the library. That form is that of the "propagandized" citizen (or the government) and it reflects on the library. It is through this form that censorship and self-censorship takes its toll, because not only users of libraries but also librarians are to some extent "propagandized." The government may also become involved in this problem through its agencies. For example, an action taken by the Internal Revenue Service in July 1970 requested access to library circulation records in order to identify readers of material dealing with the manufacturing of explosives (8). Of course, this action was vehemently opposed, but it illustrates that literature which is even indirectly controversial can cause problems for all—the patron, the government, and the libraries. This all-pervading atmosphere of belligerence is probably evoked through the success (or perhaps lack of success) of propaganda in America today.

Since the library houses much of this propaganda, the question is what action can or should be taken to prevent the patron from being inadvertently misinformed or given a biased subject collection? The answer seems to be that if one must store propaganda of some sort, then for the good of all a balanced collection must be kept. The reasoning is this. Researchers, who must see all sides in order to see at all, would find the collection a treasure trove, compared with controversial collections that have existed for the past years in libraries. A second reason to continue to store propaganda systematically is the fact that there is little else which could be classified as purely objective literature even though some may be more factually reliable than the rest.

Yet another reason to store an equal representation of all points of view is that different points of view, indeed as different as day and night, might force the patron to either be discerning and skeptical or to believe exactly what he wants. This latter alternative exists because many people have been socialized, either at home, in church, in school, or elsewhere, to believe only one concept and to disregard all else. The damage has therefore already been done and the library's balanced collection can only help and could not possibly harm the patron further.

There is, however, a second method often discussed as a method for handling the problem of propaganda. The argument is that the library's duty is to provide the truth to the patrons, not propagandistic half-truths and other false points of view.

While on the surface this argument seems sound, even laudable, only a cursory examination causes important questions to enter the inquiring mind. Who is to determine exactly what the truth is in matters of political ideology? Can anyone? It is this fallacy in the premise which negates this argument as a viable alternative to equal development.

The idea that the library can be a defense against propaganda may or may not be a mistaken idea. The patron of a library may be discriminating in his research, objective in his attempt for the truth, but then again, as stated above, he may have preconceived ideas of the "truth" which would invariably force him to believe only certain points of view no matter what material exists within the collection. Therefore, the question invariably arises, is the library the best defense against propaganda, or is man? Although man is the target of the propaganda, is not this in itself the best reason why only he can properly defend himself from its effect?

The debate between total freedom in collection development and equality in the same enters at this point in any analysis of the effect of propaganda on libraries. With a totally free development of the collection, the library could easily develop a skewed collection because of the relative efficiency of one group of propagandists to "flood" the library with torrents of literature all evoking a single ideological viewpoint on any particular incident, activity, or concept. On the other hand, if the librarian attempts to balance the collection equally between all points of view, then the library could possibly have an objective representation available to all points of view on any matter.

However, two problems exist in achieving this end. First, the librarian may, because of his or her own political socialization, be unable to choose objectively an equal quality of books on one single topic. Indeed, the quality of books on a single topic may be of such a literary nature that there cannot be an equal development of arguments within the collection. Second, the objection arises that if balancing a collection means *not* choosing certain books, is this not a form of censorship and consequently a restriction of the intellectual freedom of the patron? It may well be that censorship is one of the most effective tools of propaganda and therefore the inevitable question arises, which is worse, censorship or propaganda? Indeed, it could be a mistaken idea that propaganda is effective. Eric Hoffer is but one who does not believe so. He said that people tend to exaggerate the effectiveness of persuasion as a means of shaping opinion and behavior, whereas actually the effects ascribed to propaganda have no real foundation in fact (9).

The library not only houses truth, but also half-truths and lies, and certainly the well-known phrase "the consumer beware" is very pertinent to library use. The library's really difficult problem is that warning, particularly in the sense of "labeling," is considered as evil as the propaganda itself.

Perhaps the situation should be placed in better perspective at this time. One must remember that literary propaganda is only one form of attack and that in this electronic age the propagandist could well feel that written propaganda and consequently the library is not nearly as important as it has been in the past. The advent of television and vast leaps in communication technology have vastly more

effective methods of attack to reach more people more quickly and constantly than by any previous method. But it does not exclude the written form as a basis for attack; it is simply not the major form. At the same time, because of librarians' constant and enviable fight for freedom, the propagandist must certainly deduce that although the influx of propaganda can be more easily achieved, its effect is somewhat lessened because all propaganda is now more readily available. Therefore, the propagandist must perceive the library as both a tool and an enemy of his efforts.

The librarian himself can, through certain actions, become a propagandist. These actions generally lie in an attempted defense against the propagandist through censorial methods which in themselves limit the possibility of objectivity and availability of all points of view within a collection.

One example of such action is a librarian or an individual who, while purportedly supporting librarians, warns them of the danger of incorporating too much unsolicited information biased to a particular ideology because it would tend to "unbalance" the information available for use. Wesley McCune discusses the massive amounts of right-wing literature which may inundate a librarian through the route of such "unsolicited" literature. He felt that it may mean that the impact of right-wing organizations on libraries will not be so many future incidents of library harassment as an attempt to inundate them with propagandistic literature (10). Consequently he described some of the various organizations and publishers who produce this literature, so that the librarian could be forewarned. He did not, unfortunately, attempt to enlighten the librarian on organizations which produce propagandistic literature with other ideological viewpoints. What McCune does succeed in doing, probably quite unintentionally, is to become a propagandist who, while attempting to place either a stigma or aura of legitimacy on one point of view, does not realize that this is more wrong for the library than the literature he purports to be evil. Such action is an avowal that censorship is at least acceptable when confronted with right-wing propaganda. For any librarian to espouse or practice the same point of view as McCune is tantamount to espousing the restriction of intellectual freedom of his patrons, whether this activity takes place against right-wing, left-wing, or any other ideological literature.

In yet another example of a librarian's action being a detriment to the library, Mrs. Maude Query Kelsey, librarian of the Shelby, North Carolina, Public Library in 1962, appeared before the House Committee on Un-American Activities in order to testify concerning matters of Communist propaganda. She mentioned that there had been much unsolicited Communist propaganda received by the Shelby Library (11). This propaganda consisted of literature from the Krushchev speeches and the party program of the 22nd Congress of the Soviet Communist Party sent to the library from the Soviet Embassy in Washington. She considered this literature rank propaganda and, while not surprised, she was certainly incensed by this incident. It is surprising that no right-wing literature entered the library during this period, or that at the least she was not incensed by it also. Such incidents reflect the complex problem that the librarian has when confronted by propaganda.

It would seem that librarians use intellectual freedom as a philosophy for collection defense rather than as a method for collection development. This is to say that it is used as a defensive rather than offensive determinant in building a collection. The inherent problem with such an attitude toward intellectual freedom is that certain well-known books are defended and added to collections whereas more obscure books with opposite points of view are not only not found in collections but are not even actively sought. Although not necessarily done purposely, this does happen, and consequently produces exactly those biased collections which librarians profess not to want. The librarian sees propaganda and the propagandist as essentially evil; however, being confronted with the ever-present question of labeling a particular work as propaganda inevitably launches the political feelings of the librarian into action. The librarian's opinion on the topic discussed can and would be a definite factor in his selection decision, although the librarian could be completely unaware of such action. As a matter of fact, Mrs. Maude Query Kelsey (11), mentioned above, classified Khrushchev's speeches as propaganda, whereas others would say that they were merely statements by a nation's leader testifying to his opinion on a topic and were not surreptitious attempts to inculcate evil thoughts in her or her patrons' minds.

The library in the United States, consequently, remains in a state of confusion over which attitudes and activities would be correct in coordinating the coexisting problems of propaganda and collection development. Of course, there are and have been libraries in other countries where this perplexing problem does not exist.

A library's role concerning propaganda is dependent on the type of government control forced upon the library activities, along with those forced upon them by the public or society as a whole. In Nazi Germany, librarians felt that the state of library collections under the former regime necessitated a complete reform through a complete program of book distribution along National-Socialistic lines (12). The purpose of this distribution was to furnish materials for instruction and reference, and also to produce a regular selection program calculated to serve what was called the common end of the party.

A cultural board administered all public library policies and procedures through the Ministry for Cultural and Educational Affairs (13). They administered activities by means of edicts which the individual librarians had neither the right nor the opportunity to question. These edicts made certain that all libraries were under state control; that they had an adequate collection of National-Socialistic writings; and that they had librarians and assistants approved and trained by the state. Lists of books which were either recommended or forbidden were furnished as a guide to purchasing, and efforts were reduced to one end: proper propaganda on as intensive and pervasive a scale as possible. The situation was clear-cut for the German librarians of the period: they simply collected those materials they were told to collect by the Ministry for Cultural and Educational Affairs. The problem of what materials should be and what should not be collected was solved for the librarian by the state. All was simple in his world, unless he deviated from the rules.

In general, the librarians of the Soviet Union have quite similar feelings to

those of Nazi Germany toward the handling and control of propaganda. There are, however, two major points of difference. Since the Soviet regime is more securely in power than that of the Nazis, they can allow slightly more freedom in book selection, although not much more. Also, there seems to exist a more messianic character to the Soviet librarians' attitude toward the "educational" aspects of their work. They truly seem to believe in their cause, much more than the librarians of Nazi Germany. Consequently, the Soviet libraries' holdings are based upon exact principles of partisanship.

Even catalogs of holdings in the Soviet Union are based upon the perceived ideological political tasks of the library. Systematic arrangement is subordinated to the more important duty of ideological conformity. The librarian's duty is to include in the catalog only literature which contributes to a higher ideological and theoretical level of the proletariat, serves scholarly research and the vocational interests of the majority of the readers, and assists them in both their study and education (14). The idea that a library catalog should be a true and objective instrument of knowledge is not an acceptable premise in Soviet life. A librarian who includes books not meeting or fulfilling these requirements would be acting against the Soviet aims of controlled access to information. Of course, in Soviet libraries a second catalog is kept for the official use of librarians in answering questions and for bonafide researchers who must consult this type of information without allowing such information to enter the hands of the supposedly highly susceptible general populace.

Therefore, the Soviet Union's method of handling propaganda in libraries is quite similar to that of Nazi Germany. Contrary political opinions are not allowed to enter the view of the general public. Actually, only material of a positive ideological nature, or of no considered ideological importance, can be used by the Soviet public.

The libraries of the United States handle propaganda by a much different method and, for that matter, outlook. This is because there exists a different awareness of both freedom and democratic rights. A problem, however, lies in the fact that there are different points of view concerning the effect of this awareness on the handling of propaganda. The various points of view seemed to be most violently opposed and cogently stated during World War II. During this war, one contingent of librarians and other concerned citizens seemed to feel that the libraries should beware of propaganda, whereas another contingent felt that all points of view could be and should be safely allowed to remain and be placed into the library's collection.

In 1941, Mr. Max Radin, a professor of law at the University of California, stated his opinion on what should be the nature of a librarian's duty concerning the control of propaganda. He felt that persons who are not in favor of a furtherance of democratic institutions should not be allowed in a public service which attempts to educate the people within this framework (15). These people, he felt, were not free to use the facilities available to them and their talents to encourage unpatriotic ideas. Although he felt *Mein Kampf* should be available in all libraries, he seemed to feel that librarians should discourage its use (15).

Mr. Stewart Smith, however, in an article written prior to Mr. Radin's, felt that such actions were in themselves undemocratic (16). He stated that although books on controversial subjects, such as socialism, which the majority of citizens disapproved to some extent, were not being accepted into libraries while at the same time anti-fascist, anti-communist, and many distorted histories and bibliographies were being admitted and circulated without opposition. This, he felt, was a gross injustice to democracy.

As an illustration of this attitude against propaganda, Smith mentioned a statement (16) made by a trustee of the Seattle Public Library concerning controversial propaganda. Mr. Edward W. Allen, the aforementioned trustee, stated that because small groups are permitted to advocate theories which are contrary to those of our republic, with whom most of us disagree, we are under no obligation to such minority groups to expend funds to assist them to destroy our democratic institutions (16).

During this period, Archibald MacLeish was quoted as saying that the librarian intrinsically could not be the neutral guardian of information, "but must become instead the affirmative and advocating profession of the attorney for a cause" (17). The problem, which appeared then and remains today, is which causes should be advocated? Further, how does one best serve that cause?

In 1953, when Senator Joseph McCarthy was near the zenith of his influence, he became involved in the control, specifically the inclusion or exclusion, of propaganda in certain American libraries. Early in the year, two of McCarthy's staff members, the infamous Messrs. Cohn and Schine, made a survey of many U.S.I.A. libraries and consequently claimed that many books written by pro-communist authors were housed in the libraries (18). This proved to be greatly exaggerated, but the incident had not died until Senator McCarthy had called before his committee such "pro-communist" writers as James A. Wechsler, editor of the *New York Post*. Books by such authors as Herbert Aptheker, Earl Browder, and Lawrence K. Rosinger were condemned (19).

The U.S. Department of State was sufficiently cowered to produce directives and counter directives on book policies within their library centers across the world. It was not until President Eisenhower, while speaking at Dartmouth, warned against the evil of such acts that the suppressive activities were at least partially halted (18).

By this time the intellectual freedom movement, promoted to a great extent by members of the American Library Association, began to be felt. Librarians, through the words of the Library Bill of Rights, had a more definite basis upon which to defend their position of freedom of inquiry if they so choose. To a great extent, this unwritten freedom became law with the enactment of the Fourteenth Amendment. The question then became and remains, does the librarian so choose? Leon Carnovsky said he had never met a public librarian who approved of censorship yet failed to practice it in some way (20). To some extent, this statement could hold true for all types of librarians. The defense in favor of the inclusion of propaganda in the library is a most difficult and precarious one. Acquiescing to demands is

much more simple and comforting. Consequently, any slanting of the library collection on a subject, either in exclusion or inclusion of certain material, or both, is done silently and no longer defended with the vehemence which once existed during, for example, World War II. Yet, librarians have a duty to defend the principle of intellectual freedom in order to provide for their patrons that which they deserve, that is, many divergent points of view on any subject no matter how slanted or falsely based they might be considered by librarians.

Access to information which might prove controversial in nature also remains a problem in the United States today, as it does to an even greater extent in the Soviet Union. These limitations of access are based on the belief that the information which institutions refuse to yield to the scrutiny of patrons could well be used to produce "propaganda." Recently an individual involved in research at Rice University found that he had not been given access to three letters in the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library. He discovered this only after the letters were later published (21). The ability to legally prove that such censorship had consciously taken place was, of course, next to impossible. The consequences of such actions are a base fabrication of the defense of "democracy."

Therefore, institutional censorship, like the problem of censorship of propaganda, must be solved within the library profession rather than elsewhere. Most libraries in the United States attempt to provide the information that the public wants and needs, but it remains a difficult and trying task, mostly because of the few who do not provide the information.

The problem of propaganda remains difficult because its possible solutions can be so closely related to the problem of censorship. This is further complicated by the fact, as stated before, that one actually considers propaganda only that propaganda with which one disagrees.

People will, however, propagandize on a "good" subject, such as the Red Cross or the "American Way," yet censor material attacking these various subjects or espousing other controversial ideas. As a result, the librarian could well censor material which he, or the vast majority of people, consider malicious propaganda without due regard to the rights of the patron to read that which he desires, even if he, the patron, concurs that it is malicious.

Therefore a library's book selection policy, many would claim, should allow for the inclusion of books of "value" and those considered to be of questionable value so that the patron has the opportunity to decide which is which while still remaining able to read all points of view (8).

This discussion leads logically through the area of intellectual freedom and to a most compelling question: Is every selection or inclusion action a form of censorship? In many ways, this question could well be answered in the affirmative, considering the financial limitations of all libraries. However, the answer may depend upon the librarian's attitude. It can be argued that if the librarian did not purchase material because funds did not permit, then he or she is exercising her freedom of selection in the interests of the patron. However, if financial problems or lack of patron interest is consciously used as an excuse, or is used as a rationaliza-

tion for exclusion of controversial social material, then the librarian is indeed practicing censorship. A balanced collection, or at least an attempt at such, is tantamount to censorship but is actually the professional practice of selection. Balance, if achieved, could deaden the collection's overall effect upon the patron without removing opinions from his access.

This balance is, of course, a tentative concept because, especially in a public library where most censorship attacks occur, it is nearly impossible to achieve. As Ronald A. Landor has stated, any attempt at balance leads to "bitter fractional disputes" within the community (22). But at least if a librarian strives for balance, then the collection could be better for it. Not only that, but selection remains within all areas on any controversial topic and consequently the librarian can still try to choose the few books which it is most feasible to buy which also most cogently express various opinion-makers' arguments.

The problems facing a librarian who attempts to practice intellectual freedom when faced with propaganda are increased because he or she is attacked by the community, not necessarily from the "public" but from propagandists themselves. The John Birch Society is but one example of this form of propaganda via censorship. This society has made what appears to be concerted efforts to infiltrate public groups in order to obtain their objectives (8). These objectives seem to be to the inclusion of Birch's literature, which is highly propagandistic in nature, and the correlative exclusion of any literature which opposes this viewpoint, and is therefore considered by them to be subversive (8).

By working through public groups, such as the Library Board of Trustees and various other civic organizations, the John Birch Society and other propagandists who use this same process place the library that is attacked in the precarious position of fighting the public it serves.

And yet, throughout this discussion, the concept that balance of collection development will lessen the effect of any single propaganda campaign remains the most desirable solution to the librarian. Of course the question of censorship, as discussed above, remains, but if the effect is to allow all points of view freedom of access to the patron, then perhaps the conflicting points of view will reveal, through further interest and research on the part of the patron, some truths about the subject as a whole.

A librarian could create a methodology by which he or she could objectively determine the political bias of a book collection. This would be done as an attempt to demonstrate that bias is much more damaging than balance to both the patron and the library, and also as a "grading" method of the library's control of propaganda to date.

The object of such a study would be to determine the existence of bias within the book collection within the context of a scientific approach. Provedly, in order to perform this function, a measuring device of some kind becomes necessary. The measuring device would have to have the ability to vary because time must, of necessity, cause changes in the requirements necessary for an objective collection. This device must be literary in nature, for these are the components of a collection

and the only way to analyze a collection's make-up is by analysis of its various components. There are, of course, various forms of literature. Books could be chosen as the material to be studied because their study would remove the myriad variables which would arise in assessing the relative importance of each other type and therefore would be an attempt to add still more consistency to the study. This is a subjective decision, but would have little relation to the objectivity of the study, and indeed would add to this important factor.

A list of books would therefore be established as a constant variable which would accordingly be checked against a library's collection. The results would be analyzed in order to determine the objectivity of the collection. But, and this is essential, the books used must attempt to be the epitome of an objective collection. Also, they must be timely works which would run the complete gamut of political thought in the United States today.

The reasons for this are clear. Certainly an analysis of political thought in 1850 is of little relevance to a discussion of bias of political thought in a book collection today. Therefore, there must be a limitation to the historical extent of "political thought," just as there was a limit to the literature covered. Contemporary political thought in the United States would be the choice, because of its inherent immediacy and importance.

This list of books must be an example of an objective collection because a check of a collection from a single point of view would certainly not prove bias. The collection may be (1) inadvertently behind the times politically, (2) one in which the political collection has and always will be considered of little importance, or (3) quite objective although it could not be noticed through a single aspect approach to its analysis.

Now that the qualifications of the book list have been stated, the problem involving the methodology of accumulating such a list arises. Where does one receive such a list?

One could not simply choose the books, as this would place no control over the objectivity of the content of the lists. Another individual could not choose them, for the same reason. Instead, the list must come from those people directly involved in the creation of political thought today—the propagandists, the defenders and purveyors of a point of view.

Such a study was attempted in 1970 (23). A group of organizations which were of many divergent political points of view were enlisted to provide lists of books which they felt most cogently stated their point of view.

Given that the organizations were a true conglomerate of, at the very least, the vast majority of political thought in the United States today, and given that the results of the request were carried out, myriad opportunities arose with which to use this list as an instrument for analysis.

It could be checked against the holdings of any library. The results could be analyzed to determine whether or not the collection was based to the right, or to the left, or to the center of the political spectrum. It could demonstrate the disinclination of any library to handle controversial material.

Also, carrying this project a step further, since much book selection involves book reviews, one could discover which book reviewing media the librarians used and then analyze the reviews and compare them to the collection. The results would be interesting to interpret.

The results would, in all of these methods, cause speculation into why the situation arose, and whether the results were excellent or poor. This would inevitably draw one to the book selection policies and practices of the library or libraries under discussion. It was hoped to finally shed light on the secret world of political self-censorship and, in so doing, to gain insight into the actual philosophical bonds between book selection and intellectual freedom as each exists in America today.

The crux of the entire experiment rested with the book lists, yet this was the very point at which the experiment failed. The organizations were remiss in replying. Only half of them sent information. Although the reasons for this failure could be due to the letter sent to them having been written incorrectly to solicit a proper response, it would seem to demonstrate, to some extent, that the librarian must inevitably be the selector. Many politically active organizations spend most of their time and money on what they consider more important social institutions and publicity.

If the study were to be continued, the list would now be checked with, if possible and certainly desirable, a random sample of the libraries in the United States, or at least one library. But this became impossible because the resulting list of books could not be defined as a true example of American political thought. With the failure of obtaining a complete book list, however, the study came to an abrupt halt.

The book selection policies and practices of libraries are the basis of collection development. In looking at the development process, analysis must be objective in order to obtain a true understanding of where problems may arise in practice and why these problems do arise. This, however, is too much of a rarity.

There are many methods of book selection, but certain generalities can be drawn which demonstrate the basic method of selection and the problems involved.

Although various libraries have different objectives, they all, as mentioned above, tend to subscribe to the principles evoked by the Library Bill of Rights. They have certain limitations placed upon their selection capabilities. But one can always refuse to buy what is controversial on the basis of lack of funds (24). If it is true that libraries cannot purchase every book, then, at the same time, their belief in the various documents espousing intellectual freedom must not be forgotten. No librarian can state that he or she has only enough money to buy books with only one point of view on an issue; no more than he or she can state the same for reasons of space. A collection, no matter how small, can at least attempt to achieve objectivity.

In all book selection practices, someone must decide which book is selected or rejected. It is at this point that the decision must be analyzed to determine if and why selection may be biased.

If we assume that the librarian is not consciously censoring his selections, then

the results may be biased by two factors. First, the librarian in many cases relies upon someone else to review the book. This reviewer may, and in fact must, have his political thoughts which might disagree with the work, and therefore the book could receive a bad review. The librarian reading this bad review, if well written, may determine it to be the fault of a poor book rather than of a poor reviewer. Henry Regnery, in his study of book reviews, found that some bias did exist (although not as much as he seemed to hope for) (25).

Second, when a review is not available, some decisions of book selection are made from reading annotations. Since the annotator may have only skimmed the book, the librarian must now make a decision on purchasing a book from which he or she is three times removed. At the same time many books are purchased without review, on sale, or by a quick perusal through the assistance of an approval plan. Another factor which should be discussed is that all books are not reviewed or annotated, and therefore the librarian may not know of or actively seek the existence of these books.

Controversial literature could also be repressed at many levels of the publishing world. Abbie Hoffman's *Steal This Book* is but one example. His regular publisher, Random House, and nearly thirty others refused to publish this book (26). Most refused because it contained plans for making explosives—plans already found in government publications—and preached utter lawlessness. After finally publishing the book privately and having Grove Press attempt to distribute it, he was unable to purchase advertising space in most normal publishing journals or reviewing media. Only those which espoused quite liberal viewpoints, with the notable exception of the *National Review*, reviewed the book. Advertisements remained negligible. The *New York Times*, which reviewed the book favorably (a review written by Mr. Dotson Rader), would not advertise the book. It has nevertheless become an underground bestseller.

Mr. Rader (26), when discussing the problems of *Steal This Book*, felt that the publishing industry will accept very strict parameters of publishable material. He bases part of this limitation on the rising number of publishers who are subsidiaries of large corporations, as is the case with Random House (26). Given such a situation, a librarian who was able to gather enough information about *Steal This Book* to make a knowledgeable selection decision would be a miracle worker.

If we consider that the librarian may be practicing self-censorship, for reasons discussed earlier, the problems discussed above are often used as excuses for their activity, even though they are legitimate reasons in themselves.

The consequences of such actions are obvious. As long as censorial attitudes are allowed to cloud the judgment of the librarian, both the collection and the patron are hurt. These attitudes become yet another tool in the hands of the propagandist and are used as a weapon in their favor to have their propaganda, both well written and poorly written, included in a library's collection while excluding other points of view.

The prospects for the library remain intensely complex unless these censorial attitudes and actions can be completely curtailed. This is important because defense of the intellectual freedom of some groups without the same defense for all groups—

even groups such as the John Birch Society, which may hold ideologies completely repugnant to the librarian's—is a horrid state of bias of which the patron may be unaware. Providing the patron with the ability to read all points of view in order to gain insight into the truth is a librarian's most basic duty. Without a concerted effort at this goal, librarianship becomes the tool it is in the Soviet Union, rather than a basic tenet of freedom. Yet through it all, propaganda will remain both an enemy to and an instrument for saving the library collection and protecting the patron's unalienable right of free inquiry.

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LIBRARY PUBLIC RELATIONS

Public Relations—A Function of Management

Public relations as a major field of management has been primarily a post-World War II American development. J. Carroll Bateman, former president of the Public Relations Society of America, defines the function in these words: "Public relations is the planned effort of a business organization or other institution to integrate itself into the society in which it exists." This definition incorporates the understanding that as today's complex society changes, the goals of an organization must also change. It is the function of the public relations program to help the organization reach these goals.

The practice of effective public relations is based on a continuous study of the attitudes and ideas of the various publics the organization serves or from which it seeks support. The public relations specialist is responsible both for advising management on the effects that various policies and actions may have and for communicating information about the organization to its various publics. These publics are both internal, such as staff and boards of directors, and external, such as customers/users, potential customers/users, and opinion leaders. The support by these publics of the organization only comes when they understand and accept the organization's purposes and actions.

Two partial truths about public relations frequently distort its meaning. The first is the mistaken belief that public relations means publicity or even favorable publicity. The second is that public relations is nothing more than friendly communications between staff members and those persons with whom the organization comes in contact. As good administrators recognize, however, the foundation of any organization's public relations must be the actual product or service which the organization supplies. Publicity and communications from staff can inform, but they are effective only when they accurately reflect policies and actions.

Public Relations in Libraries

LIBRARIES OF ALL TYPES

In American libraries of all types, the majority of which operate with small staffs, the public relations function usually is shared by the administrator and other staff members. The allocation of 2 to 5% of a library's total budget which is recommended for public relations cannot in a small library pay for a full-time public relations specialist. Most of the planning and evaluating of the public relations program must be carried out by the administrative staff. Even a modest public relations budget, however, should include funds to finance the preparation and production of pamphlets, reports, and posters, provide professionally produced signs and displays, and,

if required, purchase part-time service from public relations counselors. Friends of the Library, community advisory committees, and other volunteer groups can play an important role in the public relations program of any library, whether large or small. Library systems and networks, which are growing in number and expanding to include many types of libraries, often offer public relations as one of their major services to member libraries.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Most of the public libraries in the country's major cities and a growing number in smaller cities and suburban communities have public relations or public information departments operated by staff specialists. The Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore pioneered in this field decades ago with a publicity program which included exterior window displays, promotional pamphlets and posters, continuous communication through the press, and sponsorship of lectures and other programs.

In recent years the need for well-planned, vigorously executed public relations programs has grown as public libraries have attempted to reach a variety of new publics from inner city residents to corporate researchers. Competition for limited tax funds in inflationary times has also increased the importance both of the policy-making and communication aspects of the public relations function.

Eight Libraries and Their Programs

Every successful library public relations activity must be based on clearly formulated objectives which relate to the library's overall goals. The activity must be planned in relation to the publics it is intended to reach. After its completion it should be evaluated. Brief examples of public relations activities highlight their publicity and communications aspects, but these are merely the most visible part of the operation.

State Library. State libraries (especially ones responsible for planning and development for all types of libraries) have the potential to become leaders in library public relations. One state library initiated with federal funds a successful public relations program for public, school, academic, and special libraries. The public relations specialist who directs the project gathers information about public relations needs and activities and offers information and advice to librarians through a lively newsletter and other printed communications, and at meetings and workshops. Libraries receive professionally produced posters, promotional pamphlets, and radio/TV spot announcements either free or at low cost.

Experimental Library. An inner-city student library, sponsored by local school systems and the public library, relies on a community advisory board and community staff aides to help plan and host special programs, to advise on community attitudes and needs, and to edit the library newsletter. A library staff member with public relations experience coordinates the public relations program which includes regular reporting to sponsors and to the library profession nationally.

City Public Library. A library in a large city announced the opening of a reference library through a publicity campaign which used bus and subway signs, displays in department store windows, posters and fliers, radio and TV spot announcements, newspaper articles, and preview tours. Although the focus was on introducing the new facility, the campaign dramatized the library's interest in service to all.

Suburban Public Library. In one suburb of 40,000, two public relations staff members conduct surveys of library users, produce a lively newsletter and book-lists, create displays, and help present and publicize a varied schedule of programs and events.

Library System. The public relations staff of a cooperative public library system offers to member libraries staff training in public relations through workshops and consultations, produces printed materials for distribution by libraries, sponsors traveling exhibits which libraries may borrow, and develops cooperative activities with areawide agencies.

Academic Library. A university library gained increased financial support and greater visibility among students, faculty, alumni, and other citizens of the state through a homecoming program that focused on improvement of the library. The university's public relations department and student organizations, with the help of the library staff, carried the library message through statewide newspaper articles and radio programs, campus exhibits, leaflets in motels and restaurants, announcements in the football program, and a football autograph benefit.

School Library. An elementary school library relates its services and materials to every student's classes and interests through a year-long series of theater, concert, and film programs, book-centered games and parties, and exhibits. At an all-school read-in to celebrate National Library Week one year, cooks and custodians joined students and teachers to keep the reading going.

Special Library. The staff of an association library, which serves both headquarters staff and members throughout the country, reports to headquarters staff and communicates to association members through a library promotion pamphlet (which lists all subject headings used to classify materials), through articles in the association journal, and through a basic bibliography in the membership directory. Association members are encouraged both to use the library's services and to contribute material from their own companies to keep the collection current.

Needed—A National Program

Although many individual libraries and some library systems and networks have effective public relations programs, the profession lacks a strong, coordinated national program. For models, librarians could study the public relations activities of many trade and professional associations. The American Library Association is the logical organization both to represent the profession nationally and to offer public relations materials and staff training to libraries. ALA's small public relations office has never been given the staff or resources to do much more than publicize the association's own activities and produce a library public relations newsletter.

A demonstration of the potential of a well-supported program was given by National Library Week in its early years.

Sources of Information

ALA's Public Relations Section of the Library Administration Division brings together library public relations specialists and library administrators. Activities include conference programs and occasional publications. This section and The H. W. Wilson Company cosponsor the John Cotton Dana Library Public Relations Awards.

Although most Library Public Relations Council members live in the New York City area, the council has two national programs: an annual packet of library publications and an awards program. Other library associations conduct a variety of public relations activities but seldom do they have public relations specialists on their staffs.

The Public Relations Society of America, which is the leading association in the field, operates an information center at its New York headquarters. The center's extensive files of pamphlets, reports, speeches, and working papers is the most extensive collection of current public relations nonbook material in the country.

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ALICE NORTON

LIBRARY QUARTERLY

The Library Quarterly: A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science is published by the University of Chicago Press and edited by the faculty of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. The first issue appeared in January 1931 supported by a \$25,000 grant from the Carnegie Corporation to establish a library periodical devoted to the publication of research. The first managing editor was William M. Randall, an associate professor in the Graduate Library School. Associate editors were Pierce Butler, J. C. M. Hanson, Harriet E. Howe, and Douglas Waples, all of the Graduate Library School faculty, joined by J. I. Wyer, director of the New York State Library School and Henry B. Van Hoesen, librarian of Brown University. Fourteen advisory editors ranged alphabetically from William W. Bishop to P. L. Windsor in the United States and from Isak Collijn to Monsignore Eugene Tisserant abroad. In addition, the American Library Association, the Bibliographical Society of America, and the American Library Institute were listed as supporters of the project.

The organizational and intellectual support mustered for the new journal reflected a determined attempt to surmount a hazard suggested by C. C. Williamson in "The Place of Research in Library Service," his Founder's Day Exercises Address delivered at the School of Library Science at Western Reserve University on June 10, 1930 and published as the leading article in the first issue of the *Quarterly*. After expressing gratification at the journal proposal, he added, "Will there be enough material worthy of publication to keep a quarterly journal going? In the years that project has been under discussion it has been freely predicted by leading librarians there will not be enough." With such support and direction, however, the first issue came out with 120 pages, including nine articles and twenty reviews. The first volume was completed in 504 pages.

From the outset, articles emphasized research. Some of the research reported marked a sharp departure from previous patterns of investigation. The sociological studies of reading and library use appeared with tables displaying columns of averages, norms, and deviations from norms, grouped and arranged to produce generalized findings. The sociological approach was evident even in historical studies, as reflected in the influential "Sociological Beginnings of the Library Movement," a 4-page article by Arnold K. Borden, then a 25-year-old reference assistant at Dartmouth. But such articles by no means monopolized the journal. Along with them went studies of the origin of printing in Russia and of Johann Neumeister, an assistant of Gutenberg, pursued on more classical historical lines. The journal was also hospitable to a range of contributors. A high proportion of the articles were written by faculty members and students at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago because of the focus of library research in that institution. Others came from the distinguished roster of advisory editors. Some came from highly motivated researchers not belonging to either group. The associate and advisory editors contributed. Scouting for promising manuscripts has been a func-

tion of the board of editors, and it continues to be so, although the advisory editors were dropped in 1956.

Following the success of the *Library Quarterly*, other journals arose that published detailed reports of research investigations. For the most part these have been specialized, devoting themselves to types of libraries, particular library functions, and special types of research. Without such restrictions on scope, the *Quarterly* has been hospitable to the whole range of library research and free at the same time to accept new approaches. Many of the articles published have been written by political scientists, psychologists, physicists, practical printers, and others whose interests have led them to study problems relevant to libraries, as well as by library scholars.

Editorial Direction

The faculty of the Graduate Library School has been responsible for editing the *Library Quarterly*. The work is directed by a managing editor who is a member of the faculty. The managing editor receives manuscripts, solicits judgment from the editorial board and other referees on the merits of manuscripts under consideration, edits articles accepted for publication, corresponds with authors, assigns books for review and edits reviews, and exercises editorial supervision over each issue as it passes through the press.

From 1931 to 1974, four faculty members have served as managing editors. The first was William M. Randall who served from 1931 to 1942. The author of *The College Library* (1932), he pioneered techniques of surveying college libraries as a consultant for the Carnegie Corporation. On the outbreak of war, he entered the U.S. Army Air Force in 1942. Following his discharge from military service, he moved to library and college administration.

Leon Carnovsky was the second managing editor. A member of the faculty since 1932 and an associate editor since 1936, he took over the responsibilities of managing editor when Randall left. He carried on the duties until he resigned the office in 1961 to devote more time to his teaching and research. For 19 years he conducted the *Library Quarterly*, distinguished as much for his insistence on clear prose as on his sound judgment of research values. Profoundly aware of general trends in scholarship and their relationship to library research, he was always alert to potential manuscripts and attracted authors from other fields as well as from library scholars. His own extensive participation in research, particularly in library surveys, and his worldwide reputation as a library educator served to recruit many manuscripts. He devoted himself meticulously and with skill to all aspects of editorship, not excepting copy-editing and proofreading. Although, like other managing editors, he depended on the judgment and assistance of the editorial board, he left a strong personal imprint on nineteen volumes of the journal, and he has continued to read and evaluate manuscripts as a member of the editorial board even since his retirement from teaching in 1971.

With the July 1961 issue, Howard W. Winger succeeded Leon Carnovsky as managing editor and continued in the office until 1972 when he resigned to become dean of the Graduate Library School. A specialist in the history of communication and libraries, he became managing editor at a time when a sharp new trend in library scholarship was producing mathematically based studies of library problems. The support of the strong editorial board, which included physicists and mathematicians on the faculty of the Graduate Library School, enabled the *Library Quarterly* to absorb this new research while retaining its interest in the old.

In 1973 Lester Asheim became managing editor. First appointed to the faculty of the Graduate Library School in 1948, he served as dean from 1952 to 1961 when he left to join the staff of the American Library Association where he was successively the director of the International Relations Office and of the Office for Library Education. Returning to the faculty in 1971, he brought to the managing editorship the range of interest and competence to sustain the broad goals of the *Library Quarterly*.

Content

The major features of the *Library Quarterly* are the articles and the book reviews. Minor features are the "Cover Design" and the "Books Received" columns.

The principal feature is the articles. An article must define a problem of some importance to librarianship and systematically present evidence bearing on the problem in a coherent account. This allows great variation both in length and subject matter. Articles have been as short as 2,500 words and as long as 40,000. A more common length is around 6,500 words. In subject matter, articles have covered a wide range of problems and research methods.

To select articles for mention incurs the danger of distorting the contribution of the *Library Quarterly*. But the range of subjects and approaches can be illustrated by reference to certain articles and series. "Community Studies in Reading" began in 1933 with "Reading in the Lower East Side," by Douglas Waples. This was followed by Leon Carnovsky's study on Hinsdale, Illinois, in 1935, Helen A. Ridgway's study of adult nonusers in Flushing, New York, in 1936, and Laurel Krieg's report on Alliance, Ohio, in 1939. These studies of use and measurements of use led into other reports such as Lewis Stieg's studies of college library users and Harold Lancour's study of the reading interests and habits of the graduates of Union Theological Seminary. This vein of interest in the use of materials was extended further by Herman H. Fussler in the citation analysis technique he developed for reporting on the "Characteristics of the Research Literature Used by Chemists and Physicists in the United States" in 1949. The concern with the objective measurement of the use of library materials has been reflected in such recent articles as Herbert Goldhor's "Effect of Prime Display Location on Public Library Circulation of Selected Adult Titles" in 1972.

Some of the social concerns of librarians early found expression in the *Quarterly*.

Using the technique of content analysis, Helen Martin reported in 1936 on "Nationalism in Children's Literature." In 1939 Lowell Martin surveyed the provision of "socially significant books" in branch libraries in Chicago and compared the results with the demographic characteristics of the branch areas. In 1944 Evalene P. Jackson reported on her study of the "Effects of Reading upon Attitudes toward the Negro Race." In 1945 Eliza Atkins Gleason wrote on problems Negroes in the South faced in search of public library service. Carefully researched articles on such subjects continue to find space in the *Library Quarterly*. Recent examples are an article on interracial children's books by Paul Cornelius in 1971 and one on the climate of opinion in midwestern libraries relevant to intellectual freedom and censorship by Charles Busha in 1972.

Library administration and management has received much attention. Inasmuch as this involves a search for objective measures to guide decisions, J. Periam Danton's "The Selection of Books for College Libraries" in 1935 belongs to this category. Carl Chatters in 1939 and Ralph Ellsworth in 1944 took a hard look at the financial bases of public and university libraries, respectively. Also in 1944 came "The Reorganization of the Library of Congress" by Archibald MacLeish, quite a coup at the time. The train of articles in this area has included Richard Meier's "Efficiency Criteria for the Operative of Large Libraries" in 1961 and Arthur McAnally's "Budgets by Formula" in 1963.

Operations research techniques applied to library problems have inspired many articles in recent years. In 1970 Philip Morse made use of a mathematical model in "Search Theory and Browsing" to forecast the most efficient size of a browsing collection. The conference issue in January 1972 was devoted to the implications of operations research for libraries. Somewhat related was the conference issue in October 1973 devoted to the implications of management education for libraries and library schools. Other facets of management problems were discussed by Gail Schlacter in "Quasi Unions and Organizational Hegemony in the Library Field" published in 1973 and by Kenneth Plate and Elizabeth W. Stone in "Factors Affecting Librarians' Job Satisfaction" in 1974.

"The Crisis in Cataloging" by Andrew Osborn appeared in October 1941. Other crises soon seemed more important to the country, but the cataloging crisis was a genuine one and continued to occupy the attention of *Library Quarterly* authors. In 1944 Raynard Swank published "Subject Catalogs, Classification, or Bibliographies: A Review of Critical Discussions, 1876-1942." A whole issue was devoted to cataloging codes in October 1956, comprising the papers of a conference including, among others, Ruth French Carnovsky's unparalleled history of the development of cataloging codes. In 1972 Don R. Swanson contributed his significant report on the "Requirements Study for Future Catalogs."

The *Library Quarterly* has been strong in the history of libraries. Arnold Borden's contribution to the historiography has already been mentioned. Jesse Hauk Shera's "Literature of Library History" in 1945 and "On the Value of American Library History" in 1952 have been frequently cited. Sidney Ditzion contributed articles on School District Libraries and Mechanics Institute Libraries. Dan Lacy's brilliant "Li-

brary of Congress: A Sesquicentenary Review" appeared in 1950. Representing interest in foreign library developments, Edith Scott's "IFLA and FID—History and Programs" in 1962 and Boyd Rayward's "The UDC and FID—A Historical Perspective" in 1967 are together a comprehensive view of those developments. History has also extended to the book trade. Felix Reichmann's "The Book Trade at the Time of the Roman Empire" published in 1938 remains a sound contribution. Autobiographical memoirs have included those of W. W. Bishop (in several parts) and of Sidney Mitchell.

It is a short step from the history of librarianship to its philosophy. Pierce Butler's "Librarianship as a Profession" in 1951 and "The Cultural Function of the Library" in 1952 are memorable. Equally noteworthy is Leon Carnovsky's "The Obligations and Responsibilities of the Librarian Concerning Censorship" published in 1950.

The articles mentioned illustrate the range of interests and methods but are not all inclusive. From the journal's inception it has naturally enough devoted much attention to library education. Authors who have dealt with it specifically include Harriet Howe, Ralph Beals, Lester Asheim, Leon Carnovsky, and John Boll. Bibliographical organization, studies of bibliographical systems, and evaluation of research resources have been subjects of continuing interest.

Special Issues

The *Library Quarterly* has published special issues honoring J. C. M. Hanson in April 1934, Louis Round Wilson in July 1942, Pierce Butler in July 1952, and Leon Carnovsky in October 1968. Another special issue was published on library education in April 1937 and one in January 1955, on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the publication.

Since 1953 the *Library Quarterly* has devoted one issue each year to publishing the proceedings of the annual conference of the Graduate Library School. This series includes the conference on "Librarians, Booksellers, and Scholars at Mid-century," published in 1953 and goes to the most recent conference on "Management Education: Implications for Libraries and Library Schools" published in 1973. Special and conference numbers feature articles solicited for the issue. Although this sometimes delays publication of other articles accepted while a conference issue is in preparation, it induces leading scholars outside the library field to turn their attention to library-related problems.

Reviews

The reviewing section has always been an important feature. The *Library Quarterly* was the first periodical to undertake comprehensive coverage of library literature, both domestic and foreign, and to give it evaluative appraisal, still the policy. From fifteen to twenty critical reviews written on assignment by leading scholars commonly appear in each issue. Items reviewed are concerned with the

same type of subject matter that distinguishes the articles. They include studies of library problems, works about the communication media and the book trade, new and monumental bibliographical projects, works that illuminate the social context of libraries in various periods of history, and works addressed to library educators. Books for review are selected from those sent by publishers to the *Quarterly* Office and those noted and requested for reviewing purposes by the managing editor. Occasionally a volunteer review is accepted if the work discussed is within the scope of the *Library Quarterly* and can be verified.

An attempt is made to enlist the most authoritative reviews. Often this produces a contribution to the subject of a book under discussion. This is a particularly valuable service for books in foreign languages that for linguistic reasons may not be accessible to many readers of the *Library Quarterly*.

Within the reviewing section, "Review Articles" have appeared from time to time, more frequently in earlier years than later. Such a review article may be simply an extensive review of a work of unusual importance, such as Douglas Waples' review of *Die Lektüre der Frau*, by Walter Hofmann, in 1931, a tour de force perhaps matched by Blanche B. Boyer's review of *The Medieval Library* by James Westfall Thompson in 1940. The review article on Marshall McLuhan's *Gutenberg Galaxy* in 1963 marked the serious recognition of this thinker in library literature. Other review articles have treated a number of related works.

Reviews of the literature are not restricted to the reviewing section. Such a comprehensive review as "Selective Dissemination of Information: A Review of the Literature and the Issues," by Judith Holt Connor, was published as a regular article in 1967.

Books within the scope of reviewing interests but not assigned for review are listed among "Books Received." From time to time, some books of special interest but not receiving review have appeared in annotated listings. From 1936 to 1947, "Book Notes" appeared. In January 1973 this feature was resumed in a section entitled "Shorter Notices."

Indexes

Since the beginning, each annual volume has contained an index in separate lists of the writers of articles and authors of books reviewed. Since 1968 the writers of reviews have been included in a separate list. In 1935, 1940, and 1945, 5-year cumulated author, title, and subject indexes were published, but the practice was not continued for succeeding 5-year periods. Current issues are indexed in whole or part by different indexing services. *Library Literature* is the major index for the period since 1945.

Design and Format

The first issue of the *Library Quarterly* appeared with a canary yellow cover. Within three red rules appeared a logotype of LIBRARY QUARTERLY at the

top of the cover and the imprint information in capitals and arabic numerals below, all printed in black. Between title and imprint was the printer's device of Aldus Manutius, printed in red. Except for the use of a different printer's device for each issue, the cover has changed very little since that time. The dimensions have been changed slightly in 1970 and 1974 to permit the economies of perfect binding and a different sheet size, but the design has remained essentially unaltered. The most noticeable changes were the shift to a two-column format in 1943 to conserve paper and the change back to a single column format in October 1973 to reduce printing labor costs. The style of citation was changed to use end notes in 1969, although explanatory footnotes remained.

The Cover Design

The cover design articles began with the first issue of the *Library Quarterly* in January 1931. The back pages carried a short unsigned notice explaining the printer's device on the cover page and announcing that each succeeding issue would carry a different printer's device. From January 1931 through January 1974 a total of 163 devices had been used. (Variations exist in catalogs of printers devices to insure variety for an indefinite future.) In January 1943 the practice was introduced of printing the device on the page with the "Cover Design" article as well as on the cover, because the cover is usually discarded in binding.

In 1931 Lester Condit, a student in the Graduate Library School, signed a "Cover Design" article. The others were unsigned. In 1932 E. E. Willoughby, variously a student in the Graduate Library School, a librarian at the College of William and Mary, and finally a librarian at the Folger Library, began selecting the devices to be reproduced and writing the articles. He continued through April 1958 when failing health brought his contributions to an end. In July 1958 Howard W. Winger began contributing the cover design articles. Except for a few articles written by his students and one supplied by the author of a major article, he has continued since then to choose the devices and write about them for each succeeding issue. He has pursued a theme of the printer's device as a Renaissance emblem—the pictorial statement of an idea—and searched foreign language sources and background studies in emblem literature to recover meaning from printer's devices that are little known in the twentieth century.

HOWARD W. WINGER

LIBRARY REGULATIONS

Introduction*

Very few hard data of a systematic nature exist on the subject of library regulations. Individual libraries usually have available some form of instructions for their borrowers on rules to be observed, and also manuals of regulations on internal policy procedures. However, finding documented accounts of specific rules in effect on such matters as loan periods or fine schedules, or comparative studies of hours of operation, is not easy; often, it is not possible. For these reasons it would be a useful addition to the literature to have a source available which could be used as a kind of touchstone, to see what common practice prevails. How many libraries, for example, require users to check through a guard desk at exit points, and is there a pattern to be observed? Do more public libraries monitor exits than do research libraries? More important questions come to mind concerning access to the collections and user privileges. Who is qualified to check out what, where? For how long? Do most libraries have regulations which typically limit the acquisitions of certain subjects, or forms, of resources? And most important of all, would it not be helpful, in many instances, to have the capability of comparing and contrasting one's own procedures with those of others? This concept seems to gain in significance at a time when efforts of all information agencies are being directed toward providing faster, more efficient services to users on a national and international basis by means of standardization, cooperation, and, ultimately, networking. It is also true that the practice of comparing one library with another has resulted in raising standards, both nationally and internationally.

Several definitions of "regulations" exist. For this study, however, a regulation will be considered an authoritative "rule or restriction prescribed and enforced by a constituted authority for the sake of order, uniformity, discipline, etc., as in the regulations of a school or society" (1).

The chief objective of this article is to provide a current state-of-the-art report on regulations which are in effect in United States libraries, and focus on those rules which seem to be of most immediate relevance to library clientele. It is intended to be almost totally user-oriented. Regulations governing acquisition policies and administrative controls, while affecting users only indirectly, were nevertheless judged to be of critical importance, and included.

First, it was necessary to identify the major areas to be treated, a "core" of regulations which seemed applicable to all kinds of libraries. The next step was to identify current practice, through a survey, and, third, to furnish sufficient background information to provide an historical perspective, a brief résumé of the unique goals, objectives, and supportive legal structures which condition responses in the various sectors of librarianship, since these responses result in functional policies, procedures, and rules.

* The References for this section begin on page 412.

Although the current thrust is toward reducing barriers of all types, it is nonetheless still true that different kinds of libraries not only claim unique antecedents but also serve different publics. This fact suggested a format by type of library. Those finally selected were: *Public, Research and Academic, School (Media Centers), Special, and State.*

Significant regulations were then grouped into categories: those governing *Users, Circulation Systems, Resources, Interlibrary Loan and Reprography, and Administration.* The five categories were further subdivided, as follows:

Users

- Qualified Borrowers
- Information on Policies and Regulations
- Information Services
- User Records
- Access to the Collection
 - Service Hours
 - Classification
 - Periodical Collection
 - Open Stacks

Circulation

- Monograph Loan Periods
- Renewals
- Fines
- Disposition of Fine Money
- Replacements
- Circulation Statistics
- Automated Systems
- Security Exits

Resources

- Acquisition Policy
- Comprehensive Collection Development
- Exclusions by Subject
- Exclusions by Format
- AV Equipment
- In-House Use
- Resources Paged for Users
- Closed Collections
- Bookstores
- Personal Copies
- Center for Research Libraries
- Exchange
- Consortia or Systems

Interlibrary Loan and Reprography

- Administrative Location of Interlibrary Loan
- Codes
- Delivery Systems
- Costs
- Users' Reprographic Equipment
- Staff Reprographic Equipment
- Regulations Restricting Photocopying

Administration

Directors' Reporting Officials

Administrative Constraints: Professional and Support Staff; PPB (Budgets);

Inventories; Audits; Gifts; Withdrawals

Ordering

AV Facilities

In order to gather the needed data, a questionnaire was designed and sent to 429 libraries (2). For Public Libraries, the sample of 143 was taken from *Statistics of Public Libraries Serving Areas With at Least 25,000 Inhabitants, 1968* (3). Four libraries were selected from each state. Since size was assumed to be significant, a high, low, and average was chosen on the basis of population served. In addition, the biggest public library in each state was also included. This weights the findings in this report toward practices in larger public libraries.

For research libraries, the membership of the Association of Research Libraries was selected and eighty-six questionnaires mailed.

For the school library sample, one questionnaire was sent to each agency listed in "State School Library Agencies" in the *American Library Directory* (4), with the assumption that the agencies would summarize general practice of school libraries in their districts. However, this request was omitted from the cover letter and the attempt to gather data on school libraries was not as successful as the others. Only nineteen questionnaires were returned out of fifty-four sent. In addition, however, twenty-four letters were received, stating that the addressees did not function as libraries but as consulting agencies only. Questionnaires returned have been analyzed and included in the report; however, they are probably the least representative of the entire sample.

Eighty-five special libraries, or actually librarians in this case, were chosen from the chapters listed in the August 1973 issue of *Special Libraries* (5). A questionnaire was sent to each president and president-elect. However, the general cover letter to these respondents did not explain that they were selected as representatives of special libraries and, in the case of special librarians who were also branch librarians in the ARL libraries, this caused overlap and confusion, since one institution sometimes received two questionnaires. Occasionally only one questionnaire was returned and it was tallied according to its coding unless the contents very plainly indicated that it belonged elsewhere (6).

Sixty-one libraries were also selected from the list of "State and Provincial Public Library Agencies" in the *American Library Directory* (7).

This constituted a total of 429 libraries. There were 349 respondents, for an overall total of 81%. By type of library, the rate of response was: public, 118, or 83%; research and academic, seventy-three, or 85%; school (questionnaires only), nineteen, or 35%; special, sixty-four, or 75%; state and provincial, fifty, or 82%. See Table 1.

A simple manual tabulation of returns is reported in the following pages (8). There is little attempt at comparative analysis. However, two examples might be mentioned, both in the important area of policies which regulate access to resources.

TABLE 1
Returns for Library Regulations Questionnaire^a

	Sent	Returned	% Returned
ARL libraries	86	73	85
Public libraries	143	118	83
School libraries	54	44 ^b	81
Special libraries	85	64	75
State and provincial libraries	61	50	82
States alone	48	46	94
Provinces alone	12	2	33
TOTALS	429	349	81 (av)

^aAll figures have been adjusted: e.g., New York State Library is a member of ARL; New York Public, The Research Libraries, was tallied under public; Center for Research Libraries was dropped from ARL.

^bNineteen returns were questionnaires; twenty-five were letters.

At least a third of all libraries reporting (30% in the case of special libraries), and over half the research libraries are engaged in comprehensive collection development in some subject areas; and over a third of research, special, and state libraries limit their collections by excluding specific subjects. Exclusion by format is less common (9). See Table 2.

Another example of comparative analysis may be found on page 436 of the Research Libraries section. See Figure 1. Seventy-five percent of the ARL libraries reported membership in consortia, cooperative enterprises which provide greater access to information and resources.

Computer analysis is still in the preliminary stages. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program has analyzed some of the questionnaire data. In Appendixes II and III are examples. Appendix II demonstrates preliminary analysis

TABLE 2
Number and Percent of Libraries with Comprehensive Inclusions or Exclusions in Their Acquisitions Policies

	Research (N=73)	Public (N=118)	School (N=44)	Special (N=64)	State (N=50)
Comprehensive subject development	(37) 51%	(39) 33% ^a	(6) 32%	(19) 30%	(23) 46% ^b
Specific exclusions (by subject)	(31) 42%	(16) 14% ^c	(9) 14%	(28) 44%	(22) 44%
Specific exclusions (by format) ^d	(16) 22%	(24) 20%	0	(10) 16%	(7) 14%

^aLocal history, predominantly.

^bLocal history, public documents.

^cLaw, medicine, and technical literature.

^dNonprint materials, chiefly microforms, films, tapes, slides, computer tapes, talking books, and framed pictures.

of library hours as a function of type of library; Appendix III deals with the classification of library periodicals, also as a function of type of library. In both instances, chi square and the contingency coefficient are significant, indicating that definite profile patterns, by type of library, do exist, at least in these two areas.

The rest of the article follows, arranged by type of library: *Public, Research and Academic, School, Special, and State*. Each section is subdivided into two parts. Part 1: *Background*, which briefly treats definitions, objectives, history, users, and trends; and Part 2: *A State-of-the-Art Report* on regulations, which is the result of the national survey.

APPENDIX I

DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE
THE ACADEMY LIBRARY
USAF ACADEMY, COLORADO 80840



REPLY TO
ATTN OF: DFSLB

SUBJECT:

TO:

Dear

My colleague, Marcy Murphy, and I have agreed to write an article entitled "Library Regulations" for the forthcoming volume of the *Encyclopedia of Library and Information Science* edited by Allen Kent and Harold Lancour.

For this article to be comprehensive, we feel that the topic must cover the major types of libraries in the United States and perhaps Canada. This would include, of course, academic, national, public, school, special, and state libraries. These would represent the major divisions of the article, and within each division we would cover such sub-topics concerning regulations as administration, budgets, circulation, interlibrary loan, inspections, reprography, and still others.

We need your help! We fully realize that you have been bombarded with questionnaires during the past year or two and we have participated in many ourselves. But, we hope you share our view that it is a professional courtesy and that you will be willing to give us your cooperation.

The attached questionnaire will take only a few minutes of your time. We earnestly solicit your expeditious completion. Enclosed is a stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience.

Results will be published in the *Encyclopedia*; however, we will of course assure that responses of individual libraries will remain anonymous. We are most grateful for your cooperation.

Sincerely

CLAUDE J. JOHNS, JR., Lt Col, USAF
Director of Academy Libraries

2 Atchs
1. Questionnaire
2. Envelope

LIBRARY REGULATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

USAF Academy Library (DPSLR)
USAF Academy, Colorado 80840

21 November 1973

1. What are the library service hours?

a. Mon through Thurs _____ Sat _____
b. Fri _____ d. Sun _____

2. What is the major classification system used in your library?

a. Dewey _____ Library of Congress _____
c. Other _____

3. Are periodicals classified? Yes _____ No _____

4. How are your users systematically informed about the regulations of your library?

- a. Handbooks and manuals _____
- b. Pamphlets _____
- c. Circulars _____
- d. Instructional materials _____
- e. Other _____

5. What is the name of the library? _____

6. What is the address of the library? _____

7. How are the regulations of your library disseminated to your users? _____

- (1) _____
- (2) _____
- (3) _____
- (4) _____
- (5) _____

*We would appreciate receiving any of these you have available.

- (6) Class assignments _____
- (7) Other _____

7. Do you release information regarding the checkout records of your user? No _____ Yes _____

8. What is the standard loan period for monographs? _____

9. How many renewals are permitted? _____

10. Are the following materials limited to in-house use?

- a. Audio-visual materials No _____ Yes _____
- b. Serials, loose issues No _____ Yes _____
- c. Serials, bound volumes No _____ Yes _____
- d. Microforms No _____ Yes _____
- e. Other (apart from typical Special Collections materials) _____

11. Is the library required, for external reporting purposes to maintain circulation statistics on

- a. Number of items circulated No _____ Yes _____
- b. By format (book, serials, etc.) No _____ Yes _____
- c. By format (book, serials, etc.) No _____ Yes _____
- d. Other _____

12. Does the library impose a fine system on overdue materials?

- a. No _____
- b. Yes, with the following charges
 - (1) Monographs, regular loan, per day _____
 - (2) Serials, regular loan, per _____
 - (3) Reserve books, per hour _____
 - (4) Other _____

13. Is the fine money

- a. Retained by the library _____
- b. Turned over to another agency _____
- c. Other _____

14. To replace lost books, do you charge

- a. List price, when available _____
- b. List price plus a processing fee _____
- c. Flat fee for all lost books _____
- d. Other _____

15. Are users required to exit through a controlled security checkpoint?

- a. No _____
- b. Yes, and the control is
 - (1) Human (guard) _____
 - (2) Electronic _____

16. Does your library have an open stack system? No _____ Yes _____

17. Are some materials (apart from Special Collections, etc.) routinely aged for users

a. No _____ b. Yes (please specify)

- (1) Serials loose sets _____
- (2) Serials bound volumes _____
- (3) Reference books _____
- (4) Microforms _____
- (5) Other _____

18. Does the library maintain any collections which are closed or locked because they are particularly vulnerable to theft or mutilation (excluding special collections)?

a. No _____ b. Yes (in the following forms)

- (1) Local history or subjects of particular topical interest _____
- (2) Political fringe _____
- (3) Sex manuals etc. _____
- (4) Other _____

19. Do backlist or special editions exist? No _____ Yes _____

20. Do you have any special areas of collection, categorized as follows, that should be exempt from general circulation?

a. No _____ b. Yes (in the following areas)

21. Do you have any special areas which are voluntarily excluded from your collection?

a. No _____ b. Yes (in the following)

22. Do you have any special resources, categorized as follows?

a. No _____ b. Yes (in the following)

23. Does your library acquire and maintain audio-visual equipment? No _____ Yes _____

24. Does the library administer a bookstore? No _____ Yes _____

25. Can users ask the library to order a personal copy of a book for them for which they will pay through a bookstore, acquisitions, or circulation?
 a. No _____ b. Yes _____
26. Is your library a member of Center for Research Libraries? No _____ Yes _____
27. Does the library participate in an exchange program?
 a. No _____ b. Yes, and it is administered by
 (1) The library _____
 (2) Another agency, such as the University Press, which processes the library's requests _____
 (3) Other _____
28. Does your library have a written acquisition policy? No _____ Yes _____
29. Organizationally, is interlibrary loan
 a. a separate unit? No _____ Yes _____
 b. a function of Reference? No _____ Yes _____
 c. a function of Circulation? No _____ Yes _____
 d. Other _____
30. Does your library frequently participate in interlibrary loan codes other than the national?
 a. No _____ b. Yes, the following
 (1) International _____
 (2) Regional _____
 (3) Other _____
31. Do you utilize delivery system(s) other than the mails?
 a. No _____ b. Yes (please specify which) _____
32. What is the unit cost of items borrowed? _____ Do the users pay the cost?
 a. No _____ b. Yes _____
33. Is reprographic equipment directly available to users?
 a. No _____ b. Yes _____
 (1) What kind of equipment (manufacturer)? _____
 (2) What are the charges per page?
 (a) free _____ (b) 0-5¢ _____ (c) 5-10¢ _____
 (d) over 10¢ _____

34. Does the library have a separate reprographic unit which services user requests?

a. No _____ b. Yes _____

- (1) What kind of equipment (manufacturer)? _____
- (2) What are the charges per page?
 (a) 5¢ _____ (b) 10¢ _____ (c) over 10¢ _____

35. Apart from Fair Use standards and federal regulations against copying currency, etc., does your library have any significant or unique restrictions on what may be copied?

a. No _____ b. Yes, they are _____

36. Please give the descriptive title of the administrator to whom the Chief Librarian reports _____

37. Is your professional staff on federal or state civil service? No _____ Yes _____

38. Is your support staff on federal or state civil service? No _____ Yes _____

39. Are you required to participate in a Planning, Programming Budget System? No _____ Yes _____

40. Does your governing agency require regular inventories of your collection? No _____ Yes _____

41. Does your governing agency require regular audits of your accounts? No _____ Yes _____

42. Does your governing agency specify regulations on the acceptance of gifts? No _____ Yes _____

43. Does your governing agency specify methods of disposition for withdrawn materials?

a. No _____ b. Yes _____

44. Does the library order materials directly from publishers and vendors?

- a. Yes _____ b. No, orders are handled through _____
- (1) Central Business Office _____
 - (2) Processing Center _____
 - (3) State or federal procurement agency _____
 - (4) Other _____

45. Does your Chief Librarian administer audio-visual and media facilities? No _____ Yes _____

Are these units located within or adjacent to your library? _____

46. Does your library belong to any consortia? Please give names: _____

47. Have there been any recent changes in the regulations governing your library operation which you think significant enough to report here? If so, we would appreciate your comment. _____

APPENDIX II

Tables 1–4 are photocopies of computer printouts of the SPSS analysis of Question 1: What are the library service hours?

- a. Monday through Thursday
- b. Friday
- c. Saturday
- d. Sunday

Responses were tallied in seven categories:

- 1. Closed
- 2. Open all day
- 3. Open all day and evening
- 4. Open morning only
- 5. Open afternoon only
- 6. Open afternoon and evening
- 7. Open 24 hours

A null hypothesis is assumed, that no relationship exists between type of library and hours of service. In all four parts of the question, the null hypothesis is refuted: there are significant relationships. Chi square is significant at 33.2; the contingency coefficient is significant at .33.

Question	Chi square	Contingency coefficient
a	178.	.62
b	117.	.54
c	202.	.65
d	219.	.66

TABLE 1
Library Hours Monday through Thursday

LIBRARY SURVEY

FILE SURVEY (CREATION DATE = 02/27/74) RESULTS

***** C R O S S T A B U L A T I O N O F
TYPE BY HOURS *****

TYPE	COUNT ROW % COL % TOT %	HOURS					ROW TOTAL
		CLOSED 0,001	ALL DAY & EVE 1,001	ALL DAY 2,001	AFT & EVE 5,001	24 HOURS 6,001	
ARL	1.00	1 1.5 25.0 0.4	60 92.3 32.3 21.4	4 6.2 4.6 1.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	65 23.1
PUBLIC*B	2.00	3 7.3 75.0 1.1	36 87.8 19.4 12.8	2 4.6 2.3 0.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	41 14.6
PUBLIC*H	3.00	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	23 88.5 12.4 8.2	3 11.5 3.4 1.1	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	26 9.3
PUBLIC*A	4.00	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	25 92.6 13.4 8.9	2 7.4 2.3 0.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	27 9.6
PUBLIC*L	5.00	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	17 73.9 9.1 6.0	5 21.7 5.7 1.8	1 4.3 100.0 0.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	23 8.2
STATE	6.00	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	1 2.5 0.5 0.4	39 97.5 44.8 13.9	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	40 14.2
SPECIAL	7.00	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	24 40.7 12.9 8.5	32 84.2 36.8 11.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 10.3 1.0 1.1	59 21.0
COLUMN TOTAL		1.4	186 66.2	87 31.0	0.4	1.1	261 100.0

CHI SQUARE = 178.00438 WITH 24 DEGREES OF FREEDOM
 CRAMER'S V = 0.39795
 CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT = 0.62274
 KENDALL'S TAU B = 0.48939

TABLE 2
Library Hours on Friday

LIBRARY SURVEY

FILE SURVEY (CREATION DATE = 02/27/74) RESULTS

***** CROSSTABULATION OF TYPE BY HOURS *****

TYPE	COUNT ROW % COL % TOT %	HOURS					ROW TOTAL
		CLOSED 0.00	ALL DAY & EVE 1.00	ALL DAY 2.00	AFT & EVE 5.00	24 HOURS 6.00	
ARL	1.00	0	51	14	0	0	65 23.1
		0.0	78.5	21.5	0.0	0.0	
		0.0	40.2	9.6	0.0	0.0	
		0.0	18.1	5.0	0.0	0.0	
PUBLIC-H	2.00	3	24	14	0	0	41 14.8
		7.3	58.5	34.1	0.0	0.0	
		75.0	18.9	9.6	0.0	0.0	
		1.1	8.5	5.0	0.0	0.0	
PUBLIC-H	3.00	0	14	11	1	0	26 9.3
		0.0	53.8	42.3	3.8	0.0	
		0.0	11.0	7.5	100.0	0.0	
		0.0	5.0	3.9	0.4	0.0	
PUBLIC-A	4.00	0	17	10	0	0	27 9.6
		0.0	63.0	37.0	0.0	0.0	
		0.0	13.4	6.8	0.0	0.0	
		0.0	6.0	3.6	0.0	0.0	
PUBLIC-L	5.00	0	7	16	0	0	23 8.2
		0.0	30.4	49.6	0.0	0.0	
		0.0	5.5	11.0	0.0	0.0	
		0.0	2.5	5.7	0.0	0.0	
STATE	6.00	1	0	39	0	0	40 14.2
		2.5	0.0	77.5	0.0	0.0	
		25.0	0.0	26.7	0.0	0.0	
		0.4	0.0	13.9	0.0	0.0	
SPECIAL	7.00	0	14	42	0	3	59 21.0
		0.0	23.7	71.2	0.0	3.1	
		0.0	11.0	28.8	0.0	10.0	
		0.0	5.0	14.9	0.0	1.1	
COLUMN TOTAL		4	127	146	1	3	281 100.0
		1.4	45.2	52.0	0.4	1.1	

GHI SQUARE = 116.56299 WITH 24 DEGREES OF FREEDOM
 CRAMER'S V = 0.32203
 CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT = 0.54147
 KENDALL'S TAU B = 0.41674

TABLE 3
Library Hours and Services

Library	Hours	Reference	Inter-lending	Serials	Microfilm	Microprint	Other
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							
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TABLE 4
Library Hours on Sunday

LIBRARY SURVEY

FILE SURVEY (CREATION DATE = 02/27/74) RESULTS

***** CROSS TABULATION OF TYPE BY HOURS *****

TYPE	COUNT ROW 1 COL 1 TOT 1	HOURS					ROW TOTAL
		CLOSED 0.00	ALL DAY & EVE 1.00	AFT ONLY 4.00	AFT & EVE 5.00	24 HOURS 6.00	
ARL	1400	7.9 3.2 1.8	6.4 66.7 1.4	1.5 3.0 0.4	54 83.1 70.1 19.2	1 4.5 3.3 1.4	65 23.1
PUBLIC*B	2400	25 61.0 15.8 8.4	2.4 16.7 0.4	13 31.7 19.4 4.6	2 4.0 2.6 0.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	41 14.6
PUBLIC*H	3400	20 76.9 12.7 7.1	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	4 15.4 12.1 1.4	2 7.4 2.6 0.7	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	26 9.3
PUBLIC*F	4400	21 77.0 13.3 7.5	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	5 18.5 14.2 1.8	1 3.4 1.3 0.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	27 9.6
PUBLIC*L	5400	15 65.0 9.5 5.3	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	8 32.0 24.0 2.8	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	23 8.2
STATE	4400	50 100.0 28.3 18.2	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	40 14.2
SPECIAL	7400	32 54.2 20.3 11.4	1 14.7 1.4 0.4	2 8.1 6.1 0.7	18 30.5 23.4 6.8	8 8.0 3.7 1.1	59 21.0
COLUMN TOTAL		178 65.2	1 2.1	13 11.7	77 27.4	7 4.5	281 100.0

CHI SQUARE = 218.2200 WITH 24 DEGREES OF FREEDOM
 BRAUER'S V = 0.4103
 CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT = 0.66109
 KENDALL'S TAU B = 0.32401

APPENDIX III

Table 1 is a photocopy of the SPSS analysis of Question 3: Are periodicals classified? No Yes

A null hypothesis is assumed, that no relationship exists between type of library and classification of periodicals. The hypothesis is refuted. Chi square is significant at 33.2; here it is 130. The contingency coefficient is significant at .33; here it is .56.

TABLE 1
Classification of Periodicals

TYPE	COUNT ROW # TOT #	PERIOD			ROW TOTAL
		BLANK	NO	YES	
		0.00	1.00	2.00	
ARC	1.00	3.2	10	53	66
		50.0	51.1	46.3	23.1
		.017	.316	.18.9	
PUBLICLN	2.00	0.0	37	4	41
		0.0	90.2	3.8	11.0
		.0.0	.1319	.0.0	
PUBLICLN	3.00	0.0	23	3	26
		0.0	81.5	14.5	2.3
		.0.0	.1119	.1319	
PUBLICLN	4.00	0.0	2	1	3
		0.0	66.7	33.3	1.6
		.0.0	.0319	.0.3	
PUBLICLN	5.00	0.0	22	0	22
		0.0	95.7	0.0	8.7
		.0.0	.1119	.0.0	
STATE	6.00	2.1	12	7	20
		85.0	80.0	17.5	14.5
		.017	.1119	.0.3	
SPECIAL	7.00	0.0	17	13	30
		0.0	70.7	19.3	12.0
		.0.0	.1319	.1319	
		.0.0	.1319	.1319	
COLUMN TOTAL		1.2	97	60	158
		1.2	70.1	28.3	100.0

CHI SQUARE = 150.01396 WITH 12 DEGREES OF FREEDOM
 GAMMA'S Y = 0.48028
 CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT = 0.56283
 KENDALL'S TAU B = 0.34728

REFERENCES

1. *Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language*, 2nd ed., unabridged, Merriam, Springfield, Massachusetts, 1955, p. 2039.
2. A copy of the questionnaire is included as Appendix I to the Introduction. It was mailed out, with a cover letter, around November 27, 1973; a follow-up letter was sent December 11, and the cut-off date for returns was January 18, 1974.

3. Ruth L. Boas, *Statistics of Public Libraries Serving Areas With at Least 25,000 Inhabitants, 1968*, Library Survey Branch, U.S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1969.
4. *American Library Directory, 1972-73*, 29th ed., Bowker, New York, 1972, pp. 1115-1116.
5. "Chapters." *Spec. Lib.*, 64, 35s-42s (August 1973).
6. One example was the University of Virginia questionnaire, which was tallied with special libraries rather than research and academic libraries. Other modifications included tallying New York State Library with research libraries, rather than with state libraries; tallying New York Public with public libraries rather than with research libraries (this was an error); and dropping the Center for Research Libraries from the sample after a letter was received from its director, pointing out that it was not a circulating library in the sense of the study. One large research library refuses all questionnaires, and sent a letter to this effect.
7. Ref. 4, pp. 1113-1114.
8. After the returns had been tabulated, the following comments seemed appropriate on several of the questions:

Question No.	Comment
3. Classification of periodicals	The yes/no choice was obviously difficult for some respondents, since several patterns are possible which include both categories.
6. Limitations on information services	Our respondents pointed out that time constraints are almost universally observed. Classified materials also constitute an obvious limitation.
8. Number of renewals permitted	The category of "unlimited" applied across the board but always in the sense that only if no other request had been made.
10. Materials limited to in-house use	The attempt was to identify <i>forms</i> of resources. Responses which mentioned reference materials, closed collections of one sort or another, were disregarded.
19. Automated circulation systems	For this study a "mechanized" system was one which was not computerized; an "automated" system was computerized.
18. Locked collections of materials vulnerable to theft	This question was a largely unsuccessful attempt to identify censorship practices.
26. Center for Research Libraries membership	The question should have been more inclusive and asked about other warehousing or repository arrangements.
32. Unit costs of inter-library loan transactions	A few libraries attempted to answer; however, the responses ranged from 20¢ to \$20.00 and were meaningless without knowledge of the factors used in their costing formulas. It was a bad question and responses were not recorded.

Finally, two terms were used which were questioned by many respondents: the "list price" of a publication and the practice of "paging" materials for users.

9. Unless otherwise noted, statistics in this report are computed by total number of respondents, rather than by number of respondents to individual questions. In many cases the statistics would have been more dramatic and even more meaningful if based only on number of answers to each inquiry; however, it was assumed that leaving a question unanswered on a questionnaire still constituted an answer of sorts and should not be ignored.

Public Libraries*: Background

DEFINITION

The concept of a publicly supported book collection, publicly controlled, and open to the public for free use was not widely accepted in this country until after 1850 (1). However, this definition, with its implication of use by and for the citizenry and supported by tax dollars, still stands as basic to the character of an institution uniquely American in its origins. Today the UNESCO Public Library Manifesto defines a public library as a demonstration of democracy's faith in universal education as a continuing process; the principal means by which the record of man's thoughts, ideas, and creative imagination are freely available to all. It should be maintained from public funds, no charge should be made for its services, and it should be available for free and equal use by all members of the community (2). In order to provide adequately for its functioning, "it should be established under the clear mandate of law, so framed to ensure nationwide provision of public library service" (3).

In the last 20 years in the United States, under the impetus of the 1950 Public Library Inquiry, "systems" of public library service have developed, composed of many individual agencies and based on the philosophy that people need similar library resources wherever they live, be it in the city, in the county, or in a rural area (4). Groups of libraries often can provide a wider range of materials to a greater number of people. Accordingly, access to funding, at both national and state levels, has been increasingly contingent on the progress individual public libraries have made toward working out arrangements to share resources and services. This approach has understandably provided a strong incentive to the formation of cooperative systems.

A system may be defined as a complex of libraries in which services and resources are loaned freely, either to libraries belonging to the system or directly to the patrons in the system's service area (5). Systems may be either multijurisdictional or single jurisdictional, and most planning and supportive laws and legislation are today addressed to library systems governance rather than to that of autonomous units. The mandate of the 1970s is to merge these systems into networks, which will in turn cross both geographical boundaries and those traditionally understood to be special preserves of certain types of libraries. For working purposes, a network can be defined as diverse informational sources linked in a

* The References and Bibliography for this section begin on page 429.

formal relationship, in contrast to a system which is an association of similar types of library organizations working together (6).

Few libraries today of any type are without some kind of public support, bringing closer the time when we may find acceptable a user-centered definition of a public library as an agency which is determined not in terms of funding, but by policy alone, as one which considers inclusiveness, or even outreach, as a basis for defining its proper users, rather than exclusiveness, for any reason (7).

OBJECTIVES

The report of the Public Library Inquiry was a landmark publication in public librarianship. It proposed three general objectives for libraries: (1) to gather resources to promote an enlightened citizenship and enrich personal lives; (2) to provide reliable information to the community; and (3) to provide opportunity for self-education to children, young people, men, and women (8). This same document also initiated the stimulus for system development.

Twenty years later, the same sample of libraries polled in the original Inquiry was again surveyed, together with forty nonlibrarians. Consensus of the respondents of this latter survey indicated that objectives in the 1970s were: to provide service to all people (with stress on the unserved); to provide information services; to provide adult and continuing education; to collect and disseminate all kinds of informational, educational, and cultural materials and nonprint resources; to support education, both formal and informal; and to serve as a cultural center (9).

Standards for public library service are closely related to objectives, although they do not always serve in the sense of a norm, criterion of adequacy, or midpoint of achievement. They may represent instead what the above average libraries are accomplishing (10). For example, 97% of public libraries did not meet the standard for general operating expenses, according to a 1965 report on library needs (11). However, as guidelines they are useful and will hopefully become more realistic with time.

The 1956 *Standards* (12) stressed the development of systems and, for the first time, set criteria for groups of libraries. However, difficulties ensued, because no measurements were provided for evaluating individual agencies. In response to this complaint, the *Interim Standards* (13) were published in 1962 and furnished answers until the 1966 revised *Standards* appeared (14).

At the 1973 American Library Association Convention in Las Vegas, three Task Forces of the Public Library Association presented guidelines relating to library service. These focused on user needs at the community level. Suggested goals for adults demonstrated a new awareness that one agency, even a system, cannot provide all informational needs of a community and that interagency, symbiotic relationships should be developed, with the library serving as a linkage point (15). Intensive public relations programs and continuing development of new programs for all members of society were also stressed, highlighting again the goal of reaching the unserved.

Guidelines for young adults and children were also proposed by the Task Forces. Perhaps especially revealing of the temper of the times was the opening statement of the Task Force on Young Adults: "Young adults are entitled to open and equal access to all materials and services—regardless of cost, location or format—and the right to a confidential client–librarian relationship, a non-judgmental attitude, respect, and participation in the decision making process of the library" (16).

HISTORY

In 1854, Boston Public Library opened its doors, becoming, at least nominally, the first public library in the United States in the sense of providing free services to qualified citizens. As with most social phenomena, this one did not spring to life full blown but had a long history of experimentation, change, and uncertainty. Some colonial social libraries survived the American Revolution. Also, Lyceum and mercantile libraries, plus a variety of others, continued to serve special groups of readers for small fees. The Library Company of Philadelphia in 1731 was the first to circulate books or to pay a librarian; the library in Petersborough, New Hampshire, 20 years earlier, had the distinction of being the first to be supported by public funds. New Hampshire and Massachusetts vie for honors in enacting the first state legislation which authorized free public library service maintained by taxation (17). New Hampshire, Maine, Vermont, and Ohio soon followed their example. The movement spread, particularly after the foundation of the American Library Association in 1876 and the simultaneous appearance of the first issue of *Library Journal* and Dewey's decimal classification (18).

Core collections were often formed from private library legacies, sometimes augmented by smaller collections within the city or state. Buildings proliferated after 1900, when Carnegie funds became available. Rural library service emerged as a viable concept and, after World War II, special services were developed for children, young adults, and people over 65.

Public library use reached its peak in the mid-1960s and has declined since, both in number of users and in dollars spent. Increasingly, the assumed democratic tenets of public librarianship have been perceived as intensely undemocratic, both the product of an elitest middle class and also aimed exclusively at that same restricted segment of society. It is obviously true that the audience for the book is self-limiting and has decreased with the development and propagation of electronic communication media. Many people no longer see the library as important in relation to other community services, and as a result, public librarians everywhere find themselves in a precarious position (19). Designing services for very different kinds of new clientele within the framework of total community services is the thrust of public library agencies in the 1970s, and the viability of libraries supported in the public sector may depend largely upon their success.

USERS

The report of the National Advisory Commission on Library and Information Sciences divided users into two major groups: nonspecialist and prespecialist on the one hand and specialists on the other. The first group is more generally, although certainly not exclusively, associated with public libraries. In addition to serving nonspecialists, public libraries have traditionally acknowledged responsibilities in the field of adult education, a movement which had its origins in response to the immigration of the early 1900s to the United States and to a desire for self-improvement. Some interpret the outreach programs of the 1960s and 1970s as another manifestation of the American urge to better one's lot (20). Young adults and children have been target service groups also, as have been the blind and otherwise handicapped.

A group of experts consulted for the report of the National Advisory Commission on Library and Information Sciences saw public library users as mainly children, students, middle class, and better educated business men; in other words, professionals, usually seeking information rather than reading materials. Nonusers, increasingly the focus of attention in all sectors of librarianship, are, at one end of the spectrum, defined as the less well educated and the economically disadvantaged; at the other end, as those who can afford to buy their own books or who are scholars with access to very specialized sources of information (21).

There has been an increase in public library use by adults over children in the years since 1847-1948, probably as a result of a recommendation of the Public Library Inquiry. About one in three adults in the United States claims to have used a public library at least once every 3 months. To oversimplify, the profile of such a user might be that of a young woman, aged 21 to 34, college educated, the Caucasian parent of two children, who lives in a large or middle-sized city, and who has an income of \$10,000 or more, gleaned from one of the professions (22).

Since the late 1960s, reaction of the public to libraries, as reflected in various opinion polls, has been chiefly one of indifference. They simply do not see the library as important or significant for their requirements. In an attempt to attract nonusers, public librarians have emphasized developing informational services which go far beyond reliance on materials in the libraries printed collections. Too, they actively counsel patrons. Other effective services have included concentration on multimedia resources, services by mail, and special attention paid to business communities and institutional minorities. Supporting college level educational programs is also a target area. In summary, the ability to stimulate informational needs in users has become as important as meeting them.

TRENDS

General trends in the profession as a whole are, of course, also reflected in public libraries. These include an increasing emphasis on networking, with its rationale

of reaching a wider clientele through technology and user-centered services; the realization that librarians must receive additional training in attitudes as well as skills; and acknowledgment of the importance of the active political roles they will be called upon to play in a society largely governed by public opinion. There is also need for research and, more than ever, for active public relations programs. Overcoming public apathy and recruiting new users will be of particular relevance for public libraries, for both philosophical and practical reasons. The public purse, always of prime concern, has now become a critical issue with the withdrawal of federal monies earmarked for library support and the resultant dependence on local funds. This trend has particular implications for public libraries. Between the initiation of Library Services Act (LSA) in 1956 and the end of 1972, a total of 504 million dollars has been pumped into the library economy, with matching funds provided (at least theoretically) by the states. In the last 3 years of that period, federal support crashed downward. While former problems of administering federal money were widely recognized, with all the attendant regulations controlling both approved projects and the actual means of expenditure, certainly at least an equal challenge remains for states and smaller governmental units to substitute better proposals which will serve both local needs and national interests. In this context, possible dangers ahead include intensified power struggles for funds, loss of direction in pursuing national goals, and loss of state support in meeting standards (23). Finding ways to attract and sustain public interest is, and will be, of overriding concern. So will continuing exploration of more efficient methods of operation in terms of less investment with greater returns. The trend toward decentralization suggests certain aspects of cooperation which seem especially ripe for development. These include, for example, more communal warehouses for LUMs (little used materials), possibly accompanied by attempts at determining optimal size book collections (24). Such a movement might tend to reduce the prestige value of sheer size, probably a desirable effect, as large collections are increasingly found to be unusable, unwieldy resources.

Public Libraries: State-of-the-Art

No. of questionnaires sent	No. of respondents	Percent of respondents
143	118	83

Note: More questionnaires were received, too late to be tallied.

USERS

Qualified Borrowers. In 109 of the libraries (92%) a qualified borrower was a citizen of the governmental unit, usually municipal or county. Several libraries also reported that state-wide borrowing privileges were in effect. About one-third of the respondents (thirty-four, or 29%) permitted members of firms or organizations

to borrow books, another third (forty-three, or 36%) loaned to students and faculty. Thirty-nine (33%) accorded reciprocal privileges to users of other systems.

A majority of the libraries allowed nonresidents borrowing privileges on the payment of a deposit or annual fee. One library reported that all blind and physically handicapped automatically qualified; another, that all personnel of a neighboring Air Force Base had full user status. Doubtless such arrangements are more the rule than the exception with public libraries. In most cases, however, they are the result of negotiations, not automatic rights.

Information on Policies and Regulations. Public libraries informed borrowers of their privileges chiefly through prominently posted signs (ninety-six, or 81%), also by means of tours (eight-four, or 71%) and announcements in the news media. "News media" in some instances may have been interpreted as meaning printed media only, not electronic, since three libraries added that they utilized radio and TV as well. Handbooks and manuals describing regulations are available in about half the libraries (fifty-five, or 47%) and five others mentioned use of flyers, brochures, and newsletters. Only five libraries utilized audiovisual (AV) or computerized aides. Classroom presentations were cited by five others, talks and speeches by three, and regulations printed on the verso of cards by one.

Information Services. Slightly over half the sample (sixty-two, or 53%) reported no limitations on information services. However, one or two important questions in this regard were not asked but pointed out by the respondents. For example, most public libraries imposed time limitations on reference work, as the occasion demanded. It should also be noted that some libraries have policies to show readers how to locate data but even yet have policies against providing the actual information itself.

Forty-four libraries (37%) limited their legal and medical reference services. Sometimes only interpretative reference was refused whereas factual data was available.

Thirty percent, or thirty-five libraries, would not provide the answers to contest quizzes and puzzles; however, obviously 70% would help. Only 22% (twenty-six) limited their assistance on class assignments. Less than a fifth (seventeen, or 14%) limit telephone reference service. A few librarians wrote in that genealogical information was not available, and one that regulations existed against staff giving out political or religious opinions.

User Records. One hundred and eight (92%) libraries did not release information on the check-out records of their users. Ten did. One noted that such data would be available on court order.

Access to the Collection. (a) *Service hours.* One hundred and eleven (94%) responded to the question on hours. The majority of public libraries, 102 (86%) was open Monday through Thursday, both days and evenings. Most popular hours were 9 A.M. to 9 P.M. (seventy-eight libraries), with 10 A.M. to 9 P.M. second (eighteen libraries). Four reported 8 A.M. to 8:30 P.M. One was open 9 A.M. to 8 P.M.; another, 9 A.M. to 7:30 P.M. All figures allow for a half-hour variation in either direction.

Forty-three of the 102 libraries which were open Monday through Thursday evenings closed at least 1 hour earlier on Friday, and typically, 3 or 4 hours earlier.

With one exception, no library was open later than 6 P.M. on Saturday. That one stayed open until 7 P.M. Four reported morning hours only.

Eighty-two (69%) reported Sunday closings. Twenty-nine opened for an average of 3 or 4 hours Sunday afternoon. Not one was open both Sunday afternoon and evenings, in sharp contrast to the typical academic pattern.

(b) Classification. Only two of the 118 respondents reported collections arranged exclusively in the Library of Congress classification. One hundred and sixteen (98%) classified their books in the Dewey Decimal System. Two of the latter reported books also in LC, leading one to suspect that reclassification was under way. Only one library mentioned a different classification: New York Public, The Research Libraries, uses Billings and a fixed order classification.

(c) Periodical Collection. One hundred and thirteen libraries did not classify their periodicals (96%); three did. Three others classified bound volumes only.

(d) Open Stacks. One hundred and nine libraries (92%) maintained open stacks. Fifteen (13%) reported closed stacks. Since 124 answers were received to this question from a total of 118 respondents, overlap is assumed, i.e., a probable pattern is an open general collection, with some restricted areas.

CIRCULATION

Monograph Loan Periods. Sixty percent of public libraries loan books for 3- to 4-week periods, an interesting trend away from the earlier standard 2-week loan, which might indicate either more willingness to have books in the hands of users, or reasons of internal economy—less processing of overdues—or both. One library noted different, probably more restricted, loan periods for new titles. This pattern may be more widely practiced than the survey suggests because the question was not asked.

Forty-six libraries (39%) loaned books for 4 weeks. Thirty (25%) loan for 2 weeks; twenty-five (21%) for 3 weeks. One, New York Public, The Research Libraries, does not loan at all; however, it is a special case, a privately funded collection housed in a public library.* Only eight libraries restricted their loans to one week. See Table 1.

Renewals. Eighty-nine libraries (75%) of the public libraries limited renewals to one or none at all. Eight permitted two or three—twenty-two report that the only limitation imposed for the number of renewals was when another user had requested the material. See Table 1.

Fines. For monographs, 61% of the libraries charged 5¢ (forty-one) or 2¢ (thirty-one) per day for adults. The number of variations then dropped off sharply and ranged up to 35¢ per day. See Table 2.

* Should have been tallied with research libraries.

TABLE 1
Public Libraries Loan Periods for Monographs (N=118)

	No. of respondents	Percent of respondents
Weeks Loaned		
1	8	7
2	30	25
3	25	21
4	46	39
Other	3	3
No. of Renewals		
0	39	33
1	49	42
2	7	6
3	1	.8
Unlimited	22	19

About ten libraries reported differentials between fines for adult users and children, always in favor of the children and averaging 2¢ lower. A few libraries reported a graduated fine scale: 4¢ for the first 7 days, then 8¢, and so on. Some libraries had a maximum; for example, fines never exceeded \$1.50.

For *serials*, the evidence on fines was inconclusive. We assumed the charges made for overdues would be per hour rather than per day. But based on the findings, it seems warranted now to assume that serial fines are also charged on a daily basis. Only forty-one libraries reported charging any fines for serials, which undoubtedly reflects the fact that serials often do not circulate and therefore no fine scales exist. Twenty charged 5¢; eighteen charged 2¢. One charged 10¢. Two reported differences in the charges to juveniles and adults.

For *reserve books*, a typically academic library category, only five public libraries noted fine schedules. However, eight reported fines for *phonograph records* which averaged 5¢ per day and ranged up to 25¢.

Six reported that fines for overdue *pictures* averaged 50¢ but also went as low as 10¢ and as high as a dollar. Highest fines of all were charged for overdue *films*:

TABLE 2
Public Libraries Fines

No. of libraries	Fines charged for monographs (¢/day)
41	5
31	2
2	3
2	10
1	35

seven reported charging 25¢ to \$1.00 per hour; five others charged 25¢ to \$2.00 per day. Two libraries added billing fees, wherein users were charged either a flat \$1.00 fee for each overdue notice, or cumulative fees wherein the first notice was 25¢, the second 50¢, and so on.

And one notable library charged a modest 5¢ for overdue *animals*.

Disposition of Fine Money. Seventy-eight (66%) of the 118 respondents retained fine money in the library. Twenty-six (22%) turned it over to another agency. Sixteen reported, under the "other" category, that fine money was allocated as follows: (1) to a government (city, county) general fund (twelve libraries); (2) budgeted and retained by library (two); (3) county auditor's office (one); (4) county treasurer (one).

Replacements. Almost 80% of the sample, ninety-three libraries, charged their users list price for replacement copies. This, of course, means that the libraries assume all processing costs for reordering and cataloging when the volume is available. Nineteen libraries, or 16%, charged list plus a processing fee; four reported charging a flat fee for all replacements. Five libraries reported interesting variations as follows: one charged only three-fourths of list; another, for lost out-of-print books, charged the original price plus 25% of that price. Two reported flat processing fees of \$1.50 and \$3.00, respectively. The average cost of a fiction or nonfiction book for the year was charged by another library, as appropriate.

In general, the library's public is expected to pay for losses; however, the charges are very nominal and in only a few instances really cover the costs involved. To date, the inexpensive cost pattern is another service to users (although this can be a compulsory "service," since some regulations forbid charging more for a lost item than its original price).

Circulation Statistics. Ninety-eight percent of the respondents (116 of 118) are required to keep statistics on the number of items circulated. Slightly more than half (53%, or sixty-three) also keep track of items by format. Only twenty, or 17%, record the subject or classifications of the loans. However, several respondents wrote in other types of statistics kept, and some might well be considered additional candidates to be included here—for example, ten libraries record juvenile/adult charges; six note nonprint materials and by category: records, prints, tapes, films. Five reported separating fiction from nonfiction; two recorded interlibrary loans; one other kept track of periodical circulation separately. It is probable that keeping such records for internal use, even when no external requirement exists, is common practice.

Automated System. Eighty-two (69%) of the librarians did not have automated (computerized) circulation control; thirty-three (28%) did. Several wrote in "Gaylord" or "photographic charging equipment." These answers were tabulated as no's, since the intent of the question was to identify computerized systems.

Security Exits. There was a total of 120 responses to the question on controlled exits, representing some overlap since only 118 questionnaires were returned. One can speculate that some parts, or collections, within libraries might have controlled access, whereas users were free to come and go in general areas; perhaps, too,

new systems were under consideration. Whatever the cause, ninety-eight (82%) of the 120 did not have guarded exits. Of the twenty-two libraries which did require users to pass through an exit inspection, only five were electronically controlled.

RESOURCES

Acquisition Policy. Seventy-eight, or two-thirds of the public libraries (66%), reported written acquisition statements. Forty did not have such documents.

Comprehensive Collection Development. Thirty-nine libraries reported that they attempted comprehensive collection development in local history, which could and frequently did include genealogy, information about local authors, imprints, and other items of interest in the immediate community, the state, or the area. Intensive collecting in a subject area sometimes enhanced these local collections. For example, a public library in Nevada collects in gambling and in local mining and geology; another in Utah collects in the field of Mormon history.

Examples of other specialized areas cited were: (1) alcohol, drug use, and abuse; (2) pirates and piracy; (3) a Kennedy collection; (4) automotive history and engineering; (5) Afro-American experiments in the performing arts; (6) Black studies; (7) aeronautics; (8) roses and rose cultivation; (9) the shoe industry; and (10) United States military standards and specifications.

One library, New York Public, The Research Libraries, reported, as one might expect, comprehensive collection development in almost all areas. Otherwise, the pattern seemed to be one of a core of local history, with supporting, locally idiosyncratic, collections on the fringe.

Exclusions by Subject. Eighty-six percent, or 102 public libraries, did not exclude any specific subjects.

Sixteen did, and by a wide margin—eleven—those subjects were law, medicine, and professional or technical literature. Some of the other exclusions included genealogy, abridged adult classics, pornographic materials, comic books, vanity press books, and curriculum design resources for the schools.

Exclusions by Format. Ninety libraries (76%) did not regulate against acquiring specific formats. Twenty-four libraries (20%) did report restrictions. Audiovisual, or nonprint materials, was the largest category of exclusions: twenty libraries excluded microforms of some sort, films, reel and cartridge tapes, cassettes, videotapes and slides, computer tapes, talking books, and framed pictures. In printed media, other reported exclusions were textbooks, hard copy of newspapers, paperbacks (if hardbacks were available), and depository documents.

AV Equipment. One hundred and ten (93%) of the public libraries acquire and maintain AV equipment. Only ten reported not doing so.

In-House Use. Microforms and bound volumes of serials did not circulate from most public libraries. Ninety-one (77%) restricted microforms; ninety-two (78%) restricted bound volumes of serials. In contrast, less than half the libraries limited

loose issues of serials to in-house use (fifty-two, or 44%); only seven of the respondents forbade circulation of AV resources.

Resources Paged for Users. Apart from resources typically found in special collections, what kinds of materials are often paged for users? Four categories were suggested as possibilities on the questionnaire, and in rank order by number of respondents these materials were: (1) loose issues of serials, paged by fifty-seven public libraries; (2) bound volumes of serials, paged by fifty-one; (3) microforms; paged by forty-two; and (4) reserve books, by twenty-one. This represents a total of 64% of the respondents. In contrast, in forty-three (36%) of the libraries, users helped themselves.

Closed Collections. Forty-one (35%) of the sample did not maintain locked collections which were particularly vulnerable to theft or mutilation.

Three choices of subjects for locked collections were suggested in the questionnaire: local history, political fringe, and sex manuals. Fifty-nine libraries, or 50% of the total, report closed local history collections. Nineteen libraries (16%) have locked shelves of sex manuals. Only one isolated politically inflammatory readings. However, in addition, a number of libraries (eight) wrote in that automotive repair manuals were kept under close surveillance. Other popular candidates were expensive art books and LUMs, genealogy, and underground newspapers. Materials which are highly vulnerable seem to vary according to local demand: examples cited include consumer guides, telephone directories, military and other costume books, occult sciences, civil service tests, and, surprisingly, library science.

Bookstores. No public library in the sample administered a bookstore, although one indicated a sales shop was available.

Personal Copies. Again there was some overlap in the responses; a total of 124, with only 118 respondents. One possible explanation comes from comments which were written in to qualify answers; for example, "Friends of the Library" could order personal copies, but no others, or "very seldom."

In any event, eighty-two (66%) did not offer this service to users. However, in forty-two libraries (36%) at least some users could order personal copies of books through the system.

Center for Research Libraries. One hundred and twelve public libraries, (95%) did not belong to CRL; six reported membership.

Exchange. Ninety-one (77%) of the public libraries did not participate in exchange programs. Of the twenty-five which did, nine handled their own exchange program, but eight were conducted through a state library, a regional agency, or a network. Three mentioned dealing with the U.S. Book Exchange; one, the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center. Two cited local cooperatives engaged in exchange.

INTERLIBRARY LOAN AND REPROGRAPHY

Administrative Location of Interlibrary Loan. A majority, sixty-six (56%) of the respondents administered ILL from their Reference Department. Twenty-seven (23%) had separate ILL departments; twenty-two (19%) located this function in

the Circulation Department. One library noted that ILL was a function of the pathfinder system, whatever that may mean. Another commented it was part of their Sociology Department. One or two commented that Interlibrary Loan was decentralized or that it overlapped in all areas. One library has a special Cooperative Services Division in which the interlibrary service is centered.

Codes. Less than half the sample regulated its ILL activities by the national code alone (fifty-one libraries, or 43%). Six participate in international lending agreements; forty-one in regional. Twenty-five more reported engaging in intramural loans covered by state, county, or local codes.

Delivery Systems. Fifty-three (45%) of the public libraries handled deliveries of materials through the mails alone. Other delivery systems were reported by forty-nine. These included trucks, buses, and vans (twenty-three libraries); private automobiles (three libraries); messenger service (one); county or regional or local systems (six); United Parcel Service (four); and bookmobile (twelve). All delivery systems implied documents delivery, not information delivery. No mention was made of electronic media, facsimile transmission, TWX, etc.

Costs. Fifty-six (47%) public libraries did not charge for ILL services, sixteen did. When charges were made, they generally consisted of postage one-way, more rarely postage both ways; occasionally, insurance.

Users' Reprographic Equipment. Only six libraries (5%) did not have photocopying equipment available directly to users. Those which did have equipment reported use of the types listed in Table 3. Some libraries had more than one kind of machines. Ninety-six libraries charged 5 to 10¢ per copy, ten charged over 10¢. Only one reported a cost as low as 5¢ or less, and none allowed free copies.

Staff Reprographic Equipment. Two-thirds of the libraries (eighty, or 68%) did

TABLE 3
Reprographic Equipment Available to Users

Type of equipment	No. of libraries using
Olivetti	35
Xerox	34
Denison	11
SCM	5
3M	5
Coinfax	3
AB Dick	2
Apeco	2
Minolta	2
Bell & Howell	1
Eastman	1
Kodak	1
Savin	1
Underwood	1

TABLE 4
 Reprographic Equipment Available to Staff

Type of equipment	No. of libraries using
Xerox	11
3M	3
Olivetti	2
Apeco	1
Kee Lox	1
Recordak	1
Rectograph	1
Savin	1
Several types	1

not have a separate unit to service users' photocopying needs. Those that did have such a unit reported types of equipment as listed in Table 4.

Nineteen charged 10¢ a page, eight charged over 10¢; one charged 5¢. None offered the service free.

Regulations Restricting Photocopying. One hundred and twelve (95%) of the sample had no unique restrictions on photocopying. Eight reported additional regulations against reproducing the following: music scores, city directories, Standard and Poor's directories, rare or fragile materials, tests, and "obscenities." One library mentioned prohibitions against copying of gifts and wills.

ADMINISTRATION

Directors' Reporting Officials. Of 106 responses, seventy-seven (73%) of public librarians report to a Board of Trustees in accordance with local laws and regulations governing library operations.

The remaining twenty-nine respondents mentioned different governing authorities as shown in Table 5.

Administrative Constraints. Ninety-one percent of the administrators of public libraries are required to present their internal account for audits. Along with this requirement, 43% must budget according to a planning-programming-budgeting (PPB) system. A little more than one-third of the respondents (35%) reported regulations governing the acceptance of gifts; less than one-third (23%) have restrictions on withdrawn materials. Only 14% are required to conduct inventories of their collections. Less than 10% of the staffs, either professional or support, are on Civil Service. See Table 6 and Figure 1.

Ordering. One hundred and ten public libraries, or 93%, ordered materials directly from publishers. There appeared to be minimum constraints of a contractual nature or governmental processing requirements.

Thirteen libraries reported ordering also through processing centers; eight through

TABLE 5
Reporting Officials for Public Librarians

Library Board of Trustees, or its president	77
City manager	8
County commissioner or Library Commission of City and Council	6
County manager	5
Board of Education and superintendent of schools	2
Mayor	2
County Board of Supervisors	1
Director of civic enrichment	1
Board of Education or superintendent	1
Library System Board	1
State auditor	1
State library	1
TOTAL RESPONSES	106

a central business office. One placed purchase orders with the State Procurement Agency. Another commented that any orders to be paid with federal funds had to be approved by the state library.

Five reported placing orders with jobbers but did not specify that they were required to do so. Apparently, very few regulations exist which prevent libraries from seeking their preferred sources of acquisitions.

TABLE 6
Regulations Imposed on Library Administration: Budgets, Personnel,
Gifts, and Withdrawals^a

Questions	Percent of affirmative responses	No. of affirmative responses	Total no. of responses
Does your governing agency require regular audits of your accounts?	91	107	118
Are you required to participate in a PPB system?	44	51	116
Does your governing agency specify regulations on the acceptance of gifts?	35	41	118
Does your governing agency specify method of disposition for withdrawn materials?	23	27	118
Does your governing agency require regular inventories of your collection?	14	16	118
Is your support staff on federal or state civil service?	9	10	116
Is your professional staff on federal or state civil service?	8	10	118

^aAdministrative regulations are arranged in rank order by percent of affirmative answers. Percentages are computed on basis of number of answers to individual questions rather than total number of respondents ($N=118$).

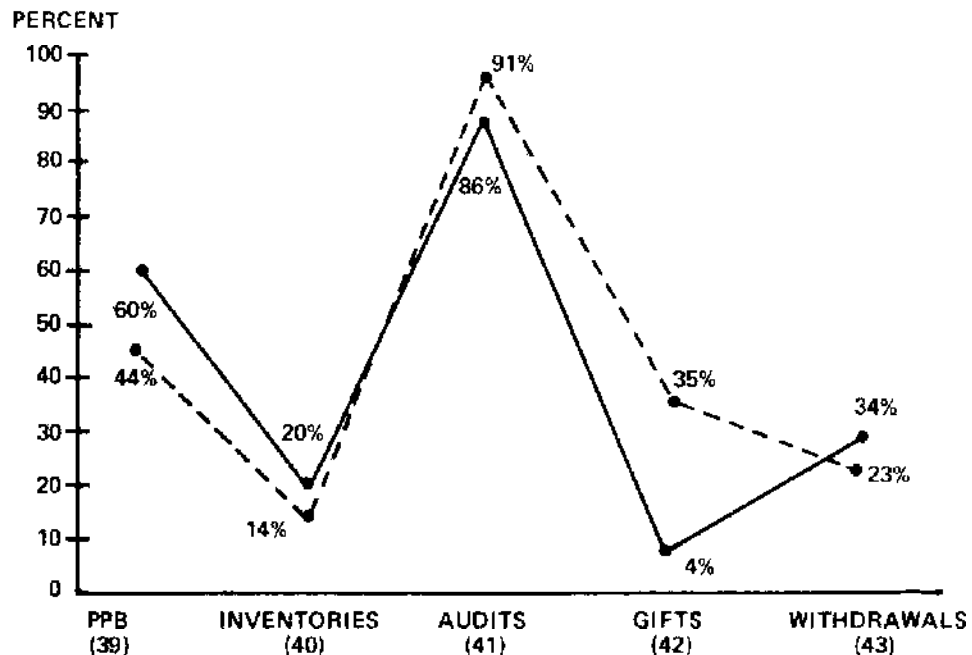


FIGURE 1. Profiles of administration accountability: (—) state libraries, (- -) public libraries. The administrative controls of state and public libraries are quite similar.

AV Facilities. Sixty-nine (58%) of the respondents do administer AV and media facilities. Forty-six (39%) do not. Fewer respondents answered the question concerning the location of the AV unit and whether or not it was housed within or adjacent to the library. Sixty-five libraries did house the unit; one did not.

Changes in Regulations. Significant changes in regulations reported by public libraries were few—about fourteen—and focused chiefly on liberalized loans.

Two libraries had recently discontinued charging fines. One had recently extended adult privileges to juveniles. Several were engaged in negotiations to set up reciprocal arrangements between counties, states, or regions. One reported discontinuing the practice of a library card; all a user requires now is some standard type of ID.

One library charges a fairly stiff nonresident fee (\$27.00 per year) for any library privileges—including information services and reference. This is labeled a significant departure from the traditional policy of charging a nonresident fee for only the loan of books for home reading.

Another significant comment noted that many staff members had joined a local union and that the library now had a new set of regulations to adhere to.

A question on union membership and its impact was not included in the questionnaire. It would be an area of extreme interest and relevance to explore further.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

APPENDIX I: CONSORTIA

1. High Plains Public Library System
2. Capitol Region Library Council
3. River Bend Library System
4. East Central Regional Library System and Cedar Rapids Metro-Corporate System
5. Iowa Library Information Teletype Exchange
6. The Library Network of Macolmb County
7. We cooperate with the higher education consortia recently formed here.
8. The Higher Education and Coordinating Council of Greater St. Louis
9. Municipal Library Cooperative Library's Services Center of Missouri
10. The Clark County Library District
11. The Silver Circle Library System
12. The Craven-Pamlico-Carteret Regional Library
13. MOLO
14. OTIS (Oklahoma Teletype Interlibrary System)
15. The Southern Oregon Library Federation
16. The Northern Inter-Related Library System
17. Metro and Research Library group: NYPL/Yale/Harvard/Columbia
18. The Consortia of Rhode Island Academic and Research libraries
19. The Metropolitan Area Council of Governments
20. The Consortia of Northern Virginia, Universities and Public Libraries
21. The Ohio Valley Regional Film Library
22. The Fox Valley Reference and Referral System
23. The Library Council of Metropolitan Milwaukee
24. The Milwaukee County Federated Library System
25. The Bibliographical Center for Research in Denver
26. West Virginia Library Association
27. North Bay Cooperative Library System
28. The Louisville Metroversity Library Council
29. The Eastern Massachusetts Regional Library System
30. The New England Library Association and the Eastern Region Library System
31. The Metropolitan Library Service Agency (MELSA). The Information for Minnesota (INFORM). The Minnesota Interlibrary Teletype Exchange (MINITEX)
32. The Mississippi Library Commission Interlibrary Loan Network
33. The Nebraska State System, Regional Headquarters for the Metro-Region of five Counties
34. The Long Island Library Resources Council
35. The OKI Regional Library Cooperative (Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana)

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Research Libraries*: Background

DEFINITION

It has been asserted that the three essential ingredients in forming a library are books, a building, and a librarian. This simplified definition is not very satisfactory, especially in trying to define a research library or an academic library, yet there is difficulty in arriving at an acceptable definition that has precision and meaning.

* The References and Bibliography for this section begin on page 448.

This may not be too surprising since, at the outset, there is no real agreement in the profession about what a college is or what a university is. There is no standard or official statement accepted either by the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) or the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL). The word "university" itself may range in meaning from a small college to one of our great universities. However, standards do exist for college libraries, as published by the ACRL acting for the American Library Association in 1959 (1).

In this study, all libraries holding membership in ARL are analyzed. While the membership is overwhelmingly drawn from university libraries, it also includes public, private, and governmental research libraries as well as Canadian national libraries. Almost all of these libraries might be considered academic libraries "whose collections are organized primarily to meet the needs of scholars and so facilitate effective action on the frontier of every field of knowledge, traditional and novel" (2).

OBJECTIVES

Prior to 1929, the librarian who wished to identify quantitative or qualitative standards for his library had to seek guidance from the writings of other librarians whom he respected or admired. In 1927 and 1928 there was a series of position classifications produced which finally culminated in the report *Budgets, Classification and Compensation Plans for University and College Libraries* which was adopted by the American Library Association in 1929 (3). This document called for increased use of professional personnel and set up qualifications and salaries. Subsequently, a more sophisticated system of classification and pay plans was adopted by the American Library Association Council in 1943. Standards were also included for the size of book collections, annual book budgets, and hours of library use. A revision of this plan, with new pay schedules, was published in 1947.

It was not until 1957 that the ACRL Committee on Standards began to prepare a new standards document for college libraries. The finished document was approved by the ACRL Board of Directors early in 1959, and it has been described as "the first comprehensive guide for the evaluation of college libraries, embodying in less than six pages the compelling factors in good college library administration" (4).

In 1968, ACRL and ARL jointly appointed a Committee on University Library Standards. This committee used a panel of fifty of the most distinguished libraries in the United States in compiling comparative data on resources, finances, personnel, public service, space, administration, and professional school libraries in developing "Criteria for Excellence in University Libraries." Thus any librarian is able to compare his library with these highly selected libraries (5).

One of the newer standards documents, "Guidelines for College Libraries," was submitted by the ACRL Committee on Standards and Accreditation in 1971, but members of the college section of ACRL did not approve the document because quantitative standards were absent (6).

It has been only in the last 40 years that college libraries have made a concentrated effort to produce standards which could also serve as objectives for library development. Perhaps one of the more acceptable statement of objectives is yet to be found in the 1959 *Standards*:

The college library should be the most important intellectual resource of the academic community. Its services, given by a competent staff of adequate size, should be geared to implement the purposes of the college's general program and to meet the specific educational objectives of the institution. Its collection should aim at presenting the heritage of Western and Eastern thought in all its richness, but should stress those particular areas which are essential to the curriculum of the institution. No artificial barriers should separate the library from the classroom or the library staff from the teaching faculty. Beyond supporting the instructional program to the fullest extent, the library should endeavor to meet the legitimate demands of all its patrons, from the senior professor engaged in advanced research to the freshman just entering upon the threshold of higher learning, to stimulate and encourage the student to develop the lifelong habit of good reading, and to play its proper role in the community and in the wider realm of scholarship beyond the campus (7).

A more general statement, and perhaps more broadly applicable, is the stated objective of the ACRL which is "to promote, plan and carry out programs in the interest of academic libraries, independent research libraries and specialized libraries."

The statement of objectives agreed to at the May 1973 meeting of the ARL Council follows:

1. In response to changing circumstances, it initiates and conducts studies, develops plans, and implements specific courses of collective action, on both interim and continuing bases, concerned with acquisition, organization, presentation and provision of research library materials, and with the management of research libraries;
2. It seeks the understanding and support of governmental agencies and other appropriate agencies;
3. It cooperates with other educational and professional groups in undertakings of mutual interest;
4. It assembles and distributes information pertinent to research libraries and their services, management, and organization (8).

HISTORY

Research libraries, as they are known today, did not exist in universities until about the thirteenth century. Teachers had their own private libraries and probably lent their books to their students. But the more common arrangement was for students to purchase or rent books from booksellers (9).

When Robert de Sorbonne endowed a college in Paris in 1250, he also donated his library along with the money to maintain it. By 1289 there were more than a thousand titles listed in the library catalog. The library was later divided into two

parts: one part was a reference collection in which all books were chained to the shelves or desks; the other part contained second copies and less valuable works which could be circulated (10).

The origins of the American academic library are not very well documented, perhaps because, as one distinguished writer has put it, "libraries [have been] so careful in the preservation of all other materials only too frequently [they] have failed to organize and preserve their own library records" (11). However, nine academic institutions were founded in America prior to the Revolution—Harvard, Yale, Brown, Dartmouth, Princeton, Columbia, Pennsylvania, Rutgers, and William and Mary—and with the establishment of these institutions came the birth of American college libraries. Harvard Library, for example, was established in 1638 (2 years after the founding of Harvard College) by the donation of Reverend John Harvard's private library of about 300 volumes (12).

USERS

One of the important characteristics of American research libraries is their accessibility to almost anyone who has a legitimate need to use their facilities. However, this has not always been so. For example, included in a set of rules adopted by the Harvard Library in 1667 were the provisions that only persons who were residents with the rank of "senior sophister" could borrow a book, and injuring a book or failing to return a book resulted in the guilty party paying "double damage" and being "debarred from borrowing." Many pages of detailed rules were published in succeeding years—all equally stringent (13).

Most chief librarians probably would agree that from a philosophical standpoint all library collections should be available to all who have a need and the ability to use them. Certainly, academic libraries would be available to qualified scholars. However, there are severe problems which today force restraints on such a liberal view. The tremendously increasing population and increases in book publishing, coupled with the rising costs of administration and maintenance, have forced library administrators to consider classifying their patrons.

The pattern of usage in research libraries is that first priority is given to their local faculties and students. In the past 20 years it has been fairly common for separate undergraduate libraries to be created. This not only reflects a concern for making pertinent materials more accessible to undergraduates, but also indicates the ever-increasing number of graduate and postgraduate students. It is also not unusual to find decentralized departmental libraries within academic departments or divisions.

While alumni of almost all universities are afforded special treatment, they will probably find in the future that some costs (charges) will be associated with their use of materials used outside the physical facilities of their alma mater's library.

Requests from local industries (especially the research oriented), high school teachers, and high school students (particularly in urban areas), make for particular problems for research libraries. Here again, the future pattern for handling these

demands will more and more reflect a pricing structure for specified periods of use (14).

TRENDS

One of the most important trends in academic libraries is that the number of people using libraries is dramatically increasing. The U.S. Department of Education estimated that the number of degree credit students at all levels would increase from 7 million in 1968 to 10.3 million by 1978 (15). Added to this increase is also the creation of newer academic disciplines and newer specializations. Moreover, the increase in the number of people who will engage in postdoctoral work will place a greater variety of demands on research libraries.

The word used by one writer to summarize future trends of research libraries is "more." Libraries will be shaped by "more materials, more users, more services, more relationships to other agencies, more dependence on advanced technology, more need for managerial and diplomatic skills of a very high order . . ." (15). Nearly all of these "more" items are going to cost more money, and at the very time when money will become more and more difficult to obtain. Libraries today, and in the future, will be subjected to many of the rigorous measures of efficient operation which profit-making enterprises employ. Relying on "high quality service" as the rationale for allocating a large sum of money for the operation of a library simply will not suffice.

It is likely that chief librarians will in the future be carefully concentrating on measurement and evaluation techniques such as cost accounting, cost-effectiveness studies, planning-programming-budgeting system, process planning, time and motion studies, linear programming, systems analysis, and space utilization studies, in addition to all kinds of graphs and charts.

One of the more important aspects of economy and efficiency will be a continuing effort to develop cooperative networking ventures. Research libraries have been particularly sensitive to the urgent need for cooperation and 75% of those polled in the survey reported next (*Research Libraries: State-of-the-Art*), claimed membership in some kind of consortium, a higher percentage than any other group of libraries polled (Figure 1).

The following is a representative list of factors that will affect the future of research libraries. Some of these factors may also impact on other types of libraries, but they are considered to relate especially to research libraries.

1. Major attempts will be made to develop a national program for the sharing of information.
2. Library staffs will more directly participate in policy making in individual libraries. Thus there will be an increase in what is often called "participatory management."
3. Growth of special collections dealing in depth in narrow fields will be increasingly prevalent.
4. There will be more and more interaction and cooperation among libraries that will reduce duplication of holdings.

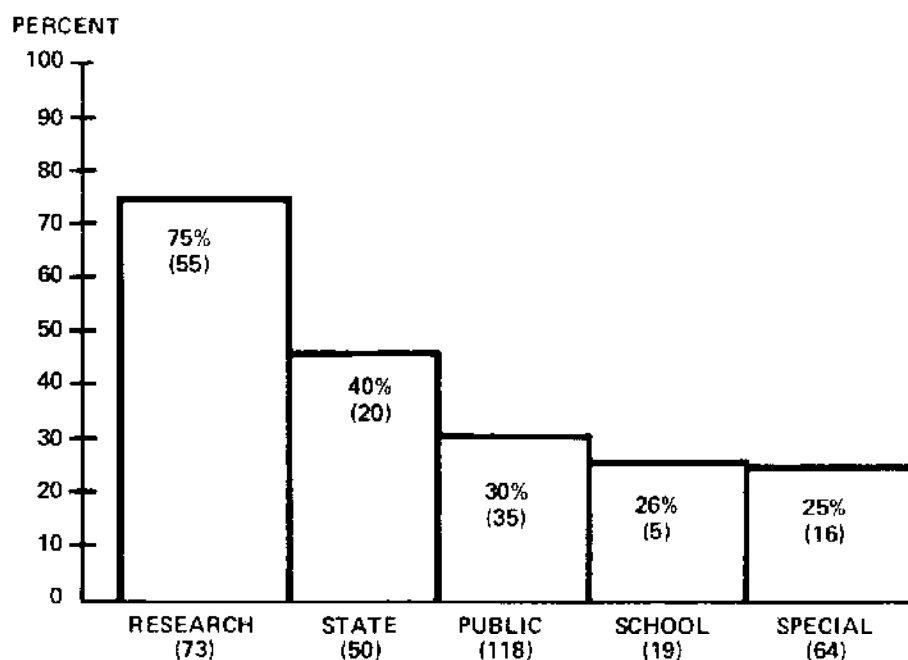


FIGURE 1. *Resource sharing: percent of libraries participating in consortia. Fifty-five of seventy-three research library respondents reported membership in consortia, the highest percentage of the total sample. (All answers were accepted; "consortia" have not been further defined here.)*

5. Better copying facilities will be developed that will enable users to copy any type of material, including hardcopy, microforms, and machine-readable digital tapes, and to convert from one form to another.

6. There will be development of data transmission systems that will enable users to call up from a distant library those documents they need.

7. There will be an increase in the number of library staff members who will participate in unions.

8. The number of Ph.D. specialists who enter library service will increase.

9. There will be more control and supervision of libraries by boards and commissions, as monetary resources are more carefully allocated.

10. Finally, planning of a higher quality than has been the pattern in the past will take place regionally, nationally, and internationally.

Research Libraries: State-of-the-Art

No. of questionnaires sent	No. of respondents	Percent of respondents
86	73	85

USERS

Qualified Borrowers. Sixty-five (89%) reported that their own faculty and students were qualified borrowers. Forty-five (62%) respondents had reciprocal

borrowing privileges with other institutions of higher learning. Twenty-seven reported that borrowers were qualified by their citizenship (city, county, or state), and twenty-six granted borrowing privileges to members of firms or organizations. Individuals in the following categories were also accorded borrowing privileges by one or more of the respondents: those who paid an annual fee which ranged from \$10 to \$25 annually; students and faculty whose institutions were members of various consortia, regional or state; "licensed professionals," which meant doctors, lawyers, and engineers at one library; alumni of a particular college; visiting scholars; and "all government officials." The most liberal policy reported was from a California institution that accords borrowing privileges to all faculty from all accredited United States colleges.

Information on Policies and Regulations. Sixty-seven research libraries used handbooks and manuals to inform their users about their regulations. Sixty-two reported the use of tours; sixty-two used prominently posted signs; forty-six used news media announcements; and twenty-one (29%) stated they employed programmed texts, computer-instruction assistance programs, and other self-help tools. Other methods were reported as follows: librarians holding seminars on library use at the student union; use of a library newsletter and suggestion boards; visits by reference librarians to academic departments during orientation meetings each year; librarians working directly with individual faculty members; extended use of the telephone and recordophone for instructional purposes; maintenance of an information desk; and talks by librarians to individual academic classes. The most impressive method reported from one library was in the form of a requirement that all undergraduates take a 10-week formal course of instruction in library use. Most libraries responded that they use two or more methods.

Information Services. Forty-three of seventy-three (59%) reported that they had no written or understood regulations which limited their information services. Apparently, judgments are frequently made on an ad hoc basis as to whether a service should be limited. But other respondents reported multiple limitations as follows: nineteen did not provide legal reference service; eighteen refuse medical questions; fourteen limit telephone reference service; and fourteen reportedly do not provide answers to quizzes, puzzles, or contest questions; ten do not provide academic test files for their patrons; and nine stated that they did not provide help to students in accomplishing their class assignments. Two libraries, by regulation, do not supply genealogical information.

User Records. Fifty-eight of seventy-three (79%) libraries do not release information on the check-out records of their users. There were only ten libraries reporting release of user records, but most of these were with restrictions. For example, one library released the user names only if material checked out to them was overdue. Another released student classification numbers in computer printouts but no names, and another library used user records only for internal research.

Access to the Collection. (a) *Service Hours.* Forty-nine of seventy-three (67%) libraries open between 8:00 and 8:30 in the morning (except for Saturdays and Sundays) and fifty-nine (81%) libraries close between 10:00 and 12:00 at night Monday through Friday. Saturday hours are normally from 8:00 or 9:00 in the

morning to 5:00 or 6:00 in the afternoon. Sundays the typical pattern is opening at noon and remaining open until 11:00 or 12:00 P.M. Thus most research libraries are open more than 90 hours a week. One library reported that their patrons who were assigned lockers and study rooms could enter their library at any time. Another library stated that its reserve room and periodical rooms were open 24 hours, 3 days per week. In two other libraries, reserve and reading rooms were said to be open longer hours than the other facilities.

(b) Classification. Sixty-four of seventy-three (88%) reported use of the Library of Congress System, and twenty-two (30%) reported use of the Dewey Decimal System. Since there were seventy-three respondents, libraries are obviously using both systems or, perhaps more likely, they are transitioning from Dewey to LC, at least for part of their collections. In fact, several libraries indicated that their transition began in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Two other systems were said to be in use—Richardson and Rowell—but these were not explained. Finally, the National Library of Medicine uses its own system of classification.

(c) Periodical Collection. Fifty-nine (81%) reported that their periodicals were classified; thirteen libraries reported that their periodicals were not classified.

(d) Open Stacks. Fifty-seven (78%) libraries reported the use of an open-stack system. Only ten reported a closed-stack system.

CIRCULATION

Monograph Loan Periods. Respondents were asked to indicate their standard loan period for monographs. The period allowed in forty-seven (57%) libraries was 4 weeks, as indicated in Table 1. Thirty-one libraries allowed a 2-week loan period, and eleven libraries allowed a 3-week loan period. The totals shown in Table 1 are somewhat confusing because some libraries recorded two or three different loan periods. And one library reported a "normal" 4-week loan period but reduced it to 2 weeks for summer sessions. A few libraries also reported that they allowed their graduate students and faculty members loan periods which varied from 8 weeks to 1 year. See Table 1.

Renewals. Of the sixty-three libraries responding to a question concerning their system of renewals, forty-eight (76%) permitted unlimited renewals so long as the materials were not requested by other patrons, as indicated in Table 1. One library did not permit undergraduates any renewals. Ten libraries allowed one renewal and two libraries permitted two renewals.

Fines. Only 7 (10%) of the seventy-three libraries responding indicated that they had no fine system of any kind. Almost all respondents indicated that they had a fine system but in some cases did not report their fee structure. Seven libraries charged 5¢ a day for overdue monographs, sixteen charged 10¢, three charged 15¢, two charged 20¢, sixteen charged 25¢, one charged 30¢, and one charged \$1. For overdue serials on regular loan, five libraries charged 10¢ per day, one charged 15¢, eleven charged 25¢, two charged 50¢, and eight charged \$1. Overdue reserve books were charged for by the hour, with one library reporting

TABLE 1
Loan Periods for Monographs ($N = 73$)

Weeks	No. of respondents	Percent of respondents
Loan Periods		
1	0	0
2	31	42
3	9	12
4	48	59
Other	0	0
Renewals		
0	1	1
1	10	14
2	4	6
3	0	0
Unlimited	48	66

the rate of 10¢, twenty-six reporting 25¢, one charged 30¢, two charged 40¢, fourteen charged 50¢ and eight charged \$1 per hour. With monographs and serials, many libraries reduced the fine after the first day. The most typical reduction was from 25¢ for the first day and 10¢ per day thereafter. There were also a few respondents that established maximum fines for overdue monographs and serials. In three cases there was a \$5 limitation; in one other a \$10 limitation. This same pattern persisted with overdue reserve materials, but since the fine structure is hourly, they are dramatically more expensive. Examples of typical reductions are: 50¢ an hour for the first hour and then 5¢, 10¢, or 25¢ for each hour thereafter. One library charged \$15 for reserve materials kept overnight. Other maximum fines were established which ranged from \$5 to \$25. There were three fine systems which were unlike any others reported. In one system when the fine total reached \$3, it was cancelled and the patron was charged a \$10 processing fee instead. Two libraries reported that they reduced the fine by one-half if it was paid when the materials were returned. And one library charged \$5 when monographs were 2 weeks overdue plus \$10 if they were four additional weeks overdue.

Disposition of Fine Money. In only fifteen libraries were fine revenues retained for use within the library. Forty-six (63%) libraries reported that their revenue from fines was turned over to other agencies. In most cases this meant the university treasurer, the university general fund, the accounting office, or the student accounts section of the accounting office.

Replacements. Three libraries charged the list price of the lost item as the replacement cost. The most common pattern, however, was to charge the list price plus a processing fee, and this was the system reported by fifty libraries. While the questionnaire did not ask for the amount of the processing fee, one

library reported a fee of \$2.50 and five reported a \$10 fee. Special arrangements that were also reported included: the patron could replace the book and pay a \$5 processing fee; a replacement copy or an appropriate substitute item could be provided; a charge of \$15 or replacement cost, whichever is greater; a minimum of \$10 or list price, whichever is greater; OP (out of print) charge by a formula based on date of publication; fee determined by the age and format of the material plus a processing fee; and three libraries insisted on replacement of lost items, without reporting how this was to be accomplished.

Circulation Statistics. Only about half of the libraries reported that they were required to maintain circulation statistics for external reporting purposes. Forty-two (58%) indicated that statistics on the number of times circulated were kept. Four libraries kept circulation statistics by subject of classification. Six indicated they kept circulation statistics by format—book, serial, etc. And six other libraries reported they kept circulation statistics on the following: by library service point; phonograph records; building use of monographs before shelving; statistics by type of borrower; interlibrary loan; films; prints; faculty loans; and by category of reader.

Automated Systems. Thirty-four (47%) libraries reported that their circulation systems were not automated. Twenty-eight indicated that they did have automated circulation systems, and four libraries reported that they were in the process of automating their system.

Security Exits. Only five libraries did not require patron exit through a controlled security checkpoint. Seventy-three (100%) libraries reported they required control. Fifty-seven used human guards and seventeen utilized electronic systems.

RESOURCES

Acquisition Policy. Thirty-five (51%) of the research libraries responding stated that they used a written acquisition policy. Thirty reported that they did not have a written policy, but four other libraries reported that they were in the process of writing policies.

Comprehensive Collection Development. The libraries were asked to indicate whether or not their subject areas of collection development were comprehensive in the sense that they attempted to sweep in everything available. Thirty-four (48%) libraries answered negatively, but thirty-seven (52%) responded affirmatively. Sixteen of the thirty-five reported an attempt to collect materials comprehensively on all aspects of their state's history, industry, and social problems. This was also true of the Canadian libraries which collected everything on their own provinces. The Library of Congress reported that it made special efforts to collect comprehensively in all areas, but especially in American history, government, law, literature, and natural sciences. The areas of concentration for the National Agriculture Library and the National Medical Library are certainly obvious. There was no uniformity or any pattern of development by the other libraries. Subject areas of comprehensive collections included: James Joyce and other writers; little magazines;

some English and German authors; Japanese imprints 1945–1952; Black materials; music, DeVoto manuscripts; Iceland; Southeast and South Asia; Wordsworth; Dante; Japanese; architecture, Chinese, Japanese; library science; interior decoration; Will Rogers; history of science; business history; Western history; Middle Eastern materials; Pacific and African linguistics; African studies; musicology; and Sir Walter Raleigh.

Exclusions by Subject. Forty-two libraries (58%) reported there were no subject areas specifically excluded from their collections. However, thirty-one libraries (29%) did report some exclusions. Those subject areas excluded by more than one library were: agriculture (ten libraries); medicine (ten); veterinary medicine (five); law (four); engineering (three); dentistry (four); and denominational literature (four). Exclusions limited to single libraries included: juvenile literature, theology, films and film strips, pharmacy, fiction not supporting curriculum, sectarian, childrens' books, nursing, most non-Roman alphabet textbooks, how-to-do-it books, elementary and secondary teaching methods and texts, and military science.

Exclusions by Format. Forty-nine (67%) libraries reported that there were no formats or types of resources excluded from their collections. However, the restriction, with the number of libraries indicated included: filmstrips (nine), motion picture films (eight), AV materials of all types (seven), computer tapes (four), and maps (two). Two libraries reported that they did not purchase computer tapes because they did not have sufficient funds. Other exclusions included slides, dissertations, reprints, elementary text books, programmed texts, artifacts, and museum-type items.

AV Equipment. Forty-six (63%) libraries acquired and maintained AV materials. There was evidence that many of those who did not (twenty-two) were able to rely on AV centers located nearby or on the same campus.

In-House Use. Forty-seven (64%) libraries limit microformat materials to in-house use, forty-seven limited loose issues of serials, thirty-seven limited bound volumes of serials, and thirty-five limited AV materials. Other materials limited to in-house use included reference materials, reserve materials, government documents, heavy-use items, maps, and records. With regard to bound periodicals, one library restricted only the last 5 years, another library restricted the last 10 years, and still another restricted them to in-house use by students but this restriction did not apply to faculty members. Only one library did not restrict circulation of loose issues of periodicals, except for those received within the last year.

Resources Paged for Users. In response to a question as to whether some materials, apart from special collections, were routinely paged for users the respondents listed the following materials: microforms (twenty-nine libraries), reserve books (twenty-four), loose issues of serials (fourteen), and bound volumes of serials (thirteen). All of these libraries indicated that nearly all of their holdings were paged for their patrons, presumably because of their closed stack systems. Two libraries indicated that only government documents were paged, but materials listed by other respondents included books shelved in storage, maps, tests, non-print items, AV materials, phonograph records, and theses and dissertations.

Closed Collections. Twenty-five (34%) libraries indicated they did not maintain any closed or locked collections because of vulnerability to theft or mutilation, excluding special collections. Eight libraries reported that their local history collections as well as some subjects of particular topical interest were closed. Six libraries reported that "political fringe" subjects were closed. Twenty-three libraries maintained closed collections of sex manuals. And twenty-six other libraries listed the following restrictions: seven of the twenty-six restricted the use of art books, especially those with loose plates and the very expensive ones; there were three that restricted popular journals; two controlled very small books called "tinies." There were other libraries which reported restrictions on the following items: medical books, uncataloged materials, books on games, prints, sheet music, manuscripts, expensive reference sets, materials that disappear frequently, car manuals, government documents, materials on explosives, dissertations, and the *Playboy* file.

Bookstores. Only one library of the seventy-three respondents, the Library of Congress, administers a bookstore.

Personal Copies. In five libraries, users are able to request the library to order a personal copy of a book for them for which they subsequently pay either through acquisitions or circulation.

Center for Research Libraries. Forty-five (62%) respondents reported membership in CRL. Twenty-five others (34%) indicated they were not members of CRL, and three libraries failed to indicate whether they were members or not.

Exchange. Sixty-two research libraries (85%) administered their own exchange program. Six libraries (8%) stated that they did not participate in any exchange program. Two libraries cooperated in programs administered by university presses, and three libraries indicated membership in the United States Book Exchange (USBE).

Consortia or Systems. The most common cooperative arrangements are consortia with a particular geographic area—either city, region, or state. Twenty-six (36%) libraries formally cooperated with all other university and college libraries with the same city or region. And it appears fairly common that a library in a state university system will formally cooperate with all other university and college libraries within the same state system. Fourteen libraries reported participation in multistate consortia or networks, which makes this the second most consistent pattern. Five libraries reported participation in a statewide interlibrary loan network. Other consortia, reported by acronyms that were not always explained, and the number of libraries reporting membership therein are shown in Appendix I. There were some highly specialized consortia reported. Examples include: the Library of Congress participates in the three national libraries task force; the National Library of Medicine directs the Bio-Communications Network; and the University of British Columbia participates in a Consortium for Social Research.

INTERLIBRARY LOAN AND REPROGRAPHY

Administrative Location of Interlibrary Loan. Six libraries (8%) reported that their interlibrary loan function was organizationally a separate unit. In thirty-two

(44%) libraries, interlibrary loan is organizationally a function of reference, and the next most popular organization is for ILL to be a function of circulation (ten libraries, 14%). One library places ILL in their Acquisitions Division, and still another library organized their ILL in a unit called "Interinstitutional Library Service." And in one other library, in-state ILL is a separate unit, while out-of-state lending is a part of circulation. Eighteen (25%) libraries said they participated in international codes, thirty-five (48%) in regional codes, and twenty-one (29%) in state codes. Two libraries (3%) reported participation in local networks, two others (3%) participated in MARLIN, and two (3%) participated in NYSIL. The national libraries reported special arrangements. For example, the National Library of Medicine participates in policies and procedures governing biomedical communications network and the National Library of Agriculture participates in the TRI-Y national network.

Delivery Systems. Twenty libraries (27%) exclusively used the United States mail system for their interlibrary loan services. All other libraries reported various systems as follows: United Parcel Service (ten libraries, 14%); university truck (nine, 12%); intercampus messenger (six, 8%); special courier (five, 7%); campus shuttle (four, 5%); courier between all state colleges (four, 5%); public bus (three, 4%); library owned truck (three, 4%); automobile (three, 4%); teletype (two, 3%); Jitney Service (two, 3%); consortium delivery service (two, 3%); Wycoff System, a commercial freight line (one, 1%); regional library courier (one, 1%); and Interprovincial Service (one, 1%).

Costs. Most of the research libraries (forty-nine, 67%) do not charge their patrons for ILL. There were only nine (12%) libraries that charged their patrons for this service, but they did not indicate how much the patrons were charged. Twenty libraries (27%) were willing to estimate the costs involved per ILL transaction. Seven libraries' estimates included a low of 50¢ to a high of \$2.75; ten gave a low as follows: 50¢ (three); \$1.50 (one); \$2.00 (one); \$2.20 (one); \$2.75 (one); \$3.00 (one); \$3.90 (one); \$4.00 (one); \$4.50 (three); \$5.00 (one); \$6.00 (one); \$6.08 (one); \$6.50 (one); \$7.00 (one); \$8.61 (one), and \$14.00 (one). Six libraries (3%) charge patrons only for photocopies of ILL materials, and three libraries (4%) charged for postage and insurance costs. Two libraries (3%) reported that they paid ILL costs up to \$5.00, then the patron paid the difference. And one library (1%) calculated it could deliver materials weighing up to 91 pounds for \$1.55 anywhere within its state.

Users' Reprographic Equipment. All seventy-three research libraries offer reprographic service directly to their users, and in most cases more than one machine was reported available. Table 2 lists the kinds of equipment used and the number of libraries using each brand.

Forty-five libraries charged from 0 to 5¢ a copy; twenty-eight charged from 5 to 10¢ a copy. Six libraries reported that they occasionally charged more than 10¢ a copy but did not explain the circumstances. In no case was reprography reported as a free service. One major university library reported that its reprographic services to users were under close study for revision during the 1974-1975 academic year.

TABLE 2
Reprographic Equipment Available to Users

Type of equipment	No. of libraries
Xerox	37
Olivetti	20
Denison	14
AM 3000	9
SCM	9
IBM	4
Minolta	4
Savin	2
3M	2
AB Dick	1
Bell & Howell	1
Kodak	1
Pitney Bowes	1
Roy Fax	1

Staff Reprographic Equipment. Sixty-five (89%) maintained separate reprographic units, not directly available to users, but for which the respective library staffs service user requests. Table 3 lists the kinds of equipment employed with the number of libraries using each brand indicated.

Very few respondents indicated what they charged patrons for providing reprographic service. One library charged "3¢-8¢ depending on quantity," two charged 5¢; another charged 6¢; one charged 7¢; another charged 7½¢; one charged 10¢; and two charged "over 10¢." Four libraries reported that their prices varied.

TABLE 3
Reprographic Equipment Available to Staff

Type of equipment	No. of libraries
Xerox	55
Denison	4
IBM	4
Olivetti	2
3M	2
Kodak	2
Savin	1
Roy Fax	1
Polaroid	1
Recordak	1
Bruning	1

Finally, one library charged 5¢ for loose sheets, 10¢ for bound books, and over 10¢ for special copying.

Regulations Restricting Photocopying. Fifty-three (73%) libraries did not have any significant or unique restrictions on what could be copied, apart from Fair Use Standards and federal regulations against copying currency and like materials. Fourteen libraries reported the following restrictions: confidential internal reports and documents; fragile materials, personal materials for nonaffiliated individuals, theses and dissertations, manuscripts, donor restrictions, special collection materials, any volume if binding would be damaged by copying, ID's and auto licenses, ILL materials without express permission of lending institution, and excessive size materials.

ADMINISTRATION

Directors' Reporting Officials. The chief librarian in most of the responding libraries reported to an official one level below the head of the university—to the provost or a vice president. In only four cases did the director report to the head of the university. But there was great variety in the titles assigned to this reporting official as shown in Table 4.

There were other more specialized reporting officials. Examples include: the Librarian of Congress reports to the United States Congress, the Director of the National Library of Medicine reports to the Director of the National Institute of Health, and the Director of the Smithsonian Institution reports to the Assistant Secretary for Museum Programs.

Administrative Constraints. Directors of research libraries appear to work relatively free of close financial regulations. Only twenty-three of the sixty-nine libraries responding to the question reported a requirement for regular audits of their accounts. Moreover, only nineteen of sixty-nine respondents were required to participate in a Planning-Programming-Budget System. More constraints, however, applied to staffing. In fifty-six out of seventy-one reporting, the professional staffs were members of either the state or the federal civil service. Forty-seven of seventy-one respondents stated that their support staff were also members of either a state or federal civil service system. Twenty-two of seventy respondents indicated that their institutions had definite regulations regarding acceptance of gifts. And approximately the same proportion (twenty-one out of seventy-one) had regulations regarding the withdrawal of accessioned materials. Only three respondents indicated they were required to perform regular inventories of their collection. See Table 5 and Figure 2 for an analysis of administrative constraints.

Ordering. Seventy-one respondents reported that their libraries ordered directly from publishers and vendors. There were no negative responses to this question.

AV Facilities. Forty-six libraries (68%) acquired and maintained AV materials. There was evidence that many of the twenty-two libraries who gave negative responses were able to rely on AV centers that were located nearby or at least on the same campus.

TABLE 4
 Reprographic Equipment Available to Staff

Title	No. of libraries
Vice president for academic affairs	19
Provost	16
Academic vice president	4
Chancellor	4
Associate vice president of the university	1
Dean of library administration	1
Deputy president for academic affairs	1
Director of Office of Communication	1
Executive vice chancellor	1
Executive vice president	1
President	1
President of the Board of Directors	1
Provost for academic affairs	1
Provost for educational services	1
Provost and vice president for research	1
Vice chancellor	1
Vice president	1
Vice president for academic affairs and provost	1
Vice president for academic plans and resources	1
Vice president and dean of faculties	1
Vice president and dean of student affairs	1
Vice president for educational services	1
Vice president (instruction)	1
Vice president and provost	1
University vice president for planning and budget	1
TOTAL RESPONSES	63

Changes in Regulations. Write-in comments included the following: Four libraries are in the process of revising their fee and privilege system as well as their lending policies, and two libraries stated they were attempting to shift from hierarchical decision making to participatory decision making on the part of their respective staff. Individual librarians reported that they were installing an electronic theft detection system, securing effective sanctions against faculty with long overdue records, joining other consortia, installing a computerized circulation system, phasing out library handbooks and going to the use of single sheet handouts, engaging in more strategic planning for the future, and instituting a computerized acquisition accounting system. One director had been recently appointed Vice President for Information Services and University Librarian. And, finally, one library reported, perhaps not without a sense of humor, that they anticipated changes that were "too many in detail" to report.

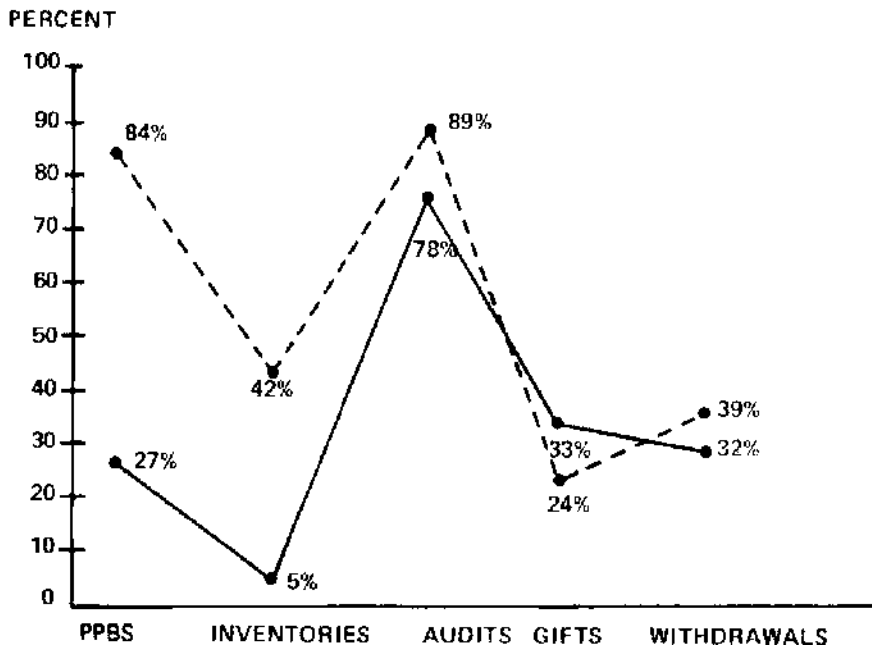


FIGURE 2. Profiles of administrative accountability: (—) research libraries, (- -) school libraries. Administrative controls of research libraries and school library agencies demonstrate that on four of the five profiles, school libraries are the most heavily regulated. This pattern is repeated even more dramatically when the schools are compared with special libraries.

TABLE 5

Regulations Imposed on Library Administration: Budgets, Personnel, Gifts, and Withdrawals^a

Questions	Respondents to each question (%)	No. of affirmative responses	Total no. of responses
Does your governing agency require regular audits of your accounts?	78	50	64
Is your support staff on federal or state civil service?	35	23	66
Does your governing agency specify regulations on the acceptance of gifts?	38	21	63
Does your governing agency specify method of disposition for withdrawn materials?	32	21	65
Are you required to participate in a PPB system?	27	17	63
Is your professional staff on federal or state civil service?	14	9	65
Does your governing agency require regular inventories of your collection?	5	3	65

^aAdministrative regulations are arranged in rank order by percent of affirmative answers. Percentages are computed on basis of the number of responses to individual questions rather than total number of respondents.

APPENDIX I: CONSORTIA

1. ARL (Association of Research Libraries)
2. ARLO (Art Research Libraries of Ohio)
3. Biomedical Communications Network
4. Border States and Consortium of Western Universities and Colleges
5. CAIN (Cleveland Area Interlibrary Network)
6. CAMP (Cooperative Africana Microform Project)
7. Canadian Consortium for Social Research
8. Consortium of Western Colleges and Universities
9. Consortium for Political Research
10. D.C. Consortium of Universities
11. Federal Libraries Network
12. Greater Boston Consortium of Academic and Research Libraries
13. Institute Book Programme
14. IULC (Interuniversity Library Council, Ohio State University)
15. MASUA (Mid-America State University Association)
16. METRO (New York Metropolitan Reference and Research Library Agency)
17. MINITEX (Minnesota Interlibrary Teletype Exchange)
18. Mountain Valley Library System
19. NELINET (New England Library Information Network)
20. NYSIL (New York System of Interlibrary Loan)
21. OCLC (Ohio College Library Center)
22. Prets Entre Bibliothèques des Universités Le Québec
23. Roper Public Opinion Research Center
24. SHASTRI Indo-Canadian Network
25. SOLINET (Southeastern Library Network)
26. Texas Information Exchange
27. Union Library Catalog of Pennsylvania
28. University Libraries of Western Provinces
29. Utah Library Council

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School Libraries*: Background

DEFINITION

In recent years, school libraries have been referred to as educational media centers, learning materials centers, educational resource centers, instructional materials centers, or instructional resources centers. These terms reflect basic changes in the role school libraries perform in public schools today. In the 1960 *Standards (1)* of the American Association of School Libraries (AASL) the term "school library" was still used to refer to libraries in grammar, junior high, and high schools. However, in the 1969 *Standards (2)*, compiled by the AASL and the

* The References and Bibliography for this section begin on page 461.

Department of Audiovisual Instruction of the National Education Association (NEA), the term "media center" replaced "school library." This was official recognition that the character of the school library had changed from that of primarily a storage center for print materials to a multimedia learning laboratory. Media centers now contain resources in a wide variety of formats, as well as equipment for their production and use. The traditional books and periodicals have been supplemented by charts, slides, maps, transparencies, programmed materials, specimens, motion picture films, film strips, and tape and disc recordings, to name only some of the newer materials. Use of the term "media center" is widespread and it has been asserted that "almost every school library in the United States and Canada reflects aspects of the media-center philosophy," and that "virtually all the states and provinces have well-developed media-center programs in their more progressive school systems" (3).

There are several reasons for this change of terms. These include "new teaching methods, new organizational patterns for instruction, such as team teaching and nongraded schools, and curriculum reform . . . combined with rapid growth of communications technology" (3). There also has been an increase in individualized study and instruction. All of these innovations have created the demand for changes in definition and standards.

OBJECTIVES

The unique feature of school libraries in comparison to other types of libraries is the high degree to which national standards (4) for their development and operation have been generated and accepted. For approximately 35 years, representatives of various national associations such as the ALA, NEA, and AASL have met periodically to address the problem of standards for school libraries. An infusion of federal funds for media-center development, and grants from the Council on Library Resources and the Knapp Foundation have also served as impetuses for the development of national standards.

As indicated above, it was in 1960 that a comprehensive set of national standards, both quantitative and qualitative, were adopted for school libraries. These were published in a 132-page document which represented a monumental effort, with twenty national agencies cooperating in the project. The fundamental objective of the school library (or media center) was said to be "to locate, gather, provide and coordinate a school's materials for learning and the equipment required for use of these materials" (5).

In 1969 the second set of standards under the title *Standards for School Media Programs* was published which, in substituting "school media" for "school library" in the 1960 title, reflects a fundamental change in objectives for the former "school library." That is, the school library moved from a relative emphasis on sole use of print materials to an emphasis on multiple types of information packages. These newer standards were needed because of "significant social changes, educational

developments, and technological innovations," and there had also been "numerous requests from school administrators, audiovisual specialists, classroom teachers, curriculum specialists, school librarians, and other educators" (6).

Not surprisingly, the 1969 *Standards* were raised to a higher level than those of 1960. The 1969 *Standards*, in effect, greatly expanded school library programs and made them more complex. The major objective of the media center has been described as providing "services to the entire school—administrators, counselors, teachers and students," and more importantly, providing "curriculum support through work with teachers and students" (7). A summary of the elements (objectives) of the media program as described in the 1969 *Standards* follows: The media program provides:

- Consultant services to improve learning, instruction, and the use of media resources and facilities
- Instruction to improve learning through the use of printed and audiovisual resources
- Information on new educational developments
- New materials created and produced to suit special needs of students and teachers
- Materials for class instruction and individual investigation and exploration
- Efficient working areas for students, faculty, and media staff
- Equipment to convey materials to the student and teacher (8).

HISTORY

It has been suggested that "the first reference to school libraries is lost in antiquity" (9). Space is not available to attempt to prove or disprove this assertion. For purposes of this study, the date of the origin of the school library is assumed to coincide with the date that public money was first appropriated for its support. New York was the first state to provide public support for school libraries, in either 1835 or 1838 (10), under a matching grant arrangement in which the state matched school districts' funds for purchasing books. By 1875 about twenty states provided aid for school libraries (10).

It has been estimated that by 1895 there were about 4,000 libraries in high schools in the United States (11). A main reason for the growth of school libraries was apparently the difficulties encountered by public libraries in providing public schools with necessary library support. Special studies and reports made by representatives of ALA and NEA have also been supportive influences in the expansion of school libraries. The positive impact of backing by national organizations, development and acceptance of national standards, and monetary support of private and public agencies has been described previously.

The year 1965 is considered a milestone in the history of school library development. Titles I and II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (a federal statute) provided special stimulus for expansion of school library collections and services (12). Since the early part of this century, school libraries have continued to expand in number.

USERS

Another distinctive feature of school libraries, compared with other types of libraries, is that their users are "captives" or, in a sense, nonvoluntary users. These are the grammar school and junior and high school students in public schools throughout the nation. Of course, faculty and staff members of these schools are also library users. As the school library becomes more involved in the total educational process, however, the voluntary use of its facilities by all school personnel will continue to increase. A typical list of services now being provided by school libraries includes:

increasing the accessibility of library materials by means of photoduplication; reserve-book and multiple-copy service; duplication of titles through provision of paperbacks; interlibrary loan; home use of reference and audiovisual materials; provision of equipment for use of audio-visual materials; extended library hours; general instruction in library use and orientation as well as library instruction integrated with specific subject areas; reading guidance for individual students and groups of students; the provision of vocational materials, college catalogs, and other materials for assistance to students in planning their postgraduation careers; school newspaper publicity and book reviews; and school programs on libraries and books (12).

It is obvious from the above list that the modern school library is now considerably more involved in the daily lives of all school personnel.

TRENDS

One expert has suggested that "with the shift to a materials oriented operation concerned with knowledge as such, the old library cliché of 'books are basic' no longer applies" (13). In a rather succinct way, this describes the present state of school libraries and gives us some hint of the future. The rapid movement of school libraries serving as warehouses for storage of print materials to service as a multimedia center has been previously described. Future proliferation and development of media centers at various levels are reflected in terms such as regional media centers (within states), state media centers, regional (multistate) centers, and national bibliographic centers (14).

Another future trend is that there will be increased cooperation by school libraries with other libraries, particularly public libraries, but also with local industries and commercial organizations.

Both now and in the future, school libraries will also become more accessible. Specifically, there will be longer hours of operation.

And as multimedia materials become more technical and specialized, school library personnel will have to seek additional, more specialized training.

More and more, independent study, or individualized instruction, for primary and secondary school students will become a common curricula pattern in the

public schools. Thus the school library will assume a more important role in the total school program.

A particularly lofty future trend in school libraries has been described as follows:

The sophisticated young people who will emerge from today's elementary and secondary schools will take for granted their right of access to multiple sources and will make new kinds of demands on the colleges where libraries are still too often thought of as study halls and where the collections are considered sub-standard. As adults pursuing a variety of careers, they will make new kinds of demands on all the nation's library and informational services (15).

School Libraries: State-of-the-Art*

No. of questionnaires sent	No. of respondents	Percent of respondents
54	19	35

USERS

Qualified Borrowers. Ten respondents (53%) indicated that government citizens—municipal, county, or state—were qualified borrowers. Five (26%) reported that members of firms or organizations were able to use their libraries. Other individual responses were that teachers and administrators of the state and the educational staff of the state department of education were qualified borrowers; other state agencies could borrow materials if the materials were not needed by the local staff members; individuals could borrow materials through their respective public libraries, while state agencies and state employees could borrow directly; and one respondent would reproduce copies of its materials for qualified borrowers, but they would not circulate from the "master file."

Information on Policies and Regulations. Twelve agencies (63%) reported that they used handbooks and manuals to inform their users about their regulations. Only five (26%) stated that they used prominently posted signs. Four (21%) agencies used announcements in news media. Four also reported the use of tours. And only one (5%) stated that programmed texts or computer-assisted instruction, or other self-help materials, were used. Other methods were reported as follows: workshops, newsletters, and WATS lines; memoranda to agency staff members; intraoffice memoranda; information supplied on request by individual staff members; and orientation of new students and other patrons.

Information Services. Eleven respondents (58%) reported that they did not have any written or clearly understood regulations which limited their information

* Altogether, there were forty-three (80%) respondents; however, only nineteen questionnaires were returned. (See "Introduction", page 399.) Responses are characteristic of *State School Library Agencies* rather than school libraries.

services. Two (11%) indicated that they did not provide legal reference service, however. Three other agencies reported the following limitations: no fiction was circulated except to individuals who were not served by a public library; reproducing Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) materials was accomplished for staff members only; and, while the number was not specified, there was a limitation on the number of items lent.

User Records. Fourteen agencies (74%) reported that they did not release information regarding the checkout records of their patrons. There were no affirmative responses to this question. However, one respondent stated that it did not maintain checkout records.

Access to the Collection. (a) *Service Hours.* Nineteen agencies responded to the question concerning hours of operation. All nineteen opened between 8:00 and 8:30 in the morning, Monday through Friday, and all nineteen closed between 4:00 and 5:00 in the afternoon, Monday through Friday. Only one of the nineteen reported weekend hours—10:00 to 12:00 on Saturday mornings. None reported Sunday hours of operation. Obviously, then, access to these collections is an "eight to five, five days a week operation."

(b) *Classification.* Eighteen (95%) reported the use of the Dewey Decimal System. Three (16%) reported the use of the Library of Congress System. One other respondent reported the use of a state scheme and another stated the use of a particular system designed for describing material for the handicapped. (Obviously, individual respondents reported use of two or more systems).

(c) *Periodical Collection.* All eighteen respondents to this question reported that their periodical collections were not classified.

(d) *Open Stacks.* All eighteen respondents used an open stack system.

CIRCULATION

Monograph Loan Periods. Six agencies (32%) reported a loan period of 2 weeks and three agencies (16%) reported a 4-week loan period. There were three reports of indefinite loan periods. There were no other loan periods reported.

Renewals. Four respondents (21%) reported that one renewal was permitted. There were four other respondents who reported that their loan period was either indefinite or unlimited.

Fines. Practically speaking, a fine system does not exist in these agencies. Thirteen respondents (68%) reported that they did not impose a fine system on overdue materials. There was only one report of a fine system, but there was no statement of the amount charged, simply that it "varied." This probably meant that the amount charged varied from school to school.

Disposition of Fine Money. In the one report of the existence of a fine system, it was stated that the fine money was turned in to the state's general fund.

Replacements. Eight respondents (42%) stated that to replace lost books they charged list price. There were no reports of charging list price plus a processing fee and no reports of charging a flat fee for all lost books. However, there were

two reports of charging "varying" fees, with no amounts indicated. There were also two reports of not charging patrons at all. There were single reports of charging a pro-rated price and having the patron purchase a replacement item.

Circulation Statistics. Seven (37%) agencies reported a regulation to maintain circulation statistics on the number of items circulated for external reporting purposes. Six (32%) reported that they were required to maintain circulation statistics by subject or classification. And six reported that statistics by format (book, serial, etc.) were kept for external reporting purposes. One agency stated that statistics were kept by county, public, or school library.

Automated Systems. Seventeen (89%) respondents reported that their circulation systems were not automated. There was only one report that a portion of its circulation system was automated. There were no reports of fully automated systems.

Security Exits. Eighteen responded (65%) that users were not required to exit through a controlled security checkpoint; there were no reports of controlled exits.

RESOURCES

Acquisition Policy. Most of the respondents, twelve (63%), reported that they did not have a written acquisitions policy. There were six reports (32%) of a written policy.

Comprehensive Collection Development. The respondents were asked if there were any subject areas in which they attempted comprehensive development in the sense of acquiring everything available. Only six (32%) responded affirmatively, and in five cases the area of comprehensive development was education. One respondent listed "Micronesia" as the area of comprehensive development. Five agencies (26%) made no attempt at comprehensive development in any areas.

Exclusion by Subject. Five respondents (26%) stated that no subject areas were specifically excluded from their collections. Nine agencies, however, reported that all subjects not dealing with some aspect of education were excluded. Two agencies excluded popular fiction and one of these two also excluded general public library subjects such as history, geography, and economics.

AV Equipment. Sixteen respondents (84%) stated that they acquired and maintained AV equipment. There were only two negative reports (11%).

In-House Use. Seven respondents (37%) limited loose issues of serials, bound issues of serials, and microforms to in-house use. Two stated that their AV materials were limited. Two agencies duplicated all serials and microforms and mailed them to patrons in lieu of lending the originals; that is, their master files never circulated.

Resources Paged for Users. Fifteen agencies (79%) did not routinely page any type of materials for its users. There were two reports of paging loose serials and reserve books and one report of paging bound volumes of serials.

Closed Collections. Perhaps consistent with the pattern of open stacks and uncontrolled exits, most of these agencies (fifteen or 79%) reported that they did not maintain closed or locked materials because the materials were particularly

vulnerable to theft or mutilation. Three respondents, however, reported that they did maintain closed or locked collections of local history on subjects of particular topical interest. Other materials that were reported closed or locked included tests, microforms, the ERIC collection, and AV equipment.

Bookstores. None of these agencies administered a bookstore.

Personal Copies. Four respondents (21%) indicated that their patrons could ask them to order a personal copy of a book for which they would pay through a bookstore or an acquisition or circulation department.

Center for Research Libraries. Not surprisingly, none of the respondents indicated membership in CRL.

Exchange. Eleven respondents (58%) did not participate in any exchange program. Five respondents (26%) did engage in an exchange program self-administered by their own agency, and three respondents (16%) indicated that they were members of a state-wide exchange system. In one of these three cases the program was administered by the state library.

Consortia or Systems. It seems apparent that these agencies have very limited participation in consortia. The few memberships reported were: SEIMC/RMC (two respondents); SLICE (one respondent); one belonged to an unnamed network; another to a state-wide consortium; and still another to a regional (multistate) arrangement. A total of only six agencies (32%) took part in consortia or systems activities.

INTERLIBRARY LOAN AND REPROGRAPHY

Administrative Location of Interlibrary Loan. In none of the agencies responding was the ILL service organized as a separate unit. Eight (42%) reported that ILL was a function of their circulation division, and two (11%) reported it was a function of reference and circulation. One respondent stated that its ILL was a "one man operation"; another, that its ILL department was small with a library associate in charge. Seven (37%) participated in the International Interlibrary Loan Code. Six (32%) others reported participation in regional codes, three (16%) in state codes, and one reported it maintained a "local" code.

Delivery Systems. Seven respondents (37%) used only the regular mail as a delivery system. There were seven other delivery systems reported with one or two agencies participating in each as follows: UPS, 2; courier, 2; messenger mail, 1; intrastate shuttle bus, 1; library vehicle, 1; pouch mail bookmobile, 1; and office mail from state library, 1.

Costs. Nine agencies (47%) reported that they did not charge their patrons the costs of obtaining ILL materials. One agency (5%) reported that it charged its patrons return postage only.

Users' Reprographic Equipment. Twelve agencies (63%) reported that they maintained reprographic equipment directly available to their users. Eight respondents (42%) used Xerox machines; six (32%) used 3M machines; and three reported the use of Apeco, Bell & Howell, and IBM, respectively. Thus some

TABLE 1

Reporting Officials for School Library Agency Heads

Assistant superintendent, Bureau of Instructional Curriculum
Assistant superintendent for instruction
Assistant superintendent of public instruction
Chief, Educational Media Section
Commissioner
Deputy director of education
Director, Department of Education
Director, Division of Instructional Media
Director, instructional technology
Director of Learning Resources Services
Director of Research Planning and Information Services
School principals
State superintendent of public instruction
Supervisor, Educational Media Services
Supervisor of library services

agencies used more than one kind of machine. There were only four respondents (21%) who reported that they did not maintain reprographic equipment for direct use by their patrons. Nine respondents (47%) provided this direct service free of charge to their patrons. One charged 0 to 5¢ per page; three charged 5 to 10¢ per page, and one charged over 10¢ per page.

Staff Reprographic Equipment. Only five respondents (26%) reported that they maintained separate reprographic units which serviced users' requests. Three agencies used the 3M copier, two used a Bell & Howell machine; one, a Diazo; one, a Xerox; and one, a Recordak. There were only two reports of charging users for this service. The cost in both cases was 2¢ per page.

Regulations Restricting Photocopying. Apart from fair-use standards and federal regulations against copying of currency and other materials, none of the respondents reported that they had any significant or unique restrictions on what could be copied in their agencies.

ADMINISTRATION

Directors' Reporting Officials. There was great variety in the titles of the official to whom the heads of the responding agencies reported, as indicated in Table 1. One agency reported each title listed.

Administrative Constraints. Seventeen respondents (89%) were required by their governing agency to have regular audits of their accounts. Only two (11%) did not have this requirement. Sixteen (84%) were required to participate in a planning-programming-budgeting (PPB) system. Eleven agencies (58%) stated that their professional staffs were on either federal or state civil service; nine (47%) stated that their support staffs were in either federal or state civil service. Thirteen

TABLE 2
Regulations Imposed on Library Administration: Budgets, Personnel,
Gifts, and Withdrawals^a

Questions	Percent of affirmative responses	No. of affirmative responses	Total no. of responses
Does your governing agency require regular audits of your accounts?	89	17	19
Are you required to participate in a PPB system?	84	16	19
Is your professional staff on federal or state civil service?	58	11	19
Is your support staff on federal or state civil service?	53	9	17
Does your governing agency require regular inventories of your collection?	42	8	19
Does your governing agency specify method of disposition for withdrawn materials?	39	7	18
Does your governing agency specify regulations on the acceptance of gifts?	24	4	17

^aAdministrative regulations are arranged in rank order by percent of affirmative answers. Percentages are computed on basis of the number of responses to individual questions rather than total number of respondents.

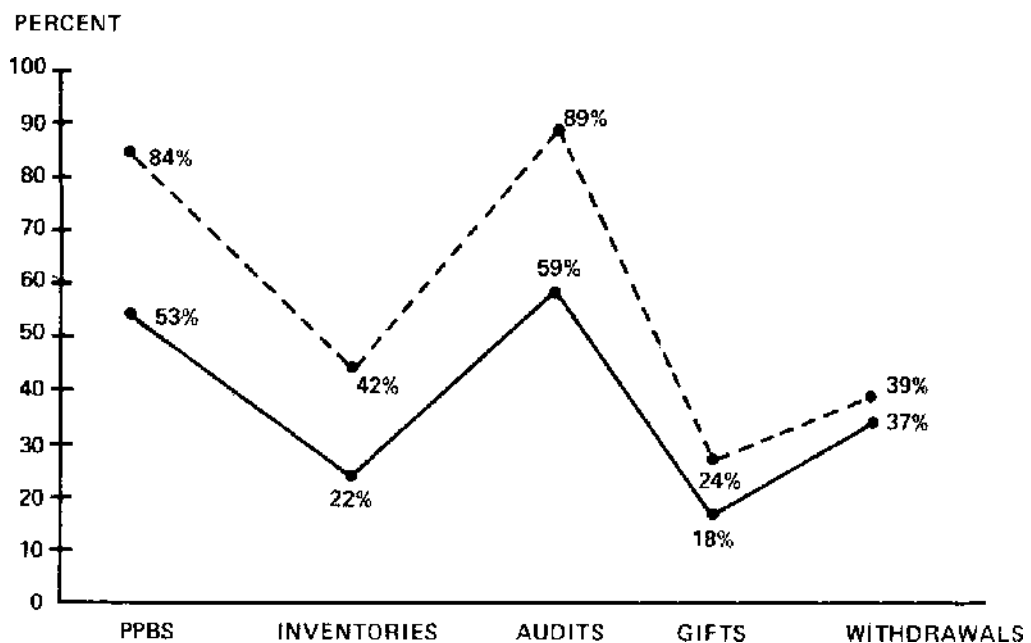


FIGURE 1. Profiles of administrative accountability: (—) special libraries, (- -) school libraries. The administrative controls reflect that school library agencies are more heavily regulated than special libraries.

respondents (68%) were required by their governing agency to follow specific regulations on the acceptance of gifts; four (21%) reported no such requirement. And eleven (58%) stated that their governing agencies specified methods for the disposition of withdrawn materials; seven (37%) reported no such requirement. See Table 2 and Figure 1 for an analysis of administrative constraints.

Ordering. Thirteen agencies (68%) apparently are not permitted to order material directly from publishers and vendors. Only six (32%) reported that they could order directly.

AV Materials. Fourteen agencies (74%) reported that they administered AV and media facilities. In thirteen of these fourteen, these facilities were located within or adjacent to the respondents. There were only three agencies (16%) which reported that they did not administer AV and media facilities.

Changes in Regulations. There was no response to the request to list significant changes in regulations governing their operation.

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3. *The Encyclopedia Americana*, International Edition, Vol. 17, Americana Corp., New York, 1973, pp. 337, 345-348.
4. The assumption in this study is that it is in national standards that "objectives" can be identified. That is, standard is really a synonym for objective, whether quantitative or qualitative.
5. This objective was actually passed at the 1956 Conference of the AASL, but it was endorsed again in the 1960 *Standards*, p. 12. Nine separate, more specific objectives are identified on pp. 8-9. It should be pointed out that quantitative standards for audiovisual personnel, equipment, and materials were agreed to and published by the Department of Audiovisual Instruction of the National Education Association in 1965. For a statement of duties of resource centers agreed to by the Library Association of England, see "School Library Functions Redefined by Library Association," *Lib. J.*, **97**, 1122-1123 (March 15, 1972).
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13. C. Walter Stone, "The Library Function Redefined," in *Multi-Media and the Changing School Library*, A Summary of the Preparations for, Presentations, and Group Reports of the School Library Workshop for Leadership Personnel held at the Monte Corona Conference Center, Twin Peaks, California, August 6-12, 1967, Compiled by James W. Brown, Ruth H. Aubrey, and Elizabeth S. Noel under the direction of Harry I. Skelly, Chief, Bureau of Audio-Visual and School Library Education, State Department of Education, Sacramento, California, p. 78.
14. A graphic display of such a structure can be seen in Frances Henne, "Standards for School Library Services at the District Level," *Lib. Trends*, 17, 511 (April 1968).
15. Ref. 10, p. 88.

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Special Libraries*: Background

DEFINITION

The literature on special libraries is filled with many treatises having to do with the problem of defining "special libraries." Three examples include "a special library is one that serves people who are doing things, as distinct from a reference library which serves people who are thinking things" (1); "a reference library is an academic institution for the scholar. A special library is a utilitarian establishment calculated to serve a worker too busy to take time for scholarly investigation" (2); and "a special library is a special collection serving a special clientele and using special methods for the purpose" (3).

The problem of definition is complicated by the fact that there are so many, many kinds of special libraries. There are, as examples, legislative reference libraries, newspaper libraries, advertising agency libraries, public utilities libraries, and railroad company libraries. As one writer has put it, "special libraries work for commercial, industrial, governmental, or non-profit institutions, such as research organizations, banks, manufacturing companies, newspapers, government agencies—whether local, state, or federal—hospitals, insurance companies, museums, very specialized departments of public or university libraries, etc" (4). A glance at the names of some special libraries will help demonstrate the variety of special libraries: The World Book Encyclopedia Reference Library; The Illinois Supreme Court Library; the Sinclair Refining Company's Research and Development Department Library; Abbott Laboratories Library; the Special Library of Edwin Shields Hewitt and Associates; and The American Meat Institute Foundation Library, to name only a few. And we find special libraries with highly specialized holdings such as Greek and Latin manuscripts, Judaica, Italian literature, Gothic novels, and ornithology (5).

One articulate spokesman on special library administration suggests that there are four characteristics of special libraries which differentiate them from other kinds of libraries. First, they give specialized and personalized service. Second, special libraries are relatively more concerned with periodical and technical report

* The References and Bibliography for this section begin on page 477.

literature than books, since books can quickly become outdated in the long publication process. Third, special libraries cater primarily to their own company or organization clientele. Fourth, they depend heavily on other libraries for materials they do not have (6).

An official of the Special Libraries Association (SLA) had suggested some additional characteristics of special libraries: "it is the information and not the form of the material that is important"; "the more traditional classification schemes and subject heading lists have been supplemented or replaced by systems devised for quick and efficient retrieval." Also, they have small staffs who have to become subject literature specialists, and they exist "to meet the user's needs for the latest accurate information regardless of where and in what form it may be available" (7).

While there is no universal consensus regarding the definition, perhaps most people in the business would be willing to accept that a special library "is devoted to a special subject and offers specialized service to a specialized clientele" (8).

OBJECTIVES

The variety of special libraries and the lack of an agreed-to definition might also suggest that a consensus regarding common objectives would also be difficult to obtain, especially if a high degree of specificity were sought. An early statement of objectives can be found in the 1909 Constitution of the Special Libraries Association. The goal of the association was "to promote the interests of the commercial, industrial, technical, civic, municipal and legislative reference libraries, the special departments of public libraries, universities, welfare associations and business organizations" (9). More recently, objectives of a special library might be: (1) to maintain a continuing survey and evaluation of current publications, research in progress, and activities of individual authorities, on behalf of its clientele; (2) to organize the sources of both written and unwritten experience and knowledge from the specialist viewpoint; and (3) to assemble from within and without the library both publication and information as required by the activities of its clientele, disseminating these on the initiative of the library as well as on request, often in abstract or memorandum form oriented for immediate application to any individual's work (10).

One writer spent a considerable amount of effort trying to determine what special libraries' objectives should be from the users' viewpoint. A literature review, coupled with his years of personal experience in special libraries, led him to suggest that special libraries should be visible, accessible, and easy to use; facilitate oral communication; provide feedback to requestors; allow for "browsability;" have a flexible approach; use familiar methods; give access to key publications; disseminate information and materials rapidly; and suit various types of users (11).

In the final analysis, of course, the broad objectives of a particular special library are determined by the mission of its sponsoring agency.

HISTORY

There have been numerous attempts to trace the origin of the special library back to the Mesopotamian and Babylonian empires, to the royal libraries or temple libraries. But the special library as it is known today is probably of much more recent origin. There have been at least three important influences in the development of the modern special library. First, the Industrial Revolution of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries provided a major impetus. Inventions, new sources of power, improvement in economic organizations—all involved an increase in industrial and scientific knowledge. Along with the Industrial Revolution, another revolution of particular importance was the one in printing processes leading to the perfection of the steam-powered cylinder press which made possible mass production of printed materials. Libraries were needed to organize these newly printed materials and to perfect ways for disseminating scientific information. Thus, as one writer has put it, "the special library is essentially a product of the nineteenth century" (12). It was at a library conference in Great Britain in 1877 that the first paper on special libraries was presented (13).

The third important influence on the development of the modern special library was World War I, the period of about 1914–1920. Prior to 1914, it has been said that the term special library "was used for a collection in a specified, limited subject field, sponsored by an institution or society, by a private individual, or by a department or college in a university" (14). After the war the term was expanded "to include comprehensive holdings involving non-book and foreign language materials, with detailed classification and analytical subject-indexing" (14). Also, the number of special libraries has proliferated since World War II (15). Special libraries have really come into their own in the twentieth century.

At least one writer has suggested that the most significant feature of recent special library history has been the development of intensive cooperation, both nationally and internationally (16).

USERS

If the definition that a special library "is devoted to a special subject and offers specialized service to a specified clientele" (17) is accepted, then it is probably fair to say that the use of special libraries is the most restrictive of all types of libraries.

The patrons of a special library normally have a particular group identification. They are the staff members of a particular company, or they are researchers in a particular laboratory, or they are a group of persons who share a common interest in a particular subject. They are found in colleges and universities; in public library systems (particularly large public libraries); in business and industrial firms; in governmental agencies and departments; in nonprofit institutions, associations, and societies; in various archives and museums; in courts of law; and in other places

too numerous to name. And, as has been previously pointed out, these user groups are relatively small in size. In many respects they are fraternity-like in spirit. As one writer has put it, "such groups should have a concrete existence and a meaning to their grouping quite apart from the fact that the members are just interested in a special subject" (18).

Thus while research libraries, including college and university libraries, are open or accessible to the general public, special libraries are relatively inaccessible or closed to the public. The latter collections are almost exclusively reserved for the "special clientele."

TRENDS

The one trend that seems to stand out is the rapid growth in number of special libraries. Literally thousands of special libraries are in existence and their number seems to increase on a daily basis. In fact, a major objective of the Special Libraries Association, as stated by a recent past president, is "stimulation of new special libraries" (19). The Kruzas *Directory of Special Libraries* (20) identifies and describes more than 10,000 special libraries and information centers. In the Anderson directory of *Special Libraries in Canada* (21), there are 669 special libraries listed. And in the single state of Colorado, 206 special libraries and special collections have been identified (22).

Another growth indicator is the total membership of the two international organizations, SLA and Aslib. For example, in 1973 the membership of SLA was 7,815, an increase of 659 over the previous year (23). Aslib, the largely British association that superseded the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux, reported a membership of 2,350 in a 1973 publication (24), and 2,500 in another publication that may have appeared subsequently (25).

In addition to an increase in number, both nationally and internationally, there are a number of other trends for the future in special libraries, almost all of which will enable special libraries to engage in considering more cooperation and coordination among themselves.

1. There will be continuing, serious attempts to keep abreast of user needs, for there is the realization that their future existence depends upon their ability to satisfy those needs.
2. The development of small computers (minicomputers), and thus the availability of cheaper computers, will allow small, special libraries to participate more fully in resource sharing with other libraries, reference centers, and research networks.
3. The use of smaller and cheaper computers will also allow more computerization of internal library operations of special libraries.
4. There is still hope that viable facsimile transmission networks will be developed in the near future. Thus special libraries will not have to lend primary materials, but instead can transfer photographic and electronic images of their primary materials.

The future of special libraries certainly seems assured. As our society becomes more technologically oriented, user needs for library services will become more specialized and individualized, and special libraries with their special collections will be required.

Special Libraries: State-of-the-Art

No. of questionnaires sent	No. of respondents	Percent of respondents
85	64	75

USERS

Qualified Borrowers. Thirty-six libraries (56%) reported that members of their firm or organization were qualified borrowers. Students and faculty qualified as borrowers in twenty-four (38%) other special libraries. In twenty libraries (31%), citizenship in the city, county, or state automatically granted borrowing privileges. And in fourteen other libraries, reciprocal privileges were granted to borrowers of other library systems. Several libraries suggested that since they were supported with public funds, they were really "public" libraries and, therefore, were open to anyone. Four of the reporting libraries granted borrowing privileges to alumni; one of these four charged a \$10 annual fee. One library loaned to other libraries, but not to individuals; another loaned to all faculty and students in the region; and finally, one library granted borrowing privileges to "all rabbis, ministers, and priests plus former students who are pastors."

Information on Policies and Regulations. The most popular method for informing users about special library regulations was the use of prominently posted signs. Thirty-three libraries (52%) used this method. A close second was the use of handbooks and manuals, and thirty-two libraries favored this method. Sixteen special libraries employed the use of tours to inform their users. Other methods of telling patrons about library regulations reported were: newspapers, meetings, and personal contact; orientation on demand, a library lecture series; placing information sheets throughout the library; publishing a weekly library bulletin; placing notices on books as they are charged; and one library required its freshmen students to take legal bibliography classes.

Information Services. Thirty-seven (58%) reported that they had no written or clearly understood regulations that limited their information services. There were multiple restrictions reported as follows: Ten libraries refused medical reference service; nine would not provide legal reference service; eight did not provide telephone reference assistance; seven would not provide answers to quizzes, puzzles, and contests; seven did not maintain an academic test file; and seven did not provide assistance with class assignments. Those libraries reporting restrictions

on legal and medical reference service usually referred these questions to law libraries and medical libraries in their respective geographic areas. Other restrictions voluntarily reported included: services limited to government agencies only; computer retrieval searches available only to faculty and graduate students; services to outsiders limited to time not needed for regular work and help given to own staff; restricted service to patrons pursuing personal and unofficial interests; and genealogical information. Finally, one library contains security classified materials which greatly restricts its use.

User Records. Forty-one special libraries (64%) reported that they did not release information regarding the check-out records of their users. Only twelve (19%) stated that they did release patron records. One other library stated that its computer-produced circulation lists were available to all patrons, but there was no indication that these records were available to outside agencies or individuals.

Access to the Collection. (a) *Service Hours.* The general pattern for hours of operation for special libraries is to open between 8:00 and 9:00 in the morning and to close between 4:00 and 5:00 in the afternoon, 5 days per week, Monday through Friday. To be more specific, fifty (78%) of the reporting libraries open between 8:00 and 9:00, Monday through Friday; thirty-three libraries close between 4:15 and 5:00 in the afternoon of those days. Slightly more than 50% of the respondents are closed on Saturdays and Sundays. Four libraries are open but not staffed on the weekends. For those relatively few libraries open on the weekends, the weekend pattern is to open on Saturday between 8:00 and 9:00 and close between 5:00 and 6:00. Those that operate on Sundays open between 12:00 noon and 2:00 in the afternoon and close between 8 P.M. and midnight. It is worth noting, too, that three libraries were open 24 hours a day, Monday through Friday, and seven were open round the clock on weekends.

(b) *Classification.* There was a fairly equal division among special libraries in the use of classification systems, with twenty-six respondents reporting the use of the Dewey Decimal System and twenty-seven reporting the use of the LC System. One library reported the use of both systems. Only one library reported that it was converting from Dewey to LC. Other classification systems reported were: Union Theological, Glidden, Harvard Business School, Black's, and the National Library of Medicine. Two libraries used an accession numbering system.

(c) *Periodical Collection.* Forty-seven libraries (73%) reported that their periodicals were classified; thirteen (20%) reported that their periodicals were not classified.

(d) *Open Stacks.* Fifty-seven libraries (89%) reported the use of open-stack systems, with only two libraries reporting use of closed-stack systems. One library used both closed and open systems. A few libraries stated that reserved materials, recent periodicals, and litigated literature were closed, however.

CIRCULATION

Monograph Loan Periods. Respondents were asked to indicate their standard loan period for monographs. Twenty-three (36%) reported a loan period of 2

weeks; twelve (19%) allowed 4 weeks; seven (11%) allowed 3 weeks; and three granted 1-week periods. Thus forty-five of the fifty-five respondents reported a specific loan period. Seven libraries reported that their loan periods were indefinite or unlimited. One library had no limitations for their own company employees, but allocated a 2-week loan period for other patrons. Two libraries specified longer loan periods for faculty than for students. See Table 1.

TABLE 1
Loan Periods for Monographs ($N=55$)

Weeks	No. of respondents	Percent of respondents
Loan Periods		
1	3	5
2	23	42
3	7	13
4	12	22
Other	10	18
Renewals		
0	2	4
1	8	15
2	2	4
3	1	2
Unlimited	42	76

Renewals. As Table 1 indicates, the overwhelming pattern for renewals in special libraries is "unlimited," with forty-two (76%) of the fifty-five respondents reporting this system. Presumably an effort would be made to recall a monograph if it was wanted by another user. As shown in Table 1, two libraries permit no renewals, eight permitted one, two allowed two, and one allowed three.

Fines. Thirty-six special libraries (56%) did not impose a fine system on overdue materials. Seventeen (27%) reported a daily fine system with regard to overdue monographs as follows: five libraries charged 5¢, four charged 10¢, one charged 15¢, five charged 25¢, one charged 30¢, and one charged 50¢. With regard to *serials*, on a daily basis, one library charged 5¢, one charged 10¢, one charged 25¢, one charged 30¢, two charged 50¢, and one charged \$1. One library reported a charge of 25¢ per hour, and another reported a charge of 50¢ an hour. There were only ten libraries who charged for *reserve materials*, with the majority reporting a 25¢ per hour charge, with a low of 10¢ an hour to a high of 50¢ an hour. One library required a deposit of \$1 on *AV materials*, and if these became overdue, the patron was required to forfeit his deposit. Overdue *film*, in another library, cost 25¢ an hour. The most costly fine system reported was a \$5 service charge on all fines levied.

Disposition of Fine Money. In those relatively few special libraries maintaining a fine system, eight libraries retained their fine money and thirteen turned it in to another agency.

Replacements. In special libraries the standard pattern for patrons to replace lost books is apparently to charge the patron either list price (when it is available) or list price plus a processing fee. Thirty-five libraries (55%) reported the use of this method. Eighteen of these thirty-five charged only the list price. Fourteen other libraries reported that they did not charge their patrons for lost materials; lost books are apparently considered as overhead expenses. One library charged the price of the item at the time of purchase, and two libraries allowed their patrons to furnish a replacement copy of a lost item.

Circulation Statistics. Apparently, most special libraries are required to keep circulation statistics of one kind or another. Thirty-two libraries (50%) stated that they were required to report their number of items circulated. Twenty-three (36%) maintain circulation statistics by format (book, serial, etc.), and eight libraries kept statistics by subject or classification. Three libraries reported that they kept statistics by type of borrower, one recorded circulation of reserve books, and one recorded use of both reserve items and in-house use of all items. (Note: As pointed out earlier, respondents frequently checked more than one answer, so the total number of respondents to each question is often confusing.)

Automated Systems. Forty-four (76%) of the fifty-eight libraries responding stated that they did not utilize an automated circulation system. Two libraries indicated the use of semiautomated systems and twelve other libraries reported the use of fully automated systems.

Security Exits. In dramatic contrast to the strict control of exits by research libraries, special libraries required relatively little control. Forty-five libraries (70%) reported that they did not require their users to exit through a controlled security checkpoint. Only fourteen libraries required control, with twelve utilizing human guards and two using electronic controls.

RESOURCES

Acquisition Policy. Considerably more than half of the special libraries polled, thirty-seven of fifty-eight (or 64%) reported a written acquisitions policy. Twenty-one, therefore, reported that they did not maintain a written policy.

Comprehensive Collection Development. In response to the question of whether there were subject areas of comprehensive collection development in which they attempted to purchase everything available, forty special libraries (63%) responded negatively. The affirmative responses of the other nineteen libraries reflected rather clearly that they were "special" library responses as follows: sciences and related physical sciences; management related; water research and development and civil engineering, except road building; water in all aspects; aviation safety; planning reports from the state; mortuary science and secretarial science; accounting; traffic safety and community development; microfiche distributed by the Atomic Energy

Commission; investment management; petroleum exploration, development, and production; materials about community colleges; education and psychological tests and measurements; United States law and American Indian law; aerospace, aerodynamics, thermodynamics, cryogenics, electronics, and life sciences; medicine and nursing; theology and philosophy; and urban real property. No two libraries were comprehensively collecting the same subject area.

Exclusions by Subject. Thirty-one special libraries, or a little less than half, did not specifically exclude any subject areas from their collections. However, twenty-eight (44%) libraries reported exclusions which again seemed to reveal the specialized nature of these respondents. In only two instances did libraries report the same exclusions. The representative examples that follow seem to reflect that most of these libraries collect in the scientific and engineering areas as opposed to the social sciences and humanities: all subjects except physical and military sciences; everything except management techniques and petroleum industry materials; legal and medical materials; all subjects except public administration; non-Western foreign languages, westerns and crime stories, and elementary education studies; humanities, arts, and letters; everything except library science; everything except business administration, hospital administration, management science, and computers; much is excluded because of high specialization in nuclear and biomedical research; anything not of an economic nature; nonscientific literature; nonengineering materials; medicine, law, agriculture, and nontechnical; exclude areas outside physics, math, astronomy, and computer sciences; and fiction.

Exclusion by Format. Forty-nine (77%) libraries stated that there were no formats or types of resources excluded from their collections. The few exclusions that were reported included: AV materials, microforms, sheet music, programmed texts, phonograph records, paperback books, sales catalogs, and curriculum guides.

AV Equipment. Thirty-seven libraries (58%) acquired and maintained AV equipment. Twenty-two libraries (34%) reported that they did not.

In-House Use. Thirty libraries (47%) limited microform materials to in-house use. This same number of libraries also limited both loose and bound volumes of serials to in-house use. Eighteen libraries (28%) reported that they did not allow circulation of their AV materials. In addition to these restrictions, one library circulated its materials only to personnel within its parent organization, and another library restricted its litigated literature (presumably pornographic materials) to in-house use.

Resources Paged for Users. In response to a question as to whether some materials, apart from special collections, were routinely paged for users, the respondents listed the following materials: loose issues of serials, fourteen libraries; reserve books, twelve; microforms, ten; and bound volumes of serials, eight. Thirty-four libraries (53%) did not routinely page any materials for patrons. However, three libraries indicated they paged all materials for their patrons. One library paged internal reports and another library paged only government documents.

Closed Collections. Thirty-seven libraries (58%) indicated that they did not maintain any collections that were closed or locked because they were vulnerable

to theft or mutilation, excluding their special collections. There were, however, three libraries that controlled local history materials, and there were four other libraries that controlled sex manuals. Other materials reported as closed included: any items that experience had shown to be vulnerable to theft; secret company materials; classified materials; occult astrology; "only" copies of in-house reports; periodicals; travel and stock club items; current texts; and erotic art books.

Bookstores. Only one library of fifty-eight respondents administered a bookstore.

Personal Copies. One library out of fifty-eight reporting referred its patrons to a local bookstore when a personal copy of a book was requested. Another library accommodates its patrons by setting up direct purchases between patrons and book dealers who do business regularly with that library.

Center for Research Libraries. Only nine (15%) of fifty-nine respondents reported membership in CRL. One library indicated that it held an associate membership in the organization.

Exchange. Twenty-two libraries (34%) participate in exchange programs which they administer. One library participated in an exchange program that is administered by another agency that procures that library's requests. Other arrangements that were mentioned were: a special libraries duplicate exchange; an exchange program administered by the American Association of Law Libraries; another exchange administered by the Medical Library Association; and a state library program.

Consortia or Systems. Only sixteen libraries (25%) reported membership in any kind of cooperative arrangements. And, perhaps not surprisingly, those reported appeared highly specialized. See Appendix I.

INTERLIBRARY LOAN AND REPROGRAPHY

Administrative Location of Interlibrary Loan. Fifteen libraries (23%) reported that the ILL unit is organizationally a separate unit. In twenty-two other libraries (34%), ILL is a function of reference; in seven libraries (11%) it is a function of circulation; and in four (6%) other libraries it is a function of acquisitions. One library reported what it described as an "integrated" arrangement but failed to describe it. Another had its serials division administer ILL; and one other library said that "one person on the staff handles ILL."

Thirty-four (53%) libraries indicated that they participated only in the national ILL code. Five participated in an international code, and eleven participated in regional codes.

Delivery Systems. The United States mail is the only delivery system used by twenty-nine libraries (45%). Seventeen others listed the following systems, with a few of these seventeen listing more than one: daily messenger, eleven libraries; courier service, four; UPS, two; truck, one; facsimile and truck, one; university delivery system, one; intracampus and intralibrary, one; automobile, one; personal campus delivery system, one; local organization system, one; and "RRR's" Council Delivery, one.

Costs. Most special libraries, 81%, thirty-eight out of forty-seven respondents to this question, did not charge their patrons for ILL service. Only two libraries reported that they charged postage.

Users' Reprographic Equipment. Fifty-one (88%) of the fifty-eight libraries responding to the question of whether reprographic equipment was made directly available to users gave an affirmative answer. Seven libraries (12%) reported that they did not provide such equipment, but there was indication in most instances that the staffs provided reprographic service from machines not directly available to their patrons. Table 2 lists the kinds of equipment used and the number of

TABLE 2
Reprographic Equipment Available to Users

Type of equipment	No. of libraries using
Xerox	29
3M	8
Olivetti	7
IBM	5
SCM	4
Denison	3
Kodak	2
Savin	2
AB Dick	1
Apeco	1
Copia	1

libraries using each brand. The inconsistency in the numbers is a result of some libraries using more than one brand of machine, or some libraries indicating the service but failing to indicate the brand of machine. Thirty-three libraries (52%) of these libraries allowed their patrons free use of their reprographic machines. Twelve libraries charged 0 to 5¢, sixteen charged 5 to 10¢, and three charged over 10¢. Two of those three charging over 10¢ stated that this higher rate was for additional service provided when a staff member duplicated materials for a user.

Staff Reprographic Equipment. Twenty-three libraries (36%) maintained separate reprographic units not directly available to users in which library staffs serviced requests. Table 3 lists the kinds of equipment employed with the number of libraries using each. There is overlap because some libraries use more than one machine and more than one brand of machine.

Nine (39%) of these twenty-three libraries reported that they provided this service free of charge to their patrons. Six libraries indicated a charge of 5¢ per page; seven libraries charged 10¢ per page; and one library reported a charge of "over 10¢" per page.

Regulations Restricting Photocopying. Forty-seven (81%) of fifty-eight libraries reported they did not have any significant or unique restrictions on what could be

TABLE 3
 Reprographic Equipment Available to Staff

Type of equipment	No. of libraries using
Xerox	18
AB Dick	2
Olivetti	2
3M	2
SCM	2

copied in their libraries, apart from fair use standards and federal regulations. Eleven other libraries, however, reported one or more of the following restrictions; security classified materials; old and fragile materials; reserve materials that instructors had asked not to be copied; video records; and personal and unofficial materials. Two libraries limited the number of copies, and one library stated that it tried to discourage copying and to encourage the use of microfiche instead.

ADMINISTRATION

Directors' Reporting Officials: In special libraries, as might be expected, the chief librarian reported to officials with wide variations in their titles. Table 4 reflects this wide range.

TABLE 4
 Titles of Chief Librarians' Reporting Officials

Acting director
Assistant director for public services
Assistant director for reader services
Associate dean
Associate director
Associate director for planning and programs
Board of Education
Board of Trustees
Chief, Administrative Management Division
Chief, Bibliographical Support Section
Chief of engineering
Chief, Special Service Division
Chief, Special Services
Chief, Technical Services & Publications Branch
Corporate controller
Dean
Dean's School of Law
Director of administration
Director of administrative service

(continued)

TABLE 4--(continued)

Director, Continuing Education Service
Director, employment placement, Employee & Industrial Relations Corporate Staff
Director of institute
Director of learning services division
Director of libraries & dean, Bates College of Law
Director of libraries, director of research realtors & director of research center
Director of research
Executive director, Division of Advisory & Field Services
Head, Information Support Services
Head, Service Operations Department
Head, Technical Information Department
Head, Technical Information Division
Head, Technical Information System
Manager, Administrative Services
Manager, Engineering Services
Manager, publications & technical information
Manager, Research Information Search Center
Manager, Science Information Service
Manager, Scientific Services
Manager, Technical Information Department
Manager, Technological Information Center
Medical records librarian
Personnel manager
President of Eden & Vice President of Webster College
President of Pratt Institute
President, Upstate Medical Center
Provost
Special service officer
Supervisory of supply & records section
Vice chancellor for academic affairs
Vice president for academic affairs
Vice president of corporate research
Vice president for health sciences center
Vice president & provost
Vice president of research & development

Administrative Constraints. Thirty-three libraries (59%) of fifty-six responding reported they were required to have their accounts audited regularly. Thirty-one (55%) were required to participate in a planning-programming-budgeting system. There were relatively fewer constraints on inventories, acceptance of gifts, disposition of withdrawn materials, and staffing. Forty-six (78%) of fifty-nine respondents were not required by their governing agencies to perform regular inventories of their collections. Forty-seven of fifty-seven (82%) stated that there were no regulations specified by their supervisors regarding acceptance of gifts. Only twenty-one (58%) of thirty-six libraries were given specific methods for the disposition of their withdrawn materials by their governing agencies. And in only eleven special libraries (31%) were professional and support staff members of a

TABLE 5

Regulations Imposed on Library Administration: Budgets, Personnel, Gifts, and Withdrawals *

Questions	Percent of affirmative responses	No. of affirmative responses	Total no. of responses
Does your governing agency require regular audits of your accounts?	59	33	56
Are you required to participate in a PPB system?	53	31	59
Does your governing agency require method of disposition for withdrawn materials?	37	21	57
Does your governing agency require regular inventories of your collection?	22	13	59
Is your support staff on federal or state civil service?	19	11	59
Is your professional staff on federal or state civil service?	19	11	59
Does your governing agency specify regulations on the acceptance of gifts?	18	10	57

*Administrative regulations are arranged in rank order by percent of affirmative answers. Percentages are computed on basis of the number of responses to individual questions rather than total number of respondents.

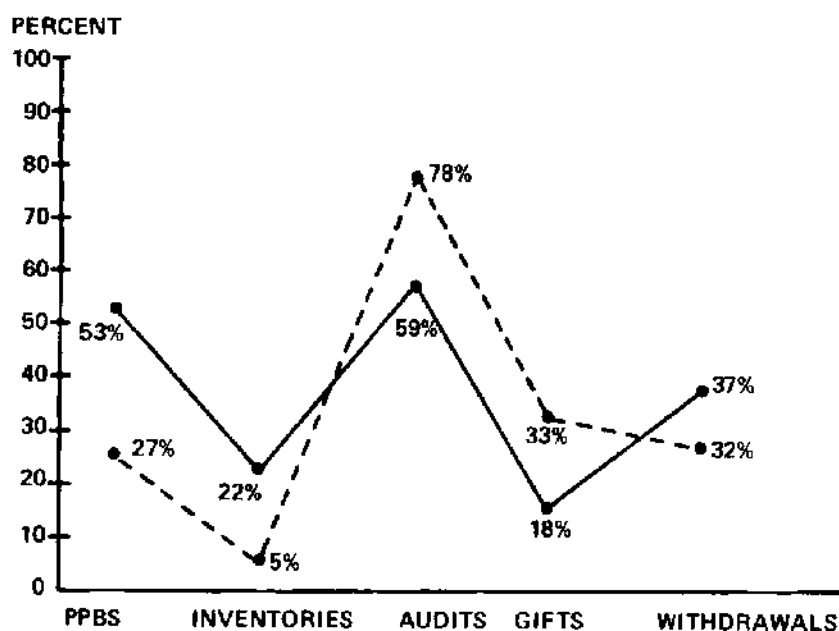


FIGURE 1. Profiles of administrative accountability: (—) special libraries, (- -) research libraries. Administrative controls of special libraries and research libraries are dissimilar except for withdrawals.

state or federal civil service system. Forty-eight (81%) libraries reported that neither their professional nor their support staffs were in any kind of civil service system. See Table 5 and Figure 1 for an analysis of administrative constraints.

Ordering. Forty-six (77%) of sixty respondents order their materials directly from publishers and vendors. In six libraries, orders are handled through a central business office; in four libraries, a processing center handled the orders; and in another four libraries, a state or federal procurement agency handled their orders. Three libraries stated they also used local vendors, a purchasing office, and a jobber, respectively. Thus a few libraries use more than one method of ordering materials.

Changes in Regulations. There were only five libraries that listed significant changes in regulations governing their operations. These responses were: (1) changing the loan period from 2 to 4 weeks; (2) recent adaption of a program budgeting system that was judged "difficult to deal with"; (3) a governing system reported as "unique" because it involved the joint operation of two colleges; (4) ACRL management study on an entire university was reported as being in progress; and (5) charging requestor accounts for copies of materials ordered for their offices rather than charging them to the library's account.

APPENDIX I: CONSORTIA

1. EC Contractor Library
2. Academic Libraries of Brooklyn
3. Capital District Library Council
4. Center for Research Libraries
5. Consortium of Universities of the Washington Metropolitan Area
6. The Greensboro Regional Consortia for Higher Education
7. Higher Education Coordinating Council & St. Louis Theological Consortia
8. Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education
9. Long Island Library Resources Council
10. Pittsburgh Regional Library Center
11. Rockwell International Technical Information Processing System
12. Southwest Academic Libraries Consortia and Council of New Mexico Academic Libraries
13. Texas Information Exchange
14. University Center in Georgia and Southeastern Regional Medical Library
15. University Consortium Center in Grand Rapids
16. West Florida Union List

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State Libraries*: Background

DEFINITION

States provide library service directly, promote service through other agencies, coordinate the various library resources, aid libraries financially, and require service through standards and regulations (1).

In addition to these precepts from the 1963 *Standards*, those of 1970 particularly stress the need for leadership by the state library in the planning and development of statewide services to meet requirements of individual users (2). Sharing resources, chiefly through creating and/or utilizing existing networks, is now implicit in principles of library development. Comprehensive planning for the diverse sectors of librarianship, to include academic, school, and special along with public, has also become a priority charge to the state agencies (2). The importance of the role of the states was underlined by the National Advisory Commission on Libraries when it recommended that five steps were essential preliminary requirements in order to achieve an effective national library system. One of the five was to so strengthen state library agencies that they could soon overcome current deficiencies in fulfilling their functions (3).

* The References and Bibliography for this section begin on pages 491.

OBJECTIVES

To define these functions or goals further, most states have in effect library laws with regulations which provide for the following: (1) development of plans, (2) coordination of library activities, (3) conducting studies of services, (4) provision of expert consultants, (5) establishment of a library clearinghouse, (6) conducting training programs, (7) promotion of library activities and interest, and (8) evaluation of library development in the state (4). The Nelson survey of 1967 reported, however, that no state agencies were in fact able to operate in this ideal fashion (5).

Since LSA in 1956 and LSCA in 1964, state agencies have become responsible for both the disbursement of federal funds to libraries and the continuing evaluation of progress made under such grants. In the 1970s, with federal funds shut off, state libraries have been forced into a new role: competition for a fair share of state revenue-sharing monies. Past practice traditionally allocated federal money to experimental research projects, and state funds to practical and immediate development needs. Obviously, finding a new allocation formula must become a priority item.

HISTORY

The first state libraries can trace their origins to individual colonial collections of law books, and the first users were officials of state governments. Virginia had a small legal library as early as 1661. Other states also claim pre-Revolutionary legal libraries, but officially, state libraries were not organized until after 1800 (6). The subsequent organizational patterns varied but, generally speaking, some state agency, and usually the library, supported legal and historical collections, archives, and a variety of special subjects related to their vested interests. According to a survey conducted in the early 1960s (7), the subject collections of state libraries were more striking in their similarities than in their differences. They seemed to be almost uniformly strong in state documents, legal and historical materials—with stress on local and regional history—and, occasionally, genealogy. This fact reflects conscientious implementation of the standards for library services to state governments (8). Typically, the libraries maintained files of local newspapers; social sciences periodicals were often acquired in depth. The most serious shortages, overall, seemed to occur in science and technology (9).

In the 1920s, responsibilities for library organization divisions and traveling library divisions were added to most state agencies. Promotion of public library development and extension service became standard activities (10).

USERS

Their clientele is a distinguishing feature of state libraries. Official users have been the most important single group. Residential users are also important; demographic parameters are often those of the city or county. The balance of circulation

is usually to individuals and institutions beyond the headquarters area, which are not otherwise served. Most state agencies will at least give reference assistance to any individual who walks in and will loan materials directly to those without other service. The handicapped are also often, by law, a special class of user. Currently, some state libraries provide the largest public collection available directly to users; on the other hand, especially in urban areas, local public libraries have often become the strong service units and the state agency functions as a backup and alternative (11). Practice varies.

TRENDS

Today, few would argue with the mandate of state agencies to lobby vigorously in state legislatures to gain political and financial support for programs which will promote the current national interest in networking. This emphasis on cooperation, the result of severe budgetary constraints on the entire economy, implies a much broader concept of service to users of all types in the future; indeed, it has become the special charge of state systems to bridge any existing communication gaps and to integrate both individual institutions and systems into networks which will transcend geographical boundaries.

Research indicates that good state libraries are not dependent, as one might assume, upon resources of the immediate environment, but rather upon strong and knowledgeable leadership, which is characterized by two traits: bringing innovation and professionalization to library service and effective political activity (4).

These new directions imply an imminent push for implementing legislation. One predicted development is a strong reinforcement of the need for standardization and its concomitant regulations. As state librarians become increasingly political and active, there is no longer a niche for the passive and uninvolved (12). Decentralization will probably become more common as the population grows. Perhaps the most important trend of the future may be that as competition for scarce resources intensifies, society may have to modify its present concepts of equality and assign priority rankings to users' needs, or arrange for tradeoffs in both materials and services (13). Drafting such plans, legislation, and regulations will challenge the most imaginative professional ingenuity.

State and Provincial Libraries: State-of-the-Art

	No. of questionnaires sent	Number of respondents	Percent of respondents
Total population	61	50	82
States alone	49 ^a	46	94
Provinces alone ^b	12	4	33

^a New York State Library was tabulated under ARL.

^b Note that the low response of provincial libraries pulls down the averages, both overall and individually, throughout.

USERS

Qualified Borrowers. Forty-one libraries (82%) reported that borrowers were qualified by their citizenship in a governmental unit. Only two accorded automatic status to members of a firm or organization, only three to students or faculty, and only one to users of other systems or agencies. Thirty-three (66%), however, noted that all libraries in the state, as opposed to individuals, were eligible through ILL arrangements. Other classes of borrowers cited who received direct services included the blind and physically handicapped, all state agency personnel, and all members of the news media.

Information on Policies and Regulations. Twenty-one state libraries (42%) utilized published or printed handbooks, and eighteen (36%) used signs to inform users about their regulations. Tours were conducted by 32% (sixteen) library staffs, usually on request rather than as an established routine. An exception to this rule was a regularly scheduled orientation tour for new state employees. Respondents also wrote in that they depended on published regulations to inform their users about their operations. Five (10%) used the news media. None employed computer-assisted instruction or visual presentation for programmed learning. Several mentioned ILL regulations as a way to inform borrowers of the rules. Several also relied on in-house newsletters and memos to publicize services and regulations.

Information Services. Thirty-one libraries (62%) reported no regulations which curtailed their information services. Legal and medical reference assistance was limited eleven and eight times, respectively, in the sample of fifty respondents; however, this did not constitute a refusal of service but rather a referral to a better source, usually a separate law or medical library. Most state libraries responded to telephone requests for information. Only three did not. Only a few (six) refused to search out answers to quizzes, etc., or to help with class assignments (seven).

User Records. Forty-two libraries (84%) did not release information on the checkout records of users. Two did.

Access to the Collection. (a) *Service Hours.* All respondents indicated that they were open Monday through Friday in the daytime. Only one library scheduled regular evening hours until 8:30 P.M.; however, two reported occasional evening hours, generally until 9 P.M. on 1 or 2 days a week. Eleven (22%) were open Saturdays; of these, two were open mornings only, nine were open all day. Nine were open Sundays. Sometimes evening and weekend hours were offered during the school year only. In summary, state libraries generally observed a typical 8-hour day, 5 days a week, probably the same hours as most other state government agencies.

(b) *Classification.* Forty state libraries (80%) reported exclusive use of the Dewey Decimal System. Nine classed their materials in the LC System. There was some overlap in cases of reclassification. One library reported use of another classification but did not specify which one.

(c) *Periodical Collection.* Thirty-six (72%) of the respondents did not classify their periodicals; ten did. Combinations also occurred; for example, cases where bound volumes were classified but not loose issues.

TABLE 1
State and Provincial Libraries Loan Periods for Monographs (N=50)

Weeks	No. of respondents	Percent of respondents
Loan Periods		
1	1	2
2	7	14
3	7	14
4	26	52
Other	8	16
Renewals		
0	3	6
1	4	8
2	—	—
3	—	—
Unlimited	18	36

(d) Open Stacks. Thirty-four (68%) of the libraries reported open stacks, three of them with conditions: (1) open only to state employees, (2) partially open (this was not explained further, it probably refers to special locked collections), and (3) open except for the state history collection. Three libraries had closed stacks.

CIRCULATION

Monograph Loan Periods. The majority, twenty-six (52%), of state libraries loaned books for 1 month, seven for 3 weeks, and seven more for 2 weeks. One library limited charges to just 1 week. Five allowed unlimited loans or special arrangements which exceeded 4 weeks. Two libraries reported noncirculating collections. One library will duplicate materials for users but will not loan any original copies.

Renewals. Of the twenty-five libraries responding to this question, eighteen permitted unlimited renewals in the sense that materials could be kept until requested. However, four permitted only one renewal and three would not allow even one. For state libraries, a big category of users is institutional, rather than individual; therefore, ILL rules often take over to regulate loans, returns, and renewals. See Table 1 for a summary.

Fines. Thirty-six (72%) of the libraries did not charge fines for overdue materials. Those which did impose fines did so at very nominal costs; one charged 2¢ per day for books; four charged 5¢ a day for all overdue materials (books, serials, phonograph records, etc.). Another indicated that a fine was charged, but the fee structure was not given.

Disposition of Fine Money. Since state libraries apparently only rarely impose fines, only five checked the category which indicated what was done with the

money collected. In three cases the library retained the money; in two it was turned over to another unspecified agency.

Replacements. Twenty-seven (54%) of the respondents charged list price to replace lost books. Twelve (24%) charged list plus a processing fee. One library charged a flat fee for all lost books, and seven libraries marked the "OTHER" category on the questionnaire and wrote in comments, such as the fact that state employees were not fined or charged, presumably in contrast to other classes of borrowers, and that replacement copies rather than cash were often requested from users.

Circulation Statistics. Thirty-eight (76%) of the responding libraries are required to keep statistics on the number of items circulated; eighteen (36%) on the format, i.e., books, serials, etc. Eight kept statistics by subject or classification; others reported keeping figures on juvenile and adult titles, fiction and nonfiction, films, art books, cassettes, and records. One respondent noted that no regulations existed which actually required the figures, but that they were kept as a source of useful information. This is probably widely true.

Automated Systems. Only four state libraries reported automated circulation systems. One noted a partially automated circulation system which operated exclusively for materials for the blind and physically handicapped. Ninety-one percent had manual systems (percentage based on number of respondents to one question, not to total sample).

Security Exits. Only three state libraries reported controlled exits. In two cases the exit was monitored by a human guard; in one by an electronic device. Forty-three (86%) had no checkpoint.

RESOURCES

Acquisition Policy. Thirty-three (66%) state libraries have written acquisitions policies; one or two mentioned that these were out of date. Only four reported having none. Several agencies skipped the question, perhaps for that very reason: a written acquisition policy which actually existed but which was no longer operative.

Comprehensive Collection Development. Twenty-two libraries did not attempt comprehensive subject coverage in any field; twenty-three did. Subjects most commonly collected in depth by sixteen libraries were, as one might expect, local history about, and public documents issued by, the state. Also, three reported collections of library and information science, and one or two cited special subjects of intense local interest, such as gambling in Nevada. Other subject areas included the southwest, public administration, and regional, as opposed to strictly local, history.

Exclusions by Subject. The respondents again were about evenly divided on the question of excluding certain subject areas from their collections. Twenty-four reported no exclusions; twenty-two specified several subjects. Fiction and juvenile literature were topics most frequently excluded. One respondent specifically cited a policy of avoiding duplication with other state agencies. Another mentioned that

one of its chief objectives was to supplement the collections of public libraries; it also attempted to avoid duplication. Another library noted that while current fiction was excluded in the main library, it was included on bookmobiles. Foreign language and foreign publications, law and medicine, genealogy, student texts, literature, art, and music were also cited. One library collected library and information sciences but excluded all other sciences.

Exclusions by Format. Forty libraries (80%) of the state libraries did not have any regulations limiting formats or types of resources acquired. Six reported excluding manuscripts and family histories, phonodiscs (in one instance, as opposed to tapes, which were collected), films, filmstrips, and pictures. One library excluded all nonprint material.

AV Equipment. Of the fifty libraries responding, thirty-six (72%) did acquire and maintain the equipment to support AV materials. Nine did not.

In-house Use. Twenty-three (46%) of state libraries limited circulation of microforms; eighteen (36%), bound volumes of serials; fifteen (30%), loose issues of serials, and four, AV materials. One library reported its entire collection was noncirculating; another, that current issues of serials, as distinguished from loose issues, were restricted. One library had all materials duplicated rather than circulating original copies, as mentioned elsewhere. However, of the forty-six libraries which responded to this particular question, less than half regulated their collections in this manner.

Resources Paged for Users. In sixteen state libraries, users helped themselves to all resources. However, all materials were paged by staff in four, and in one library all monographs were in a closed collection. In twenty libraries, loose issues of serials were paged; in fifteen, bound volumes of periodicals. In thirteen libraries the staff paged microform for users. Four maintained reserve collections. In addition, several reported that patrons must request maps, AV materials, local history, books in storage, newspapers, planning documents, and any fragile materials.

Closed Collections. The majority, thirty (60%), did not maintain locked cases to protect materials from mutilation or theft. Fifteen libraries did have such collections and of those, twelve were devoted to local history. One library had a closed political fringe collection; two segregated their sex books.

Bookstores. Only one library in the sample reported administering a bookstore.

Personal Copies. In five state libraries, users may ask the library to order a personal copy of a book for them, which they subsequently pay for through acquisitions or circulation. Forty-one (82%) did not offer this service.

Center for Research Libraries. Forty of the libraries did not belong to CRL; four did.

Exchange. Twenty-three state libraries did not engage in any exchange programs, but about as many did. Twenty-one of the latter reported that their programs were administered by the library itself; one reported a program directed jointly with the state library association. In no case did another agency run an exchange program for a state library, as a university press, for example, sometimes administers programs for the university library.

Consortia or Systems. Appendix I lists the consortia membership reported by respondents.

INTERLIBRARY LOAN AND REPROGRAPHY

Administrative Location of Interlibrary Loan. A core of thirty libraries (60%) administered ILL from their reference departments. Ten libraries (20%) reported that ILL was a function of circulation: eight more (16%) that it operated as a separate unit. One library reported ILL activities overlapping in all divisions; another located the department only in the "Readers Services Section." One more reported that their ILL function was part of the state-wide reference system.

Codes. Eleven libraries (22%) participated only in ILL regulated by the national code. One observed the international code, fifteen (30%) participated in regional codes, and twenty-three (46%) reported observing codes developed for other jurisdictions, for example, eighteen were in state-wide systems, two in local and city, and two or three cooperated in regional systems or networks.

Delivery Systems. Twenty-two libraries (44%) relied entirely on the mail for their interlibrary loans. However, twenty-one (42%) utilized other types of delivery systems at least part of the time. These systems included courier services of various types (five libraries), United Parcel Service (four libraries), and various kinds of commercial carriers and vans, including Railway Express. One cited a well developed metropolitan library delivery service; another, that individuals, presumably staff members, carried books back and forth as convenient. It was a pleasure to learn that a bookmoboat now sails books to readers in various logging camps in southeast Alaska.

Costs. Thirty-four libraries (68%) reported ILL was offered free to users. Five requested users to pay postage, usually one-way only.

Users' Reprographic Equipment. Fourteen libraries did not offer this service directly to users. However, reprographic equipment was available for patron use in thirty state libraries (60%), and in some cases more than one machine was available. Table 2 lists the kinds of equipment used.

TABLE 2
Reprographic Equipment Available to Users

Type of equipment	No. of libraries using
Xerox	19
3M	6
Olivetti	5
Apeco	2
AB Dick	1
Thermofax	1
Underwood	1

Eighteen libraries charged 5 to 10¢ per copy, four offered the service free to users, three charged 0 to 5¢, and three charged over 10¢.

Staff Reprographic Equipment. Twenty-three libraries had separate reprographic departments which photocopied materials for users. For this use, the type of equipment listed in Table 3 was reported.

TABLE 3
Reprographic Equipment Available to Staff

Type of equipment	No. of libraries using
Xerox	13
Apeco	1
IBM	1
Recordak	1
3M	1

In some instances, libraries had available both equipment that patrons could use for themselves and a separate department which processes requests for them. Occasionally, a library staff member processed a user's request on a public machine. Nine offered the service free, although usually to state employees only, six charged 5 to 10¢ per copy, three charged 0 to 5¢, and three charged over 10¢.

Regulations Restricting Photocopying. Forty-two state libraries (84%) have no other restrictions on materials which may be reproduced than those outlined by fair use standards and federal regulations. Three reported regulations against copying: (1) anything other than library source materials; (2) library materials, presumably of any type; and (3) fragile materials which might be damaged in the process.

ADMINISTRATION

Directors' Reporting Officials: Administrators to whom heads of libraries reported are listed in Table 4.

Administrative Constraints. Administrators of state libraries appeared to work under fairly close financial regulations when compared with other types of libraries. See Table 5 and Figure 1. For example, 86% of the total sample, or 93% of the respondents to the question, were required to have their accounts audited regularly. They also, by about two-thirds (60%), were required to participate in planning-programming-budget systems. Their personnel, the hiring, firing, and almost everything in between, was also closely regulated by government civil service. State libraries had 64% of their associate staff on civil service appointments and almost half (46%) of the librarians. Regulations on accepting gifts were found to be virtually nonexistent (only 4%); however, it is interesting to note that by way of contrast, withdrawal of accessioned material was more subject to controls. About

TABLE 4
Reporting Officials for State Librarians

State Library Commission or Board (including the chairman)	15
Governor	8
Superintendent (or commissioner or director) of the Department of Education	7
State Library Commission and the governor	2
Assistant or deputy state commissioner of schools or education	2
Secretary of Department of Community Affairs and Economic Development	1
Secretary of state	1
State director of institutions	1
Library Executive Board	1
Secretary of Education and Arts Council	1
Minister of cultural affairs	1
Provincial librarian	1
TOTAL RESPONSES	41

a third (34%) of the libraries had such regulations. Some caution in the disposition of public property appears to extend throughout the various sectors of librarianship.

Ordering. Thirty-six state libraries (78%) ordered directly from publishers and vendors. Several—including some of the thirty-six—used other sources, such as

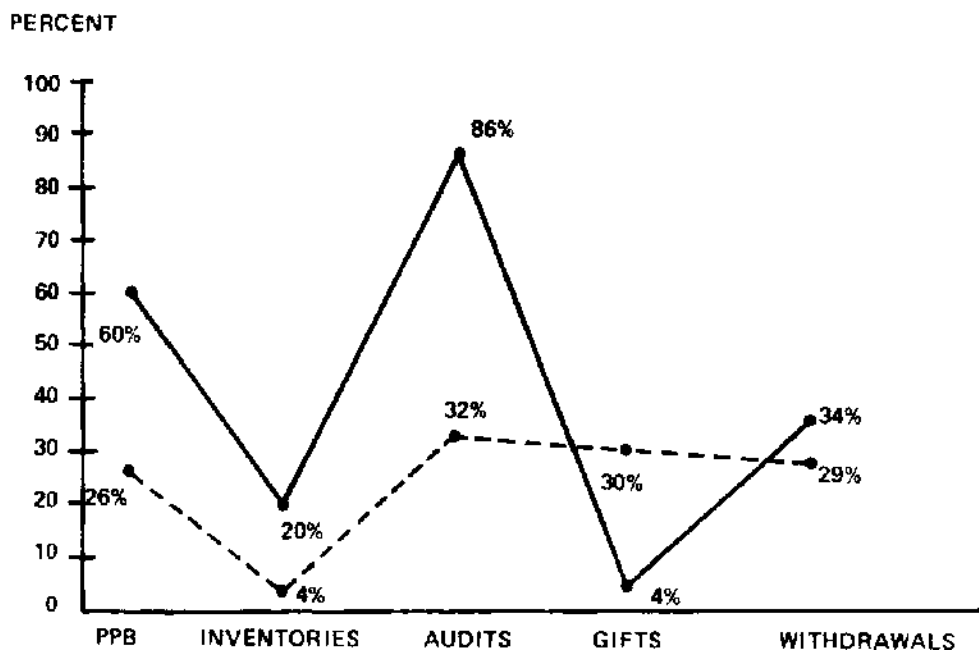


FIGURE 1. Profiles of administrative accountability: (—) state libraries, (- -) research libraries. Constraints on state systems are tighter in all areas except gift policies, and they are especially stringent in audits.

TABLE 5

Regulations Imposed on Library Administration: Budgets, Personnel, Gifts, and Withdrawals^a

Questions	Total no. of respondents (%)	Respondents to each question (%)	No. of affirmative responses	Total no. of respondents
Does your governing agency require regular audits of your accounts?	86	96	43	45
Is your support staff on federal or state civil service?	64	71	32	45
Are you required to participate in a PPB system?	60	79	30	38
Is your professional staff on federal or state civil service?	46	58	23	40
Does your governing agency specify method of disposition for withdrawn materials?	34	38	17	45
Does your governing agency require regular inventories of your collection?	20	22	10	46
Does your governing agency specify regulations on the acceptance of gifts?	4	6	2	36

^aAdministrative regulations are arranged in rank order by percent of affirmative answers. Note that in no instance did all fifty respondents answer a question. Percentages in Column 3 are computed on the basis of the number of answers to individual questions (Column 5) rather than on the total number of respondents ($N = 50$).

state procurement agencies. Three reported that orders were handled through a central business office; processing centers ordered for six others; a state or federal procurement agency placed requests for four more. Three libraries cited the use of jobbers and vendors who had the state contract. It appeared the majority of the agencies had freedom of choice as to source, and also had the responsibility of a financial accounts system in addition to one which kept track of purchase orders outstanding and received.

AV Facilities. Twenty-seven of the chief librarians in state agencies administered AV or media departments. Nineteen did not.

Changes in Regulations. Write-in comments included the facts that: (1) one agency had set up facilities to produce AV materials, as distinguished from purchasing and housing them; (2) one state government will begin to budget next year on a zero base concept; and (3) one agency staff had been cut from fourteen to five employees in the course of the past year.

APPENDIX 1: CONSORTIA

1. Associated College Library Program of Central Pennsylvania (cooperates with six other libraries in use of OCLC, PALINET—Pennsylvania Library Information Network)
2. Denver Bibliographical Center
3. Georgia Library Information Network
4. Kansas Information Circuit
5. Larger Libraries of Maine
6. Midwest State Library Agencies (Indiana)
7. Minnesota Interlibrary Teletype Exchange
8. New England Interstate Library Compact
9. New England Library Board
10. North Country Film Cooperative for Vermont, New Hampshire and Maine
11. North Dakota Network for Knowledge
12. North Dakota–South Dakota Libraries for the Blind and Physically Handicapped
13. OTIS (Oklahoma Teletype Interlibrary System)
14. Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center
15. SLICE
16. SOLINET
17. Southwestern Library Association

Note: Other groups reporting were: (1) thirty-seven government libraries and (2) four state research centers in the New Jersey Library System. One respondent stated that their memberships were too complicated to explain.

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LIBRARY RESEARCH ROUND TABLE

Establishment of the Library Research Round Table (LRRT) was approved by the ALA Council at its 1968 Midwinter Meeting, and at the following Annual Conference in Kansas City the organizational meeting was held. Guy Garrison chaired the meeting which was attended by about 100 people. Provisional officers who served as the first executive committee of the round table were elected; James Krikelas was elected provisional chairman. The following three purposes were adopted:

To contribute toward the extension and improvement of library research.

To provide public program opportunities for describing and criticizing library research projects and for disseminating their findings.

To orient and educate American Library Association members concerning research techniques and their usefulness in obtaining information with which to reach administrative decisions and solve problems.

The first business meeting of the LRRT was held during the 1969 Midwinter Meeting in Washington, D.C. By the 1969 Annual Conference in Atlantic City, the LRRT had 811 members, making it the second largest round table in the ALA.

Any person, library, or other organization that is a member in good standing of the ALA and is interested in research in librarianship is eligible for membership in the LRRT upon payment of annual dues. The officers of the organization are a chairman, vice-chairman/chairman-elect, secretary-treasurer, and three members at large. The officers, the members at large, and the immediate past chairman make up the steering committee for the LRRT. The annual meeting of the LRRT takes place during the Annual Conference of the ALA, and the Steering Committee meets during both the Midwinter Meeting and the Annual Conference of the ALA. The LRRT has four standing committees: information exchange suite, nominating, program, and research development.

The following persons have served as chairman of the LRRT: James Krikelas (provisional chairman) 1968-1970; Michael Harris, 1970; Roger Greer, 1971; Roland Stevens, 1972; F. William Summers, 1973; Edwin Olson, 1974; and Timothy Sineath, 1975. Forrest Carhart served as ALA staff liaison for LRRT 1968-1972, and Barbara Slanker assumed the duties of staff liaison in 1973.

Sponsoring conference programs about library research has been one of the LRRT's major activities. During its first full year, the LRRT jointly sponsored a program with the ALA Library Education Division and the Association of American Library Schools at the Annual Conference in Atlantic City. At the 1970 Annual Conference in Detroit a speech about research, "The Evaluation and Use of Library Research," was delivered by Monroe B. Snyder, Operations Research, Inc. The speech was followed by comments from a reactor panel made up of Ben Ami Lipetz, George Piternick, and James P. Riley. In Dallas at the 1971 Annual Conference, Donald King, president of Westat Research Corporation, spoke on the topic, "Research in Library Science."

A group of three papers on the topic "Is There a Need for a Journal of Library Research?" was presented by Ernest DeProspero, Rutgers University; William McGrath, University of Southwestern Louisiana; Ruth Katz, Rutgers University; and Lee Finks, Emory University, at the 1972 program during the Annual Conference in Chicago. In Las Vegas in 1973, Julian Simon, professor of Economics and Marketing, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, spoke about "Research Methods Applicable to Librarianship." Michael Buckland, Purdue University Libraries, discussed the "Library Management Game" at the program meeting during the 1974 Annual Conference in New York.

In addition to the formal programs presented during the Annual Conference, the LRRT has sponsored an Information Exchange Suite. Begun in 1971 at the Dallas Conference, the suite provides an informal setting for people to meet and discuss research. Also, brief reports of research (proposed, in progress, and completed) are presented and members of the LRRT serve as hosts in the suite.

At the 1974 Midwinter Meeting, the Steering Committee of the LRRT announced the annual competition for two \$400 stipends for the best completed research reports. Reports of research are to be submitted to the LRRT Research Development Committee for judging; the Chairman of the LRRT announces the judges' decisions in mid-May. The winning research reports are to be presented in the Information Exchange Suite at the Annual Conference.

BARBARA O. SLANKER

LIBRARY REVIEW

Library Review, "a popular magazine on libraries and literature," was first published in 1927. Its founder, editor, and proprietor was Robert Duncan Macleod (1885–1973), a Scottish librarian who had begun his career in 1902 as an assistant in the public library of his home town of Greenock. He joined the staff of Glasgow Public Libraries in 1905 and served as a branch librarian there until his appointment in 1915 as librarian in charge of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust's experimental North of Scotland rural library scheme, which he controlled from the basement of the first Carnegie library—in Dunfermline, Carnegie's birthplace. In this position of unique authority Macleod became very conscious of the importance and the potentialities of the county library movement in Great Britain; he read a paper at the Carnegie Trust's original Rural Library Conference of 1920, and in 1923 he published his *County Rural Libraries: Their Policy and Organisation*, which remained for many years the standard manual on the subject. Meantime, in 1921, he had joined the Glasgow booksellers, W. & R. Holmes, as consulting librarian.

This background explains Macleod's aims and objectives in founding *Library Review*. From his familiarity with the developing county library service and his

position as consultant to a firm of booksellers who specialized in supplying libraries and meeting their requirements, he recognized that there was a place for a periodical designed to interest the now ubiquitous part-time voluntary librarians in small towns and villages where hitherto there had been no public library service at all. *Library Review* was launched to serve this audience.

The editorial in the first number makes this clear:

This new magazine . . . will view library work as social educational work of the highest importance and will endeavour to express its spirit and aims to all interested in books and their message. Its concern will be with county libraries, which have some ten thousand centres, and with libraries working in co-operation with them.

The immediate success of the periodical confirmed the shrewdness of Macleod's foresight, and many of the rapidly growing county libraries underwrote his venture by placing bulk orders for two or three dozen copies of his magazine. But Macleod deserved the support he was given; he published many articles of immense value to the library world at large, and he won an enviable reputation for the book reviews he commissioned. From his many distinguished friends, both within and outside the profession, he could unerringly select the appropriate reviewer to give an authoritative judgment of the work in question. Yet as an editor Macleod was not just a "big name" hunter. He was always ready and willing to encourage new and promising talent—it is a policy *Library Review* still maintains—and many librarians who later made their mark in their profession were first given an opportunity, "in their callow days of youth and inexperience," in the pages of *Library Review* (1).

It would be tedious to list even a fraction of the important work published in the *Review* during and since Macleod's 37 years as editor (in itself a notable record), but the calibre of the contributors and reviewers can be indicated by naming a round score: Professor Harry C. Bauer, Dr. Theodore Besterman, James Bridie, Professor David Daiches, Dr. Milton J. Ferguson, Frank M. Gardner, R. B. Cunninghame Graham, Professor Gilbert Highet, Professor Raymond Irwin, Dr. Paul Kaufman, Sir Frederick Kenyon, L. R. McColvin, Hugh MacDiarmid, André Maurois, Lt. Col. J. M. Mitchell, Charles R. Sanderson, Dr. E. A. Savage, W. C. Berwick Sayers, Frank Swinnerton, H. M. Tomlinson.

R. D. Macleod remained editor and proprietor of *Library Review* until March 1964, when he transferred his entire rights in the periodical to the firm of W. & R. Holmes, from which he had just retired. Holmes appointed as editor Macleod's own nominee, Dr. W. R. Aitken, a lecturer in bibliographical studies in the University of Strathclyde's Department of Librarianship with 16 years' experience as chief librarian in three Scottish county library services.

Macleod had retained the periodical's outward appearance and style unchanged throughout his long editorship, and its characteristic blue cover, with the issue's contents-list in black and the title in red, had become familiar to a whole generation of librarians around the world, for it circulated, he was proud to point out, in sixty countries. Under new management no major change was made immediately,

but in 1967, as *Library Review* began its forty-first year, with Volume 21, the format was completely redesigned. The new editor, however, has sought to maintain his predecessor's general policy, which had naturally evolved over the years as the relatively untrained voluntary staff of the early rural libraries had been succeeded by professionally educated librarians with more specialized interests and qualifications. But the *Review* is still described as a quarterly magazine on books and libraries, and its articles and reviews cover "books of general interest" as well as "library publications."

This characteristic mixture explains why the *Review* is indexed and abstracted not only, as one would expect, in *Library Literature* and *Library and Information Science Abstracts*, but also in *Abstracts of English Studies*, *Historical Abstracts*, and the annual bibliographies of English and Scottish literature. Above all, the editor is as jealous as Macleod was of the *Review's* reputation as "one of Britain's only two attempts at worthwhile reviewing" (2). Reviewers are encouraged to treat the books they discuss at the length they deem the book merits—and this policy is appreciated and approved by authors, publishers, reviewers, and readers alike.

In a quarterly it is not as easy as it is in a weekly or monthly to run a correspondence column, but the editor recognizes (as Macleod did) the interest and value of a lively exchange of firmly expressed views and makes room, in his quarterly "Notes and News" and in other ways, for the cut and thrust of debate when a theme emerges.

Two years' issues of *Library Review* (eight numbers) comprise a volume, for which a title page and index are issued with the first issue of the succeeding volume. Volumes 1–20 (1927–1966 inclusive) have been reprinted by the Kraus Thomson Organization; later issues are available from the publisher's office in Glasgow, Scotland.

REFERENCES

1. W. B. Paton, in a tribute to R. D. Macleod on his retirement, *Lib. Rev.*, 19, 479 (1964). See also the obituary of Macleod by W.R.A., *Lib. Rev.*, 24, 99–100 (1973).
2. Roy B. Stokes, "Library Literature," in *Encyclopaedia of Librarianship* (T. Landau, ed.), Bowes and Bowes, London, 1958; 3rd ed., 1966.

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