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"Peace, Like War, Must Be Waged"

Dr. Vannevar Bush's brave words, used as the title of this greeting to members of the Association of College and Reference Libraries, set the pace at which I hope we may work together during 1945-46. Our country and its allies have won our war; the long battle for enduring peace seems hardly to have been joined. Public opinion, if rightly informed and energized, may just barely save the day. And so the call is clear to librarians who collect, keep, organize, dispense, expend, expound the wisdom of the ages to go forward in their work for peace with the same standards of achievement that have been the glory of the armed forces in time of war.

Within this frame of reference, may I suggest three lines of endeavor for our consideration?

First, the creation of a stronger, more productive association. The reorganization of the College and Reference Section, 1936-38, which resulted in the present association, brought together over eight hundred members; in December 1944 the membership numbered 2223. This is a fine rate of growth. If it can be accelerated now, without a time-lag, there is every hope that a membership of five thousand eventually will increase our manpower and our funds, will adequately support our committees in their work, and will bring into being new lines of accomplishment to meet the needs of the times. To this end, each individual member, each head of a reference department, each head librarian, all specialists in educational librarianship, are besought to constitute themselves recruiting officers for the maximum membership in the association.

The learned societies of the United States are bulwarks of its intellectual life, as witness the contributions of groups of scientists to the winning of the war. A.C.R.L. should not "cease from mental fight" until it has an organization as good in its own sphere as the best organizations in other fields.

As one means of the accomplishment of this greatly desired end, on June 23, 1945, the officers and directors, under the leadership of Winifred Ver Nooy as president, made an application to the Executive Board of the A.L.A. for a service which has been requested repeatedly over a period longer than ten years. The application calls for a specialist on the staff of A.L.A. Headquarters who will serve the particular needs of all groups whose collective strength forms the A.C.R.L. Research and information, consultation and advice, promotion and development of reference, research, and educational librarianship, are envisaged as the contributions to be stimulated by such an appointment.

In spite of the sympathy and courtesy with which the case was heard and the making of certain suggestions of possible future developments, the board has not yet notified the A.C.R.L. of affirmative action on its request. The situation is a difficult one, since the A.L.A. has heavy commitments to projects already launched, as well as an imposing list of applications for support of new undertakings. It cannot be denied, however, that there seems to exist some
lack of understanding of the value that would accrue to the achievements and reputation of the whole A.L.A. from the work of a specialist devoted to the scholarly interests that exist in all libraries, functionally, without being confined to any one type of institution. The A.C.R.L. must certainly bear its own share of the blame for failing in the past to press its claims to a point where a final decision was reached and for lacking a unified will to win objectives in which it believes devotedly. Under these circumstances, it is of first importance for the association to decide how it will pursue these aims in the future and in what direction its best development lies. The president for 1945-46 solicits guidance and direction from the membership to advance such understanding throughout the year.

Second, the development of devices for wide distribution of the formative ideas, the discoveries, the innovations that are even at this moment making history in many a library off as well as on the beaten path. I should like to see many more librarians publishing the results of their work, not in essays consisting of general statements based on questionnaires, but as laboratory reports of work in progress. Such reports are familiar mechanisms in other fields of scholarship. To no profession can they possibly be more useful than to one still in the active stage of assembling its source materials.

Our own journal, *College and Research Libraries*, now essential reading for a growing number of us, has succeeded in publishing original material of unusual value. Even judged by so gross a measure as its financial situation, it is a success. Rarely, indeed, have so many owed so much to so few, as its readers have owed to its editors. With a considerably enlarged subscription list, which seems to be in the making, it is not utopian to hope for this journal a growth in size that will accommodate much more laboratory material. Provision of such data when new and useful should then be assumed as a professional obligation by all members of the A.C.R.L.

In addition to formal and informal publications on an increased scale, we need a subject index in a central place (preferably in the office of a specialist at A.L.A. Headquarters) of the undertakings of all libraries in the college and reference field. From such an index a consultant service of real power could be developed for large as well as small libraries. Questions to be answered would have a wide range, as for example, Is there a satisfactory testing device for finding out a freshman's ability to use a college library? What is being done to make displays and exhibits useful in teaching subject material? What applications are being made by teacher-training colleges of such documents as the Yale and Harvard reports on long-term educational planning? How does an institution conduct an architectural competition for a new building so that it is in line with the practices approved by the American Institute of Architects? What are the promising new ideas for library buildings? What should reference libraries be preparing to do in view of pending legislation in support of research on a national scale? Could libraries assume responsibility for carrying on the courses in reading and communication recently given by the Army? Some of this material is hidden away in graduate theses; infinitely much more is discovered and practiced in isolated instances, with no carry-over that is fruitful for librarianship as a whole. To do good and to be willing to communicate is sound scripture and an equally important enterprise to which A.C.R.L. may well dedicate itself.

Third, the stimulation of librarianship as a learned profession, to meet the challenge of the atomic age, whatever that challenge may be. In the past librarians have been timid about calling themselves
educators, so that it came with something of a shock when the New York Times, on Aug. 4, 1945, published an editorial in support of "another large group of teachers . . . the city's librarians." But to anyone whose duty it is to read the bills now before Congress on the promotion of scientific research for the public good, it seems quite possible that as a nation we are moving into a greatly improved understanding of the value of knowledge and research, with their attendant spirits: books, libraries, and librarians. Professor Einstein's comment that even if atomic bombs destroy two-thirds of the human race there will be enough men and enough books left to start over again sheds the light of a great mind on the place of books in the world of tomorrow. How, then, are these books to be served and serviced so that the teaching function of libraries will be developed on a scale to meet opportunities as they come?

Certainly this will not be accomplished by continuing to think in the categories that meant progress thirty years ago. American librarianship has gone through its technological revolution, and great are the blessings that have resulted. Now it seems evident that a new division of labor should be made, as long ago it was made in another great institution of our civilization, the hospital. Obviously, libraries will always need laboratory technicians and attendants, just as hospitals need laboratory technicians and nurses. Quantitatively this will continue to be the larger demand. At some levels it may be the only demand, with the result that professional training for such work should be more rather than less practical, highly energized, and socially conscious.

The instant the real teaching function of a library is emphasized, however, the teacher must know a great deal more than the taught. If he cannot be a man of universal learning in One World swollen with books, he can at least be a thinker whose capacity has been tested by the highest standards of formal education or proved by the quality of his independent research. Within the disciplines of our universities there is ample opportunity for selecting subject fields particularly appropriate to librarianship. Comparative literature, comparative government, public administration, the history of science, the history of art—to mention only a few—could provide congenial specialization for the advanced student who would go also to the school of librarianship for his bibliographical work and for the special slanting of his interest that any profession requires. The members of A.C.R.L. could hardly perform a more statesmanly service to their profession than to initiate investigations that would result in new definitions of librarianship on varying levels of opportunity, responsibility, and reward. As early as 1902 Dr. William Warner Bishop wrote an illuminating paper, "Should the Librarian Be a Bibliophile?" Forty-three years later librarians such as he called for are still rare. Have we not waited long enough to be active in helping to produce them?

About these and many other ideas and plans your new president needs your advice, instruction, admonition, and most of all your help. Will you not write to me, giving me my marching orders?
Academic Status for University Librarians—A New Approach

Academic or faculty status for college and university librarians is one of those issues which persists in reappearing at frequent intervals. The wide diversity of policies now in effect is evidence of the fact that no uniform or standard practice has been evolved, and perhaps the lack of agreement indicates that no ideal solution applicable to all types of educational institutions can be found.

McMillen, Maloy, and Estes have noted some of the varied plans adopted by colleges and universities in the United States. Only the chief librarian is given academic rank in certain institutions; in others, the assistant or associate librarian and, occasionally, department heads are included. Subordinate members of the staff, at least in the universities, are ordinarily not accorded faculty standing.

Substitute arrangements are relatively common. For example, librarians may be classified as administrative employees or they may be assigned ranks "equivalent to," but not actually identical with, those of faculty members—a scheme likely to give the librarians involved a very hazy status indeed. A few universities attempt to meet the problem by setting up the library staff in a separate professional category, on the theory, apparently, that librarians are so unlike any other group in the institution that they do not fit any established classification. Almost any definite plan is preferable to the confused situation prevailing in too many colleges and universities which fail to define suitably the place of librarians in their organizations, letting them fall, usually, in the nebulous region between clerical and teaching staffs.

Each of the types of library staff classifications referred to above, it should be noted, represents a compromise. But, why not go all the way? Are not librarians so completely identified with the college or university's primary program (assuming their jobs are being properly done) that they are entitled to full recognition as an integral part of the academic group? Certainly they are performing functions similar in kind to those carried on by the teaching staff. That point of view has been eloquently presented and defended by Wriston, Bishop, and others. It was on this assumption that a general reorganization of the University of Illinois Library staff recently took place.

A brief historical review is needed for discussion of the events at Illinois, with which the present article is mainly concerned. In 1911 the university library staff was placed under state civil service and, except for a few department heads, remained there for some thirty years. Later, the university was permitted by special

legislation to set up its own civil service system, and librarians were transferred to the new organization. From the point of view of the library staff, numerous disadvantages were encountered in connection with civil service, both state and university. Among major weaknesses of the system—faults inherent to some extent perhaps in all civil service organizations—were the following:

1. The tendency of civil service to restrict recruiting and selection of candidates for library positions, because residence requirements and the method of announcing examinations limit the eligibility of desirable candidates from other states and fail to inform them when examinations are to be given.

2. The difficulty in preparing suitable examinations and requiring appointees or prospective appointees to submit to such examinations.

3. Failure of civil service to promote efficient service, while reducing initiative and ambition.

4. Transfer of many vital aspects of control of the library staff from the library administration to civil service officers.

5. Lack of success of civil service procedure in obtaining qualified library staff members, with no assurance that persons standing high on eligibility lists would be prepared to fill specialized positions.

6. Failure of established civil service regulations to meet standards for vacations and sick leaves widely accepted in the library profession.

Less tangible than the above factors, but nevertheless a fundamental consideration, was a certain stigma felt by the library staff in being classified as civil service workers, for they alone among all university employees primarily engaged in academic activities were singled out for such designation. Research workers, extension workers, high school visitors, student counselors, experiment station workers, and the health service, for example, were grouped with the academic, rather than the nonacademic, staff of the university.

Among relatively minor objections to the system was civil service terminology. Such terms as principal library assistant, senior library assistant, library assistant, and junior library assistant, used to cover a majority of the staff, were virtually meaningless in describing a position or in giving any definite idea of an individual’s functions.

To alleviate some of the most unsatisfactory aspects of civil service, a proposal was made to create a professional library group within the framework of the civil service organization. Such a plan would, of course, have given recognition to special training and duties but would have met none of the principal objections to including librarians under civil services rules and regulations.

When this impasse was reached, a recommendation was submitted to the president and trustees of the university asking that librarians be included in the academic staff, thereby automatically removing them from the classified university civil service. After careful study of all interests affected, the request was approved in June 1944. In order to make the change, certain revisions were required in the university statutes, including a redefinition of academic staff. The new definition reads as follows:

The academic staff which conducts the educational program shall consist of the teaching staff, the research staff, the extension staff, deans, directors of educational departments, high school visitors, librarians, and such other members of the staff as are designated by the president.

It should be pointed out that the change of status for librarians applied to the professional staff only. Clerical members, whose functions are similar to those of other office workers at the University of Illinois, were not affected and continue to be governed by civil service procedures.
Campaign for Change

In coming to the decision to place librarians in an academic category, the university administration was undoubtedly influenced by a long educational campaign. A detailed job analysis was drawn up for every position on the library staff, with a full statement of qualifications and duties. It was found that about twenty librarians had regular teaching responsibilities, including library school lectures, courses in the use of the library, instructional tours of the library, and participation in courses offered by other departments. A considerably larger number, perhaps fifty, were actively engaged in research or directly assisting faculty and graduate research programs. In this group were reference librarians, departmental librarians, bibliographers, and catalogers. Less directly, but just as concretely, a sound case could be made out for the aid given teaching and research by other members of the library staff.

Educational Preparation

Also an influential factor in bringing about reclassification of the librarians was their educational preparation. After all, arguments for academic status have a weak foundation unless librarians can bring to their jobs preparation and training similar or equivalent to that possessed by the teaching faculty. An investigation of the Illinois library staff lent support to the plea for academic recognition. Analysis showed fifty librarians with master's or doctor's degrees in library or special subject fields. Forty-three staff members had one year of professional training beyond college graduation, and most of these assistants were working toward master's degrees. In short, over 50 per cent of the staff had from two to four years of professional training, comparing favorably in this respect to the instructional group. Frequently, especially in the case of departmental and divisional librarians, combination training was required, including not only a library school degree but knowledge of such fields as chemistry, biological sciences, law, agriculture, engineering, education, art, medicine, modern and classical languages, history, social sciences, and journalism.

Questions of Policy

Having achieved long-sought-for academic standing, numerous questions of policy for the library staff remained to be settled. First was the matter of titles. Some difference of opinion existed on this point, but it was finally agreed that academic terminology fits librarians only in part, even though everyone recognized that they are classified logically with the academic group. Accordingly, academic titles, e.g., "instructor," "assistant professor," "associate professor," etc., were assigned only to those having actual teaching responsibilities, a total of twenty individuals. There was left the problem of determining where the remainder of the staff belonged in the academic scheme, for in working out salary scales, making promotions, and in deciding questions of academic privileges, it was advantageous to have all librarians grouped by academic ranks. Provision was therefore made to give rank, but not titles, to approximately ninety staff members. These ranks are shown in contracts, directories, catalogs, and any other sources in which the librarians' names may be listed, thus clearly defining their status.

In addition, having dropped the ambiguous civil service classifications and terminology, all staff members were assigned professional titles descriptive of their positions and grouped in four categories. Following is an outline of the revised classification, showing both academic and library titles:
GROUP I
Library Assistants with the Rank of Assistant
(Includes full-time and part-time assistants in all departments of the library.)

Typical positions:
- Acquisition Assistant
- Exchange Assistant
- Periodical Assistant
- Binding Assistant
- Catalog Assistant
- Circulation Assistant
- Reference Assistant
- Law Library Assistant

GROUP II
Librarians with the Rank of Instructor (title when teaching)
(Includes assistant heads of medium-size departments, heads of departmental divisions, revisers, catalogers, bibliographers, specialists in subject and library science fields, librarians in charge of some college and departmental libraries, and assistant reference librarians.)

Typical positions:
- Bibliographer
- Gift and Exchange Librarian
- Exchange Reviser
- Assistant Binding Librarian
- Catalog Reviser and Serial Reviser
- Assistant Circulation Librarian
- Catalogers and Serial Catalogers
- Extension Loans Librarian
- Reserved Book Room Librarian
- Freshman Reading Room Librarian
- Book Stacks Librarian
- Newspaper Librarian
- Assistant Reference Librarian
- Some college and departmental librarians
- Browsing Room Librarian
- Library Administrative Assistant

GROUP III
Librarians with the Rank of Assistant Professor (title when teaching)
(Includes heads of departments, librarians of large departmental libraries, assistant heads of large departments, senior specialists in bibliography, cataloging, reference, administration, and subject fields.)

Typical positions:
- Circulation Librarian
- Reference Librarians
- Bibliographic Consultant

GROUP IV
Librarians with the Rank and Title of Associate Professor
(Includes assistant university librarians for acquisition, cataloging, public service, personnel.)

For each of the four groups there was drawn up a detailed analysis defining the duties performed, experience needed, and educational and personal qualifications required. These comprehensive descriptions supplement the job analyses prepared for each established position on the staff. In order to lend flexibility to the system, it was provided that stated qualifications may be relaxed to make possible the employment of librarians with specialized training who lack some of the formal requirements.

Along with disposition of these matters, it was undertaken to clarify university policy on salary scales, tenure, promotions and demotions, vacations and holidays, disability and sabbatical leaves, hours of work, and retirement benefits. As finally approved, for these several purposes, the librarians were grouped in some instances with the teaching faculty and in others with administrative officers. For tenure rules, disability leaves, sabbatical leaves, and retirement benefits, librarians receive identical treatment with the teaching staff. Salary scales also correspond to those of similar ranks in the instructional group, with some recognition of the fact that, in the case of persons on the teaching staff, service is required only during the two semesters of the regular academic year, beginning in Sep-

(Continued on page 26)
Punched Card Records in Serials Acquisition

By ALEXANDER MOFFIT

I N M O S T U N I V E R S I T Y L I B R A R I E S the largest item in the book budget is for serials or serials and continuations; yet this is the account about which librarians know the least. Few know the amount of money expended for specific departments, despite the fact that without that information it is impossible to do a thorough job of allocating book funds. It is a common practice to place periodical subscriptions with the periodical subscription agency on an "until forbidden basis," the selection of the agency having been determined by the quality of service given and the discount offered at the time the selection was made. Once a list of subscriptions is placed with an agent, a change is seldom made unless the service given becomes intolerable. This situation exists, not because librarians are uninterested in the best service at the minimum cost, but because of the labor involved in transferring the list to another agent. The same factor—labor cost—deters the librarian from preparing an annual departmental analysis of the account which would help him in the equitable distribution of book funds.

Records essential in the acquisition of serials are the checking record—noting the receipt of successive issues, and the financial record—recording the subscription cost, agent, and expiration date. These records are either combined on a single form or are kept separately.

At the University of Texas Library separate checking and financial records have been and are maintained—the checking record in the form commonly found in libraries, but the financial record on punched cards, also known as tabulating cards. The punched card financial record was selected because of the desire for better control of serials acquisition procedures. Analysis of the account is not difficult since punched cards may be arranged, rearranged, duplicated, and tabulated mechanically. This mechanical facility makes possible the economical and accurate preparation of subscription bidding lists and renewal orders. Before the punched card was adopted for the financial record it was considered for the combined checking and financial record, but rejected, chiefly because of the space necessary to store the checking record dead file.

Three machines—an alphabetic printing punch, a sorter, and a tabulator (technically known as an alphabetic direct subtraction accounting machine)—are the minimum essential for the application described. With more extensive installations, combinations of machines may be substituted for the printing punch, resulting in greater economy of time because of the increased flexibility of procedure and higher operating speed of the specialized machines. For example, use of a sorter equipped with a multiple column selection device makes it possible to select all cards with a specific code in several columns without changing the sequence of the cards in either group.¹

Since total machine time for most libraries will not exceed fifty hours annually, the use of the punched card in serials acquisition is possible only if the necessary equipment is available for library use. In many of the larger colleges and universities applications of the punched card method are found in the registrar's office or the business office, and the equipment will usually be available for use by others.

**Procedure**

Information punched in the tabulating card will vary according to the results wanted. Before determining the code, careful consideration should be given to the utilization of the records to be produced. If unnecessary work is to be avoided, no pertinent information should be omitted in the initial preparation of the cards. For the records prepared in the University of Texas Library the following information is punched on the card:

1. Title. The title is abbreviated to forty-three letters and spaces because of the printing limitations of the tabulator.
2. Expiration date or volume number. The expiration date is preferable if the subscription can be so placed. Expiration date cards can be reproduced automatically for the following year, while volume numbers must be punched manually in the next year's card.
3. Department benefited.
4. Account charged. Departmental or general library account.
5. Source. The dealer employed or other source.
7. Location in the library (periodical reading room, chemistry library, etc.).

After the cards have been punched, they are mechanically arranged in alphabetical order; and, as invoices are paid, subscription costs and binding costs are posted on the cards in handwriting. At the close of the fiscal year the posted costs are punched in each card.

After the cards have once been prepared, they can be automatically reproduced for the next year's record, at a rate of from eighty to one hundred cards per minute.

**Analysis of the Account**

As a brake on departmental enthusiasm, it has been the practice in this library to charge the first three years' subscription costs of a new serial to the book allocation of the department requesting the title. For the same reason the subscription costs of added copies of serials and the subscription costs of continuations are charged, in perpetuity, to the departmental book allocations. In other words, the library's general serials and continuations account assumes responsibility for only one copy of a serial in order to assure a complete file. Additional copies are assumed to serve a specific departmental rather than a general need. The "three-year rule" is assumed to minimize the overloading of library income with dubious subscriptions. A continuation is thought of as an incomplete separate issued in parts. Because it is regarded as a separate the cost is charged to the departmental book allocation.

Prior to the adoption of the punched card record, invoices covering serials and continuations were analyzed and costs charged directly to the departmental accounts. As a rule postings to several accounts were necessary to distribute the costs of titles on a single invoice. Now only the total of the invoice, a charge to the serials and continuation account, is posted in the ledger at the time the invoice is paid. At the end of the fiscal year, after the serials and continuations account has been analyzed, costs are distributed to the departmental accounts and the library's general serials and continuations account. After subscription costs and binding costs have been punched in the cards at the close of the fiscal year, the cards are mechanically
sorted by department and account and then tabulated. From the totals thus obtained an analysis sheet for the serials and continuations account is readily prepared. On the analysis sheet, column 1 shows the cost of subscriptions placed during the year; column 2, the cost of titles received for the second year; column 3, the cost of titles received for the third year; column 4, the cost of added copies and continuations; and column 5, the total of columns 1-4. In column 6 is found the cost of serials of more than three years’ standing, carried on the general serials and continuations account. Column 7, the total of columns 5 and 6, gives the cost of all serials and continuations received by the department.

During the year, as notices of suspensions are received or decisions to cancel are made, the information is punched in the cards. After the first seven columns of the analysis sheet have been completed, but before duplicating the cards for the following year, canceled and suspended titles are removed by the sorter. These cards are tabulated to obtain the cost of discontinued serials and continuations, which is placed in column 8 of the analysis sheet. With these costs known, a more accurate budget can be made for the following year.

**Departmental Lists**

At the beginning of the fiscal year, and prior to the placement of renewal subscriptions, a list of currently received serials and continuations initially acquired at the department’s request is submitted to each department. Subscription cost, binding cost, and expiration are shown for each title listed. Attached to each departmental list is a letter to the departmental chairman asking that he and the faculty of the department examine the list, place orders for any new titles wanted, and suggest cancellation of any serials which are no longer of value to the department. This annual review of serials subscriptions prevents the accumulation of deadwood and offers an occasion for adding hitherto overlooked titles.

**Bidding Lists**

Without punched cards the task of preparing to take bids on periodical subscriptions is a lengthy one. A combination of good records and an accurate worker is necessary. Errors may result in duplication or missed numbers. Consequently, libraries frequently place their periodical subscriptions and renewals with the same agent year after year because of the assumption that any increased discount received would not compensate for the labor cost and inconvenience involved. Employment of punched cards greatly reduces the costs of obtaining bids and, when advantageous, of changing agents. The operations necessary after the cards have been reproduced are similar to those required for producing the departmental lists; the cards are mechanically sorted and the desired information, i.e., title and expiration volume number, is printed by the tabulator. Quotations submitted by agents often give notice of suspensions and other information about titles in the list. After necessary revisions have been made in the cards, the order is printed by the tabulator from the same punched cards.

Additional values are derived from other uses of the basic data on the punched cards. An annual record of all serial and continuation acquisitions, showing the volume, subscription cost, binding cost, source, and departmental assignment for each title, is prepared. Copies of this list in the offices of the library’s administrators are useful in answering many of the questions concerning serials without the necessity of referring to the serials unit for information.

In the University of Texas Library there are twenty branch libraries, special collec-
tions, and reading rooms in which serials are located. To facilitate the use of serials by the clientele an alphabetical location list of all currently received serials and continuations is provided for each circulating unit. To produce the required number of copies, the cards must be put through the tabulator several times, but the cost is not excessive since the listing speed of the tabulator is eighty lines per minute and four or five copies may be made in each run.

Upon occasion it may be useful to know which serials received by the library are published in specified countries or from a given dealer. A printed list of either can be prepared in a few hours time. The utility of this feature was demonstrated by the ease with which lists of serial subscriptions from Germany and German-occupied nations were prepared at the time the Joint Committee on Importations announced its plan for securing serials from those nations. These lists simplified the task of selecting titles to be requested for allotment by the joint committee. More frequently useful are lists arranged by dealer to facilitate the shifting of subscriptions from dealers giving unsatisfactory service or discounts.

Summary

The punched card application which has been described was developed to produce specific results for the needs of the University of Texas Library. Requirements of other libraries will vary, but the flexibility of the punched card method permits an application tailored to individual needs. Assuming that the necessary equipment is available for use by the library, the decision to adopt or not to adopt the punched card as a financial record should be determined by the products wanted. If employed solely as a financial record, the application might not repay the library for the labor entailed in the initial preparation of the record. But if it is also utilized for some of the other purposes mentioned—the analysis of the account, the preparation of bidding lists and renewal orders, and the printing of a union list of serials and continuations—the economies of the punched card are readily apparent. Of equal or greater importance to the librarian is the increased control of the serials and continuations account made possible by the various analyses. With the departmental lists and the advice of the departments concerned, useless titles may be eliminated and desirable titles added. The departmental lists also enable the librarian to distribute serials costs to the departments, if desirable, or to determine the extent to which the departments benefit by expenditures from the general account. The superiority of the method lies in the economy and accuracy with which lists and analyses can be made.
Incidental Duties of the College Librarian

This article originated in a suggestion by the editors of College and Research Libraries. The author, after an unrewarding search of the available literature, decided to fall back on the time-honored device of picking his colleagues' brains and sent fifty-nine letters to representative librarians of college and university libraries asking them to outline their own incidental duties. The assignment evidently struck a responsive chord. Fifty-two librarians replied, some at great length.

Points of View on Incidental Duties—Affirmative

The question will at once be raised (and very properly): "Are any of a librarian's duties 'incidental'?” On this point Willis H. Kerr, director of the Claremont Colleges Library, writes: "Your question is interesting. How incidental are the incidental duties of a college librarian? Far from believing that they interfere with his proper job, I believe the 'incidental' jobs which come his way reveal how far his library is geared into the institution and give him countless strategic opportunities to feel the institutional pulse and to know its innermost economic and academic and research trends, yearnings, beliefs, principles, and achievements (or sometimes the lack of them). I believe they are almost his largest opportunity for applied librarianship and scholarship.” And Charles E. Rush, director of the library of the University of North Carolina, has this to say on the same question: "By glancing backward, I can observe that some of the incidental duties of a librarian are frequently more important in specific results than some of the more basic ones. 'Incidental' seems to me to be the wrong word for jobs which may be more important than casual accidents, possible happenings, mere 'happenstances.' 'Contingent' might be better, if it includes the librarian's constructive performance in these extraoffice duties. I'm thinking of these opportunities which can unlock the door and open the windows of the library, not only for the campus to come in, but also for the librarian to get out. More college librarians shut themselves in than there are those who let themselves out purposefully. You will find lively libraries where the latter is practiced, no matter what the doubting Thomases say concerning loss of professional time. In our line, he who sticks precisely to his last mends few shoes and neglects his own."

A. F. Kuhlman, director, Joint University Libraries, Nashville, Tenn., adds: “I am well aware of what you call incidental duties. I question, however, whether they should be thought of as incidental. Some of these days when we get our relationship properly established with the administrative and executive officers of colleges and universities, and when the teaching functions of the library are better understood by faculties and instructors in our schools, I think that there will be a great many relationships that we will have to maintain that will be considered fundamental.”
Points of View—Negative

It will be observed that the librarians quoted above belong to the school of thought which welcomes incidental duties. There is another school of thought which takes an opposite point of view. Robert Bingham Downs, director of the University of Illinois Library, probably speaks for a number of librarians when he says: "It has always been my policy to avoid numerous tie-ups which do not have a direct relationship to the library because I am convinced that such undertakings interfere with one's regular job and the library is likely to play a secondary role. Of course, I realize that general activities outside the library may give the librarian some interesting contacts and connections which will prove useful to him in the administration of the library. Unless such activities are limited, however, to fundamental committees and faculty groups, the day is likely to be spent on matters which have little or no relation to one's primary responsibilities. After all, there are only so many hours in a day."

This point of view is perhaps representative of the largest university libraries. Keyes D. Metcalf, director, Harvard University Library, comments that: "The larger the institution and the more complicated the administrative problem in which the librarian is involved, the less likely he is to take part in faculty committee work." To which Harold L. Leupp, recently retired librarian, University of California, appends: "At the University of California the librarian is a member of various committees, both faculty and administrative, which have to do with library matters; but that is all. I cannot say that I have found any need for extracurricular activities to occupy my spare time. The administration of the library is enough of a job to occupy one man's time."

Points of View—Resignation

Most librarians probably occupy a middle ground in this dispute and accept the incidental duties that come their way as inescapable. Many will doubtless feel for Hazel E. Armstrong, librarian, Indiana State Teachers College, when she says: "For the most part these incidental duties are pleasant and also inevitable unless one shuts oneself up. But I would like to visit my dentist without coming away with a commission to help with his family tree." Or with Mary S. Buffum, librarian, Texas State College for Women, who writes: "The question is, how can one person find time to do all of these things in addition to the daily routine which must be attended to?"

The Extent of Participation

Even when a librarian is "sold" on the importance of incidental duties, the time actually devoted to such duties may vary widely. The practice of three well-known librarians may be cited. Charles F. Gosnell, former librarian of Queens College, writes: "I have never estimated exactly how much time I spend on these 'incidental duties'; it is probably about 15 per cent. About half, or 7 per cent, is devoted to personnel and budget, and building, and, because it is chiefly in presenting library matters, may not count as 'incidental.' This would leave approximately 8 per cent for other than immediate library business." Ralph Eugene Ellsworth writes of his experience at the University of Colorado: "I would judge that I spent a third of my time on committee work." And G. Flint Purdy, librarian, Wayne University, says: "By way of summary, I believe that I spend something less than half of my time in administering the affairs of the university library, and the majority of the balance in extralibrary university affairs."
Errett Weir McDiarmid, librarian, University of Minnesota, notes that many of these incidental duties may be carried out quite informally outside of "office hours": "Much incidental business is conducted here at our Campus Club where a large portion of our faculty lunch. Committee meetings are frequently held at noon. Informal groups get together at various tables, and in general much university business is transacted there."

A number of librarians call attention to the fact that not only the librarian but the members of his staff are frequently called upon to perform various incidental duties. This is true to a limited extent even in the largest universities, such as Harvard. Iowa State College, Howard University, and the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina may be mentioned as institutions with a high degree of staff participation. Miss Barcus Tichenor, librarian, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind., writes of her institution that: "All of the regular members of the library staff are supposed to attend faculty meetings and have full voting power. Each of us is on at least one faculty committee."

Qualifying Considerations

The extent to which a librarian participates in extralibrary affairs seems to depend upon a number of factors. Some of the most important are: the size of the institution, the type of institution, the personality of the librarian, the history and traditions of the institution. Ermine Stone, librarian, Sarah Lawrence College, comments on some of these factors: "It seems to me that the extracurricular duties that devolve upon the librarian vary according to several conditions, but are principally determined by the type of the institution and by the personal characteristics and skills of the person involved. One acquires assignments because of length of tenure and knowledge of the local situation, even if these assignments are not related to the library. Obviously the librarian who is tactful and a good mingler is going to find himself doing a great many things that would not come his way if he were shy and retiring."

Mr. Rush adds that: "For some reason, age and length of service should be figured in. Seemingly, these outside-of-the-library activities, services, relationships, friendships—all indicative of what the library freely offers—are more important for the librarian whose professional years are few and period of tenure is short. This, of course, is particularly true in any new administration of a slumbering library. On the other hand, a library that for forty years has extended itself into all phases of college life, through the personal and professional services of its librarians, eventually gains a high local reputation which results in the natural inclusion of librarianship in important general activities, thus releasing the present incumbent from those which may seem onerous."

"The last sentence applies to this library. If you seek a perfect example of the importance and effect of campus activities on library progress, check carefully the record of Dr. Wilson at the University of North Carolina from 1901-32, as recorded in my contribution to Louis Round Wilson issued by the University of Chicago Press."

B. Lamar Johnson, dean of instruction and librarian, Stephens College, points out that in an institution like Stephens, where the library is really the center of the teaching process, duties such as committee work, teaching, sponsoring student organizations, and advising individual students, which might elsewhere be thought of as incidental, become fundamental.

What Are the Incidental Duties of a College or University Librarian?

Donald Coney, formerly librarian of the
University of Texas and now of California, writes: "I think you would do well to try to distinguish between duties which are clearly incidental, and those which are nonlibrary but are important to the functioning of the library at a suitably high level in the college or university. In my own case, through membership in the groups responsible for the Institute of Latin-American Studies and the Littlefield Fund for Southern History, it is possible for me to see that funds are sometimes used for the purchase of library materials, and that wherever the library may be involved its interests are taken into account. This latter statement applies, of course, to the activities of any group with which the librarian is associated. I should certainly not be inclined to regard membership in the several committees, such as job classification, etc., as incidental to the work of the librarian. These committees usually are carrying on activities that have clear implications with respect to the library, and the library is fortunate to be represented."

With this advice in mind the author will attempt to list the incidental duties most commonly performed by the librarians of colleges and universities—listing them, under each heading, in what seems to be their order of importance. Any such order is of course debatable. If any particular duty seems to a reader to be either too fundamental or too incidental for inclusion here, the author can only plead that it is actually performed, and is considered incidental, by the practicing librarians who contributed to this symposium.

I. Duties to the Library as a Part of the Institution

Committee Assignments

In most colleges and universities a large part of the administrative function is vested in the various faculty committees. They are particularly concerned with the formulation of policies, with planning, and with supervision. It is worth a great deal to a library to be represented on at least the more important of these "steering committees."

On this topic Charles Harvey Brown, librarian, Iowa State College, writes: "It is, of course, a great help to the library as well as to the college to have members of the library staff represented on college committees. In many cases librarians are valuable on committees because they are not tied up with departments and are free from departmental influences and prejudices. On the other hand, membership is not a right that can be claimed. Members of the staff will naturally gravitate to such committees as their personalities and standings justify."

A number of college and university librarians take a very active part in the administration of their respective institutions, through membership on faculty committees. Three instances will be cited. John Richmond Russell, librarian, University of Rochester, reports: "I serve as secretary to the university library committee. For two years I served as chairman of the university lecture committee. I am now secretary of the university committee on honorary degrees and also a member of the university council, which is the faculty policy-making body for the university as a whole. I am a member of the bookstore committee, which supervises the operations of the university bookstore. This past winter I served on the postwar curriculum com-
committee which is one of the committees set up to study postwar education."

Walter G. Daniel, librarian, Howard University, writes: "Among the responsibilities which I currently share are the following: (1) chairman of the faculty committee on student organizations and activities, which serves as an intermediary group between faculty and students and gives general direction to student matters; (2) chairman of the university forum committee; (3) chairman of the special committee on education and national defense; (4) by virtue of the office of librarian, I serve on the council of deans and administrative officers, university council, committee on public functions, library committee, and the freshman-sophomore advisory board."

And finally, Charles F. Gosnell, formerly librarian, Queens College: "I was a member of the curriculum committee for the first four years of the college and secretary of the committee for one year. I have, from the beginning, been a member of the committee on personnel and budget, which passes on recommendations for appointment and promotion, and on budget. At present I am chairman of the committee on student publications and chairman of the library building committee. I am an elected member of the legislative committee and a delegate to the legislative conference of the city colleges."

Library Committee

The vital importance to the library of representation on this committee is too obvious to require comment. In most institutions, the librarian is a member of the committee as a matter of course. Frequently he is chairman or secretary. If a college or university has, in addition, an auxiliary committee on archives, charged with collecting and preserving the records of the institution, the librarian should be a member of this related committee as well.

Council

Approximately half of the fifty-two librarians contributing to this survey reported representation on the council, board, or cabinet charged with advising the president and with aiding him in the tasks of policy-making and general administration. Necessarily, the decisions arrived at in such a council affect the work of the library at many points. If membership on the library committee is of first importance to the library, it is almost equally important that the library be represented on the administrative council. Further, if the librarian is to be recognized as an administrative official, with a rank comparable to that of a dean, he should have the opportunity and the responsibility of participating in the deliberations of the executive council. Membership on other committees concerned with general administration can pay large dividends to the library, particularly in the case of those having to do with personnel and budget.

Instruction and Research

Another committee whose work closely affects the library is that of the committee on curriculum. To quote Earl Gregg Swem, formerly librarian of the College of William and Mary: "The college librarian should be an active member or an associate member of the curriculum committee of the college faculty. Otherwise, he will discover that new courses have been presented in the catalog on most unusual subjects with hardly a book on the subject in the library." Lois E. Engleman, former librarian, Colby Junior College, adds: "A most stimulating experience is that of serving on the faculty committee on curriculum and instruction. I found activities and discussion of this committee of great value in directing the development of the book and periodical collections to meet the needs of new courses, in altering systems of
reserves to solve definite instructional problems, and in determining policies of purchasing duplicate copies of background titles of survey courses."

It is also an advantage to the library to be represented on any committee having to do with research. As already pointed out by Mr. Coney, these committees frequently have at their disposal funds which may be expended for the purchase of library materials, and the librarian, with no departmental axe to grind, has a great deal to contribute as impartial arbiter. In a number of instances librarians serve as chairmen of these research committees.

**Publications**

In many institutions the librarian is a member of the publications or university press committee. Mr. Swem writes with regard to this matter: "The librarian should be on the publications committee of the college in order to guide wayward faculty and administrative editors in maintaining consistent series titles. The librarian should have some connection also with the mailing and distribution of all publications of the college. As a member of such a committee he should use his influence toward one central mailing office of distribution. This affects the library very closely on account of exchanges."

The right sort of librarian, as a man of wide interests, with some training and experience as bibliographer, editor, and publicist, has much to contribute to a committee concerned with university publications, and it is of considerable value to the library that it be fully informed in this field. If the library sponsors publications of its own, membership on this committee assumes added importance.

**Minor Committee Assignments**

The committees already named are probably the most important ones from the point of view of the library. But there are a number of others whose work affects the library in varying degrees. Several instances will be given, with no attempt at any particular order.

At Mount Holyoke, Flora Belle Ludington was chairman of the Central Fund Raising Committee. This committee is made up of trustees, alumnae, and administrative officers. It discusses and approves projects for which funds are being sought but does not have the responsibility for the actual soliciting of funds.

Many librarians report membership on a special lectures, public affairs, or auditorium events committee. Such membership, reports Mr. Swem, makes it possible for the librarian "to know what lectures are to come and what displays of books should be prepared."

In a number of instances, where the librarian serves on the university press committee, he is also a member of the committee which supervises the university bookstore. There is a fairly obvious relationship between the library and the bookstore as common purveyors to the university public. The library may employ the bookstore as its purchasing agent. Whether or not this is the case, the manager of the bookstore will be a useful source of information concerning discounts and the book trade in general. And certainly the librarian will be concerned that students acquire the habit of owning books.

At the Georgia School of Technology, the librarian, Mrs. James Henley Crosland, is a member of the committee on instructions for the preparation of master's theses. At William and Mary the librarian performs a similar function, and Mr. Swem says: "I believe that the college librarian should be on the degree committee for masters and doctors and be present at oral examinations; he should have a few questions to propose to candidates to see whether they have the least idea of current trade
bibliographies and of some of the great bibliographical projects of the last fifty years. If this were done regularly we would have fewer doctors innocent of bibliographical attainment outside of their own department.”

At a number of institutions the library, for obvious reasons, is represented on the postwar planning committee. In other instances the library’s interest in radio and in audio-visual programs is recognized. Membership on the college building committee is occasionally reported.

“This tabulation of committee assignments does not pretend to be definitive. There are many other committees to which librarians may and do belong. But of those reported to the compiler, the balance either fall under categories already mentioned, or they seem to lack a connection with the duties of a librarian, whatever they may contribute in the way of personal rewards.

Faculty Relations

Few will deny that, for full success, the librarian of a college or university must have the respect and support of his faculty colleagues. A librarian who holds himself aloof, takes no part in faculty activities, and makes few friends, will have a hard row to hoe and a lonely one. The centrality of the librarian’s position in an institution makes the matter one of especial importance. He should be widely and favorably known to his fellows and familiar with their needs and interests, if he is to serve them adequately and win their cooperation.

The efficient performance of one’s duties, evidence of scholarship, and a wide knowledge of books will win respect in any situation. In a small institution friendliness, an interest in one’s fellow man, and a willingness to serve will do the rest.

In a large university, with a teaching staff numbering hundreds, the problem is more difficult. Many worth-while relationships will come about through the performance of one’s daily chores, others will be established in committee rooms and in one’s off-the-campus social life; but the process of “winning friends and influencing people” will be accelerated if the librarian becomes a member of the faculty club and other similar organizations and takes an active part in their work. Many librarians report service as members and as officers of faculty clubs and groups.

Student Relations

In the smaller colleges and universities the librarian has many opportunities within the library itself for direct contact with individual students and with student groups. In the larger universities the burden of administrative work interferes and this opportunity passes largely to the subordinate members of the staff.

Contact with student groups and with individual students may take other, extra-library forms. The librarian may serve on the student activities committee, or on other faculty boards and committees having to do with student affairs. He may act as adviser to student publications. He may concern himself with other student activities, such as debating. He may function as sponsor and counselor of student clubs and, finally, he may share with the faculty the task of advising individual students.

It is a moot question how far a librarian can and should go in this direction. A good deal may be done even in a large institution if the library staff as a whole shares the burden and the opportunity. At Harvard, for example, Mr. Metcalf writes that members of his staff have, from time to time, served as student advisers.

With regard to the advising of individual students William Ditto Lewis, librarian, University of Delaware, writes: “In an institution where the librarian is not desig-
nated as student adviser, he has a certain
edge on his ‘designated’ colleagues. His
interdepartmental status gives, or can give,
him the advantage of steering an occasional
student into fields in which said student
has felt little or no interest and occasionally
into fields not represented in the curriculum
at all. In a university where there is little
nonacademic contact between student and
faculty, the eccentricity of the librarian’s
position gives him an occasional opportunity
to function as guide, counselor, and friend.
The librarian with better mixing qualities
could develop them far more and ought
to extend this to the faculty as well as
to students, and he might eventually do
much toward breaking down the unfor-
tunate philosophy behind student-faculty
reticence.”

More than one librarian has found that
work with some particular student group
was well worth the time and effort ex-
pended. Wallace Van Jackson, librarian,
Atlanta University, writes of his incidental
duties while librarian of Virginia Union
University: “Of all these duties at Vir-
ginia Union, the task of debate coach was
the most stimulating and helpful. Students
put something into extracurricular activities
which they withhold from regular class
work. The opportunity to work with those
young men and young women made me a
better library administrator and certainly
showed me much about student needs in
books and teaching materials. Throughout
my library experience I have been counselor
to individual students, especially in matters
of vocational choice, but the work with the
debate and literary group was much richer.
As a result of work with these young per-
sons I have received the thrill that comes to
teachers when a student accomplishes some-
ingthing after leaving school.”

Training and Teaching

The last quotation introduces us indirect-
ly to yet another category of peripheral
duties. For convenience they may be
grouped as follows: instruction in the use
of the library, training of apprentices and
student assistants, the teaching of courses in
library science, the counseling of prospec-
tive librarians, and speaking before campus
groups on topics relating to books and
libraries. Probably every librarian does
something along these lines, more or less
formally, and to greater or less degree.
The training of potential members of
the library staff through apprentice classes
has diminished in importance with the rise
of library schools, but has by no means
passed out of the picture. Mr. Jackson is
worth quoting again on this topic: “A task
which was not so ‘incidental’ was the train-
ing of apprentices for our library at Vir-
ginia Union. I probably came closer to
shaping the lives of these students than
at any other time. This was in the pioneer
days of Negro school libraries, and mem-
bers of our apprentice class became the
first full-time school librarians in Virginia.
Three or four went to library school and
became college librarians. One succeeded
me as acting librarian of Virginia Union.”

Miscellany

Anyone who attempts to draw up a
classification of the manifold duties of li-
brarians will probably find that he has left
over a number of items which refuse to fit
into his pigeonholes.

For example James A. McMillen, for-
merly director of libraries at Louisiana
State University, stated: “Not the least
important incidental duty is to show indi-
viduals through your library and give them
a fair idea of just what you are about.
This is especially important when it comes
to showing delegates to important educa-
tional conferences through ‘your shop.’
This adds to goodwill and leaves a proper
flavor to their memory of their trip. Occa-

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sional investigators must be given special attention and not be allowed to leave with unsatisfied curiosity about your library.”

Mr. Swem writes of William and Mary: “On account of the age of the college, its connection with American early history, and being in Williamsburg, the college library and its staff have been called on for rather unusual duties. I have developed the library to meet these demands. I may add that this work has brought many friends and gifts.”

Harriet Dorothea McPherson, librarian, Smith College, reports a number of unusual duties made necessary by the out-of-the-ordinary character of the library building, with its very large number of faculty offices and seminar rooms, its chapel, and its faculty tea room.

In the above listing the compiler has omitted many items reported to him. Those omitted include membership on committees having no apparent connection with the library, the teaching of other than library science courses, editorial duties in connection with particular journals, membership in various learned societies, the holding of such offices as registrar, dean of women, director of extension activities, or college marshall, activities in connection with commencement, dormitory duties, the coaching of athletic teams, and varied responsibilities having to do with the college museum, art gallery, or musical society.

Any one of the above activities may be defended as valuable and necessary in a given situation, but for the purposes of this article they seem to lie too far afield to merit classification among the duties of a librarian.

II. Duties to the Community

Library service to a municipality is usually thought of as the prerogative of the public library, but all college and university libraries probably serve at least a few individuals in the community who have no connection with their institution, particularly in the smaller college towns where the public library is not equipped to meet the demands of special students.

This is a particular problem of Negro colleges and universities in Southern towns where service to Negroes may not be available from the public library. LeMoyne College, Memphis, and Wilberforce University, Wilberforce, Ohio, may be taken as representative. Francis W. Allen, former librarian of LeMoyne College, writes that: “Our largest item outside regular college library functions consists of building up library service for the community. As you know, library coverage for Negroes in the South is not too good. LeMoyne is attempting to do something about that in our own area, particularly our own immediate community in South Memphis. We have at present established three subsidiary libraries: one, a children’s library in our own building; second, a school library in a neighboring private elementary school; and, third, a community library in a socially-conscious Negro church.” At Wilberforce, the librarian, Mollie E. Dunlap, reports that the library staff administers a branch of the county library which is housed in the university library building.

“Acting as advisor to collectors of local literature,” “answering requests from the technical book department of a large department store for advice on technical books,” “serving as general consultant on library matters to the community,” are some of the other ways in which a college librarian may serve the community at large.

Hazel E. Armstrong, librarian, Indiana
State Teachers College, tells us that a college librarian must be prepared to "give advice on books as gifts and where and how to purchase, to anyone at any time, even on street corners, buses, etc.; carry back to the library from lunch, a shopping expedition, or any casual meeting all kinds of suggestions and requests; and listen to sometimes endless conversations of patrons about books and book reviews."

Several university librarians report active membership in community social and cultural clubs as among their incidental duties. This activity is reminiscent of the public library field, where it is, of course, carried to much greater lengths. One college librarian, formerly in public library work, reports resigning from more than twenty civic and educational organizations on leaving his last post.

III. Duties to One's Profession

Most librarians, in whatever type of work they are engaged, would probably admit as being among their duties the various activities designed to forward the profession of librarianship and the interests of libraries in general. Active participation in local, state, and national library organizations, contributions to professional literature, the presenting of library interests before government bodies and educational associations, aiding in library projects of more than local significance, "advice to newcomers in the field," cooperating with other libraries, are some of the forms which service to one's profession may take.

Every librarian can make a contribution in this field according to his abilities and opportunities. Some librarians carry a very heavy load. In extreme cases there is danger that ambition or overzealousness may lead a librarian to devote too much time to these activities, to the neglect of his primary responsibility. The average librarian, however, is far more likely to go to the other extreme and, in an undue concentration on his immediate problems, neglect this opportunity for wider service.

Summary

The consensus would seem to be that the librarian of a college or university, apart from his "regular duties," will profit through membership on those committees whose proceedings affect the library most closely—chiefly, the library committee itself, the executive council, the curriculum committee, and the committee on publications. He will be well advised to do all he can to establish cordial relations with his faculty colleagues. Anything that he or his staff can achieve toward a wider acquaintance with student needs and interests should prove worth while. He will hardly escape some duties connected with training and teaching. He may be called upon to give a measure of service to the community outside the walls, and he should join his fellows in furthering the profession he represents.

This is a formidable list, a list well calculated to appal the stoutest-hearted beginner; but the experienced librarian knows that many things come to be taken in one's stride which once seemed impossible of accomplishment. Certainly such a list should demonstrate to the skeptical how varied and interesting our calling can be. Each librarian must decide for himself which activities will pay the greatest dividends in his particular situation, how far he can go in any given direction in justice to his other responsibilities, and concentrate his time and energy accordingly, sharing his duties with the staff wherever possible.
Soviet Library of Historical Research

The Soviet Library of Historical Research was founded in Moscow in 1938. Similar libraries have been established in several of the U.S.S.R. republics. On the shelves of this library, which contains one and a half million volumes in all the principal languages of the world, are editions of historical works issued in the United States, Great Britain, France, and other countries, from the rise of printing to the present day. Particularly well represented are books on the history of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. A large number of rare and unique editions of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries are preserved in the library's storeroom.

By a special decree of the government, the Library of Historical Research is provided gratis with one copy of every book published in the U.S.S.R., but it also receives from abroad a considerable part of its historic and bibliographic materials. It has established a regular exchange of books with many libraries and institutions of learning in the United States, England, China, and other countries. Neither before nor during the war, however, has it suffered from lack of funds for its numerous subscriptions. One of its recent acquisitions is a large private collection of the admirable Elzevir editions published in Amsterdam at the end of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth centuries.

There are four spacious reading rooms at the library, each serving its own purpose—the general reading room, a special reading room for historical research, the U.S.S.R. history reading room, and a separate world history hall. There is also a room for Oriental history and a branch library for secondary school pupils.

During the brief period of its existence, the Library of Historical Research has served nearly a million and a half readers, to whom over four million books were issued. Ever since its inception, the number of readers has been constantly growing. In the current year attendance as well as the number of books drawn have reached the prewar level. In 1940 the library served 309,717 persons with 1,018,990 books. In eight months of 1944, 824,803 books were given out to 247,267 readers.

The library is frequented by historians, college teachers, postgraduates, and students. There also are a large number of writers, journalists, theatre and film people, artists, and architects among the regular clients. The library staff has maintained a regular contact with readers in the ranks of the Red Army.

Not for a single day did the library cease work during the war. It was open even in the stern days when the Nazi hordes, having reached Moscow's gates, threatened to seize the capital.

Much of the work of the library's staff is devoted to the compilation of bibliographies of U.S.S.R. and world history. Several copious bibliographic works in the field of history appeared in Russia before the revolution of 1917. Most important among these are Historical Research of Russian Periodicals and Anthologies Issued in 1703-1802 by A. N. Neustroev; V. I. Mezhov's Bibliography of Russian History 1800-1854 in three volumes; ten volumes of Bibliography of Works of Russian History.
by P. and B. Lambin; and A Guidebook to Russian Historical Literature (1865-1876) by V. I. Mezhov, in eight volumes. These books cover Russian historical literature from the beginning of printing in Russia up to 1876; that is, a period of 175 years, and include some two hundred thousand works. Today the compilation of bibliographies of historical literature is regarded as an affair of national importance. In a comparatively brief period of time, the library staff listed ninety thousand editions. However, there is still a great deal of bibliographical work ahead for the historical works published after 1873 and particularly during the years following the revolution.

Historical Literature, a bulletin issued by the Library of Historical Research, plays an important role in popularizing books on Russian and world history in the U.S.S.R. The bulletin contains information on all new works on history published in the U.S.S.R. and abroad, and is a valuable guide to the ever-growing number of students in the Soviet Union.

Another phase of the library’s activities is the compilation of indexes on various fields of historical research and major historical problems. At present, for example, the staff is working on indexes of historical literature on the Patriotic War of 1812, on the history of the Middle Ages, and on the first volume of the history of the U.S.S.R., which covers books down to the twentieth century. A guide to bibliographies on Russian historical works was compiled recently. Work on a bibliographic index of Russian history books for secondary school teachers is now nearing completion. Simultaneously the library’s staff is engaged in compiling a guide to literature on the history of the Slav people and historical works dealing with the Great Patriotic War against the German invaders. A voluminous guidebook to the books on the history of Moscow will be issued in 1947 on the occasion of the eight hundredth anniversary of the founding of Moscow.

The reference department supplies written and oral information to state and public institutions, as well as to individual readers desiring historical data.

At the beginning of the recent war the library set up two branches—one in an Army hospital and the other in the Kurskaya station of the Moscow underground. It was in the perilous days of November 1941, when the enemy threatened Moscow, that the branch in the underground station was opened. This, whose chief purpose it was to supply books to Moscovites taking cover from Nazi bombs, was a great success. Apart from issuing books, the librarians arranged lectures and talks and conducted discussions. The librarians also provided reading matter for the children.

Opened in December 1941, the hospital branch of the library exists to this day. Convalescent men and officers are always asking for more materials on history. Readings and book discussions are organized for the patients. In their letters to the library, the soldier-patients express their gratitude to the staff for the large number of interesting books placed at their disposal.

Another branch has been set up by the library to supply books to secondary school pupils. With a daily attendance of from four to five hundred school children, it is extremely popular and is a great aid to the study of history in the schools. The branch recommends books, supplies historical data, arranges exhibits, and organizes historical essay competitions.

The activities of the Library of Historical Research are not confined to Moscow alone. Through an exchange system among Soviet libraries, history lovers and scholars of history living in the most remote parts of the Soviet Union may receive books from

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it through their local libraries.

When the enemy was approaching Moscow, the library's staff, helped by the citizens of Moscow, took all possible steps to preserve the collections. By then the most precious editions already had been transported to the interior of the country. A good part of the books, however, remained in the capital. During the enemy's raids, library workers took up posts on the roof and attics of the library to extinguish incendiaries dropped by Nazi bombers. Recently thirty-eight members of the library's staff were awarded the For Defence of Moscow medal for their gallant services in those perilous days.

Today the Soviet people are happy in the knowledge that their great efforts and sacrifices were not in vain. The personnel of the Library of Historical Research, along with the libraries all over the Soviet Union, derive inspiration from the fact that their labor is highly valued by the government both in war and peace. Additional proof of this is the considerable rise in salaries recently granted to all library workers, despite the great demands made by the war on the country's budget.

Academic Status for University Librarians

(Continued from page 9)

October and ending in June, while librarians are on twelve-month appointments. For hours of work, vacations, and holidays, librarians are grouped with general administrative officers. This means a work week of thirty-nine hours, an annual vacation of one month, and all holidays observed by the university. Incidentally, analogous provisions govern the university's nonteaching research staff in various departments.

Summary

In summary, it is the conclusion of those who have given long study to library staff problems at the University of Illinois, first, that professional librarians, by the nature of their functions, definitely belong in the instructional and research group; second, by comparative standards of education and preparation, they qualify for inclusion with the teaching staff; and, third, there are numerous tangible and intangible advantages for librarians in holding an academic classification. With reference to the last point, the factor of staff morale is of primary significance. One can expect the best results from any organization only if its place is clearly understood and appreciated. The improved status of librarians at Illinois is certain to play a major part, as time goes on, in the development of a library staff with a high sense of professional pride and responsibility, conscious of the importance of its work, and receiving proper compensation and recognition for its contribution to the institution.
By MARIE TREMAINE

Canadian-American Relations in Colonial Printing

In Canadian-American relations, one fact stands out which helps us to understand each other. It is much more significant than the notoriously undefended frontier. It is the number of people living in Canada with American background, and the number in the United States of Canadian origin and upbringing.

This "mingling of the Canadian and American peoples," as Marcus L. Hansen and J. Bartlet Brebner so aptly term it,\(^1\) has been characteristic of this continent since the eighteenth century. That century, the latter half a revolutionary epoch in so many ways like our own time, was different from the twentieth in that the Canadian-American frontier was the scene of sporadic conflict. Nevertheless, settlers moved across that frontier in both directions. About the middle of the century the Maritime Provinces changed from nominal to actual British control, and a decade later French Canada became a British colony. Colonials from New England, and from farther south and west, came north to trade, sometimes to settle, occasionally to fight. The northern settlers found their way down the seaboard, inland waterways, and trails. This mingling of Canadian and American peoples resulted in a mixing of their cultural resources from the earliest days.

A recent attempt to record early Canadian imprints revealed a surprising number south of the undefended frontier. Printing offices were established in the eastern five provinces of Canada in the latter half of the eighteenth century: in Nova Scotia at Halifax in 1751; in Quebec at Quebec City in 1764 and Montreal in 1775; in New Brunswick at Saint John in 1783; in Prince Edward Island at Charlottetown in 1787; and in Ontario at Newark (near Niagara) in 1793 and at York, now Toronto, 1798. Products of these early presses passed from Nova Scotians and Quebecois to relatives, fellow officials, and professional and business associates, through New England, New York, Pennsylvania, etc. In these older settlements the precarious pioneer era passed earlier, living conditions became stable, society matured and prospered, and cultural institutions developed sooner than in the newer, rather meager, and isolated settlements in the Canadian provinces. So a fair proportion of early Canadian publications which went south survived, while a much greater proportion of the larger number which remained in Canada perished in hands more concerned with the bare necessities for sustaining life.

Of approximately a thousand Canadian imprints recorded for the eighteenth century, perhaps a third of the copies extant are in American libraries. Some of these are relatively recent purchases from Canadian or British dealers. But a large number show evidence of long American custody; for example, the only known copy of one of the earliest Halifax imprints, a

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Price Current of the firm Nathans and Hart, 1752, is in the Massachusetts Historical Society. A typical case is that of a more common piece, *A Sermon Preached at Halifax July 3d 1770 at the Ordination of the Rev. Bruin Romcas Comingoe* . . . by John Seccombe, Halifax, A Henry, 1770. Of eleven copies located so far, five are in Canada and six in the United States—the copy in the John Carter Brown Library having copious manuscript notes written about 1772. Of six fairly good files of the New Brunswick sessions laws (beginning 1786) two are in Canada, one in England, and three in eastern American libraries—and this is typical of Canadian government serials of the period. Most early Canadian newspapers had brief lives, and runs are scattered (excepting the long-lived Quebec Gazette with its practically complete file from 1764 in the Public Archives, Ottawa). If we tried to microfilm the succession of Gazettes produced in Halifax from 1752, we should have to mix runs and issues from the Massachusetts Historical Society, Nova Scotia Legislative Library, New York Public Library, American Antiquarian Society, Nova Scotia Archives, and Dalhousie University. The Catalogue of English and French Books in the Quebec Library, Quebec, 1792, printed in an edition of one hundred, survives in two known copies, of which one is in the Bibliothèque Saint Sulpice, Montreal, the other in the Baker Memorial Library, Dartmouth College—a clean copy, stitched in original marble-paper cover, has its fly-leaf inscribed: “Presented to Dartmouth College Library by John Cozens Ogden, a Presbyter of the Episcopal Church, D. College Library, 1792.”

The catalogs of the Quebec library, and indeed the collection itself, are excellent research material for one investigating contemporary opinion. This library, the first in Canada, was a subscription library instituted by Governor Haldimand, who wrote from Quebec, Mar. 2, 1779: “The ignorance of the natives of this colony having been in my apprehension the principal cause of their misbehaviour, and attachment to interests evidently injurious to themselves, I have sought to encourage a subscription for a public Library, which more are come into than would have been first expected. A pretty good sum has already been raised and I hope . . . [the library] will tend to promote a more perfect coalition of interests between the old and new [i.e., English and French] subjects of the Crown than has hitherto subsisted.”

The Quebec library developed and continued to function till the midnineteenth century. Its stock was taken over by, and is now housed in, the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec. Two of its early catalogs are described by Aegidius Fauteux in “Les Bibliothèques Canadiennes et Leur Histoire II” in Revue Canadienne 1916, v. 17, p. 199, et seq.

A significant factor in the dissemination of early Canadian publications was the antecedents of their printers. Many of these were of American origin or training. Of the fourteen printing offices opened in Canadian settlements in the eighteenth century, eight were established by printers from the American colonies. Besides these pioneers who founded and maintained the offices, came other printers and journeymen in search of work or adventure, while others arrived as refugees from the American Revolution. A few came earlier, and many later, in the waves of migrants seeking new opportunity or escaping economic pressure in older settlements. Some of these moved back to American towns; others stayed. In either case family and business connections were maintained both ways across the border.

*Canada Public Archives, Haldimand papers, B66: 107.*
The first was Bartholomew Green, a Boston printer. He was grandson of the Samuel Green who was Stephen Daye’s apprentice and successor in the first American press at Cambridge, Mass. When the British government began a systematic settlement in Nova Scotia as a base against the French, Green arrived in Halifax in the fall of 1751 in the van of a long procession of migrants who made Nova Scotia for a time “New England’s Outpost.”3 When Green died soon after his arrival, his former Boston partner, John Bushell, came and actually started the printing office. He printed the *Halifax Gazette* (v. I, no. I, Mar. 25, 1752), proclamations, laws, etc., for the government. Of his nine years’ work (he died in January 1761) but twenty-two publications are known today. Bushell’s son and daughter both learned printing. Characteristic of families at that time, the latter remained in Halifax, while the son served apprenticeship with Daniel Fowle at Portsmouth and then moved to Philadelphia.

After the British conquest of French Canada, another stream of settlers from the older English colonies began to trickle north. Fewer in number than the earlier eastern migrants, they were, in the main, merchants and fur traders. Among them were William Brown4 and Thomas Gilmore, printers from Philadelphia. Financed by William Dunlap, in whose shop Brown had learned the trade, they set up the second printing office in Canada, producing the *Quebec Gazette* from v. I, no. I, June 21, 1764.

Brown had little influence in Canadian printing and died in 1773, but Brown’s shop in Quebec became the principal printing and bookselling house in the colony. Born in Scotland, he had come to Virginia about 1752 at the age of fifteen. He studied briefly at William and Mary College, worked for a banker in Williamsburg, then became an apprentice to William Dunlap. Brown maintained his connections with Philadelphia for a time, paying off the loan from Dunlap, and importing from him *Father Abraham’s Almanack, Dilworth’s Spelling Book, New England Primer, Young Men’s Companion*, etc., which were the stock in trade of a colonial bookshop. For his unusual French-English public, however, Brown soon began printing simpler and bilingual substitutes for these almanacs, schoolbooks, etc. His ingenious substitute for the almanac, that indispensable adjunct of the colonial household, was his *L’Almanac de Cabinet* or *Calendrier*—his “sheet almanac” as he termed it in English. It was a broadside showing the year’s calendar, zodiac, moon’s phases, religious feast days, and other miscellaneous almanac information. It sold usually at sixpence the copy because, as it was one of the few publications he did not have to set entirely in French and English, its production was relatively cheap. Brown printed three hundred copies in 1765 and complained bitterly at the number left on his hands by unappreciative Quebecois. So he issued none in 1766, and from 1767 his market was assured. Of the hundreds of copies published each year through the eighteenth century, about two dozen sun-tanned and flyblown examples survive.

In the long years of the American Revolution Brown’s American past receded, for he was King’s Printer under the watchful eye of government and the Lieutenant Governor reported: “Our Printer has some penchant for the popular [i.e., American] cause and when he gets a cup too much, which is not seldom, his zeal increases. I have cautioned him two or three times . . .
and desire him to lay before me whatever he intends to publish."

The American Revolution retarded the customary travel and trade between the "New and Old Colonies," as they were still called by British officials. But one of the notable American excursions to the north brought another printer to Canada. He was Fleury Mesplet, a protégé of Benjamin Franklin. Franklin was one of the three commissioners who were to follow the revolutionary army to Montreal in the fall of 1775. They were to organize among the French Canadians what we now call a fifth column. Mesplet, born in France, had gone to London and thence to Philadelphia in search of work. There, Congress, urging the "New" colony to join the "Old" in their stand for liberty, had Mesplet print its Lettre Addressée aux Habitants de la Province de Québec Gidevant le Canada, de la Part du Congrès Général de l'Amérique Septentrionale Tenu à Philadelphie ... Fleury Mesplet MDCCLXXIV. The following year he printed Congress' further appeal: Lettre Addressée aux Habitants Opprimés de la Province de Québec de la Part du Congrès Général de l'Amérique Septentrionale Tenu à Philadelphie [Fleury Mesplet, 1775].

Mesplet apparently made a trip to Montreal in 1775. The town had never had a printing press. Its Catholic institutions, cut off from France, were ill-supplied with devotional and schoolbooks, and its French-speaking society very remote from William Brown's press a couple of days down the river in Quebec. It seemed a good prospect for a French printer and especially for a French printer with American backing. Congress granted him two hundred dollars for expenses and in the spring of 1776 Mesplet moved his printing office to Montreal, then occupied by the Americans. The latter, however, withdrew very soon, even the commissioners being convinced that the "habitants opprimés" would not join the revolution; but Mesplet, in some financial straits, remained. He began printing devotional books, schoolbooks, a French almanac, and a newspaper, Gazette du Commerce et Littéraire pour la Ville et District de Montréal, v. 1, no. 1, June 3, 1778. He had a troubled career beset by suspicious authority and pressing creditors. It is interesting to note that after the revolution Mesplet petitioned Congress in 1783 and again in 1784, begging relief for losses suffered by his move to Montreal. Another copy of the 1784 petition was presented Mar. 11, 1785, with Mesplet's claim for $9189. This was $330 for "extra expenses" and $8859 for other "... damage sustained in the sale of books and for debts contracted in the maintenance of himself, workmen, and family, whilst the said Mesplet was on account of his attachment to the cause of America confined in Jail." It was recommended that he be paid $426.45 for transportation expenses to Montreal and that his other claims be submitted to the "wisdom and benevolence of Congress."

Except for this contact with Congress Mesplet seems to have had little connection with Americans after he settled in Montreal. He served an almost exclusively French and Catholic community. The books advertised for sale in his shop were limited to his own publications. Even well after the revolution, when he could publish freely and was in fact producing the bilingual Montreal Gazette, there is no evidence of his friendly exchange with printers across the border. Few of his French publications are located today in


4 His petition was reproduced by Douglas C. McMurtrie in A Memorial Printed by Fleury Mesplet. Chicago, Ludlow, 1929.
American collections, but the situation is different with respect to his productions not in French. The only known copies of his two memorials to Congress are in the Library of Congress. He published two Mohawk primers, of which four of the five known copies are in American libraries. But unlike that of most early Canadian printers, Mesplet's work survives mostly in long-established institutions in his own province. His publications, almanacs, devotional works, and even the political pieces, were produced for the local French market. And the French of Canada traditionally had a different cultural and social background and limited intercourse with American settlers.

The great shifting of population occasioned by the American Revolution brought a number of pro-British printers to Canada. The first of these were Mills and Hicks, who had been publishing the Massachusetts Gazette in Boston. When the city was evacuated in March 1776 they came to Halifax with the British Army. We know of only one Halifax production by them, and it was a curious contretemps. It contained the text of the Declaration of Independence, apparently, and an Act of Rhode Island renouncing allegiance to the king. It was published on July 11, 1776, with the title Extracts from the Boston and New Hampshire Newspapers. The printer, summoned before the lieutenant-governor-in-council, explained that the notes showing the heinous nature of this document had been omitted by mistake. All copies were ordered to be collected and destroyed, and this was done so effectively that by July 13 a military officer in Halifax was unable to get one to send to London, "altho' [he wrote] I have offered to give a Dollar apiece." This was the only contemporary edition of the Declaration of Independence printed in Canada. Mills and Hicks moved on to England, then back to New York while it was occupied by the British. There in 1778 they resumed publication of their almanac, the British-American Register . . . with British Army Lists and an Almanack. This had been sold in Halifax for some years by a protégé of the governor. At the end of the revolution Mills and Hicks were back in Halifax. Nathaniel Mills remained there, but John Hicks returned to settle in Massachusetts.

Mills and Hicks typified the experience of many American printers set adrift by the revolution. James and Alexander Robertson went to Shelburne, N. S., Canada, with the crowd of loyalists who tried to make a city on the ocean-swept coast of the peninsula. They opened a printing office, resumed publication of their newspaper, the Royal American Gazette, and then as the new settlement petered out James moved on to Charlottetown. There he opened the first printing office in Prince Edward Island, printed a few more numbers of his newspaper and some laws, but in 1789 left the island for parts unknown. His press was continued with a meager output by young William A. Rind, till Rind returned to Virginia in 1798 with a wife from a Loyalist family on the island. James Humphreys, who had printed the Philadelphia Ledger, also settled for a time in Shelburne. He issued the Nova-Scotia Packet for a couple of years, sat in the provincial assembly, then moved back to Philadelphia in 1797. Humphreys kept in touch with Loyalist colleagues in Nova Scotia, advertised in their newspapers, and received their publications.

Thomas and James Swords were associated with Humphreys for a time in Shelburne. They received land grants as Loyalist settlers, but by 1790 they were back in New York in the printing business.

Lewis and Ryan (William Lewis of New York and John Ryan of Newport, R.I.) were part of the great Loyalist migration.
which pioneered the province of New Brunswick. Arriving at the mouth of the St. John River in 1783, they set up a press and issued the first number of the *Royal St. John's Gazette*, Dec. 18, 1783, before the townsite on the edge of the wilderness was surveyed. Young Ryan, who had turned twenty-two years in October 1783, carried on the printing office when, in the spring of 1786, Lewis left the settlement after a couple years' struggle and a stiff fine for libel. Ryan developed a respectable business and trained his sons to be printers. Then he moved on, in 1807, to open the first printing office in Newfoundland.

Ryan's father-in-law, the printer John Mott, and his family, also came to the St. John River settlement with the Loyalist migration. But, Mrs. Mott declaring she would "never live in such a God-forsaken place," they returned to New York. After the yellow fever epidemic of 1798, however, the Motts moved back to St. John. By this time the son, Jacob, was trained as a printer. The Ryans and the Motts printed in half a dozen places on both sides of the boundary for many years, visiting back and forth and working in each others' shops.

The Sowers were another example of the same process. Christopher Sower III, of the third generation of a family of able printers of Germantown, Pa., settled in St. John, N.B., Canada, after the revolution. He was King's Printer in the province 1785-99, and his official publications as a whole are the finest productions in early Canadian printing. Christopher's son, Brook Watson, was sent back to Philadelphia to train in his uncle Samuel Sower's shop. And Christopher was in Baltimore arranging to set up a type foundry with his brother, when he died in 1799. Practically all of Sower's publications were official and are located today in public collections, American and Canadian almost equally.

While there are thus many early Canadian imprints in American custody, it is doubtful if there is a corresponding number of American productions of that period in Canadian hands. A systematic search of Canadian libraries might unearth interesting items, like a broadside in Acadia University Library at Wolfville, N.S. This was evidently issued in Boston 175?, as witness: "Advertisement: All Gentlemen Volunteers that have a mind to serve His Majesty King George the Second in an independent Company of rangers for the Service and Defence of Nova Scotia, under command of Benoni Danks Esq. may repair to the sign of the St. George on Boston Neck." Circumstances, however, which mitigated against the preservation of native works in the pioneer period, were probably effective also with imported publications.

Undoubtedly American publications, pamphlets, and newspapers came into Canadian towns in the portmanteaux and saddlebags of travelers. We hear of them only incidentally, as in the case of the *Boston and New Hampshire News Papers*, brought into Halifax by Judge Hutchinson of Massachusetts in July 1776, from which Mills and Hicks printed the Declaration of Independence as noted above. Many such publications probably circulated quietly, wore out, and helped light a fire or stuff a drafty crack. Canadian printers were dependent upon American sources of news for a large part of the year. Not only American but European news came through Boston to Halifax and St. John, and through New York to Quebec, Montreal, and Upper Canada. News of Nelson's victory at the Battle of the Nile on Aug. 1, 1798, was published in York (now Toronto) on Jan. 12, 1799, in an *Upper Canada Gazette Extraordinary*. The Gazette's issue was made up from the columns of the *New York Mercantile Advertiser* of Nov. 30, 1798, which reprinted dispatches.
from the London Gazette of Oct. 5-6, 1798.

Canadian printers occasionally advertised and distributed publications of their American confreres. John Dickinson's Letters from an American Farmer was sold in Halifax in 1768 and probably also in Quebec. Lewis and Ryan of St. John sold the Hartford 1783 edition of the Narrative of the Life of William Beadle of Wethersfield, Connecticutt, containing Particulars of the Horrid Massacre of Himself and His Family. The Boston 1772 edition of Wellins Calcott's Candid Disquisition of the Principles and Practice of . . . Free and Accepted Masons was being read in Halifax the same year. The same work was advertised by Lewis and Ryan, almost as soon as they opened their shop in St. John. Masonic publications were sold by William Brown of Quebec, himself a good Mason. But, except in the 1760's, these were probably imported from England.

Religious pamphlets deriving from a popular preacher or sect with adherents on both sides of the frontier circulated on both sides. Henry Alline, a native of Rhode Island and a fiery New Light evangelist, published his sermons in Nova Scotia, while his Life and Journal and his Hymns and Spiritual Songs, were published in New England after his death. Thomas Wood's Sermon Occasioned by the Death of Mrs. Abigail Belcher, Consort of Jonathan Belcher, Chief Justice of Nova-Scotia, was printed in Halifax, 1771, and in Boston, 1772. Jonathan was the son of Governor Belcher of Massachusetts.

Loyalist writers brought their American works, and Loyalist readers brought their American reading interests with them to Canada. A Particular Account of Mr. Thomas Say of Philadelphia While in a Trance for Eight Hours, Giving a Strange Revelation of What He Both Saw and Heard . . . To which is Added: A Remarkable Vision by the Rev’d. Isaac Watt, went through several American editions from 1774 onwards. About the time of Say's death it was advertised continuously in St. John, 1796-97, by John Ryan, who may even have issued his own edition.

William Cobbett's works had considerable sale in Canada in the 1790's. In fact his sympathizers there are said to have compensated him for losses from the libel suit of Dr. Benjamin Rush. His Democratic Principles . . . Sixteenth Edition, was issued in Quebec in 1799.

The Canadian printing trade was sufficiently precarious in those early days. And we may be sure that a Canadian edition of an American work is evidence of a local market which knew the book by reputation at least.

These random notes on early American publications in Canada, gathered incidentally in connection with another project, suggest an interesting field for research. The latter part of the eighteenth century saw the beginning of a unique relationship between the peoples of these two countries and also between their printing establishments as these developed—a relationship so close that very many families and many publishing houses have branches and connections on both sides of the line. And many books like The Mingling of the Canadian and American Peoples by M. L. Hansen and J. B. Brebner are issued with American-Canadian imprints.
The Rare Book Collection of the Library of Congress includes approximately 615 volumes which contain the existing records of copyright in the United States from May 31, 1790, the date of the first federal copyright law, to July 8, 1870, the date at which the Librarian of Congress became the Register and Custodian of Copyrights. These records are of five kinds: (1) the original registers kept by the clerks of the United States district courts; (2) the clerks' certified lists of titles, or duplicate title-entry records, which were transmitted to the Department of State from 1831 to Feb. 4, 1859, and to the Patent Office from Feb. 5, 1859 to 1870; (3) the records of the Department of State and the Patent Office; (4) the records of the other depository libraries, Smithsonian Institution, and Library of Congress; and (5) miscellaneous records pertaining to copyright before 1870.

The late Martin A. Roberts, formerly chief assistant librarian, Library of Congress, in a paper delivered before the joint session of the American Historical Association and the Bibliographical Society of America held in Philadelphia, Dec. 30, 1937, stated:

That these records contain a wealth of information fundamental to the bibliography of the United States needs no emphasis. . . . They are the basic sources for a history of our literary and typographical arts for the period which saw those arts spring from the swaddling clothes of the eighteenth century to the giant stature of the nineteenth. At a rough estimate these records may contain 150,000 entries. And this wealth of material is substantially untouched.

Indeed, few bibliographers have made use of the copyright records in the compilation of national, regional, or local, and subject bibliographies. Their existence has not been generally known, and their bibliographical significance has not been appreciated. This is not to say that the copyright records before 1870 have not been used occasionally by bibliographers or that reference to them has not been made by members of the Copyright Office staff and the Library of Congress staff to answer certain specific requests for bibliographical information. Their use has been confined chiefly, however, to establishing the date of copyright of isolated items, priority of copyright and place of copyright, and to determining whether a certain title had been copyrighted. And their use has been comparatively infrequent.

The writer's experience in using the copyright records in the compilation of the Bentley-Leonard Bibliography of Works on Accounting led her to the belief that they

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1 Based on the author's master's essay entitled "A Bibliographical Evaluation of the Copyright Records for the United States District Court of Massachusetts, 1800-1809." School of Library Service, Columbia University, 1944.
2 The "Records of Copyright in the United States" were located in the Copyright Office from 1870 to 1939, when they were transferred to the Rare Book Collection of the Library of Congress. They will hereafter be referred to in this paper as "the copyright records."
could be used to great advantage, in a variety of ways, as sources of bibliographical information for the period they cover (1790-1870). A further investigation was therefore undertaken as an attempt to make the copyright records better known to bibliographers and to discover how and to what extent they could be used in bibliographical undertakings relating to works printed in this country from 1790 to 1870. Since it was obviously impossible to see and evaluate all existing records, it was decided to study the value of the copyright records as a source of bibliographical information by an examination and interpretation of the copyright records pertaining to the United States District Court of Massachusetts for the period 1800-09, inclusive.

Interpretation of the Copyright Records

Preliminary to the discussion of the results of this investigation, it may be well to present a brief interpretation of the copyright records which resulted from the various acts pertaining to copyright up to 1870. Much has been written concerning the significance of the copyright law and its administration for authors, printers, publishers, and lawyers; however, two publications only have attempted to point out the significance of the law and its administration from a bibliographical standpoint and to describe the records of copyright resulting from the provisions of the various acts. The following has been adapted from these two publications and the Copyright Enactments of the United States, 1783-1906.

Three provisions of the first federal copyright law of 1790 are significant: (1) that the copyright claimant must deposit a printed copy of the title of such map, chart, book, or books; (2) that such deposit be made in the clerk's office of the district court where the author or proprietor resides; and (3) that the clerk of such court be required to record the same in a book to be kept by him for that purpose.

Results of the first provision are the recording of many copyright entries for works which never saw the "printer's stick" and some discrepancies between copyright dates and publication dates. The second provision brought about the recording of copyright entries in one district court which were actually printed within the jurisdiction of another district court and the copyright registration of many works in more than one district court. The effects of the third provision are some 315 volumes now in existence which record the original copyright entries of the several district courts. The records of some of the district courts were lost, burned, or destroyed prior to 1870, when the law provided for their removal to the Library of Congress.

The act of Feb. 3, 1831 (a complete revision of the copyright law of 1790), requiring the clerk of each district court to transmit a certified list at least yearly to the Secretary of State, resulted in the copyright records being kept in duplicate from that time to 1870. There are nearly three hundred volumes, the majority in unbound form, which constitute "the certified lists of titles, or duplicate title-entry records" sent to the Department of State, and later to the Patent Office. Their importance lies in the fact that for some district courts they represent the sole record, since the originals have disappeared.

No specific requirement concerning the copyright notice in the work was made until 1802, when notice of copyright registration was required to be inserted in the work. The majority of claimants complied with the law during the period under investiga-
tion by inserting the notice exactly as it appeared in the copyright record book. If no publication date is given, this notice may be the only clue to the date of publication unless the original copyright entry is consulted.

The various provisions for additions of copyrightable material are significant in indicating the change in the scope of the records. However, it is of interest to note that music, both collections in book form and sheet music, were copyrighted as books in the first two decades of copyright—long before this class of material was specifically designated as a subject matter of copyright. Prints, dramatic compositions, and photographs were likewise copyrighted before they were legally copyrightable.

The privilege of copyright was expressly withheld from foreigners. Many foreign works were, therefore, reprinted and copyrighted in this country in the name of the printer or publisher who reprinted them. This provision of the law encouraged plagiarism, as well as the issue of many editions of foreign works which were copyrighted as "American works."

The various provisions for the deposit of the printed product are significant to bibliographers. Record of deposit establishes proof that the work was printed, and the date of deposit may be helpful in determining the approximate date of printing. Among the volumes and records resulting from the requirement of deposit of the printed work are the Registers of Copyrights Received in the Department of State, 1796-1842, in eleven volumes. This set constitutes what amounts to a national library catalog. Although a comparatively small proportion of the works copyrighted were ever deposited, these volumes are an immensely valuable source of bibliographical information for works deposited which cannot be found today. Another important "national library catalog" is the ledger which records chronologically by year, with alphabetical arrangement within each year, the copyright works transferred to the Patent Office from the Department of State. This listing of 7849 titles gives a clue to the fact that many works deposited for copyright from 1790 to 1859 did not survive at the Department of State depository and were not available to turn over to the Patent Office. The copyright accessions to the Patent Office from Jan. 10, 1860, to July 5, 1870, were recorded chronologically as they were received, in two volumes.

It was not until 1846 that the idea of securing copies of copyright works for use rather than merely for record was put into effect. At this time both the Smithsonian Institution and the Library of Congress were designated as depository libraries for copyright works. Second and third copies were required to be deposited, but the records reveal an even smaller proportion of copyright works sent to these libraries than were sent to the Department of State or the Patent Office. The law of 1846 was repealed in 1859. In 1865 the Library of Congress again became a copyright depository. The Smithsonian records of copyright works deposited were not among those required by law to be transferred to the Library of Congress in 1870. However, annual reports of the Smithsonian Institution for certain years contain the current accessions under the copyright law. The Library of Congress record books include two volumes listing the "copyrights" received, 1846-52 and 1865-70.

In summary, evidence of publication of the copyright works may be obtained from the records and catalogs of the various depositories prior to 1870. The depositories of copyright articles from 1790 to 1870 were: the Department of State, 1790-1859; the Patent Office, 1859-70; the Smithsonian Institution, 1846-59; the Library of Con-
gress, 1846-59 and 1865-70. The district courts may be considered original but temporary depositories, since the law required yearly transmittals of copyright articles by the clerks in the several district courts to the Department of State and later to the Patent Office.

The act of July 8, 1870, centralized records and deposits under the care of the Librarian of Congress and required that all records and deposits of copyright material in the Patent Office and in the district courts be transferred to his custody. The deposits, numbering 23,070 volumes, were absorbed into the collections of the Library of Congress, and the records were sent to the Copyright Office at the Library of Congress.

Some explanation is in order in regard to the discrepancy between the number of entries in the copyright records, estimated at 150,000 and the number of volumes, 23,070, turned over to the Library of Congress in 1870. The reasons for this discrepancy are these:

1. Many entries were for articles other than books.
2. Many items copyrighted were never printed.
3. The copy required for deposit was never submitted for deposit or, if deposited, never reached the Department of State or the Patent Office.
4. There were inevitable losses due to lack of provision for adequate custody and space, ravages of war and fire, and removals.
5. Interest was lacking in the deposits as mere deposits of record.

Analysis and Interpretation for the District Court of Massachusetts

As a basis for evaluating one segment of the copyright records—those for the District Court of Massachusetts—the 342 copyright entries for the 1800-09 period were copied. Subsequently, the Department of State registers, the National Union Catalog at the Library of Congress, the American Imprints Inventory files of Massachusetts imprints, other union and imprint catalogs, and additional bibliographical sources, were consulted. The aim was to examine each of the 343 items in order to prove that each item was printed and extant today and to verify the bibliographical information in each copyright entry. One result of this plan was the compilation of the Transcript of the Copyright Entries for the District Court of Massachusetts, 1800-1809, with Bibliographical Notes.

Certain deductions, analyses, and interpretations were then made, based on the data gathered in the compilation of the Transcript of the Copyright Entries. . . . First it was discovered that less than one-tenth of the works printed in Massachusetts between 1800 and 1809 were copyrighted. Although the copyright items represent such a minor proportion of the state's printing during the period under consideration, it seemed worthwhile to investigate how and to what extent the copyright entries might be used in bibliographical undertakings. The results are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Relation between Number of Titles Copyrighted and Located

Three hundred and two, or 88 per cent of the 343 copyright titles, were located and identified in one or more libraries or book collections. Of the forty-one titles which were not found as printed works, ten have some evidence to prove that they were printed, although no copy was identified. Of the thirty-one items which have no evidence of publication, one was a plan of the Mill Pond in Boston by Charles Bulfinch, which was no doubt never intended to be published and exists today in its pristine form in the archives of the City Clerk's

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10 One copyright entry containing two titles, thus making a total of 343 copyright titles for this period.
11 Included in the writer's master's essay, Appendix B, p. 69-176.
Office, Boston. Other titles were copyrighted, probably with the intent to publish but the required funds failed to materialize. Still others, for example, pilot charts, may have been printed but were of such a nature that they did not normally find their way into library collections. Such copyright items are, nevertheless, important to bibliographers.

Among the forty-one unlocated titles were items in the following fields: biography 1, bookkeeping 1, geography and travels 3, language study 2, law 1, literature 3, military art 1, music 5, penmanship 2, sciences 5, social sciences 1, and theology 4. Is it not important to have a record of the "unfulfilled ideas" of the authors in these fields? Since registration of a title for copyright presumably records the author's intent to publish the work, it follows that the work was usually in a form ready for printing at the time it was copyrighted. Would it not be worth while for historians of the culture and social life of this nation to have a record, not only of the works which were produced, but of those which were written but failed of publication? No better source could be used than the copyright record of the nineteenth century to reveal this information.

Relation between Number of Works Examined and Number in Union Catalog, in American Imprints Inventory, and in Neither

It is obvious that the copyright entries cannot be used as a basis for any general bibliography of Massachusetts imprints. It is obvious, also, that the copyright entries for all the district courts cannot be used as a basic source for a general bibliography of nineteenth-century American imprints. However, it is possible to demonstrate the value of the copyright records as a supplementary source in the compilation of any general bibliography of American or regional imprints.

In the process of locating the printed works which represented the copyright titles, the two chief sources which must eventually be used in the compilation of a general bibliography of nineteenth-century American imprints—the National Union Catalog at the Library of Congress and the files of the American Imprints Inventory—were consulted. Of the 302 works which were examined and identified as the titles deposited for copyright, fifty-five, or 18 per cent, were not in the L. C. National Union Catalog. An analysis of the works revealed that some Massachusetts imprints of importance covering this period are missing from the union catalog.

When the files of the American Imprints Inventory covering Massachusetts imprints were examined, it was found that sixty, or 20 per cent, of the 302 items were missing. Furthermore, twenty-four of the fifty-five items not listed in the union catalog were also not found in the files of the American Imprints Inventory. This means that nearly 8 per cent of the 302 copyright works proved to have been printed and extant in one or more copies today, would be missed if the union catalog and the American Imprints Inventory were the only sources consulted.

The Bibliographical Society of America has announced\(^\text{12}\) that, with the aid of a grant by the Rockefeller Foundation and with the cooperation of the Library of Congress which owns the files, it has undertaken the resumption of the editing and publication of the field notes of the American Imprints Inventory. The title of the publication will be "Bibliography of American Imprints." This means that the files of the American Imprints Inventory, whether they be in manuscript form or edited and pub-


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**COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES**
lished as regional or state checklists of imprints, form the present basis for a general bibliography of early American imprints.

In continuing the American Imprints Inventory it is the thesis of the writer that the copyright records for each district court should be used, in addition to the library catalogs and shelflists in each state or region, in order to have a checklist of possible imprints to verify in each catalog consulted or in each library or collection visited. This would insure a more comprehensive coverage. Obviously, it is easier to find a work if one knows the author and title.

Analysis of the Kinds of Works Copyrighted

It may be of bibliographical interest to analyze what works were thought worthy of copyright protection. The subject which is represented by the largest number of copyright titles is music, with sixty-six items, of which fifty are collections of sacred music or psalms set to music. The next largest field represented is theology, with fifty-seven items. Together, theology and sacred music account for 107 titles, or 31 per cent of the total. Language study and literature have sixty-seven titles, or 19 per cent of the total. Thus, one-half of the titles are in the fields of religion or religious activity and in language study and literature.

During the period 1800-09 many leaflets, pamphlets, and periodicals, as well as bound volumes, were copyrighted as “books.” Although maps and charts became copyrightable in the original law of 1790, only ten were copyrighted during the ten-year period under consideration. The act of Apr. 29, 1802, extended the benefits of copyright to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching. Between 1802 and 1809, however, only six engravings or designs were copyrighted.

Analysis of Bibliographical Information in the Entries

In addition to the evaluation of the copyright records as a source for discovering imprints and the analysis of the kinds of works copyrighted, it is pertinent to inquire into the accuracy of the copyright entries, their scope, and their value as a source in establishing date of printing and obtaining other bibliographical information. The copying of the titles by the district court clerks was found to be essentially accurate, and the handwriting was very legible, with few exceptions. Since the law required only that the copyright claimant be a resident within the jurisdiction of the district court in which he filed the claim, some works copyrighted in the District Court of Massachusetts were printed outside Massachusetts. Since the copyright claimant need not be the author, it follows also that works could be copyrighted in the District Court of Massachusetts which were written by authors residing elsewhere and even by foreign authors, provided the copyright claimant was a resident within the jurisdiction of the district court. These observations are particularly important to bibliographers who may use the copyright entries in compiling local or regional bibliographies.

Bibliographers may expect to find the following bibliographical information for each entry:

1. The full date of the copyright registration, expressed as a particular day of the month in a certain year of the independence of the United States.
2. The full name of the copyright claimant, with his designation as author or proprietor.
3. The designation of the title as a map, chart, engraving, or book.
4. The title of the work, including statement of edition and the quotations, if any, copied in full as given on the title page.
5. The author’s name, copied as found on the title page, with his position, degrees, affiliations, other works written, etc., if this information was included on the title page.
Registration of the title (only) before publication of the work was one of the conditions of copyright. Although the copyright date is usually previous to the date of printing, reference to the original copyright entry has special value for bibliographers when the printed work includes no evidence of its publication date. Of the 302 works examined, thirty-six did not include the date of printing, and twenty-three of this number lacked also the copyright date. This means that the original copyright entry would be an important source to use in determining the approximate date of printing for nearly 8 per cent of the 302 items examined. The Department of State Registers are also important as an aid in establishing the approximate date of printing. The law required deposit within six months of the date of publication. In this investigation it was found that seventy-six, or 93 per cent, of the eighty-two works deposited at the Department of State were received either within six months of the date of copyright or within six months of the date of printing. It may be assumed, therefore, that an approximate date of printing may be determined, when the date is unknown, by reckoning that it will fall within six months previous to the deposit of the printed work.

In addition to the use of the original copyright entry as a means of establishing the approximate date of printing, there are other ways in which the copyright entries may have value as a bibliographical source. Among the works examined, one lacked a title page and two had mutilated title pages. The copyright entries for these items would supply the complete title and the approximate date of printing. Several works among those examined were issued anonymously or pseudonymously. The copyright proprietor, in such cases, usually proved to be the author or compiler. It is of interest also to know at least who was responsible for the publication and distribution of an anonymous work, even if the authorship is not known. This information was supplied in the case of fourteen works. The name of the copyright proprietor is one item of bibliographical information which cannot be found in any other bibliographical source. This information may serve several purposes. It may, for example, identify the name of the printer or publisher when the work does not supply the name. The activities of little-known printers, presses, or publishers may also be gleaned from a study of the copyright proprietors.

Summary and Conclusions

On the basis of the data gathered and the analyses and interpretations made, it may be concluded that the copyright entries would aid in a variety of ways in bibliographical undertakings relating to nineteenth-century American imprints. By compiling a transcript of the copyright entries for the District Court of Massachusetts, which included a comparison of the title with the published work, it was possible to show (1) that, given the author and copyright title, some works could be found which have hitherto been unrecorded outside their own location and (2) that certain bibliographical information could be contributed by means of the copyright entries.

This investigation indicates that the copyright records of the various district courts, and all the other copyright records prior to 1870, should be used as a supplementary bibliographical source in the compilation of a general bibliography of American imprints to fill the gap between Evans' American Bibliography, ending in 1799, and the American Catalogue, which started in 1876. The project of the Bibliographical Society of America to resume the editing and publication of the American Imprints Inventory is encouraging as a step toward filling the

(Continued on page 44)
Materials of State and Local History in College Libraries

It naturally is the function of every college librarian to collect and preserve the source materials comprising the history of his college. Also, inasmuch as the history of the college is more or less a part of that of the community, the librarian has an obvious duty as regards local history materials. When in the community there exists also a public library or an official or quasi-official historical society with adequate equipment, personnel, and funds to maintain the local history library and archives, the college librarian's direct responsibility may end with his institutional collection. Under such conditions, however, he does have an obligation to put whatever agencies may be charged with the local collections in touch with such source materials as may come to his attention through gifts or purchases offered to the college. This implies the conclusion of such contracts with donors as may be necessary to permit transfer of title and, in the case of items offered for sale, the transmission of the sale information to the proper institution.

With respect to the records of state history, a similar responsibility exists to the state historical society or other agency commissioned by the state. Beyond that I question whether the majority of colleges can justify entering the field of state history except, of course, for the basic reference and more or less secondary source materials.

Upon the vast majority of college librarians, however, in small to medium-sized towns and cities, in their relationship to the strictly local history collection, there rests a more direct, though perhaps somewhat less distinct, responsibility. I use the term "responsibility" advisedly. No thinking person will deny that the sources of local history must be preserved. If in a community there is no other institution charged with that duty, or none able to fulfil it, the task should be assumed by the local college, whether publicly or privately supported. The obligation of the tax-supported college library is fairly clear. Under such conditions, however, the freedom from legal accountability to their communities has too often and too long led the librarians of those colleges to ignore or at least to overlook the rightful obligations of their institutions to the communities.

Under our democratic concept of freedom of education, we exist as tax-free institutions while enjoying essentially the same benefits of government as does the tax-paying business and industrial organization. It is right that we should receive these privileges. Nevertheless, we must not forget that, by this waiver of taxes, a community deprives itself of the tax income on what frequently amounts to many acres of improved property in the very heart of its most highly appraised areas—the very income which might be used to increase the facilities of the public library or historical society. It follows that so long as the college libraries enjoy exemption privileges,
they must recognize their obligation and seek means of discharging it. One such means may well be constant and effective efforts toward acquiring, preserving, and making accessible the materials of local history, always in planned cooperation with such other agencies as may exist, i.e., the public library or the historical society.

**How to Begin**

Assuming that the college librarian accepts the obligation, how shall he discharge it? If no public library or historical society exists in the community, the college library will create and maintain as nearly complete a collection of printed and manuscript sources of local history as is possible within the limitations of its plant, staff, and budget and of its ability to obtain additional funds for the work. Such funds might reasonably be expected from the local government through an annual appropriation made to the college library in lieu of the support of an historical society or public library, or from private citizens, perhaps through a local chapter of the now-famous Friends of the College Library groups. Without financial aid from the outside, the librarian may be able only to store, without processing, such local history materials as he can acquire. Even this is better than permitting them to go into oblivion.

Where college library, public library, and historical society exist side by side in a community, the conditions, though somewhat more complicated, are potentially ideal for the creation and maintenance of the local history collection, because of the greater diversity of available plant, equipment, and personnel facilities. There are, however, obstacles which must be surmounted. One is the fact that, perhaps unfortunately, most college and public librarians are neither historians nor archivists. However, their training more nearly fits them for the job of preserving and making accessible the printed and manuscript sources of local history than does that of anyone else in the community. Unfortunately the disinterested librarian is not the only possible obstacle to a program of collaboration. The curators and other active members of local historical societies are often so enthusiastic in their collecting of the written and printed sources and relics of local history as to be unconcerned about the accessibility of their treasures. Moreover, although they may not be prepared by training or equipment properly to handle printed and manuscript materials, their collector's instinct makes it difficult for them to surrender any such materials into what they suspect of being well-trained but unloving hands. I do not wish to minimize the importance of enthusiasm in the collection of local history records. It is extremely important, but so also is the proper preservation and accessibility of that which is collected. If the necessary enthusiasm, training, and equipment are not combined in a single individual or institution, then cooperation is the only answer if the sources of local history are to be preserved, and that for the sake of the future rather than in fond memory of the past.

That collaboration is possible, at least on paper, is evidenced by the various war records commissions set up recently in practically every state, county, and hamlet in the country, which usually involve the local libraries and historical societies. Incidentally, I have often wondered why we seem to be so much more concerned with the preservation of the records of our community in a war than at peace. I suggest that we be equally diligent in the preservation of our peacetime history. Whatever the period, however, the participating institutions in each community will have to work out their own plan of collaboration, based on the respective equipment, personnel, and funds of each. It will take initiative, time, and even education to complete the job.
important thing is to arrive at a scheme and to make it work. What follows here is merely by way of suggestion.

Plans for Cooperation

The basic record of any cooperative plan and, incidentally, in itself the simplest and the least controversial program for any two or more institutions interested in a local history collection, is that of a union catalog of all materials in their libraries and archives. A further measure of coordination might be the assumption by each of the participants of responsibility for the preservation of certain materials, according to sources. For example, one might collect and preserve the items originating in public and semi-public institutions and offices while another might confine itself to those coming from private organizations. A third agency might give its attention to materials deriving from individuals, such as manuscript letters, diaries, published and unpublished writings of local authors. The most obvious advantage to such a plan is that it would simplify search and acquisition by limiting the sources with which each participating institution would have to maintain contact.

Neither of the plans of cooperation suggested makes allowance for the different techniques and equipment required in the handling and preservation of particular types of source materials, such as books, manuscripts, newspapers, maps, and photographs. Since it is in the technical phases of the job that specialization of equipment and personnel are necessary, the most practicable arrangement would be one assigning certain types of materials, regardless of their sources, to each participating institution on the basis of its ability to handle them. Under this arrangement, for example, all manuscript and archival material would be taken care of by one of the libraries and books and pamphlets by the other, leaving the local historical society charged with the responsibility for collecting and preserving the other vestiges of the community's material culture, such as art, household furnishings, the tools and products of industry—in other words, the natural contents of the local history museum.

The immediate objection to the segregation of items according to their physical type rather than by their point of origin or subject, is that those by and about a particular person, institution, or organization would not be housed together. If, however, an adequate author and subject union catalog were maintained, the basis for that objection would be minimized and the advantages of the greater opportunity for specialized handling should offset any disadvantages of location. It should not be difficult for the student of local history to consult the union catalog for all material locally available on any given subject; then, if necessary, to have such material brought together in one or the other cooperating institution on an interlibrary loan basis.

A Special Collection

Admittedly, any college librarian who enters upon a program of cooperation in the collection and preservation of materials for local history will be taking off in the direction of a so-called special collection. Such collections are a problem to the average American college library and for the most part are difficult to defend as items in the budget. This is especially so when there is little instruction beyond the undergraduate level and none of doctorate nature, in which circumstance the only reason at hand for the maintenance of the collection is that it may some day attract a lone scholar to a research-starved campus for a fleeting glance at something like "a special collection of materials on 'the exquisite but almost legendary Schaukelpferd-Napolean-Coquin-
Defricassé-Usefóvitch Manuscript of Omnipology."

Nevertheless, with full cognizance of the problem, it is recommended that the college librarian find and assume his place in the collection and preservation of materials of local history. His responsibility in that direction has been purposely emphasized, to the neglect of the more obvious compensations which should be apparent to any college librarian. These rewards, however, deserve mention. In the first place, there may be a widening of the college library's circle of friends in the community. Secondly, in the local history collection there may be much that will contribute to the teaching program, especially in the social sciences. After all, the sources of local history do not differ greatly, except in volume and magnitude, from those of state and national history. Through the use of local sources it should be possible to vitalize instruction in methods of research and in the evaluation and use of original materials by college students, especially in the fields of history, economics, sociology, and political science.

Incidentally, although no less important, a cooperative program for the collection and preservation of the materials of local history might well promote coordination of all library facilities and service within a community. This, as all college librarians know, is a matter on which they have talked much but accomplished little.

Bibliographical Importance of Copyright Records

(Continued from page 40)

hiatus in American bibliography. However, to ignore the copyright records in this undertaking is to ignore one of the most valuable sources that could be used in the compilation.

All bibliographers of regional imprints should find the copyright records of particular interest, especially for certain types of works which are not normally recorded in library catalogs. Bibliographers of special subjects or forms of material will also find a search of the copyright entries productive of much information not otherwise available. Even though they may discover entries for titles which were never printed, yet the act of copyrighting the titles indicates an intention to publish which is significant.

Further research needs to be done to establish other ways in which the copyright records may be used. For example, studies might be made to prove the value of the records as sources (1) for the printing and publishing history of the nation; (2) for indicating the trends in literary and artistic production; (3) for analyzing the subject matter of copyright. The urgent need, however, is to have the copyright records made immediately accessible, through their publication or by their transcription on cards, in a file which will be centrally located for use by bibliographers.
Some Characteristics of Reference Work

There are several generalizations which emerge from an examination of the literature on the measurement of reference work. Evaluation per se does not enter into the earlier literature, which is concerned in the main with a description of the techniques, tools, and intellectual rewards of reference librarianship. The earliest mention of reference records was made by Marilla W. Freeman in 1913. Since that date a number of librarians have attempted to cope with the problem of reference measurement and have approached the problem in several different ways. A number of plans for classifying reference questions have been developed both in theory and in actual library practice. These classifications have been based on: (1) the subject matter of the questions, (2) the amount of skill or knowledge necessary to answer them, or a combination of the two. The element of time has frequently been used to distinguish between simple and complex questions; frequently the latter are classified as complex because the process of answering them consumes more time. Examples of these classifications may be found in the articles by Swift, Alexander, Hazeltine, and Barlow.

Many of the analyses of actual reference questions have been made in the public library field. Attention should be directed to the studies of Kingman, Conner, Guerrier, and Darsie. In some studies the questions were classified by subject, while in others an attempt was made to classify them according to their content or complexity. When questions are classified by subject, the field of the social sciences is usually found to be the subject group in which most questions fall, while studies based on the nature of the questions show that the informational or fact-finding group is the largest. The time spent in answering reference questions seems to suggest a basis for estimating the cost of reference work and the skill of the reference worker.

The Nature and Scope of Investigation

No precise and exact formula for evaluating reference work has yet been devised; furthermore, the nature of the reference process seems to preclude the possibility of such an accomplishment. Certainly it was not the intention of the writer to aim at such a goal. On the other hand, previous studies of reference work based on certain

\[\text{By Dorothy E. Cole}\]

\[\text{JANUARY, 1946}\]

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quantitative or measurable aspects have increased our understanding of the nature of reference practice in libraries. The aim of the present investigation, then, is to augment this fund of knowledge.

Previous investigations of reference work have given scant attention to certain segments of the process. Analyses of reference questions, as heretofore mentioned, have been made largely in the public library field, yet a great deal of important reference service is being rendered in academic and special libraries. What are the elements of similarity and difference in these three types of reference service?

At the present time we have but slight knowledge of the relation between the reader’s occupation and his reference requests. While in the academic and special libraries the occupational distribution of the readers may be determined by the nature of the institution, the public library, in theory at least, should be meeting the needs of readers of all occupations. The present study includes an analysis of the occupational background of users of the reference department.

It has been observed that many library readers have difficulty in expressing their reference needs. Another area of investigation, then, is the difference between what reference patrons want and what they ask for. One of the tasks required of reference librarians is that of translating vague requests into meaningful terms. Generalizations regarding typical behavior patterns of patrons should be helpful for actual reference practice. An analysis of unanswered reference questions will also be undertaken.

The final aspect of reference work covered in this paper is that of the sources of reference information. What books and other materials were found useful in answering reference questions? Into what patterns do they fall? The findings should be of interest to those responsible for book selection in libraries and to those who teach basic courses in reference work.

Gathering the Data

The questions on which this study is based were recorded in thirteen libraries during the month of April 1941. Not all of the questions received by these libraries during the period were reported, since librarians found it impossible to record them because of pressure of business. Eleven of the libraries are in the Chicago area, one in central Illinois, and one in the western section of the United States. In addition a number of questions received at the St. Louis Public Library on one day in January 1941 were used. The following types of libraries were represented: large, medium, and small public libraries, junior and liberal arts colleges, university departmental libraries, and special libraries in the fields of social science, business and technology, and general reference. The form for recording the questions provided space for the following items:

1. What patron asked for
2. Exact statement of the question
3. Occupation of the patron
4. Specific books and other tools used in finding the answer
5. Other functions performed
6. Was question answered satisfactorily? If not, indicate reason.

All of the libraries were furnished copies of instructions for filling out the forms, in order to insure uniform and comparable results.

Limitations of the Study

First, the study does not attempt to establish a technique for measuring the reference work of an individual library, although a library might gain a clearer understanding of its reference work by...
keeping similar records. Second, the study does not consider the element of time in classifying reference questions. Finally, it does not include questions from large research libraries which are used primarily by scholars.

The 1026 reference questions upon which this study is based were classified by subject, since this method offered a convenient means of comparison with earlier studies. It is obvious from the subject distribution that no field of knowledge, at least at the level represented by the second summary of the Dewey Decimal Classification, is beyond the requirements of library reference service. Three areas stand out with particular emphasis: the social sciences, useful arts, and history. Within these groups were concentrated approximately 72 per cent of the questions. The following fields were well represented: political science, economics, law, administration, associations, medicine, engineering, biography, and modern history.

Four other studies, all concentrated in the public library field, show a very close similarity, in the distribution of questions, to the findings of the present investigation. At this point it is interesting to note that the specific character of the various libraries receiving the questions was apparently not a factor in the distribution. When the classification is restricted to libraries roughly homogeneous in function the same emphases appear. Thus, of the questions recorded by the public libraries, 69 per cent fell in the social sciences, useful arts, and history; the same proportion of questions in the college and university libraries fell in these fields; and of the questions asked in special libraries, 80 per cent were so classified.

The occupational classification of reference patrons used in this study was one employed by Haygood in his analysis of the use of the New York Public Library. Since some questions came from representatives of organizations, a category was added to provide for them. Out of 1026 questions asked, it was found that the concentration appeared among students (356) and professionals (210). The student group asked the largest numbers of questions in political science, economics, law, medicine, agriculture, literature, biography, and modern history. The fields in which professional workers asked the most questions are political science, administration, language, and engineering. Although the small number of questions asked by other occupational groups is scattered widely over the subject fields, we find that the questions of skilled laborers fell largely within the useful arts group, that most of the questions from shopkeepers and salesmen were about topics classified as social sciences and the useful arts, and that questions from clerical workers fell chiefly in the social science group.

In a further attempt to define the characteristics of reference work, a new classification was devised, one based on the historical period in which the questions fell. For this purpose the following divisions were set up:

I Questions pertaining to events, techniques, aesthetic or technical creations, or persons, in the current year
II Questions pertaining to the twentieth century
III Questions pertaining to modern times (i.e., from the Reformation to the end of the

15 Conner, op. cit.
Occurrence of Reference Questions, as Revealed by Several Enquiries

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<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300..........</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400..........</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500-600......</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700..........</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800..........</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900..........</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Local and library questions

nineteenth century)
IV Questions pertaining to the middle ages
V Questions pertaining to ancient times
VI Questions pertaining to no one time period; those which cover several periods; those which are not readily classifiable by a time scheme
VII Questions pertaining to future events.

It should be noted that the time periods are by no means equal in length. Whereas types I and II combined cover less than half a century, types III, IV, and V each cover several hundred years. When the questions are classified by this method, it becomes clear that most patrons ask about events or creations relevant to the present century. Seventy-two per cent of the questions were classified as types I and II. It is evident, also, that in the subject fields where the largest numbers of questions are asked, the "time" emphasis is found in the most recent categories. Thus, 343 of the 383 questions in the social sciences were classified as types I and II, and 145 of the 179 useful arts questions were classified likewise. In the third field, history, there is somewhat less emphasis on events, creations, or personalities of the present century, although 93 of the 172 questions fall within the two most recent categories.

Certain areas of inquiry do not fit into a time classification at all. For such questions, type VI was established. Thus, 20 of the 31 questions on language did not fit into any one period. Nearly half of the questions on pure science were not classifiable by time.

Among the existing classifications of reference questions the one devised by Carter Alexander permits the most accurate description of the nature of the question, apart from the subject matter of the question itself. He lists the following types of reference questions:

1. Fact type
   (a) Meaning type
   (b) Numerical or statistical type
   (c) Historical type
   (d) Exact wording type
   (e) Proper name type

2. How to do type
3. Trends type
4. Supporting evidence type
5. "All about" type
6. Evaluation of reference type
7. Duplication of previous work type.

When the attempt was made to classify the questions according to this scheme it was found that many questions did not fit any of the categories suggested by Alexander. In fact, only little more than half could be classified by this scheme. It was necessary, therefore, to extend the classification to

\[18\] Alexander, op. cit.
accommodate the remaining questions. The following additional categories were adopted:

1. (f) Addresses of individuals and societies
2. (g) Facts about books and publishing
3. (h) Reviews of books, plays, and motion pictures
4. (i) Facts about specific individuals (as opposed to type 1(e) which was used for such questions as, "What is the name of the ruler of Iraq?"
   This new type covers biographical facts about persons whose names are known to the reader.)
5. (k) Requests for illustrations
6. (l) Geographical facts
7. 8. General information on subject type.
   This category was adopted in place of Alexander's "all about" type, which was designed to cover general information questions which are phrased in a particular way
8. 9. "Review" type (for example, material for a review of high school algebra)
9. 10. Historical discussions (opposed to 1(c) historical facts)
10. 11. Requests for bibliographies
11. 12. Requests for the translation of passages
12. 13. Requests for the preparation of reports and questionnaires.

The four types in which the overwhelming proportion of questions fall are: 1. Fact type, 55 per cent; 2. How to do type, 10 per cent; 4. Supporting evidence type, 8 per cent; and 8. General information of subject type, 20 per cent. Together they account for 93 per cent of the questions. Illustrations of the major types follow:

1. Fact type
   What cities have daylight saving time?
   Who invented the quadratic equation?
2. How to do type
   How to convert a furnace into an oil burner
   How to remove stains from clothing
3. Supporting evidence type
   Do colonies pay? (i.e., are they profitable to the mother country?)
4. General information on subject type
   Arguments for and against the consolidation of railroads
   Information on cosmetics
   Material on structural engineering

The sources used in answering these types of questions are discussed below.

All reference librarians are aware of the great difficulty patrons have in making their exact and specific wants known. This difficulty is not limited to the uneducated but extends to the more sophisticated members of the population. An attempt was made in this section to determine the extent of the tendency and to point out specific types of confusion between what was requested and what was wanted.

The number of public library readers who failed to ask for exactly what they wanted is exceedingly small. Only 5 readers out of 467 were guilty of this. In the academic libraries 45 readers, or nearly 21 per cent of the total, did not ask in specific terms for the material which they needed. Several persons asked for specific titles or kinds of publications which they mistakenly thought would contain the answer to the question. For example, a student asked for "reports of the Bureau of Standards." He wanted material on the quantitative analysis of part-wool samples; this material was supplied by means of the Chemical Abstracts. The error made most frequently by students, however, was to request material on a large subject when some particular aspect was desired. Nearly 11 per cent of readers in special libraries had similar difficulty in expressing their exact needs.

Only a small proportion of the questions asked in the three types of libraries were unanswered. About 4 per cent of the public library questions, 9 per cent of the college and university questions, and 12 per cent of the special library questions were unanswered or only partially answered.
The reasons given most frequently by reference librarians are:

- The material was not in the library
- The material desired was too recent to be in print
- The question was outside the scope of the library.

Sources of Reference Information

Since the answers to many questions can be found in several places, from a functional point of view there is no source which can be considered better than any other except in terms of the needs of specific individuals. Furthermore, when we examine the books used by reference librarians in answering a group of questions, we must realize that the factors of accessibility and personal preference play a part in their selection. The only assumption upon which a description of books used in reference work can be based is that the books represent types of material generally found to be useful.

When the sources used to answer the present sample of questions were classified by type, it became evident that reference books represented about half of the sources used in answering factual questions. Five hundred and thirty-nine sources were used to answer 408 such questions; 298, or 55 per cent, were classified as reference materials. The dependence upon reference books varied in the groups of factual questions. Reference books represented one-third of the sources used for statistical questions; in the groups of historical questions, exact wording questions, and proper name questions, reference books represented half, or slightly more than half, of the sources used. Reference books were used most heavily to answer questions relating to books and publishing and to furnish biographical facts. In the latter group, reference books constituted three-quarters of the source material. Non-reference, or “circulating,” books accounted for 18 per cent of the source material. Periodicals and documents each accounted for one-tenth of the material, while newspapers represented 3 per cent and pamphlets 4 per cent of the total sources used.

Half of the group of “how to do” questions were answered by one source of information. Fifty-three per cent of the sources used to answer these questions were non-reference materials. However, Post's Etiquette and the World Almanac were frequently used, and the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature was the title most often referred to.

Only 21 of the 74 “supporting evidence” questions were answered through the use of one source of information. Two hundred and five sources were used in answering these questions. Of these, 31 were classified as reference books, 83 as non-reference books, 64 as periodicals, 14 as documents, 3 as newspapers, and 10 as pamphlets. Non-reference books and periodicals combined accounted for nearly three-fourths of the source materials. The average question required the use of three sources of information.

Thirty-eight per cent of the “general information on subject” questions were answered in one source of information. Classification of source material by form showed 26 per cent to be reference books, 43 per cent non-reference books, 22 per cent periodicals, 7 per cent documents, and 2 per cent pamphlets. Thus, reference books account for about one-fourth of the sources used and non-reference books and periodicals for about two-thirds.

Conclusion

Classification of questions by subject is the method employed in five studies, including the present one. In all of these studies, the Dewey Decimal Classification has been used for a purpose for which it was not originally intended. In classifying
the questions upon which this study is based, it was apparent that certain decisions or compromises, not entirely objective in nature, had to be made; for example, does a question about the political ideas of John Locke classify as political theory or modern philosophy? In a college library, does a question about urban recreational facilities asked by a student of sociology classify with recreation, a division of the fine arts, or with some phase of sociology? Such decisions may alter the results of subject classification to a marked degree. If the decimal system is used for this purpose, extreme care and objectivity is necessary. Of course, the patron's point of view will in some cases determine the best classification for a question. No one is in a better position to classify questions objectively than the reference librarian who answers them.

A problem for investigation in the field of reference work is implied in the foregoing discussion; that is, the development of a new subject classification scheme for reference questions, or, possibly, an adaptation of one of the systems of book classification now in use. A comparison of, for example, the decimal, Library of Congress, and Bliss classifications in relation to reference questions might provide guidance.

We have seen that five classifications of reference questions by subject reveal that the fields of social science, useful arts, and history, contain the largest numbers of questions asked. One cannot assume that these areas will always be quantitatively the most important. Assuming that changes in subject emphasis will occur in time, the method of subject classification will continue to be useful as a means of showing these changes. Data showing the trends in reference work over a period of years will be useful in planning the development of the book stock and in specifying the qualifications needed by the reference personnel. Studies of the trends in reference work will aid library schools in keeping reference instruction realistic and up to date.

In this study an attempt was made to learn what occupational groups made use of the library reference service. It was pointed out that the character of the occupational groups in college and university libraries and special libraries may be determined by the nature of the institution. It was, therefore, not surprising to find that students ask most of the questions in the academic libraries and that professional persons are the most frequent users of the special library reference service. In the public library the reference service is established to meet the needs of persons from all occupational groups, but in the present study it was found that the persons who asked questions most frequently were those most accustomed to the use of books, the professionals and students.

The classification of reference questions by "time" periods showed so clearly the emphasis on recent events that a refinement of the technique might well be applied to other samples of questions. It seems particularly desirable to know the relationship of events and reference questions because of the implications for staff and for necessary resources. What is the length of time which elapses between a "current event" and a reference question about the event?

We have conventionally tended to identify reference work with reference books. As has been shown, a good part of reference work is definitely related to reference books, but other materials are used as well. Therefore, we might well devote increasing attention to the specific nature of the materials which are useful in reference work.
Size of Cataloging Staffs in Academic Libraries

ALTHOUGH some progress has been made in studies of the cost of cataloging, there are not yet available any standard cost data for cataloging in college and university libraries. The present trend toward estimating cost in units of time rather than money seems to offer a promising approach; but, meanwhile, the question has been raised as to whether some objective measure of efficiency can be found by examining the statistics which are ordinarily put into the annual reports of nearly every library.

A recent textbook on college library administration carries the statement that "the size of the technical staff will depend directly upon the number of new acquisitions to be handled within a given period." While the technical staff properly includes both the order and catalog departments in a library organized along conventional lines, it is the cataloging process which has received marked attention in recent years because of its alleged disproportionate cost. Therefore, if some normal or typical ratio between the number of yearly acquisitions and the size of the cataloging staff could be determined, it would be useful as a criterion in terms of statistical data easily available to the administrator who is interested in allocating his resources, usually scarce, to the best advantage. Assuming a fair degree of uniformity in organization and in the definition of cataloging, and a certain standardization of quality of cataloging in college and university libraries, it seems reasonable to try to ascertain what the relation is between the size of the cataloging staff and the number of yearly acquisitions, in terms of volumes and titles.

With this purpose in mind, questionnaires were sent to the eighty or more college and university libraries which were listed in the current American Library Directory as having book collections of more than 150,000 volumes. In addition to the data on the size of the cataloging staff and the number of annual acquisitions for the year 1943-44, information was sought on some other characteristics which were thought to have relation to the ratio between the above items.

It has often been stated that the cost of cataloging increases more than proportionately with the size of the book collection. Substituting "size of cataloging staff" for "cost of cataloging," one would expect to find some significant relation between the number of persons on the cataloging staff and the number of volumes acquired within a given period.

Aside from the complexity which mere quantity of material brings, there may be a difference in the difficulty of the material to be cataloged in various libraries. This may be due to the varying proportion of foreign books or special kinds of material which some libraries collect. The best quantitative measure of this qualitative difference seemed to be in the percentage of titles for which Library of Congress cards...
could be obtained. The time consumed in cataloging in the individual library depends on this aspect rather than on the actual difficulty of cataloging, which is a problem for the Library of Congress. The number of those books for which printed cards are not available, then, is a factor in measuring the difficulty of cataloging.

Although not directly related to the main purpose of this investigation, the question of the size of the cataloging staff in relation to the size of the total staff is of some interest. Also, the balance between professional and nonprofessional workers on the cataloging staff may be significant. Both of these items were included in the questionnaire. A more complete picture could have been obtained by including the acquisition department and thus getting the balance between the cataloging and the acquisition work, which together make up the technical processes of the library; but this will have to wait for another study.

Some Lack of Uniformity Found

Originally data were secured from some libraries smaller than the 150,000 volumes mentioned above. However, these were found to have only one or two persons on the cataloging staff, and they were not fully departmentalized; in one case, the other members of the staff assisted with the cataloging, but the more usual situation was found to be that in which the catalogers also did reference work and/or order work. Data from other libraries were not usable for various reasons. One library reported that it was engaged in a complete recataloging operation, and two others that their serials were cataloged by a separate department which also checklisted and accessioned. Another variation which led to the omission of the data from certain libraries involved the use of student assistants in the catalog department. A few librarians reported considerable use of students in this way and decided that it would be misleading to omit them from the statistics. When the ratios were determined, however, it was found that the average number of volumes per cataloger in these libraries was so much lower than the average in the other cases, that it seemed preferable to treat them separately.

Forty-six Libraries Selected

Of the sixty-two libraries replying to the questionnaire, forty-six were selected as showing enough uniformity in organization to allow statistical comparison. These libraries ranged in size from 170,000 volumes to 1,800,000 volumes. In the following tables the relation found between the size of the cataloging staff and the yearly number of accessions is expressed in terms of volumes or titles per member of the cataloging staff, as the case may be.

**Table I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Volumes</th>
<th>Titles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>As Reported</td>
<td>As Correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1548</td>
<td>1485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>608 to 3421</td>
<td>608 to 2471</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Data from nineteen libraries.

As reported, the number of volumes included all accessions, whether or not cataloged. Since some libraries do not regularly catalog bound periodicals or government publications, a correction was made for those libraries reporting a certain percentage of accessions not cataloged. (See Table I, Column 2.)

New Titles

From the cataloging point of view, the number of titles is more significant than the number of volumes; but, of the forty-
six libraries reporting, only nineteen had available data on new titles. (See Table I, Column 3.)

In order to discover whether the relation between the size of a library and the ratio between the size of the catalog department and the number of yearly accessions was significant, a scatter diagram was made, using the corrected data for volumes per cataloger in relation to the number of volumes in the libraries. No relationship of any significance was found between them. For example, the smallest library had 910 volumes of yearly accessions per cataloger and the largest library, 1493, while both the lowest (608) and the highest (2471) number of volumes per cataloger occurred in libraries of over a million volumes. The limited data which were available for number of titles per cataloger revealed no greater evidence of significant relationship with the size of the library. It seems obvious that one must look elsewhere for the explanation of the wide variations in the figures. In general, the variations may be due to (1) differences in the nature of the material cataloged, as to subject and form, (2) differences in cataloging rules used, (3) differences in personnel or in the administration and organization of personnel, or (4) differences in the number of items for which Library of Congress cards are available.

Library of Congress Cards

The percentage of titles for which Library of Congress cards were obtained might be expected to give a quantitative measure of the weight to be given to the differences (1) and (2) above, as well as being in itself a cause of variation in the number of volumes processed per cataloger. The two tables in the following column show a breakdown of the results of analyzing these data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of L.C. cards</th>
<th>Number of Libraries Reporting</th>
<th>Average Number of Volumes per Cataloger</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90 to 100</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 to 89</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 to 79</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 to 69</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 to 59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 to 49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 to 39</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1402</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II shows no significant relation between the percentage of L.C. cards obtainable and the volumes per cataloger. Table III shows some evidence of an inverse relation between the percentage of L.C. cards and the number of titles per cataloger. However, the number of libraries reporting on this item is too small to give the figures much validity.

Professional Staff

Omitting one library, the proportion of professional members of the catalog staffs ranged from 50 per cent to 100 per cent. No further statistical work was done on this subject because it was recognized that in many parts of the country the difficulty of obtaining clerical assistants made the present situation abnormal in this respect. Ordinarily, one would expect to find a
larger proportion of clerical or nonprofessional workers in the catalog department.

Comparison with Total Staff

Some study was made of the data concerning the balance between the size of the catalog staff and the total staff. Of course, a proper balance depends on a good many factors, such as the number of school and departmental libraries, centralization or decentralization of cataloging, etc. Since libraries in the professional schools, such as law and medicine, usually catalog their own collections, the data in this study are limited, in the main, to central and departmental libraries. With this limitation, the statistics submitted give a fairly accurate picture of the current situation. Some libraries reported that their total staff had decreased while the catalog staff had remained constant. On the other hand, some reported that the catalog staff had suffered more losses, relatively, than the other departments. One situation seems to offset the other.

In the following table the size of the cataloging staff is shown as a percentage of the total staff:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE IV</th>
<th>Distribution of Catalog Staff to Total Staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>28 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>27 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>33 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>13 to 45 per cent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The percentage figure occurring most often, as shown by the above table, was 33 per cent, the case in which the catalog staff was one-third of the total staff. The figures for total staff did not include the separate school or college libraries of the larger universities. An analysis of the statistics of the libraries arranged in order of size of book collection follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE V</th>
<th>Percentages of Total Staffs on Cataloging Staffs in Libraries of Various Size-Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size of Library in Volumes</td>
<td>Number of Libraries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>170,000-199,000</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200,000-299,999</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300,000-399,999</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400,000-499,999</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500,000-599,999</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600,000-699,999</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700,000-799,999</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800,000-899,999</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900,000-999,999</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000 and over</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This analysis shows that there is a tendency for the number of persons engaged in cataloging to increase more than proportionately with the size of the library. It may be that the rate of growth of the book collection increases as the library grows larger. This would be true if the larger libraries were also the most rapidly growing libraries, relatively to their size. Or it may be that the complexities of organization within the catalog department increase as the library grows larger. Again, it must be remembered that the statistics used in this investigation do not include all of the school and college libraries of the universities.

Student Assistants

The statistics of those libraries reporting a considerable use of student assistants seemed to confirm the opinion of many head catalogers that there may be no net gain from the use of this type of assistant in the catalog department. Unless their use is confined to alphabetizing cards and labeling books, the results of their work are apt to be unsatisfactory without such supervision by a professional member of the staff as to cancel any gain that might be made. Even if the help of the student
assistant is gratuitous so far as the annual budget of the department is concerned, the time spent by the professional worker in supervision may be out of proportion to the work accomplished by the student. However, if the students work on a half-time schedule and on a year-round basis, the net gain may be worth considering, particularly now when clerical help is both expensive and scarce. Twelve libraries reported the use of student assistants in the catalog department to be the equivalent of one or more full-time person; but only seven of these gave the actual figures in equivalents of full-time. The following table therefore includes only seven libraries, ranging in size from 112,000 to 671,000 volumes.

### TABLE VI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Volumes per Cataloger (Corrected)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Including Students</td>
<td>Omitting Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>926</td>
<td>1821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>884</td>
<td>1575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>627 to 1480</td>
<td>1090 to 2400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary**

Summing up the results of the investigation in terms of averages we find that in the fiscal year 1943-44 the average ratio between the number of yearly accessions and the size of the catalog staff in forty-six college and university libraries was 1548 volumes per cataloger; corrected for uncataloged material, 1485 volumes per cataloger. For nineteen of these libraries the ratio of yearly accessions in terms of titles was 907 titles per cataloger. For seven other libraries the number of volumes per cataloger (corrected), including student assistants, was 926, or, omitting students, 1821. These latter figures compare unfavorably with the ratios of the forty-six libraries not using students in considerable numbers. The size of the library and the percentage of titles for which L.C. cards were used had no significant relationship to the number of volumes or titles per cataloger. The average size of the catalog staff was 28 per cent of the total staff. In this case there was a significant relationship between the percentage figure and the size of the library, the percentage increasing in libraries over 600,000 volumes until the million mark was reached, and then decreasing. With one exception, the percentage of professional catalogers on the cataloging staff varied from 50 per cent to 100 per cent.

**An Example**

How large a cataloging staff will be needed by a library having 12,000 yearly accessions, all of which are to be cataloged? The average ratio of volumes to catalogers being 1485 to 1, it will be found that approximately eight persons will be needed on the cataloging staff, of whom at least half will be professionals. Comparison with the table given in Mann's textbook may be of interest. In the latter, an annual output of 12,000 volumes requires nine catalogers, four of whom are professionals.

**Qualifying Factors**

Several factors may affect the size of the cataloging staff in relation to the annual accessions. If the proportion of new titles is large in comparison to the number of volumes, more than the average number of catalogers will be needed. In this connection it should be noted that the average ratio of titles to volumes was about one to

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*If the report were made in terms of hours, forty hours per week was considered the equivalent of one full-time person.*

*Mann, Margaret. Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books. 2nd ed. Chicago, American Library Association, 1943. Appendix 2.*

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two, or twice as many volumes as titles in the yearly accessions, the ratio increasing with the size of the library. The larger libraries obviously acquire more serial publications than the small ones. The number of duplicate catalogs is another important factor to be taken into consideration in deciding on the size of the catalog department. The more catalogs, the larger the staff required—all other things being equal.

Although it was assumed at the beginning of this study that the organization of the cataloging processes is fairly well standardized in college and university libraries, there are individual differences of some degree, and these would act as qualifying factors on the size of the staff. Those libraries which have separate serial departments which do the cataloging as well as the checklisting, will not need as large catalog departments as they would otherwise, although there may not be any net saving in cataloging time. On the other hand, the catalog department which does accessioning and labeling will need more nonprofessional persons than one not handling these processes. These are such obvious considerations that one need not dwell on them. According to the findings of this investigation, the catalog department using considerable student help will need the equivalent of more persons than one dependent on full-time nonprofessional workers. The question of centralization of cataloging will have to be considered in this connection also. Decentralization will mean fewer persons in the central catalog department, but may increase the total amount of time spent on cataloging throughout the university. The factors of working time, hours per week, and vacations are probably so nearly uniform that they may be disregarded in calculating the staff in this way.

Aside from these qualifications, what factors have caused the wide variations in the number of volumes and titles per cataloger in the institutions studied? Is it possible that due to some cause, such as higher salaries, the climate, or mere chance, the more efficient catalogers are attracted to certain libraries? Or is it not more likely that it is due to more efficient methods and organization of the work within the catalog department or to differences in the quality of the cataloging? Although implied in the above paragraphs, the answers to these questions are really outside the scope of this inquiry, but should receive some consideration from the librarians and head catalogers concerned.
By DOROTHY G. WILLIAMS

National Negro Organizations and Their Publications*

Increasingly within recent years the factual study of Negro life and history in the United States has engaged the attention both of research workers and of interested laymen. To such persons, source materials which afford insight into the group life and thinking of Negro Americans are of obvious concern and importance.

The present article is the result of an investigation, made in 1941, which undertook to identify and describe the types of national Negro organizations then existing in the United States, and to evaluate the publications issued by these bodies in the light of their potential usefulness as source materials for the study of Negro life and history. A further aim of the study was to find out to what extent libraries with large special collections of materials by and about the Negro, which would seem to be the logical places of deposit for these publications, were collecting these publications. The study included a list of organizations and a guide to their publications.

The basic assumptions underlying the study were that these organizations came into being, not by chance, but as the result of certain felt social needs and problems, and thus that the publications of these bodies might well reflect not only these needs and problems, but also the different approaches toward meeting and solving them now in operation among organized groups of Negroes in the United States.

The term “national Negro organizations” was necessarily difficult of precise definition, but two general criteria for inclusion under it were applied. First, only organizations were included whose purposes were concerned primarily with Negro life in the United States or some aspect of it, whether or not their memberships were confined to Negroes or included persons belonging to other racial groups. Secondly, organizations having such purposes were included under the meaning of the term “national” whose structure has been that of a central body with geographically scattered auxiliary units working for the same major aims as that of the parent body and contributing to the funds of the general treasury of the latter. Since the focus of the study was the evaluation of a body of potential library materials, a third criterion for inclusion was also applied, namely, the extent to which the organizations had issued publications. Bodies which investigation showed had no publications, or virtually none, were omitted. Finally, the effort was not made to include all national Negro organizations, but rather to give consideration to as many of the existing types as could be covered in the time available.

The method followed was primarily historical. The chief sources of data were the publications and records of the individual organizations, supplemented by biographical material on persons connected with the various organizations, newspapers and magazines, court reports, and general and local histories. The procedure used was as follows: lists of organizations and

* Based on a master’s thesis prepared at the School of Library Service, Columbia University, 1941.
their publications were begun by consulting the Negro Year Book, 1937-38, Work’s Bibliography of the Negro in Africa and America, the List of Negro Newspapers and Periodicals compiled by the United States Bureau of the Census, the Union List of Serials, the Social Work Year Book, the Handbook of American Trade-Unions, and other reference works. These lists were compared with the catalogs of the Schomburg Collection and the reference division of the New York Public Library, in order that any organizations or publications not included could be added and their holdings checked and publications examined. Similarly, visits were made to as many as possible of the headquarters of the organizations, and to the Fisk University Library, the Moorland Foundation of the Howard University Library, the Library of Congress, the Rand School Library, the Union Theological Seminary in New York, and the Teachers College Library of Columbia University. Consultation either by correspondence or in person with officials of the organizations and with outstanding specialists on Negro life and history took place as the study proceeded.

Findings

Six major types of organizations were distinguished: churches, fraternal organizations, “general” organizations, labor unions, educational associations, and organizations devoted to research and publication. Each type was found to be so distinct both as to purposes and publications that it was deemed best to discuss each separately. This procedure is likewise here followed.

(1) Churches. The church is not only the oldest but also the largest and wealthiest of the Negro’s organizations. The Negro adult church membership (persons 13 years of age and over) reported by the United States census of religious bodies in 1936 totaled 5,660,618, representing 46 per cent of the entire Negro population, while the value of 38,303 Negro church edifices reported in the same year was $164,531,531. There are today thirty-three denominations that are entirely Negro, of which four (the Baptist, African Methodist Episcopal, African Methodist Episcopal Zion, and Colored Methodist Episcopal) are of preponderant importance, since to them belong 83 per cent of all the adult Negro church members in the United States. The functional importance of the church is so generally understood as to preclude the necessity for protracted exposition. Charles Spurgeon Johnson summarizes the matter:

The church has been and continues to be the outstanding social institution in the Negro community. It has a far wider function than to bring spiritual inspiration to its communicants. The church is still the only institution which provides an effective organization for the group, an approved and tolerated place for social activities, a forum for expression on many issues, an outlet for emotional repressions, and a plan for social living.

Church publications are considerable both in bulk and importance. The oldest Negro periodical in the United States is the weekly Christian Recorder, issued by the African Methodist Episcopal Church, which began publication in 1856 and has continued to the present day. In 1884 this denomination began the publication of a quarterly, the A.M.E. Church Review, which in 1927 was discontinued. This journal is of particular significance as source material on Negro life and history during the period covered, for its pages constituted a forum for expression on politics, prevailing moral and social values, economic problems, race relations, and education, as

2 Ibid., p. 74.
well as on religious and denominational matters. It is interesting to find, for example, that certain of the speeches of the Negro abolitionist and reformer, Frederick Douglass, which are not elsewhere recorded, were here printed. The official histories of the various denominations, as well as the journals, are of importance not only as accounts of the establishment and growth of the Negro church, but also as source materials for the history of Negro education.

(2) Fraternal Organizations. There are two types of these organizations, namely the secret and benevolent societies, popularly called "lodges," and the college fraternities and sororities. Like the Negro churches, the "lodges" enlist a large membership and represent a considerable financial investment. Although precise statistics are nowhere available, one student has estimated that the total membership in sixty-five Negro secret societies is approximately 2,500,000 and the property they own probably in the neighborhood of $20,000,000.4 Like the churches also, certain of these societies, notably the Odd Fellows, Masons, Knights of Pythias, and the Elks, are imitations of similar white organizations, while other orders are Negro inventions purely. The main, though not the sole, functions of these organizations are social intercourse and the provision of insurance against sickness and death.

Publications of the "lodges" typically include a journal, usually issued monthly; histories of the order; constitutions and by-laws; manuals of ritual and procedure (which are secret and thus not available to libraries); proceedings of the annual conventions; and a large amount of ephemeral material issued in connection with specific, and usually local, activities of the order, such as public programs, mass meetings, parades, and, interestingly enough, campaign literature related to national, state, and local political elections. These publications are revealing because they disclose the same socio-psychological needs in operation among Negroes as among the white "joiners," and, in addition, because they carry direct expression of the attitudes and opinions of their members on a wide variety of subjects, including politics, labor problems, segregation, housing conditions, and the like.

There are fourteen Greek-letter organizations among Negroes, including undergraduate groups of men and women and honorary and professional fraternities and sororities. The most noteworthy features of these bodies, aside from their social and recreational activities, which follow the general pattern of their white counterparts, has been their voluntary assumption of serious responsibilities to the Negro race. Each offers scholarships to college students, including a few sizable awards for graduate study, and each conducts group projects of various kinds. For example, since 1935 Alpha Kappa Alpha sorority has conducted a mobile health clinic in Mississippi, which has treated thousands of adults for malaria and venereal diseases and immunized more than 14,500 children against diphtheria and smallpox. Thomas Parran, Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service, calls the clinic's achievement one of the greatest jobs of volunteer public health work he has ever seen.5 The quarterly journals issued by each of the Greek-letter groups are of interest because they afford direct revelation both of certain aspects of the little-known social life of the college-bred Negro and of his activities in behalf of the Negro group as a whole.

(3) "General" Organizations. The two most important organizations so termed

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represent large-scale efforts to ameliorate, if not to solve, the "Negro problem" in the United States. The objectives of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People are the removal of all forms of segregation and racial discrimination against the Negro, and the protection of his civil liberties, through legislative and judicial action. Since the association was founded in 1910 it has won fifteen out of sixteen cases brought before the United States Supreme Court; it renders legal aid (gratis) to Negroes in cases involving civil rights in the lower courts; and is active in lobbying for legislation favorable to Negroes, before both Congress and the state legislatures.

The official organ of the association is *The Crisis*, a monthly journal which began publication in November 1910. In addition to recording the work of the association, *The Crisis* also carries discussion of racial problems, general news, short stories, and poetry. The fact that it is not included in any of the periodical indexes hampers its reference use considerably. Of particular interest to research are the published legal briefs and arguments of counsel and the factual data assembled for the use of lobbyists and legislators in connection with pending legislation. The detailed annual reports of the association, issued since 1910, are of considerable general interest and reference value.

The second of the "general" organizations is the National Urban League for Social Service among Negroes, which was founded in 1911 specifically to meet the problems growing out of the migration of increasing numbers of rural Southern Negroes to the large industrial centers, both North and South. It places its primary emphasis on the development of economic opportunities for Negroes in cities. Through the industrial relations departments of its local branches the league functions as a large-scale employment agency. It maintains close relations with employer groups and with labor unions, with social work agencies, and with national, state, and local officials concerned with labor and industry. Vocational education, civic education, and workers education are also important league activities.

The official journal of the league, *Opportunity*, is issued monthly and is indexed in the Public Affairs Information Service. Its contents include articles by officials of the league and by outside specialists, particularly in such fields as industrial trends, labor problems, housing, and race relations; general news, in a section called "Survey of the Month;" and literary contributions. It is interesting to find that its literary material is frequently included in various anthologies. During 1940 the New York Herald Tribune reproduced eight of its poems in issues of its "Week of Verse," and the Best Short Stories of 1940 compiled by E. J. H. O'Brien listed four of its short stories among the "distinctive short stories of the year." The league publishes its Annual Reports and issues as separates certain of the studies of its research department. These last consist chiefly of surveys of Negro populations in cities; studies dealing with industry, migration, race relations, and housing, with particular reference to the Negro; and bibliographies, such as Source Materials on the Urban Negro in the United States, 1910-1938 (1939). The research department prepares in addition the quarterly house organ of the league, The Secretariat, which stresses urban league techniques for handling specific situations. The league from time to time releases pamphlets, some of which are factual, others primarily propagandist in nature. The publications of the National Urban League are, without question, important source materials for the study of Negro life and history in the United States.
fact-finding investigations are scientifically reliable and supply data not elsewhere available on many phases of Negro life. The techniques employed by the league to attain specific objectives are quite frankly recorded in its publications, particularly The Secretariat, and constitute an interesting source for the discovery of the methods used by minority groups to reach desired goals.

(4) Labor Unions. With the exception of two occupational groupings in which Negro workers maintain a virtual monopoly (the railroad porters and dining car waiters), the formation of independent Negro unions has been “a protest against the attitude of white organized labor in the United States toward Negro workers.”

The publication program of each of the unions typically includes a monthly journal and irregularly issued bulletins on matters of immediate importance, sent out by the national headquarters, and processed ephemeral material issued by the union’s locals. While these publications are not of general interest, they constitute primary sources of information on the Negro and the labor movement in the United States.

(5) Educational Associations. These bodies have been formed chiefly because of the need felt by Negro teachers and administrators for some media for discussion of the many special problems connected with Negro education. The publications of these organizations are confined for the most part to proceedings of their conferences and to journals usually issued quarterly. These publications, while not in general of a scholarly type, are of interest chiefly because of the insight they give into the special problems of Negro education, the attitudes of Negro educators toward these problems, and the efforts being made toward their solution.

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COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES

(6) Organizations Devoted to Research and Publication. The most important such body is the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, organized in 1915 for the following purposes:

to collect sociological and historical data on the Negro, to publish books on Negro life and history, to promote the study of the Negro through clubs and organizations, and to foster harmony between the races by interpreting the one to the other.

The association is supported by memberships of individuals and of organizations and by endowments of $25,000 each from the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial Foundation. The association publishes a very considerable body of research on many phases of Negro life and history, not only in the United States but also in other parts of the world. Many of its publications are doctoral dissertations prepared at American universities, such as The Negro in Tennessee from 1865-1880 by A. A. Taylor, written at Harvard University. In addition to the research studies, which form by far the largest part of its list, the association also publishes books for young people dealing with Negro life and history. These books are historically reliable but are written with the child’s reading level in mind. The association issues two periodicals, the Journal of Negro History, a scholarly quarterly, and the Negro History Bulletin, which appears eight times a year and is especially designed for the use of elementary and high schools. The Journal of Negro History is included in the International Index; the Negro History Bulletin is not covered by any of the commercially published indexes. Each year the association sponsors “Negro History Week,” the purpose of which is to stimulate general interest in the study of Negro life and his-


tory, and, in connection with it, issues much of pamphlet material, pictures of distinguished Negroes, and posters. The association is a reputable research organization, and the various publications issued by it are of apparent interest and value.

Summary and Recommendations

The answer to the question as to which, if any, of the publications of the national Negro organizations are important as source materials is dependent on what aspect of Negro life or history is to be studied. In all probability no one library would wish to assemble all the publications of all the Negro organizations, but it appears quite evident that certain libraries would want to preserve some of them. Investigation indicated that libraries, even those with extensive Negro collections, have tended in general to neglect to assemble these publications. In many cases, broken files or total lack of holdings were due primarily to the fact that the material was not secured at the time of issuance and was not available when the library subsequently wished to secure it. An incidental finding of the organization itself lacked complete files of its own publications.

It is recommended that librarians, especially those having particular interest in Negro materials, give careful thought to the matter of the publications of the national Negro organizations. These should be surveyed carefully, and definite policies should be formulated, so that the lack of a file of a publication will indicate a decision on the part of the library rather than an oversight. Because the bulk of the material is so vast, it is also recommended that librarians of institutions having important Negro collections form a planning committee and divide the task of assembling such of the publications as it seems worth while to keep, on the basis of the individual library's focus of interest. This has not been done in the past and it appears reasonable to think it would be a useful procedure—one which, in fact, might well be extended to include not only the publications of the national Negro organizations but also materials of all kinds by and about the Negro.

Fellowships and Scholarships at the University of Chicago

The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago has announced three fellowships of $1200 each for graduate study in librarianship during the 1946-47 academic year and several tuition scholarships for study leading to graduate degrees and to the bachelor of library science degree. These are outright awards, not payment for services to be rendered.

The fellowship grants are available to students in the A.M. and Ph.D. programs. The requirements for advanced study include college graduation, library school education, and library experience. Application for graduate fellowships and scholarships must be made by Mar. 10, 1946.

The scholarship grants are available (a) to students in the graduate programs, (b) students in the one-year program leading to the B.L.S. degree, who must have four years of college credit, and (c) students in the three-year subject and professional program leading to the B.L.S. degree, who must have two years of college credit. Applications for scholarships in the bachelor of library science courses should be filed by June 15, 1946.

Forms for applying for awards may be obtained by writing to the Dean, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, Chicago 37.

JANUARY, 1946
Catalog Adviser Service at California

The librarian who likes people, enjoys variety in his work, and has a good knowledge of the principles of cataloging, will find the position of catalog adviser a most desirable assignment.

The catalog information desk at the University of California Library is in full view of visitors and students as they enter the main hall. Many persons obviously are relieved to find someone at a central desk who can answer their questions and give directions. Students soon learn that the catalog adviser will help them to use the catalog, show them how to find material, and answer a wide variety of miscellaneous enquiries.

The catalog adviser is a member of the catalog department and understands the records and has access to them, and her desk serves therefore as a center for corrections and improvements in the catalog. Faculty members find it convenient to leave complaints and suggestions with her, and librarians from other departments give her notes about errors in filing, duplicate call numbers, and other mistakes which she can correct without bothering the workers in the catalog department proper. Hence, although the catalog adviser must be approachable and must avoid the appearance of being too busy, she finds time for various activities which lighten the burden of the catalogers.

A final aspect of the position is most important to a catalog adviser whose chief interest is the making of a good catalog—the opportunity to observe critically the use of the catalog, to discover its weaknesses, and to suggest principles which should be followed in making it usable. It is this phase which seems of greatest significance, and the following paragraphs provide a report of the observations of the catalog advisers in one library on the use of the catalog by students and faculty members.

In studying the use of the catalog the most simple approach seemed to be to keep in mind two points: first, why was a given question asked, and, second, could the question have been prevented? There are several reasons for certain questions. Inexperience in the use of the catalog, lack of complete information or the presence of incorrect information concerning entries, and inability to decipher abbreviations, are examples. Lack of knowledge of entry rules or filing rules is also involved. This concerns (1) entries for societies, institutions, government bodies, and conferences and committees, and (2) the works of voluminous authors, the names of rulers, compound names, and names with prefixes.

In addition to the questions on the finding of cards, there are some concerning the information on cards. For example, often it must be pointed out that “Educ. Dept. Another copy” means Educ. Dept. another copy and not only copy. Also, symbols on the cards, such as the double star, result in many questions.

Then there are the students who look in
the wrong catalog, since there are more than one. Although some confuse the subject with the author-title catalog, most cases of looking in the wrong catalog are due to a fundamental misunderstanding of what librarians mean by “author.” Once it is explained that an author is not necessarily a person, users have little difficulty in understanding which catalog to consult. The few cases where the line of demarcation between the catalogs is indistinct cause little trouble. Finally, there are questions which are due to errors and weaknesses in the catalog itself, such as the omission of cross references, the occurrence of cross references which are not clear, errors in typing of call numbers, occasional misfiled cards, and worn out and illegible cards.

One could go on at great length giving examples of questions but, in spite of the fact that many of the examples are somewhat humorous, the list would soon tend to assume the aspect of a mere recital of woes. And furthermore, too many examples along this line would be unfair to both the public and the catalog. Most people work at the trays without requiring help; so, in general, the students and faculty are able to use the catalog, and the catalog does fulfill its function well a great deal of the time. We are searching for, and emphasizing, failures and defects, not successes and points of excellence, because uncovering problems and finding solutions are a direct means of making improvements.

It is true that catalog entry rules are complicated—there are rules and exceptions, and exceptions to the exceptions. But the rules are complicated, not because anyone likes them that way, but because they were devised to bring some degree of unity to a mass of material which is almost hopelessly diverse. The catalog indexes all types of publications in all languages and must take into account usage peculiar to innumerable races, countries, governments, institutions, rulers, religious bodies, and persons throughout all periods of history. And as if all this were not enough, it even has to cope with the idiosyncrasies of modern publishers. Even assuming that the rules are to be streamlined, it is impossible to believe that catalog entries will ever be simple for the average user of the catalog. It looks as though librarians must always be on hand to assist with difficult problems and perhaps supplement individual instruction by class instruction.

But what can the catalogers do about the problems? Perhaps the first step is to keep in touch with the difficulties of the public and to watch for opportunities for improvement, no matter how slight. This entails such efforts as are indicated below.

Consider the habits of users of the catalog. For example, we know that students remember titles rather than authors. Then, for recent books of general interest as well as for fiction, distinctive title entries should be made. How we can get the titles out of the catalog again when their usefulness is past is another problem; but, unless students are expected to use the Cumulative Book Index, those titles are needed now.

Continue to emphasize cross references. The author-title catalog is strong in cross references. Of course practical use of the catalog will always reveal gaps which are not foreseen, and one of the chief activities of the catalog advisers is to fill in these gaps, not only through their own experience but by promptly acting upon suggestions from various divisions of the library. More subject cross references may be made as the checking of subject headings progresses, and it is well to continue to watch for subject references which are desirable even though they do not appear in the Library of Congress list.

Use more visual aids. A device which is important and in which the catalog at California is weak rather than strong is a
system of guide cards. Students have had difficulty in finding periodicals such as *Time* and *Life*. An assistant at the periodical desk in the University of California Library had also been aware of this problem for a long time and she suggested a guide card for each periodical indexed in the *Readers' Guide*. These guide cards were made, and a drop in the number of questions was observed. More guide cards are needed in all the catalogs.

**Make the meaning of the cards clear.** Such terms as "see his" and "see its" are confusing in cross references. Consequently, the rule for making cross references was changed several months ago and no new references with this specialized library terminology are being added at California. The change from the "Period. Stack" designation to a call number immediately cut the number of questions. The adding of "Reading Room" under old class call numbers which formerly were only preceded by an R, to indicate "Reading Room," is in line with the principle that we must say what we mean and avoid symbols whenever possible. A member of the staff has been working on ways to clarify the meaning of the two stamps "For other editions see" and "For fuller information see," and students are to be asked to express their opinions about a set of sample cards which carry these stamps.

**Recognize problems caused by systems peculiar to the library.** Jens Nyholm has already discussed certain experimental changes in the method of recording periodical holdings. The fact that this is a closed stack library adds to the difficulties of making cards which are adequate. Contents notes and notes about indexes for sets in several volumes become more important because readers cannot go to the shelves.

In conclusion, it should be mentioned that the catalog advisers have found their experience at the catalog information desk helpful in their work as catalogers. One cannot strive to put oneself in a student's place, in order to study the catalog, without having one's own viewpoint modified. Criticism of the catalog in general terms cannot be evaluated and certainly cannot help to solve problems; but if cooperation can consist of specific suggestions, integration of the catalogers' and public viewpoints can be achieved.
Soon after the Yale University Library moved into its new building various collections which had been forced into attics or cellars for lack of space in the old building, were given adequate room and were gradually made available to the public through individual catalogs or by representation in the main catalog. One of these collections, comprised of auction and secondhand book dealers’ catalogs, had been growing for many years through the natural cumulation of such material in a university library and through the wise decision of the librarian to keep such material, even though it had to be stored in inaccessible corners of the old building.

Many of the catalogs had been absorbed into the general book collection through the years. Sale catalogs of important private libraries became bibliographical tools of great value to both research scholars and to catalogers, not only because of the valuable material they contained, but because of the careful and detailed descriptions found in them. A great number of secondhand book dealers’ catalogs were also added to the general collection, not because of the rarity of the books listed for sale nor because of the method of description of these books, but because these catalogs were valuable subject bibliographies—in many cases the best available.

However, the “seepage” of book catalogs into the general book collection was a very minor flow when the collection as a whole is considered. And once it was brought into the new book tower, even though shelved on the seventeenth stack floor (at that time still not officially open to the public) it was agreed that something should be done to make it more useful. This promised to be a tremendous task, as the catalogs were in no order, and the first problem of sorting and arranging seemed almost impossible, with all the other extra work entailed with the arrival in the new building. However, because it was a new building and because, for the first time in years, there was plenty of room, everyone was filled with enthusiasm and was willing to undertake whatever labors would render the whole library collection more useful to its readers and also make the best use of the new surroundings.

In the beginning the collection of book catalogs was one of the minor problems. Everyone realized its value, but there were many urgent tasks. Finally, after several conferences between the departments involved, particularly between the reference librarian and the head cataloger, it was decided that the reference department would undertake the arrangement of the catalogs and, eventually, the making of some sort of checklist of the material. This decision was reached after it was agreed that it would be much too expensive to catalog the collection, and that for all practical purposes a checklist would serve. The aid of student assistants was to be relied on, both for the sorting of the catalogs and for the listing, and one member of the reference department was to supervise the work and develop the collection and the checklist as the work...
progressed. The author was given that task, and for ten years it was her “extracurricular” or “busy” work.

**Cataloging Procedure**

After much discussion, and with the sympathetic advice and counsel of the head cataloger, a general plan of cataloging procedure was adopted. This differed considerably, and for the most part deliberately, from that followed for the main catalog. There were to be two large groups, each with its own classification number—the auction sale catalogs, and those issued by secondhand book dealers. Under these two general headings the material was to be arranged alphabetically by name of dealer, Cutter numbers being assigned for each dealer. Generally accepted serial cataloging procedure, with such simplifications as seemed practicable, was then established.

After the catalogs had been sorted, work was begun on the checklist. Short title entries were used for the individual catalogs, and as many as possible were entered on each card, always leaving spaces for missing numbers in the series when such gaps were evident. In each entry, however, the various kinds of material being offered by the dealer were indicated, so the short title was more of a subject entry than a strict title. Of course the date of the catalog was always given when it could be discovered, especially for the auction sales. In unnumbered series these dates were used for the book numbers.

The names of owners of the private libraries which were being offered for sale were also noted in these title entries. This became quite a task, as any one can understand who has glanced at a Sotheby sale catalog. However, it was considered important information, and even after the second checklist was started, set up by the names of these owners of libraries offered for sale either at auction or in the secondhand book trade, it was continued in the first checklist. The last bit of information for each title (used only for the auction sale catalogs, of course) was a note indicating whether the catalog was priced, partially priced, or priced with names of buyers.

The sorting was done on the seventeenth stack floor, and the making of the two checklists and the marking of the catalogs was carried out by student assistants on duty in the main reading room, where they served as monitors during the evenings. Due to the physical separation of the material from the workers doing the work, as well as to the constant turnover of student assistants, many discrepancies crept in, so that the checklist is far from perfect. It has, however, served its purpose in making the collection more readily available to the public, and, in the very process of its making, it enabled Yale to discover what the collection lacked as well as what it contained.

Besides this tremendous backlog of material there was at the same time the constant acquisition of new catalogs to be added to the collection. All new catalogs were placed on open shelves in the main reading room for faculty consultation for a period of several months. They were then taken from these shelves, entered in the checklists, marked, and sent to the stacks to be added to the general collection.

Many problems arose as the work progressed. Some were solved satisfactorily, but many were only settled by compromise decisions. This was due sometimes to the amount of untrained assistance which had to be relied on, but it was also due to the fact that no one, either trained or untrained, had enough time to spend on the problems. In a way, this may have been just as well, as the primary purpose was to make the collection usable.

One of the questions which arose in the very beginning was the advisability of set-
ting up the dealers' catalogs by country and then alphabetically by name of dealer. Rightly or wrongly, this was decided against, as it was argued that few dealers limited their catalogs to books either treating their own country or published in that country. Another arrangement considered was that of setting up auction catalogs by country and then by date, as had been done in the two printed catalogs of book auctions. This was decided against, as Yale was interested in acquiring as complete runs of various dealers' catalogs as was possible; and, for this reason, the arrangement by dealer seemed more logical, especially as the two printed lists could be used for the other approach for the countries and periods covered by them.

The question arose whether or not to include catalogs of furniture, prints, art objects, paintings, etc., when issued by dealers who also published book catalogs. This was settled rather arbitrarily when it was determined to enter all catalogs of any dealer who at any time issued book catalogs. This decision was made chiefly because of the lack of time for complete supervision, and is not an entirely satisfactory solution to the problem.

It was decided to protect the rare and valuable catalogs by shelving them in a grilled section of the same stack floor on which the general collection was shelved. While any catalog may be shelved here for some specific reason, a general rule was established to cover all early catalogs. Those of English and Continental sales held before 1800, and of American sales held before 1850, are automatically shelved in the grilled section. The entries in the checklists for these catalogs are so marked, and all are represented by dummies in the main collection.

The problem most desired of solution, and still not touched, is the formation of a subject catalog or checklist of the whole collection. Several attempts were made, just to see if it could be done, but under the existing conditions they were all found impracticable. In the first place, to make the subject catalog useful, each catalog would have to be examined by one person who would assign subject headings. This was impossible, as the one person who was supervising the work was, for most of her time, a reference librarian. She could partially supervise the work of student assistants, as they came and went, but could not begin to examine each catalog and assign subject headings. Also, it was soon found that a very small section of a large catalog might be quite important as a subject bibliography of a very minute field, and that that same catalog might need entries for eight or nine other subjects as well. Where to draw the line? It was finally agreed that second copies of good subject bibliographies should be treated as they were in the old days—incorporated into the general book collection and into the card catalog as subject bibliographies. This, of course, was only begging the issue of a complete subject catalog of the whole collection, which would still be the ideal solution.

**Growth of the Collection**

Before the work of sorting the catalogs had begun, the proof sheets of George L. McKay's list of American book auctions began to arrive, with the request that Yale's holdings be noted. The preparation of this union list was encouraging because it showed the new interest in making such collections available, but at this time it was impossible for Yale to give an adequate picture of her holdings. Those sale catalogs which had been considered important

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enough to be incorporated in the general book collection could be found in the main card catalog, but the great mass of the catalogs was still in such chaotic disarrangement that checking was practically impossible. However, insofar as was possible, holdings were noted on the proof sheets, and when the book appeared it became the most important source of reference in the attempt to complete the Yale files of American auction catalogs. In checking holdings of English sale catalogs as well as attempting to fill in gaps in this field, the British Museum list referred to above was used. These two volumes were invaluable in identifying many anonymous sales, as well as providing a goal in the attempt to assemble as complete a collection as possible, at least in the field of English and American sale catalogs.

If a comparable volume for French auction catalogs had been in existence, one of the chief problems would have been much simpler. In 1909 Yale received, as a bequest from the estate of Morris Tyler of the Class of 1870, his collection of eighteenth and nineteenth century French auction catalogs. These represented sales of important private libraries. All were in excellent condition, beautifully bound, and many were priced and had the names of buyers in manuscript. They had been cataloged at the time and, as a valuable part of Yale’s bibliographical collection, were left intact when the rest of the catalogs were gathered. Because of the method of procedure for French auction sales (all of which were sold by an official auctioneer, no matter whose library was being sold or which dealer was offering the material), the setup used for book auctions in other countries was impossible. The only practicable arrangement was by date of sale, and all French auction catalogs, with the exception of the Morris Tyler collection, have been set up on the shelves in this way, but no checklist has as yet been made. The unusual arrangement, combined with the presence of the large and important Morris Tyler group already incorporated in the general book collection, seemed to necessitate a quite different treatment and also more time for study before an adequate procedure could be established.

As the collection became more available, and because of this fact attracted the attention and interest of more people, it was felt that some effort and money should be spent in filling in the more serious gaps. This was made possible first through the Ganson Goodyear Depew Memorial Fund, established in 1930 but not used for the purchase of auction catalogs until 1935 and later. In 1935 a collection of two hundred early auction catalogs—English, French, German, and Italian—was purchased through this fund, and from that date on it was used to increase holdings, especially in the field of seventeenth and eighteenth century English and American catalogs. This gift is described briefly in the Yale University Library Gazette for April 1937.

In 1936 Henrietta C. Bartlett presented to the library, in memory of her father, a collection of valuable catalogs, most of them priced and many having names of buyers. This collection includes both English and American sale catalogs, and a number of them are of particular value as they contain marginal notes by Miss Bartlett referring to the provenance of some Shakespeare item, or of some other English classic of the same period.

The next gift received by the Yale Library which added considerably to its collection of catalogs, especially for nineteenth century American and English sales, was the library of George Watson Cole, presented by him in 1937. While this distinguished bibliographical library was, for

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the most part, kept together as the George Watson Cole Collection, the sale catalogs were incorporated in the collection of auction and secondhand book dealers' catalogs. Mr. Cole's catalogs were in excellent condition and in many cases were priced and had names of buyers in manuscript marginal notes.

The order department had been the original source of the bulk of the collection, and their catalogs, received daily, continued to form the largest single source of current acquisitions. This department was at the same time interested in filling gaps and could always be counted on to find a little extra money to purchase a prize catalog which came on the market. And it was not long before a new duty was added to the person in charge of the collection—the checking of secondhand book catalogs in which sale catalogs were being offered for sale. This was done most willingly, for in many instances it was possible to acquire the important catalogs which came on the market in this manner—though it was interesting to watch the prices rise as more and more libraries became aware of the value of these catalogs and began to do something with their own collections. With this operation the circle was complete.

Besides buying individual catalogs, several large lots were acquired which did much to round out the collection. In 1942 a group of about 5600 catalogs was purchased from the library of the Union Theological Seminary. This lot consisted, chiefly, of long and fairly complete runs of foreign secondhand book dealers' catalogs, and it was particularly strong in German dealers. The runs went back into the middle nineteenth century and came up to 1920, helping to fill a very definite gap in the Yale collection.

The largest purchase was made later the same year, when the Wilberforce Eames collection of catalogs was acquired and, along with it, many New York Public Library duplicates. As the New York Public Library had fallen heir to the catalogs from the American Art Association Anderson Galleries, Inc., when they went out of business, Yale acquired in this great lot of ten thousand catalogs many of the official catalogs of this firm—in most cases carefully priced. While many of the Eames catalogs were kept by the New York Public Library for its own great collection, those acquired by Yale did much toward completing its own files and at the same time were of value because of the notes and prices, or indications of value, made by Mr. Eames in the margins. With the acquisition of this last lot of material, Yale's holdings became so comprehensive that it was decided no large collections would be bought in bulk in the future. A great group of duplicates was accumulating, even after second copies were kept, and third copies were being used for subject bibliographies. These are used by the order department for sale and exchange purposes.

Present State of the Collection

During these years, approximately from 1932 to date, the collection has had the friendly interest and support of many friends of Yale. Members of the faculty, as well as of the library staff, have turned over their own copies of catalogs as they have finished with them and often have given their personal copies of early sale catalogs in some particular field in which their interest has centered. With such generous cooperation and interest on all sides it is no wonder the collection has grown to impressive proportions. The catalogs themselves are still shelved on the seventeenth stack floor of the book tower, but they now fill eight double-faced ranges, not including the two ranges of third copies waiting to be used as subject bibliographies nor the seven shelves of early catalogs in the grilled sec-

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The checklist in the reading room now has cards standing for 3030 dealers, 292 auctioneers, and 2738 secondhand book dealers; and the book trade of practically every country in the world is represented here by at least one dealer. These cards now fill twenty catalog trays, while the second checklist of owner cards for sales of private libraries is about the same size.

Such general figures, however, give an inadequate picture of the collection as a whole. Only when comparing Yale holdings with other accumulations or with the printed lists of sale catalogs mentioned above, can it be adequately presented. Of the 5030 nineteenth century American sale catalogs listed by Mr. McKay, 1013, or about one fifth, are to be found at Yale, as well as thirty-five which are not given in the printed list. And, of the 4652 catalogs in the McKay list for the years 1900-34, Yale has 3914, or about three-fourths. This shows, as might be expected, that Yale is much weaker in the early years, and it is this period which is being constantly supplemented with new purchases as sale catalogs appear on the market.

It also might be interesting to note some of the important American auction firms and Yale's holdings of their catalogs. Bangs, of New York, in business under various names from 1837 to 1903, is represented in the McKay list by 2766 sales, of which Yale has only 686. This, however, is a fairly good showing, for it is very difficult to find copies of the early Bangs sales. Henkels, of Philadelphia, is not well represented at Yale for his early sales, but a fairly complete run is to be found from 1885 on. Five hundred and forty-six sale catalogs of Merwin Clayton of New York are to be found at Yale, with only sixty-one of those listed in McKay missing. Libbie, of Boston, covering the period from 1878 to 1919, is represented by 604 catalogs—a respectable showing, but far from a complete run. And for Leavitt, of New York, for the years from 1856-92, Yale has just about half the number listed by McKay, i.e., 310 catalogs out of 621. Of the more recent firms, as is to be expected, Yale's holdings are more nearly complete. The files for Anderson Galleries, American Art Association, and the combined American Art Association Anderson Galleries, Inc., are practically complete, and this is also true of the Parke-Bernet file.

It is more difficult to give an adequate picture of Yale's collection of English sale catalogs. The British Museum list, going back to 1676 and coming down only to 1900, puts Yale at a decided disadvantage. Her nineteenth century holdings are fairly good, but before that time they cannot be compared with the British Museum collection. However, it might be stated that the file of Sotheby catalogs at Yale numbers 710 through 1919, and is practically complete from 1920 to date. Other English firms are well represented, especially Christie, but much work in this field is yet to be done. Comparative figures for foreign sale catalogs are impossible to obtain, but Hoepli, Gilhofer and Ranschburg, Hiersemann, and many others are well represented.

The catalogs shelved in the grilled section are, for the most part, early American and English sale catalogs. There are about fifty American catalogs of sales held before 1850. English sales before 1800 are represented by 45 catalogs, and those held from 1800 to about 1845 (which it seemed wise to segregate), by a total of 146 catalogs. Here also are shelved lists for a few early German, French, and Dutch sales.

Nothing has been said specifically here about the secondhand book dealers' catalogs, as it is impossible in so short an article even to give statistics concerning individual companies. But, for the outstanding

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3 All the figures in this paper about the Yale collection were compiled in August 1944.
dealers of all countries, Yale's collection has good runs, and for many out-of-the-way countries it is surprisingly representative.

The Use of the Collection

The various uses to which such a collection of book catalogs can be put seem innumerable. The most obvious ones are those which in themselves would hardly justify the time, labor, space, and money which have been spent on the Yale collection. The tracing of the provenance of a rare book is a fascinating task and in some instances an important one, but it can be done without such a collection being assembled in a university library. And even descriptions of rare books can be found and the history of their prices studied without the use of such tremendous numbers of catalogs. It is only when these uses can be tied in with many others, more strictly in line with the research work to which a university library is devoted, that such a collection can be justified. As the organizing progressed, more and more use was made of the collection and in more and more different ways.

The great value of these catalogs as subject bibliographies has been mentioned, but it must be emphasized here once more. Time and again the catalog of some collector's private library, finally sold at public auction, has become the definitive bibliography in the special field which was his interest. And as it was a collector who built the library, the catalog is apt to contain every possible item connected with the subject. Many unique copies are here found described and, often, items no longer in existence.

Other libraries have been built around the writings of one man, and such catalogs not only present splendid bibliographical material relating to his writings, but usually give additional information found in manuscript notes in specific copies in his handwriting. Biographical information, as well as added light on the critical interpretation of the author, can often be found in such catalogs. Sometimes the books described, with the manuscript notes in them, have disappeared, and the quotation in the sale catalog is the only extant reference. In fact, the tracing of manuscript material is one of the most important and constant uses to which the collection is put. Not only the manuscript notes in books, but separate manuscripts offered for sale with books or in collections by themselves, are often now only known through their entries in these sale catalogs.

In more general terms, the catalogs of private libraries assembled at various periods and in various countries give good pictures of the literary life of the time. And the individual library of a great man, no matter what his field of activity, is always an important source for the historian or biographer in his interpretation of the man. Catalogs as a group also present the development of the history of books and printing, the changing tastes of those who buy and collect books as well as of those who write them, and an over-all picture of the literary background of various countries at different periods.

In spite of these brief notes as to the use of the Yale collection, it still could not be justified as a "paying proposition." But its organizing is one of the tasks which a research library feels needs no such justification. For the comparatively few students and scholars who find here the pieces needed to fit into their complicated scholarly puzzles, the collection is as necessary as any other part of the library. To make it available is an obligation which a research library willingly undertakes.
On Meeting Interlibrary Loan Costs

THE book that I borrowed was scarcely more than a pamphlet, yet you are charging me seventy-five cents for transportation costs. I feel that this charge, like others I have paid in the past, is much too high.

These words prefaced the protest that an agitated professor at a Midwestern university recently addressed to the reference librarian at his university library. Shortly after, the professor undertook a cursory exploration of the interlibrary loan problem, expecting to accumulate evidence with which he could challenge the charge system on his own campus. The professor asked librarians at seven representative university libraries how they defrayed costs on their interlibrary loans, and upon what general principle they based their practice.

The survey showed, however, that charging interlibrary loan costs to individual borrowers is very general. Nevertheless, the professor and others who oppose the levying of such charges can find comfort in the fact that three of the librarians who were consulted are, in principle, opposed to charging interlibrary loan costs to borrowers. A fourth librarian reserved comment on the charge system at his library for personal reasons and may be considered as opposing the system. The personal views of these librarians involve them in a conflict with harsh necessity, for all happen to administer libraries where budgetary shortages compel the collection of loan costs from borrowers. One representative of this group wrote: "We regret having to do this and feel that the library should render this service, along with its other services, without charge," and another declared categorically: "The university has the duty of providing adequate research facilities;" while still another librarian's letter alluded as follows to the budgetary malnutrition from which some university libraries are currently suffering: "I am sorry to say that we simply do not have the funds to cover this service. . . . We have a very small library appropriation for a library of this size."

Only one of the libraries surveyed relieves the individual borrower of all cost for interlibrary loans. Of those which collect charges from borrowers, none charges a flat rate of so much a volume borrowed and all keep exact accounts of the cost of each loan. One librarian stated that he would like to introduce a flat rate of twenty-five cents a volume so that the charge system would bear less heavily upon borrowers in the more impecunious academic brackets.

One of the valid arguments against a system of charges is the burden it imposes upon the graduate student and part-time assistant. A graduate student who is assessed all transportation costs on a loan may have to pay almost a dollar for each volume borrowed, if the supplying libraries require the transportation of their books by express. If a student has to borrow a large number of books to complete a thesis project, his resultant liability may in some circumstances be staggering. Instances could be cited in which consideration of
these costs has stalled a promising research project. Where a charge system is in operation it is understandable if faculty members dissuade their students from enterprises involving books not in their own university libraries, and it is equally understandable if faculty members themselves avoid such projects.

One librarian criticized the requirement made by some libraries that the books they send out on interlibrary loan be forwarded by express, since this mode of transportation increases lending costs. Parcel post is fast and reliable, this librarian declared, and the current low book rate was introduced to stimulate the circulation of books, while the minimum express charge of thirty-five cents a package is made presumably to discourage the shipment of small packages, which are unprofitable for an express company to handle.

Three of the libraries provide no alternative to collecting transportation costs directly from the borrower. However, certain alternatives are in operation at some institutions. One library charges incoming transportation and insurance costs to the borrower and defrays the return costs in some other manner. Two libraries sometimes reclaim loan costs from university research funds, while one sometimes charges loan costs to the book purchase fund of the borrower’s academic department or to its miscellaneous fund allowance. Of these alternative procedures, deducting loan costs from departmental book funds alone seems open to criticism.

Three of the librarians consulted uphold on principle the charging of interlibrary loan costs to borrowers. All of them hold the same point of view: they want to curb what they regard as “abuses of the loan privilege.” The only one of their number who defined “abuses” called them “trivial” requests for books that are “not actually needed,” but none of the librarians who mentioned “abuses” gave an estimate of the percentage of loan requests at his own library that he had at any time considered unnecessary, nor did any declare what percentage of requests he would consider necessary and justified.

The concept of “abuses” seems to this writer to need clarification because, as now applied, it hinders a full appraisal of the interlibrary loan problem. Charging loan costs to all borrowers in order to deter a certain percentage of borrowers from making requests that might seem trivial imposes a penalty on borrowers whose requests might on strict inquiry be found necessary. No one can determine categorically what books a man facing the challenge of a new idea or of a developing research problem will or will not need; ordinarily a reader can determine whether a book is of value to him only after he has sampled it. For that reason the phrases “trivial requests” and “necessary loans” are of dubious value.

These notions obscure a deep issue which should be recognized: Do we want a maximum free circulation of books or not? Can a bookman wish to restrict the circulation of books or prevent any reader from obtaining a book he may wish to examine? To stand between a book and its potential reader is inconsistent with the nature of the university, which is epitomized in its library.
The use of books is the one fundamental activity of a university, of which its library is therefore the vital center. "A true university," Carlyle said, "is a collection of books." To charge for football tickets is one thing: football is an extraneous growth upon the university. For centuries universities flourished without pigskin, but parchment and vellum—books—have always been the magnetic center that has brought students and teachers together.

A historical argument, drawn from the history of American education and civilization, can be brought forward to oppose a limitation of the circulation of books. Within the academic community the university library represents the American institution of the free public library. Free schools and free books express an inherent tendency in American civilization which should be recognized now and at all times as a guide to liberal action. Charging borrowers for library services vitiates this principle; if a borrower can now be charged for one kind of service, he could eventually be charged, with perfect logic, for any service entailing cost.

A logical argument against a system of charges for interlibrary loans has been advanced: as long as universities appropriate funds to promote research, charging loan costs to borrowers is anomalous since it constitutes a direct discouragement to research. Essentially, the problem is not how to curb abuses and eradicate trivial requests, but rather how to enlarge the facilities for the circulation of books in order to meet the increasing demand for them. That such enlargement is an urgent need was made evident by several communications to the writer, among them a letter from a librarian who stoutly defends the charging of interlibrary loan costs to borrowers because he believes that is the simplest way to restrict the growing volume of loan requests, which could easily lead to the breakdown of the entire loan system. While this correspondent pleads only for limiting demand and says nothing of enlarging facilities, his letter corroborates communications received from other librarians which, when pieced together, form the picture of a problematical situation.

America has become generally hungry for books and book learning, and educational institutions have vastly increased their student registrations and faculty membership. Some university libraries have been unable to increase their appropriations in a steady ratio with this growth, and they are now seriously hampered by budgetary deficiencies. Libraries have also been affected by qualitative changes in college faculties; faculty members are now universally required to hold advanced degrees and to demonstrate prowess in specialized research by continuous technical reading and publication. In addition, the character of scholarship has changed; the broader learning of an earlier day, which was anchored mainly to standard and basic works, is being displaced by a microscopic scholarship. In the humanities and social sciences a highly refined specialization has put out vast numbers of detail studies, monograph series, journals, and minutely specialized theses. These factors have conspired to increase the burden on university libraries in a staggering geometrical progression. Meanwhile, until the day when all university libraries will control resources equal to the demand upon them, the pressure of loan requests can be relieved by palliative measures that will obviate as many such requests as possible. Many libraries already make a practice of thoroughly revising and modernizing their stocks in various fields periodically and in collaboration with the academic departments concerned. Where past neglect or impecuniosity have passed on badly balanced or deficient stocks, special efforts are being made to raise funds to
remedy the deficiencies which loan requests or a systematic survey of stocks may happen to reveal. To counterbalance budgetary shortages, reconstruction or expansion may be promoted by acquiring books in microfilm whenever possible.

Rebuilding or expanding stocks to obviate future loan requests entails questions as to what books are desirable, standard, or indispensable, and hence to be selected before others for acquisition from limited funds. How far should limited moneys be spent in developing collections in growing fields like Russian and in foreign literatures, for example, in which most American libraries cannot be expected to equal those abroad?

Librarians and members of academic departments need one another's aid and counsel in answering these questions and at some universities there has been too little such fruitful collaboration in the past. This collaboration might be directed toward the compilation, by members of the various academic departments in consultation with their librarians, of selective standard bibliographies in their respective fields, which would summarize and compress existing standard bibliographies. Besides serving as a guide to an effective expansion of stocks these selective bibliographies could be made the basis of a new system of loan charges. Volumes listed, if not yet in a university library, would be procured without attendant cost to the borrower, and volumes not on the list could be provided in return for payment of costs by the borrower or, preferably, from research funds.

National bibliographies of similar scope would provide a uniform foundation for the interlibrary loan system. Carefully compiled, they could become master bibliographies which would remain standard over a long period. If provided with certain supplementary materials they might evoke sufficient interest among teachers and students to justify their publication as accepted handbooks in various fields. Among desirable supplements, summaries of the history of research in diverse subdivisions of general fields might be mentioned. Bibliographical and historiographical handbooks of this sort would collate and synthesize materials now scattered in various handbooks.

Besides providing a uniform standard minimum to guide librarians everywhere, handbooks like these would be useful in facilitating the often laborious orientation of major and graduate students in their fields of study. That guidance of even the simplest kind is needed has been demonstrated by the recent appearance at several universities of mimeographed skeletal reading lists for major and graduate students. Such handbooks could also be useful in presenting average standards of scope and intensity for senior college and graduate courses, among which there is now great variation.

At any rate, the specific question of interlibrary loans has been found to broaden into a larger and knottier problem. This concerns the expansion of book-providing facilities and their intimate coordination with the various fields of study, the cultivation of which depends on easily accessible book stocks. Campus campaigns for more books rather than for more buildings are overdue. It must be made widely known that in the current phase of American educational and cultural development broader policies in library financing are a necessity.

Meanwhile, the borrowers of books on interlibrary loan should be relieved of money penalties whenever possible. The free circulation of books is today more than ever an important expression of American civilization, and it should be American policy, everywhere and at all times.
Buildings and Architecture

The following statement of architectural and engineering features for a new library building at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, was prepared by John E. Burchard, director of libraries, as part of a series of standards to be used in the selection of an architect. It was submitted at the instance of Ralph E. Ellsworth.

Architectural and Engineering Considerations

What follows is in no sense an attempt to define the style of architecture which shall be followed in designing the building nor to circumscribe the architect in his contribution any more than is necessary to avoid failures in the building which would be regarded as intolerable.

a. Site

The site selected is between the ——- and ———- This site is still open to discussion provided an alternative can be suggested which is more centrally located and susceptible of suitable architectural treatment and the provision of the desired amenity. Insofar as the site conditions the further discussion, it is assumed that the foregoing site has been accepted.

b. Entrances

The principal public entrance should be at or near grade level and should not require the mounting of monumental or long stairs to reach the first floor, which brings the public at once face to face with the working library.

All entrances should be reconciled to converge on a common reception desk so that controls can be readily exercised.

c. Façades

The river façade and the façade facing the back are both important. The one confronts the public, the other will be an element in an important interior court in the developed institute plot.

The façades must be such as to

(1) Be appropriate to the environmental buildings, and
(2) Afford a dignified and beautiful memorial to a distinguished friend of M.I.T.

When this is said, however, it must also be pointed out that this must be accomplished without waste either of money or of internal amenity. It is not essential for the achievement of purpose (1) that the façade be a replica or even a close similitude of the flanking buildings. Admittedly, not to make it so will require greater architectural skill, but it is possible. Again, it is not essential to the achievement of purpose (2) that a monumental style be adopted. Indeed, no nonstructural columns, cornices, or other pure embellishments will be tolerated if in any way they either

(1) Force the building budget to relinquish important elements of the program, or
(2) Sacrifice to the occupants and users of the interior any important light or view.

d. Interiors

It shall be characteristic of all the public interiors that they have dignity, amenity, and repose, and of all the working spaces that they be pleasant and efficient places in which to work.

The following general considerations apply to all rooms:

(1) Monumentality is not only not desired but will be refused. There are to be no enormous rooms.

(2) Flexibility in all areas is a sine qua non. This implies that interior decoration involving any complicated moldings, engaged columns or pilasters, and the like, is prima facie unacceptable. The charm of the building shall be obtained by scale, proportion, color, skilful use of materials, interesting circulation, and specialized decorative treatments of a sort which can later be sacrificed without major construction difficulties.

(3) Those rooms on the river side shall exploit the view to the utmost.

e. Building Materials

Materials shall be of the semi-permanent fire-resistant type characteristic of all the major institute buildings. They need not be
the same materials, if this assists the designer in creating a more satisfactory building. This applies especially to corridor floors and to any other portion in which the traditional institute materials would be unsatisfactory for this type of building.

t. Exits, etc.
These shall, of course, comply with the building laws.

g. Vertical Circulation
At a minimum, elevators will be required for the internal use of the staff in transporting heavy material from floor to floor. Elevators may also be the only possible solution to public and staff vertical circulation; but the modern escalator has so many attractive features, provided it is economically possible, and the elevator without operators has so many disadvantages, that the escalator should not be rejected as a solution of the problem without careful consideration.
Attention is also drawn to the specific requirement of such vertical circulation as book lifts, elevators, and the like, which are discussed under the stack.

h. Engineering
(1) The structural design shall be such as to permit full flexibility, not only for minor changes such as might occur in the humanities reading room, but for much more consequential changes in the whole plan of library administration.
(2) The building shall be completely air-conditioned. It will not be satisfactory to limit this facility to the stacks.
(3) Provision shall be made adjacent to the accessions department for the fumigating and cleansing of all accessions. Only by provision of such services can we expect to keep the library clean and reduce our losses.
(4) Serious attention shall be paid to all acoustical problems, with respect to suppression of noise transmitted from one area to another, with respect to maintenance of appropriate low level within each area, and with respect to hearing in any lecture room, auditorium, or seminar.
(5) Serious attention shall be paid to development of the most modern intercommunication system for all library purposes, including intercommunication with the branches.
(6) The principle of flexibility shall apply to the artificial lighting system; that is, in all areas where the possibility of future rearrangement of space has been provided for (and this should include most of the building), the space should have built-in lighting on a unit basis, or the possibility of obtaining unit lighting easily, so that areas may have equivalent light, no matter how divided.
All reading and work areas must be uniformly endowed with the best illumination that can be devised with present techniques, and the light sources should be designed with this in view rather than with the objective of using these sources as elements of room decoration.
These requirements do not necessarily imply that the lighting solutions for all work and reading tasks must be identical.
Natural lighting is desirable within the limits imposed by solar conditions, particularly where a pleasant outlook is possible.

Amenity
This building shall be as efficient in its functioning as the best that modern technology and thought can produce in the year 1946 or 1947 and shall acquire this efficiency with no loss of beauty. It shall be the building, of all buildings now at the institute, which the student or staff member shall find most pleasant to enter and to occupy.
To accomplish this end, it shall take advantage of thinking as imaginative in its solution of an architectural problem as that which characterizes the thinking of the institute staffs in the sciences.

JANUARY, 1946
Since the June General meeting of the Association of Research Libraries there has been a change in the possibilities for the purchase of European books. The library mission proposed at that meeting was not approved by the State Department. During the summer Luther H. Evans, Librarian of Congress, wrote suggesting that the Library of Congress would be willing to have its agents purchase European books for American libraries provided that there was a carefully planned program of cooperative acquisition.

A meeting was held in Washington on September 19 at which, among others, there were present Dr. Evans and Verner Warren Clapp from the Library of Congress, Harry M. Lydenberg, Keyes D. Metcalf and Carl M. White from the Advisory Committee of the A.R.L., Thomas P. Fleming from the Joint Committee on Importations, Carl H. Milam, and Paul North Rice, Executive Secretary of the A.R.L. It was agreed that Dr. Evans would write to the A.L.A. Board on Resources of American Libraries, the Joint Committee on Importations, and the Association of Research Libraries, asking that each organization appoint someone to serve on an executive committee to work out foreign purchases with the Library of Congress. Dr. Evans has asked each of the four national learned councils to appoint a representative to serve in an advisory capacity.

This committee will make definite proposals to the membership of the A.R.L. as well as to other libraries that might be interested. It will submit a classification covering books which may be secured and will ask cooperating libraries to signify which class of books they are most anxious to secure and to agree as to how much money they are willing to advance to the project. More than a million books, most of them in municipal libraries, were destroyed by fire in German raids on England, the (British) Library Association reveals. Some 54,000 children’s books went up in flames, and thousands of special collections housed in the libraries are gone forever. Of the 1,145,500 books destroyed, 982,000 were in city libraries; 155,813 belonged to university libraries; and the rest were in county libraries. Less than a quarter have been replaced, most of them in the big libraries hardest hit in the blitz. The Library of the University College of London, on the top floor of London’s only skyscraper, lost 100,000 books and nearly all its special collections.

The North Central Association Commission on Colleges and Universities requested special reports from the libraries of eighty-six institutions, at the meeting of the board of review in March 1944, in an effort to study and offer suggestions for improvement of library standards. The activities that followed the special reports are described in the North Central Association Quarterly (vol. 20, July 1945, p. 19-20).

Minutes of the twenty-third meeting of the Association of Research Libraries, held at the New York Public Library on June 21-22, 1945, have been lithoprinted by Edwards Bros., Ann Arbor, Mich.

The Junior College Accounting Manual by Henry G. Badger (American Association of Junior Colleges and American Council on Education, 1945) may be of interest to junior college librarians. It establishes a model plan of accounting, statistics, and reporting for junior colleges. The library as a unit is included.

The University of East Maine has received some three hundred volumes from the library of Dr. Max Farrand, of Bar Harbor. These include the Mississippi Valley Historical Review, a complete set of the publications of the Huntington Library, of which he was director from 1927 to 1941, and those volumes of Dr. Farrand's writings which were not already in the university library. The books reflect Dr. Farrand's lifelong interest in American history and his scholarly editing of the records of the Federal Convention.

The First Report of the Curator, 1942-1945, Collection of Regional History, Cornell University, contains an interesting description of the materials acquired to date. Whitney R. Cross, the curator, indicates the purpose of the collection and suggests the types of scholarly research possible with the available sources.

The Archives Division of the Pennsylvania...
State Library, the Pennsylvania State Museum, and the Pennsylvania Historical Commission have been removed from the Department of Public Instruction and incorporated into a new independent governmental unit entitled the Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission. The Pennsylvania State Library retains control of the three administrative divisions, namely, the general library, the law library, and the extension library.

All state colleges in South Carolina are being surveyed for the legislature by a group from Peabody College. Clemson College Library and the University of South Carolina Library were self- and faculty-surveyed during the summer.

Plans have been prepared for new library buildings at Furman University and Coker College. Annexes have been planned at Limestone College and Wofford College.

The Southern Lutheran Theological Seminary Library has received a gift of one thousand dollars from President Monroe, of Lenoir-Rhyne College, as first instalment of a memorial to his son.

Furman University received twenty-five thousand dollars in 1944 from the General Education Board for reclassification of the collection and purchase of new books.

Robert P. Tristam Coffin and Robert Molloy were visiting speakers at the eighth annual library festival at Coker College on Oct. 9-11, 1945.

Limestone College celebrated its centennial commemoration on Nov. 4-5, 1945.

Macalester College Library, St. Paul, has received nearly one thousand volumes on American hymnology, the greatest collection of such materials in the United States, according to an announcement made by President Charles J. Turck. The collection is the gift of Arthur Billings Hunt, of the class of 1911 and founder of the Hunt library of first editions. The donation to the college, a duplicate of his set of American hymnals, will be housed in a special music room in the college library.

Dr. Hunt has held various positions of prominence in the American music world and has been conferred the degree of doctor of music by two higher institutions. Recently he returned from the European theatre of war where he served as a captain in the United States Army and director of music for the European theatre of operations.

The University of Iowa library has planned a “heritage library,” designed to aid students, and especially freshmen, to become acquainted with the backgrounds and critical issues of their own times. The library will be arranged chronologically around eight periods: Early Man, Greek and Roman, Christian and Medieval, Reformation and Renaissance, Age of Shakespeare, Industrial Revolution, Age of Nationalism, and Contemporary. The library will present the facts and ideas of human achievement in dramatic form through its collection of models, maps, pictures, books, posters, phonograph records, slides, and motion pictures.

The Pacific Northwest Library Association held a round table, Sept. 5 and 6, 1945, at Seattle in which the board of directors, chairmen of sections and committees, and representatives of libraries cooperating in the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center participated. The meeting was largely devoted to Director Ralph T. Esterquest’s report on the work of the center and discussion of its plans for the future. Library responsibility for the development of special collections was emphasized. W. Kaye Lamb, librarian of the University of British Columbia, is the new president of the association; William H. Carlson, librarian of Oregon State College, is second vice president; and Winona Adams, cataloger of Montana State College Library, is treasurer.

The library of the University of California at Los Angeles received an unusual shipment of material from Germany sent by a member of their faculty who is serving in the Army. It consists of about one hundred pieces of Nazi propaganda, ranging from a treatise called “Practical Antisemitism” to a sumptuous picture book illustrating almost every day in Hitler’s life since his rise to power in 1933. The col-
lection is of important research value to scholars.

The Library has recently formed a student library committee to serve as a liaison between the library administration and the student body. In addition to conducting library tours, it is publishing a leaflet guide to library procedure.

Lawrence C. Powell, U.C.L.A. librarian, has issued a twenty-seven-page, mimeographed "Staff Handbook," which serves as an introduction to the library and its librarians' association. It was prepared by a staff committee on standards and professional affairs and includes material relating to the organization and policies of the library, the responsibilities and privileges of the staff members, and the university and national and regional library association.

The late Robie L. Reid bequeathed to the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, his extensive library of Canadiana. This collection will supplement the Howay collection, as its emphasis is different and its field broader. Besides its wealth of local British Columbia items and numerous rare Canadian periodicals, the Reid collection is strong in material on the Maritimes, on Louis Riel, and on Canadian fiction and poetry.

The Stanford University Library has received the Burma collection, consisting of 133 volumes, of the late Lt. Col. John L. Christian, and a collection of writings of minor American poets, comprising 1932 volumes, collected by the late Professor Hoyt Hopewell Hudson. The Charlotte Ashley Felton Memorial Library has acquired a collection of the writings of Aldous Huxley, 1916-43, and has published a bibliography of the collection.

A seventh library was added to the group of libraries in the Oregon State System of Higher Education on July 1, 1945, when the North Pacific Dental College was incorporated into the system as the Dental School of the University of Oregon. The library has some 4500 volumes at present. Mrs. Phyllis Rossi is the librarian.

Under a two-year grant Mills College Library will engage in an experimental project in the acquisition and wider use of ephemeral material relating to problems of current interest. The aim of the project is to find means of circulating and immediately using, instead of shelving for future record, the flood of pamphlet material which comes daily into every library. The material will be widely distributed on the campus through enlarged residence hall libraries.

Personnel

L. Quincy Mumford, formerly executive assistant at the New York Public Library, has been appointed assistant director of the Cleveland Public Library.

Margaret L. Fayer has been appointed acting librarian at Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vt. Mrs. Fayer, who for the past two years has been acting editor at Middlebury College, has had previous library experience in California, Lansing, Mich., and New York City.

Helen Cramton Graham has been appointed acting librarian at Norwich University, Northfield, Vt. Before her marriage Mrs. Graham was librarian at Norwich University from 1910 to 1922.

Edward G. Freehafer, until recently assistant librarian at Brown University, returned to the New York Public Library on Dec. 1, 1945, as executive assistant in the reference department. Charles F. McCombs, chief bibliographer, assumed the duties of executive assistant until Mr. Freehafer's return.

John R. Russell, librarian of the University of Rochester, and Wharton Miller, director of libraries at Syracuse University, have been appointed by the Regents of the State of New York to be members of the five-man library council of the state. They succeed Paul M. Paine, librarian of the Syracuse Public Library, and Otto Kinkeldy, librarian at Cornell University.

Mary E. Wheatley, formerly head cataloger at Lehigh University Library, has been appointed librarian of the Beaver College Library.

Margaret K. Spangler has been appointed circulation librarian in the library of Pennsylvania State College.

Robert Grazier has been appointed serials librarian in the library of Pennsylvania State College.

Ralph A. Fritz resigned as librarian at the Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, to accept an appointment as director of library education at the State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa., effective Sept. 1, 1945. Dr. Fritz taught in the department

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of education at Pittsburg from 1928 to 1943, when he became librarian and professor of education.

Dorothy Spencer, reference librarian at Fort Hays State College, Hays, Kan., who was on a year's leave of absence at the University of Michigan Library School where she received the degree of M.A. in July 1945, resumed her duties at Fort Hays on September 1.

Dr. Jesse H. Shera, formerly chief of the Preparations Department, University of Chicago Library, has been appointed chief of the readers' service.

Helen T. Fisher became cataloger in the library of Washburn Municipal University, Topeka, Kan., on Aug. 15, 1945. Miss Fisher was previously head of the catalog department of the University of New Mexico Library.

Sarita Robinson, superintendent of the Cataloging Department at the University of Iowa Libraries since 1932, resigned to become editor of Readers' Guide on Nov. 1, 1945.

Norma Cass, head of the Reference Department, University of Kentucky, is teaching courses in reference, bibliography, and documents at the University of Illinois Library School during the academic year 1945-46.

Guy R. Lyle, director of libraries, Louisiana State University, was on leave of absence during August 1945, to serve as consultant in the preparation of plans for a $1,500,000 library building for the colleges of agriculture and home economics at Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

Frances Lander Spain has been appointed librarian and head of the library science department at Winthrop College, S.C.

F. W. Simpson has been appointed librarian at Furman University, S.C.

Mary E. Timberlake, formerly librarian at Lander College, has been appointed assistant reference librarian at the University of South Carolina.

Katherine Dusenberry has been appointed cataloger at Winthrop College.

Jane Flener has been appointed assistant librarian at Furman University, S.C.

Ida J. Dacus has retired from Winthrop College.

Eva Wrigley has retired from Furman University.

Wilma Smith was appointed an assistant in reference with direct responsibility for serial publications and government documents at the University of Redlands, Calif., on Aug. 1, 1945.

Maud Ditmars, interim assistant in reference at the University of Redlands, became librarian of Westminster College, Salt Lake City, on Oct. 1, 1945.

Frances L. Yocom, associate librarian and cataloger at Fisk University for a number of years, became assistant librarian at Humboldt State College, Arcata, Calif., in July 1945.

Margaret Markley has joined the staff of the University of Oregon Library as supervisor of reserves and museum librarian.

Lucy M. Lewis, director of libraries emeritus in the Oregon State System of Higher Education, received the honorary degree of doctor of library science from Oregon State College on June 10, 1945. Miss Lewis served as director of libraries from the time the state-supported institutions of higher education of Oregon were unified in 1932 until her retirement on Jan. 1, 1945.

Siri Andrews, associate professor, University of Washington School of Librarianship, has resigned to accept a position as children's book editor with Henry Holt. Her position at the university will be filled by Elizabeth A. Groves, who returns to her alma mater from San Jose State Teachers' College, San Jose, Calif.

Mary Manning Cook has returned to the staff of Mills College, Oakland, Calif., as reference assistant, after a year's leave of absence at the School of Librarianship at the University of California.

Helen Blasdale has been appointed assistant librarian and assistant professor of bibliography at Mills College.

Margaret Lyon, instructor in the Department of Music at Mills College, has been placed in charge of the music library.

Pearle Quinn, former acting instructor in history at Stanford University and research assistant in the Hoover war libraries, is joining the staff of the Mills College Library as consultant in international relations.

Wanda Brockman, formerly union cataloger for the University of Oregon Libraries, joined the staff of the Reference Department of the Seattle Public Library on Aug. 15, 1945.
Arthur Baldwin, a reference assistant in the Seattle Public Library, has left for a year's graduate study at Columbia University.

Obituaries

Gladys R. Cranmer, for twenty-five years a librarian at the Pennsylvania State College Library, died on Aug. 24, 1945. Miss Cranmer served eight years in the Syracuse, N.Y., Public Library catalog department before going to the Pennsylvania State College in 1921, where she was successively in charge of gifts and exchanges, reference librarian, assistant librarian, acting librarian for the year 1930-31, and thereafter assistant librarian and senior assistant librarian until her death. She made notable contributions at the Pennsylvania State College Library in the fields of library instruction and reference work and her contribution to the development of the Pennsylvania State College Collection is of importance to the library field. Miss Cranmer was active in professional meetings. She was secretary of the College and Reference Section of the Pennsylvania Library Association in 1932-33 and was secretary of the Pennsylvania Library Association during the year before her death.

Matthew Hale Douglass, librarian emeritus of the University of Oregon, died Oct. 3, 1945. Mr. Douglass was librarian from 1908 until 1942. During his long administration the library was increased from 15,531 books in 1908 to 333,961 books in 1942. Among Mr. Douglass' many accomplishments are the planning of the new library building and the organization of the Friends of the Library group. He was a member of the American Library Association and Pacific Northwest Library Association, and since his retirement in 1942 held an honorary life membership in the latter organization.

John Ridington, retired librarian of the University of British Columbia, died at 78, in April 1945. He had been librarian from the beginnings of the University of British Columbia Library until his retirement in 1940.
Charles F. Gosnell

Dr. Charles F. Gosnell, who became State Librarian of New York on September first, comes to his new position with a variety of experience. During his undergraduate training period he was an assistant in the University of Rochester, working with the late Donald B. Gilchrist. At the same time, he also served as a special correspondent for the Rochester Democrat and Chronicle.

Dr. Gosnell was a member of the staff of the New York Public Library from 1931 to 1937. He earned both his bachelor's and master's degrees in the School of Library Service, Columbia University. At the New York Public Library he was especially interested in staff affairs and edited a revival of the library paper, Library Lions.

From 1937 until his present appointment, Dr. Gosnell has been associated with Queens College—assistant librarian, 1937-41, associate librarian, 1941-45, and librarian and associate professor, 1945. Since 1943 he has been an associate in the School of Library Service, Columbia University. He has been especially concerned with such problems as book selection, faculty approach to the library, and staff welfare problems. His doctoral dissertation at New York University in 1943 was entitled "The Rate of Obsolescence in College Library Book Collections."

As chairman of the Queens College delegation to the Legislative Conference of the City Colleges, Dr. Gosnell was able to help obtain state legislation extending mandatory salary increments for library assistants in the city colleges of New York. Through the Institute of International Education, he was a special consultant at the Department of Bibliography, Centro de Estudios Historicos, in Madrid in 1934. He has been chairman of a committee which has developed plans for a new library building for Queens College. He has been a very active member in local, regional, and national library organizations and is a frequent contributor to professional journals.

Mortimer Taube

Mortimer Taube, appointed assistant director for operations of the Acquisitions Department, Library of Congress, attended Rutgers University, the University of Chicago, Harvard University, and the University of Cali-
fornia. From the last-named institution he received his Ph.D. degree in philosophy in 1935 and his certificate from the school of librarianship in 1936.

He has taught philosophy at the University of California and is the author of a book entitled *Causation, Freedom, and Determinism* (London, 1936). His articles have appeared in the *Journal of Philosophy*, *Philosophy of Science*, *South Atlantic Quarterly*, *Library Quarterly*, *College and Research Libraries*, and *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*.

Dr. Taube has had varied experience in library work—as head of the circulation department of the library of Mills College, as cataloger of the Rutgers University Library, and, from 1940 to 1944, as head of the acquisitions work for the rapidly growing collections of Duke University.

Dr. Taube was first appointed to the service of the Library of Congress in January 1944 and, until his present appointment, had been assistant chief of the general reference and bibliography division.

In addition to his professional work as a librarian, Dr. Taube has maintained his interest in philosophic studies and the history of ideas. He is an active reviewer for the new *United States Quarterly Book List* of the Library of Congress.

**Harry C. Bauer**

Harry C. Bauer has been appointed assistant librarian of the University of Washington Library, Seattle, succeeding William H. Carlson, now director of libraries for the Oregon State System of Higher Education. Mr. Bauer, a graduate of the St. Louis Library School, attended the University of Missouri from 1921 to 1923. Later he transferred to Washington University in St. Louis, where he took the A.B. degree in 1927 and the M.S. degree in physics in 1929. He was elected to Sigma Xi.

His first professional appointment in library work came in 1929 when he was appointed an assistant in the applied science department of the St. Louis Public Library. In 1931 he was appointed chief of the circulation department of the University of Missouri Library. He remained with the university until March 1934, when he joined the staff of the Tennessee Valley Authority to organize and administer its technical library system. While with the T.V.A., Mr. Bauer collaborated with Mrs. Lucile Keck and Mrs. I. E. Dority in editing the second edition of *Public Administration Libraries: a Manual of Practice*, published by Public Administration Service in 1941. He also served on the board of directors of the Special Libraries Association from 1940 until April 1942 when he was commissioned a captain in the U.S. Army Air Corps.

Leaving the T.V.A. in 1942 to join the Army, Mr. Bauer, after completing the courses of the officers training school at Miami Beach, Fla., and the combat intelligence school at Harrisburg, Pa., was assigned to the 98th Bombardment Group and sent to the Middle East. In May 1943 he was promoted to major. He returned to the states with his group in April 1945. During its combat history the 98th Bombardment Group participated in fourteen campaigns and was twice cited by the President of the United States. Major Bauer was awarded the Bronze Star, the Air Medal, and the Purple Heart.

**N. Orwin Rush**

N. Orwin Rush, since 1936 the librarian of Colby College, has been appointed to the
position of librarian of Clark University, at Worcester, Mass.

Mr. Rush received his B.A. degree from Friends University in 1931, and his B.S. and M.S. degrees from the School of Library Service, Columbia University, in 1932 and 1940 respectively. From 1932 until he went to Colby, Mr. Rush was on the staff of the New York Public Library, finally becoming assistant in charge of the main reading room.

At Colby College Mr. Rush completed the recataloging and reclassification of the entire collection, changing from the Dewey to the Library of Congress system. An outstanding feature of the development of Colby College during his librarianship was the rapid growth and expansion of the special collections. Another achievement was the institution of a publishing program, making it possible to disseminate information concerning the special holdings of the library. Mr. Rush was also chairman of a library building committee which has completed the plans for a new library.

Mr. Rush has been active in local and national library organizations and served as president of the Maine Library Association, 1939-41, as a member of the A.L.A. Friends of Libraries Committee, 1942-45, and as a member of the A.L.A. Library Administration Committee. He was editor of the Maine Library Association Bulletin, 1942-45, and has contributed many articles to professional and educational journals. His Bibliography of the Published Writings of Rufus M. Jones was issued in 1941.

Kenneth J. Boyer

The new librarian of Bowdoin College, Kenneth J. Boyer, had his first experience as an assistant in the New York Public Library in 1924. A graduate of the University of Rochester and of the New York State Library School, Mr. Boyer was librarian of Westfield Athenaeum, Westfield, Mass., for two years, 1925 to 1927. Here he worked on plans for the equipment of the new building and assisted in moving the collections into the new quarters.

He went to Bowdoin College as assistant librarian in 1927. Very soon afterward he established a reserve book system and installed a new charging system. He was instrumental in organizing a separate subject catalog, with the cards arranged in inverse chronological order. Among other accomplishments, he compiled a handbook of instruction for the use of student assistants and started a bulletin containing news notes and a classified list of accessions, which is...
made available to faculty members and students. He has always been interested in the welfare of students and to that end has had better lighting facilities installed, has had additional seating capacity provided, and has permitted smoking in the browsing room.

At present he is working with the faculty library committee on plans for an addition to the library building at Bowdoin. He has written several articles and reviews.

**Donald Forrester Cameron**

Donald Forrester Cameron, the new librarian of Rutgers University, was born in Glasgow, Scotland. A graduate of Union College, he received his master's degree from Princeton in 1925. From 1925 to 1927 he was an instructor in English at Union College. Before becoming an instructor at Rutgers in 1929, he spent the preceding two years as a graduate student at Princeton University.

At the time of his appointment to the librarianship at Rutgers, Mr. Cameron was an associate professor. He had also served as editor of the Rutgers University Press since 1943. For a time before Mr. Osborn retired as librarian, Mr. Cameron was on the Rutgers staff as associate librarian. For a long period he had been interested in the development of the university library. He was a member of the library advisory board of the university and one of the founders of the Associated Friends of the Rutgers University Library. He is a member of the American Library Association, the Bibliographical Society of America, and the New Jersey Library Association.

**Joseph H. Brewer**

Dr. Joseph Hillyer Brewer, recently appointed visiting librarian at Queens College, has had a varied background in the fields of education and publishing. He received his B.A. from Dartmouth in 1920, B.A. from Oxford University in 1922 and M.A. in 1933, and LL.D. from Olivet College in 1944.

While at Oxford in 1921-22, Dr. Brewer served as one of the editors of the *Oxford Fortnightly Review*, later joining the staff of the London *Spectator* as private secretary to the editor, the late J. St. Loe Strachey. After spending the better part of two years at the *Spectator*, he returned to the United States in 1925 and joined the new publishing firm of Payson and Clarke. Later, with Edward K. Warren and George Palmer Putnam, he took over control of Payson and Clarke, changing its name to Brewer, War...
ren, and Putnam. When the depression struck the book trade Dr. Brewer and his partners sold out to Harcourt, Brace and Company.

In 1934 Dr. Brewer, who had long been interested in the problems of higher education in America, assumed the presidency of Olivet College, a one-hundred-year-old coeducational college in Michigan, where he remained until he resigned in 1944. Here he had an opportunity to work out some of the theories of education that he had been elaborating, and during the ten years of his incumbency the whole educational program of the college was revised on the basis of an adaptation to the needs of a small American college of the Oxford tutorial methods and honor school curricula and examinations. Olivet was one of the first of the small colleges to introduce a resident artist to the campus and has done especially fine work in music. During the summers of 1936 to 1941, Olivet sponsored a series of writers conferences which included such authors as Ford Madox Ford, Katherine Anne Porter, Allen Tate, Carl Sandburg, Paul Engle, Glenway Wescott, Sherwood Anderson, and W. H. Auden.

While at Olivet, Dr. Brewer became interested in the concept of the library as the educational center of the college. With the encouragement of Dr. William Warner Bishop, he has spent the past year in residence at the School of Library Service, Columbia University.

Arthur B. Berthold

Arthur B. Berthold, the new chief of the Preparations Department of the University of Chicago Library, is well known in the fields of cataloging, classification, and bibliography.

A recipient of degrees from Colgate, Columbia (B.S., School of Library Service), and Chicago (M.A., Graduate Library School), Mr. Berthold held a variety of library and bibliographical positions before he became associate director and bibliographer of the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center in 1936. Here he remained for six years, playing a prominent part in establishing procedures and organizing the records of the center. In 1942 he went to the Division of Special Information of the Library of Congress, where he was engaged in bibliographical work connected with the war effort. The following year he became a member of the staff of the Office of Strategic Services, where he remained until his recent appointment to the position in the University of Chicago Library.

Mr. Berthold is the author of several monographs and numerous articles and reviews in professional and other journals. He was one of the contributors to Robert B. Downs's Union Catalogs in the United States. His wide knowledge of languages, especially the Slavic, has been applied in considerable translating of books and articles. In 1939 he was a delegate of the American Library Association to the Fifteenth Conference of the International Federation for Documentation, held in Zürich. Mr. Berthold presented a paper on the union catalog situation in the United States at this conference. He has also been active in the work of other professional organizations.
The University Library


This book, replete with statistics, tables, and charts, completely documented throughout and devoted to an exhaustive and authoritative analysis and discussion of all the facets and problems of university librarianship, is a must item for every university library administrator. If he is planning a new building, debating the merits of divisional subject reading rooms versus the more traditional large main reading room and rooms housing material by form, struggling with the problem of independent departmental libraries opposed to centralized control, contemplating a survey of his library, planning a general staff reorganization, or concerned with any one of a dozen other problems, he can turn to this volume with confidence and find a discussion of present and past practice and citation of the more important literature bearing on his problem, whatever it may be.

The authors, in projecting their study, set for themselves the following ambitious goals:

To review the changes which have taken place in the university library . . .; to consider systematically the principles and methods of university library administration . . .; to formulate generalizations concerning the organization, administration and functions of the university library . . .; to aid the university administrator in understanding the role of the library in the total administration of the university; to acquaint faculty members and members of learned societies with the problems which adequate service to them involves . . .; to make available to students of library science a body of principles and methods bearing upon the specific problems of university library administration.

Obviously, these varied intentions could not all be fulfilled with equal success. What the authors have achieved is definitely a book by librarians, for librarians. While it will undoubtedly be quoted repeatedly for the edification of administrators and faculty members, the university administrator or faculty member who will read it will be rare indeed.

As a matter of fact, perhaps not too many librarians will read its 570 pages in detail but every university library administrator worthy of the name, whether in a chief, divisional, or departmental capacity, and all university librarians of professional caliber will know this book and refer to it repeatedly. It is in this respect and as a comprehensive statement for students of university librarianship that it will be most useful. As a matter of fact the volume suffers, in places, as a tool for the practicing administrator, by the detail, sometimes seemingly obvious, which is included presumably for the library school student. Perhaps it is this pedagogic bent that accounts for the aura of the doctoral dissertation which in places pervades the volume.

The authors point out repeatedly the lack of adequate study of many of the problems they discuss and the need for further investigation. The assertion in regard to centralized versus departmental reference service, that "conclusive generalization cannot be made concerning this controversial matter until extensive data have been systematically gathered and analyzed" is typical of the consideration of many problems throughout the book. That progress is being rapidly made in studying pressing problems and developing a substantial professional literature of caliber is indicated by the bibliographies supporting each chapter. The chapter on acquisitions and preparations, as an example, cites such significant contributions as Downs's Union Catalogs in the United States; Kellar's "Memoranda on Library Cooperation;" Raney's The University Libraries; Mann's Introduction to Cataloging and Classification of Books; Van Hoesen's "Perspective in Cataloging;" and similar studies. A noteworthy feature of the supporting bibliographies in general is their recency. Of the sixty-one citations supporting the acquisitions chapter, not a single one is older than 1930 and most fall in the late thirties and early forties. Anyone projecting a study, as recently as two decades ago, of the scope and quality of the one here under review would have found a thin literature indeed on which to base it.
Another interesting factor is the frequency with which the phrases “unpublished master’s study” and “unpublished dissertation” appear in the bibliographical notes. The frequent citations of unpublished material of this kind indicate how extensively we are indebted to and rely on the work of library school students in understanding and mastering our problems. This is not to be deplored but it may be hoped that more and more we may provide opportunity for mature and experienced librarians systematically to study the problems of the profession independently and not necessarily in pursuit of additional degrees. An extension of sabbatical leaves on pay to university librarians generally, which the authors stress as important, would permit further and more rapid progress in mature and scholarly study of our many problems needing systematic investigation.

The authors, in every phase of librarianship they discuss, review the problems involved and the efforts to solve them as reflected in the literature. They often seem studiously to refrain from making pronouncements or leaning to one school of thought more than another. This is undoubtedly due to the lack of systematic and detailed studies of many of the problems they consider. An example of careful balance is the chapter on library buildings. It provides an excellent review of past and present trends and the newer developments in library architecture but it does not give an expression of opinion as to the relative merits of the more or less standardized monumental buildings and the new functional divisional reading room buildings. This much, it seems, could be expected of experienced administrators and careful students of university librarianship, even though the newer functional divisional type of building which has recently come into favor undoubtedly is not the last word in library architectural planning. At least, the costly and now very obvious mistakes of many of the monumental buildings erected in the twenties and thirties could have been stressed much more extensively than they have been.

Two Parts

Although not formally so divided the book falls into two chief parts. The first of these, constituting the major portion, is concerned with the details of library organization, administration, housekeeping. These some 380 pages will be fairly familiar to the average librarian of some experience and background. The second part is concerned with the wider aspects of the functions of the university library, one might almost say with the end product for which all our meticulous organization, management, and housekeeping exists. Considered in this section are such matters as the teaching function of the library, the off-campus relations of the librarian, cooperation and specialization, and the future of the university library.

Particularly challenging the attention of this reviewer in the first part is the excellent chapter on administrative organization which is one of the strongest and most useful chapters in the book. The statement in this chapter, however, that “one of the glaring faults” of university librarians is a lack of progressiveness and unwillingness to permit departmental heads to experiment with new devices and procedures is a matter that works both ways. As often as not, resistance, either passive or open, to experimentation and change, comes from the department head and also rank-and-file workers. Many administrators are stymied by this situation, for obviously no change of importance can be successfully undertaken without the enthusiastic support of the persons in charge of carrying it out.

This chapter has an excellent summary of the departmental library versus centralized library situation which merits the close attention of librarians and presidents and deans alike. Performance in this matter in many of our universities, some of them noted for excellence of administration in other matters, is far from ideal. For this reason and because there is a tendency for systems already centralized to decentralize, the following statement of the authors, which this reviewer subscribes to as basically sound, deserves to be quoted.

New departmental libraries should be established and maintained outside the general library only upon the official approval of the president and the librarian. All expenditures for library materials and the arrangement for using them should be made under the direction of the university librarian. All libraries on the campus should be administrative parts of the general library.

More than one university president and his librarian need to read and ponder the in-
escapable common sense and wisdom of these words.

Chapters on Personnel

Of special interest in the first section, at least to this reviewer, are the two chapters on personnel. Included, very appropriately, is emphasis on in-service training, attendance at meetings, leaves for study, and promotions as recognition of special achievement. To the degree that these recommendations are put into effect in our various libraries, we will develop a professional personnel of worthy caliber. The principles of ethical staff relations within the library, while well known and generally accepted by informed librarians, may well be read and reflected on by all of us. The consideration of this matter seems to place the chief burden on the administrator, but here again there is a reciprocal responsibility for the staff at large which deserves more emphasis than has been given it.

The lack of classification of university library positions of which the authors complain, is not, in our universities, a situation peculiar to the libraries. It extends, in many, perhaps in most of our institutions, to the whole personnel, including the teaching and research faculty. While it is true that faculty members range from instructors to professors and deans, promotions and advances in these various categories are often a matter of expediency and frequently the relationship between salary and rank, again as a matter of expediency, is not too close. Under these circumstances it is difficult for university library administrators to set up, as good personnel administration requires, neatly classified and described position and pay classifications, with regular salary increments within the various classifications.

The authors rightly say that "the appointment of the chief librarian is, without doubt, one of the most important administrative decisions the president of a university has to make." Included in their consideration of this matter is a logical well-reasoned refutation of some comparatively recent statements that professional training of the head librarian is not important. Especially to be applauded in this section is the assertion that nonlibrarians, if appointed, owe all their time and energy to their libraries and to the cause of university librarianship.

The authors defend the university library against the charge that it has, in emphasizing the acquisition of research materials, neglected the undergraduate student. They say that if the university is to do research it must have the books and general library facilities to support the program. This is obviously true, but the emphasis on research materials which followed the last war need not be as one-sided as it has been and is. If only a very small portion of the thought, energy, and money which our large universities have poured into acquiring research materials can be devoted to meeting the library needs of the undergraduates the justifiable criticism of the university in this matter can be completely met.

Existing practices and procedures in our universities are not as easily changed as the book sometimes infers. After acknowledging that other agencies of the university, and particularly the extension division, have generally assumed the responsibility for acquiring and caring for films relating to their particular activity, they go on to say that it may be expected that the university library of the future will be the film center of the entire university. It can be safely predicted that those agencies now acquiring and using film will tenaciously retain their prerogatives and priority in the field. Any changes in a well-developed situation of this kind will either require administrative edict, usually a questionable device, or else exceptional diplomacy and tact, if the library is to take over and develop work already under way in this field. Progress in this matter will require an informed alertness on the part of all library administrators and a readiness to assume initiative, on their own, for all auditory and visual records of the experience of mankind, however recorded. Progress in the beginning, at least, is more likely to be in addition to the services of existing agencies rather than in replacement of it.

The Teaching Function

In considering the teaching function of the library it is noted that there is now, in universities generally, little or no organized instruction in use of the library provided for undergraduate students. A positive rather than a passive library program in this matter is urged, cooperatively planned by faculty and librarians. This again illustrates the university tendency to neglect the undergrad-
uate. There is a no-man's land here between faculty and library which requires the close attention of library administrators, perhaps through a regularly constituted teaching division of the library. Ten thousand dollars or so in salaries at this point might pay surprisingly rich dividends in which the promotion of effective research, in which our universities are so interested, would inevitably be included.

A detailed and very interesting chapter is devoted to the important matter of cooperation and specialization. Most of this is concerned with developments of the last two decades, with considerable attention to the organization of union catalogs, union lists of serials, bibliographical centers, cooperative and centralized cataloging, to interlibrary lending, inter-institutional and regional agreements, specialization, and similar matters. Here, in the opinion of this reviewer, by the mandate of necessity, lies one of the most important areas for future library progress. While this is a book on university libraries, this chapter might have stressed, much more than it does, the importance of public libraries in these varied joint enterprises. One of the interesting features of the operation of the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center in Seattle is the extent to which it has increased interlibrary lending among libraries within its area, thereby reducing the burden on larger outlying libraries. Much of this increase has fallen on the larger public libraries of the region, such as Spokane, Portland, Seattle, Tacoma, and Vancouver. In some of these public libraries interlibrary lending, much of it to colleges and universities, has increased as much as 400 per cent since the Bibliographic Center began functioning. Here, as well as in the matter of specialization and financial support of joint enterprises promoting regional and national cooperation, the public libraries and university libraries have common cause. Libraries of every category must indeed stand together and work together if, as the former Librarian of Congress once said, we are to "win the battle against the flood of materials which are going to drown us all out of all our buildings."

In considering the off-campus relations of the librarian the very effective device of setting forth briefly, as examples, the regional, national, and international scholarly contributions of outstanding librarians is used. Included among the librarians whose achievements are so discussed are Justin Winsor, Melvil Dewey, Ernest Cushing Richardson, William Warner Bishop, James Thayer Gerould, M. Llewellyn Raney, Charles C. Williamson, Charles W. Smith, Malcolm Wyer, A. F. Kuhlman, Robert Bingham Downs, Charles E. Rush, Charles Harvey Brown, Keyes D. Metcalf, and two non-university librarians who have made important contributions in the college and university field, Harry Miller Lydenberg and Herbert Putnam. All university librarians could readily add to this list former and present librarians who have made outstanding contributions outside their own libraries. Certainly in any list of distinguished national achievement the senior author of the book here reviewed would rank high indeed.

**Records, Reports, and Surveys**

Particularly interesting and pertinent is the chapter on records, reports, and surveys and the part that they have played and can play in assisting us to understand and solve our problems. Every practicing university librarian should read this chapter carefully. A good many of us could profit particularly by the discussion on the annual report and the part that it can take both in interpreting the work of the library to its own staff and as a contribution to our professional literature. Too many university librarians content themselves with a bare and uninspired collection of the annual statistics accompanied by a minimum of routine comment. This reviewer confesses to a sense of disappointment over each such report encountered.

Rather than a brief summary to be tossed off in an afternoon, preparation of the annual report should be a period of careful analyzing and recording of the successes and failures of the year. This, if properly done, must necessarily occupy the major attention of the librarian for a considerable period of time. Only so could the excellent reports from Michigan, North Carolina, Minnesota, and other universities which the authors cite be prepared. This reviewer can testify that these and similar reports have been a considerable factor in his own professional education. In preparing reports all of us could profit by carefully studying the streamlined easy reading reports of Archibald MacLeish as Librarian of Congress. Mr.
MacLeish has brilliantly demonstrated that the detailed operations of a large library can be presented with verve and éclat which definitely holds the interest and thereby better portrays the events of the year. Few of us can hope to achieve the MacLeishian skill with words but our profession would definitely benefit if more of us would seriously try.

The final chapter of the book is a brief consideration of the future of the university library. This, in the opinion of the writer, is one of the least satisfactory chapters in the book. It portrays well enough the present stage of our development, present trends, and opportunity for additional study, but the authors miss an opportunity to come dramatically to grips (and basically it is a dramatic situation) with the enormous and ever-increasing complexity of assimilating the graphic and auditory records of mankind for ready use. Which way our libraries will turn before this ever-increasing task; at what point, if any, our growing miles of books will be too far removed from a central delivery desk to make their delivery feasible; how indexing and cataloging problems will be handled; what part mechanical gadgets and the shrinking of the size of our books by photographic or other methods, will play in future librarianship; what developments of vast central storage reservoirs we are likely to have; whether the book of the future will be instantaneously or almost instantaneously transported from such reservoirs to whatever outlying point at which it may be needed, physically or in image—all these and similar matters could, it seems, have been dealt with more imaginatively without moving too far into the world of fancy. Certainly, such a challenging conception as Fremont Rider's microcard book deserves more than the five lines it rates.

Summary

In summary, we have in this book an exceptionally important addition to our professional literature. It could have been more facile and concise in writing but it is an adequate and very complete consideration of the problems of university librarianship which we have long needed and for which all of us will be duly and continuously grateful as we have occasion to use it again and again. Perhaps only those who were intimately concerned with its production can fully appreciate the discussion and planning, the long hours of reading, checking, and writing, the work and sweat that must have gone into its preparation. It constitutes an important and major star in the already bright professional diadem of the senior author. For the junior author it represents an outstanding professional contribution of the kind we are now beginning to expect increasingly from our younger men.—William H. Carlson.

The Library School Curriculum


Curriculum evaluation and revision is a continuous process, but it is subject to acceleration and deceleration. The current acceleration in changes in training for library service is not due primarily to current social changes but to a deep dissatisfaction with past practices and results. Library training is generally agreed to involve certain fundamental techniques, special knowledge of the clientele served, and subject knowledge. The patterns of interrelationship of these three phases of training are exceedingly complex. Much of the recent curriculum revision seems to consist of altering the relative quantities, the chronological sequences, and the methods of teaching of these three. Librarians are expert classifiers, but the content of their training defies with kaleidoscopic impudence all attempts to arrange it in rectilinear sequence.

In the impressive pamphlet in hand, Dr. Wight presents the worksheets of a recent curriculum evaluation and revision at the Peabody library school. The introductory chapter includes an excellent definition of the modern library in terms of social values and of the library school as the agency for preparing library personnel. There follows
a description and outlines of the curriculum as it existed in 1941. On the bases of these outlines, a series of objectives for each course was listed and graduates were questioned as to their feeling that the objectives had been attained. The percentage of graduates reporting high attainment of objectives in the college field was smaller than that in other fields. It occurs to the reviewer that this may be in part due to the fact that philosophy and practices in the college library field are less standardized and less tangible than in other fields.

Students were asked also to rate instructional methods. The class lecture was considered the most effective learning activity for the attainment of nearly 75 per cent of the objectives listed. Required problems as an activity scored 16 per cent, and required reading 10. Voluntary reading and class discussion were rated relatively low. In no case was experience in the field rated as of more value than courses, in attaining objectives.

On the basis of these findings and of further discussion and study, several outlines were radically modified, including the course in college and library administration and a course in problems of college teaching. The administration course is broken up into less of a grand logical plan and more of a group of wieldy units. Some of the materials of the second course, formerly "Selection of Materials for Higher Education," have been put into administration, while the title has been changed to "Problems of College Teaching." The reviewer is personally quite pleased to see this added emphasis on higher education as the field in which the college librarian must serve.

Included in the final section is a discussion of the place of practice work and the difficulties in arranging practice work to the mutual advantage of student and library, and a plea for further integration of program and staff with the joint university libraries.—Charles F. Gosnell.

Influences on American Culture


Despite every effort to advance national unity, particularly in the early days of the republic, through the achievement of cultural independence, American life in almost all of its phases, economic, political, and social, has always been fundamentally derivative. This does not mean that the milieu of the new world has not molded, and in many instances substantially altered, the imported cultural patterns. But the fact still remains that American culture, as we know it today, for all of our desire to consider it indigenous or at least strong in "native" elements, is still a borrowed culture. Our social mores, political objectives, economic patterns, and artistic and literary forms have been brought to this continent by the successive waves of immigration that, throughout the last three centuries, have battered the Atlantic seaboard. Furthermore, it is important to remember that here is represented the contact of cultures which were often dissimilar. In this new environment unfamiliar groups met, discovered each other, and joined in a hard relationship that necessarily resulted in either acculturation or conflict. As such, the qualities of the environment subtly conditioned the forces involved and frequently exercised a determining influence upon their evolution. Therefore, because of its complexity, the problem of evaluating the foreign influences in America presents an especially difficult task and one which has hardly yet been touched.

*Between 1820 and 1930 no less than thirty-eight million immigrants arrived in the United States, and to survey in eight short lectures the impact upon American institutions of these mass population movements would be manifestly impossible. Recognizing that such a treatment can have no pretense to finality, the editor of the volume here reviewed speaks with a disarming candor of his objectives: "to seek merely to define the problem, to describe the basic forms of cultural impact and assimilation, to trace something of their history in American life, and to sur-

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vey or illustrate their more manifest effects" (p. vi). He frankly admits that, even when attention is confined largely to the nineteenth century, as is here the case, one can do no more than be selective, and in some measure quite arbitrary, but there has been a real endeavor to choose topics of a representative character.

Accordingly, the first half of the book consists of eight lectures, each of which, except for the introductory essay which is a general survey by the editor himself, treats of some specific phase of the problem. Stow Persons, of the department of history at Princeton, discusses the Americanization of the immigrant; James G. Layburn, professor of sociology at Yale, considers the ethnic and national impact from the sociological point of view; Frank D. Graham, professor of economics at Princeton, surveys the foreign factors in the American economic ethic; Oscar Handlin, who has done some of our best writing on the acculturation of the immigrant, views the problem from the standpoint of its influence on American politics; Donald Egbert, of the department of art and archeology at Princeton, traces the foreign influences in American art; R. P. Blackmur, of the Princeton program of creative writing, has contributed a study of the American literary expatriate which is the best of its kind known to the reviewer; and the editor, David F. Bowers, concludes this portion of the volume with an essay on Hagel, Darwin, and the American tradition. The several papers were presented originally at the regular undergraduate conference sponsored in 1942-43 by the Princeton program of study in American civilization, and their form and content is largely conditioned by the fact that undergraduate participation in both discussion and reports is assumed. One would naturally expect, then, general surveys of existing knowledge rather than new contributions to the fields discussed. Nevertheless, Oscar Handlin's treatment of the immigrant in American politics is much more than the recapitulation of the obvious that it might well have been, and as previously noted, R. P. Blackmur's discussion of the American literary expatriate is outstanding.

College librarians will also be interested in the especially full and excellently selected bibliographical essays which comprise the latter half of the volume. These are directly related to the topics discussed by the lecturers and each consists of a broad statement of the problem, a list of general reference works, and a well-chosen and balanced group of titles dealing with special topics. Librarians could read the expository lectures with profit, but whether or not they are themselves interested in the subject, they will find the bibliographies useful in a number of ways.

Finally, a word should be added about the conference itself which this book represents, for if this is the kind of intellectual fare which Princeton undergraduates are getting, the reviewer can name a number of American educational institutions which would do well to consider it in the light of their own academic menus.—Jesse Hauk Shera.

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