College and Research Libraries

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College and Research Libraries

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History and the Problem of Bibliography

In its broad sense history is the realm of recorded mind. Informing man about man, history affords a prospect of future consequences. Society—past, present, and future—here finds public judgment, and the people of an age and place learn their failures and their promise from this interpreter’s voice. The ancients seemed to know the vastness of the historical matrix, sometimes perhaps better than we. “History,” wrote Polybius, “is now an organic whole. The affairs of Italy and Africa are intermingled with those of Asia and Greece, and all move to one end.”

Our own century frankly calls itself the age of “global” war. So it will be remembered by our children’s children and theirs, for countless generations. Although we do not have the identical “one end” that Polybius envisioned, the interrelation of peoples, of regions, and of the realm of mind is truly as he intimated it would be. The history of recent civilization, including advances in knowledge and the increase of “documentation” (in the French sense) demonstrates that the web of culture is indeed tightly woven. Dramatic revolutions in science or technology, in political action or in the literature of imagination, hardly constitute isolable phenomena. Correlative, sudden, or gradual changes in the remainder of the continuum indicate that society, although it may not be “organic,” is in some sense a totality whose component parts are separable only for theoretical convenience or for immediate use and action.

Bacon’s ability to classify recorded knowledge in terms of three great “faculties” of the human mind—memory, reason, and imagination—was possible, even in his time, only with strain and largely because of the lack of knowledge of psychological operations. Those who used the Baconian classification as the guide to the organization of libraries were already finding it unworkable in the eighteenth century, since the presses had even then multiplied the products of written expression beyond an easily manageable quantity. Today the most elaborate classification, carried to a fine degree of subdivision, is at best a practical compromise, actually out of date to some small degree in the very moment of its conception. Intense specialization in professional inquiry may continue to be a modern practice for certain scholars and scientists for years to come; but for the realities of subject matter relationship, the “fringes,” as William James would have said, are thick and they involve the separate subject matters in a public embrace destructive of highly technical privacy. This condition complicates the problems confronting bibliographers and makes bibliography peculiarly dependent upon the historical contingencies that determine the character of an age.

Bibliography derives its chief functions from the omnivorous demands of historiographers. Even so-called “current” bibliography is history—young and fresh history

1 Much of the composition of this article is the work of Adrienne Koch.
suited to the restless acquisition of further knowledge. Bibliography is thus a handmaiden to cultural growth, a handmaiden now seriously overworked, taxed by the enormity of society's published records increasing with the years. The older society becomes, the more it "grows up," the harder it is for bibliographical controls to maintain their hold over the voluminous outpourings of the mind and spirit, externalized not only in print but in the multiple forms of duplication, photography, etc., spawned by the technologists of our times. In the familiar battle cry of one of the most imaginative librarians in the country: "... We seem to be fast coming to the day when, unless it is afforded the most expert sort of bibliographical service possible, civilization may die of suffocation, choked by its own plethora of print."

**Improve Bibliographical Activity**

The psychological attack made by these ever increasing intellectual materials has depressed many a deserving scholar. It is my thesis that to prevent that fatal depression from becoming an enervating habit, deeply engrained in the culture of the future, we must improve the scope and quality of American bibliographical activity. I think the assumption of bibliographical leadership on a cooperative basis by the United States, Great Britain, and Russia—the only great powers possessing the necessary resources to fulfil the ensuing obligations—is practically imperative. For whatever German proficiency in bibliographical enterprises may have been (and everyone knows that German superiority in the organization of scientific literature was not only commendable in itself but probably had something to do with their genius in the pure and applied sciences), there is no chance that Germany or any European or Asiatic country will have the confidence or the funds with which to assume leadership again. It is clearly the responsibility of the three great Western powers from now on. The future availability of knowledge for the whole world is therefore bound up with the bibliographical planning we do. In this area American librarians particularly must henceforth live up to the exacting demands of statesmanship. To fail here means not only a vital deficiency in the sources of information which we can put at the disposal of our own scholars and general readers, it means the retardation of the role of America as a great agent of international understanding and progress. And this role, as I see it, is not too distantly connected with the keeping of peace among the united or dissident nations of the future.

**Failures in Our Recent Past**

The "ultima ratio regum" through which we have just passed and in which the peace-time intellectual activities of knowledge were sharply curtailed, save as they were themselves made elements of "total war," brought to the surface many of our ominous failings in the organization of knowledge. Government agencies, pressed for time and often scrambled into an "organization" overnight, had to construct makeshift bibliographies of research materials in fields that were directly related to the activities of our land, air, and naval arms. Often the gaps in our prepared descriptions and locations of materials caused the most costly delays in strategy, in direct military operations, and in home front planning. One small illustration: During the war several groups in the Department of Agriculture, in the Navy, and a Congressional Committee were interested in investigating new uses for milkweed floss. They were unable to reach a decision until the Department of Agriculture Library published its excellent bibliography summarizing the his-
tory of the literature pertaining to milkweed floss. Once the bibliography was available, the decision was immediately reached, and milkweed floss proved to be an important substitute for kapok in life preservers.

Insufficient information on the enemy country, Japan, and on all the Asiatic countries included in what the Japanese called the "Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere" was a different type of shortcoming in our bibliographical program. There was virtually nothing reliable in this field—neither adequate lists, nor abstracts, nor subject bibliographies. Unfortunately even the material was lacking, our files of Japanese scientific periodicals being meager and incomplete. Therefore, the situation was not basically remedied while the war continued.

But it would be absurd to think of the war as the sole context in which bibliographical failures matter or show up. The fact that most bibliographical ventures, including those of the greatest usefulness, were business ventures or privately endowed, made them undependable in publication dates, duplicative of the contents of other services, and sometimes tragically transitory. One of the best examples of a bibliography which filled an important need is the Social Science Abstracts. But I need only recall to you the dates of its birth and demise (1929 and 1932) to make it obvious that its duration hardly sufficed to fulfill the expectation it had succeeded in arousing in the public. Another serious failure was the discontinuance, in 1914, of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature which had been founded only thirteen years earlier.

These particular bibliographical projects were only small segments of a large problem. Stating it in general terms, bibliographical controls have not approached close enough to the ideal of continuous coverage of everything that is being published annually in the countries of the world. Not even the entirety of American output has found proper recording, since the C.B.I. fails to include many private and research publications and excludes all government published books and pamphlets. Of equal gravity is the failure to have indicated the location of all the materials held by libraries in this and other countries. Nor have we penetrated the wall of sheer quantity to carve out the evaluative bibliographies—bibliographies supplied when necessary with historical surveys and annotations of an evaluative and critical sort that might heighten the accurate selection of literature by the overburdened scholars, thereby hastening their research to its fruition.

Steps in the Right Direction

Two projects, recently proposed, seem to us at the Library of Congress to be moving in the right direction. I refer to the proposed "International Index of Scientific and Technical Literature" and the initial studies of the Joint Committee on Indexing and Abstracting in the Major Fields of Research. It is not yet certain whether these proposals will eventuate in satisfactory action, but, clearly, coverage of every important field is essential. A rational plan to ensure that there will be no important lacunae is the first big task on the agenda of libraries and scholarly societies in this country.

Such a plan would recognize that bibliographical controls must operate on two levels—library control and subject control. Advances on the two levels are usually interrelated. Subject control concerns special bibliographies, and I should like to comment that there is a limiting factor here of the kind of researcher for whom the bibliography is prepared. Some good re-
searchers are unwilling to rely on another person's or institution's bibliography or will do so only for certain areas of knowledge. But all readers (including good researchers) want bibliographies to help eliminate the clutter of out-dated, incompetent, and trivial publications. Subject control must, as a minimum, provide this.

In library control we are confronted with an over-all problem. The objectives here must be to ensure comprehensive and continuous coverage and to employ all the aids of cooperative acquisitions policies, national commercial book indexes and government publications indexes, and "complete" union catalogs. Retrospective library lists enumerating holdings are also important in this connection. Admittedly, this is the far-off, long-range ideal. I do not think that if we were somehow mysteriously endowed with ample funds for bibliographical ventures, we would at this point be ready to set up the most reasonable, economical, and far-sighted program. Now is the time for exploratory studies, based on sound philosophy and backed by the most careful statistical and scientific data and investigations.

**Growth of Book Production**

To show you the unhealthy state of library statistics (and, for a basic picture, statistics have considerable bearing on the program we construct for bibliography), let me simply ask the reasonable question of how rapidly the book production of this country and of the world is growing? Is there any librarian in the country who can answer that question? Practitioners of library "science" ought to have some fairly respectable quantitative hypothesis about the books they believe are in existence and the amount they roughly calculate they will have to provide for in their libraries and in their bibliographical reports and journals, before they can plan intelligently for the future. I will only call your attention to the figures given in *Union Catalogs in the United States*, a book admirable and justified in so many respects that I hope you will not assume that I am putting the blame for our incomplete and inadequate statistics at the door of authors whose primary job was not the analysis of such estimates. But figures are cited and tables reproduced which make little sense from a statistical point of view. We learn, for example, that the United States in 1940 ranked eighth in production of books, while Japan ranked first, Germany second, and France third. These rankings I find curious. Are they reliable statistical findings, based upon a complete count of trade, government, and private press publication of books and pamphlets in every country of the world? Or are they a hodgepodge, as the sources upon which the figures are based so eloquently indicate, of partial listings, inconsistent definitions of what constitutes a "book" or a monograph or a pamphlet? In short, are we adding up figures and deriving comparative ranks from totals which have not been subjected to proper statistical scrutiny to determine whether they are based upon homogeneous units? Besides, I have a hunch that things have changed pretty radically in the past six years and that the United States at the present time ranks higher in world book production. It seems worth while for us to investigate so that we may know if this is true. And finally, of the total number of books published since the beginning of printing, it is estimated that U.S. libraries hold about two-thirds of world library resources—about ten million titles. As the authors justly comment, the assertion that we hold two-thirds of total resources must be taken with "reservations," principally the incompleteness of book production statistics in general and the "padding of American li-
library holdings with manuscript and minor printed materials that do not find their way into production figures." In addition, most of these estimates fail to go beyond works in the Latin alphabet. It seems obvious to me that what is required is a thorough statistical survey, giving us a more reliable quantitative picture of where we stand with respect to the past, present, and future of books, pamphlets, newspapers, and even smaller pieces. Perhaps then it will be possible to do more than match wits about whether college libraries double every thirteen, fifteen, or sixteen years and grow in "geometric" rather than "arithmetic" progression.

Proposed Bibliographical Planning Project

Investigations like these, and many others of a more cultural character, can perhaps best be conducted from a bibliographical center. In our present estimates submitted to Congress we have asked for funds to inaugurate a bibliographic planning project, a pilot unit to analyze the problems of bibliography and make preliminary recommendations, indicating priorities among the most important tasks. When this pilot project has contributed its reports, the next steps can be charted with more realistic detail. It is hoped that by that time we can expect informed decisions on how to make available knowledge of what exists in print.

I have already referred to our present ignorance about what is being published by the governments of the world, by the book trade, and by private publishers. It is likely that we at the Library of Congress may be able to spearhead the movement in this direction; but, unless an international organization like the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization devotes part of its educational services to the bibliographical listing of documentary materials, it is dubious whether significant advance can be made in this total long-range job. It is obvious that knowledge will not be diffused or advanced to an optimum degree unless we have access to books. This means that there must be listed at least one copy of every book published, for, without complete listing, books cannot be rationally acquired by libraries. Is it necessary to add that the whole enterprise would be useless if it excluded the listing of the contents of periodicals as well as books? In the sciences particularly the absence of periodicals would greatly lessen the value of subject lists of "literature" in a field. The cooperative practice of exchanging books and pamphlets, particularly those issued by the government, would be a concomitant of adequate bibliography on the library level.

Let us anticipate that the bibliographical surveys take these initial hurdles easily. Then I would suppose that the next type of inquiry would concern itself with the major levels of organization in bibliography. The purpose of reviewing the different levels individually is to ascertain the urgency of initiating new publications in different categories. What will we need in listing? In abstracting? In review journals? In subject literature reports? Obviously not every subject matter can exert the same just claim about the urgency of inaugurating review journals.

A Few Achievements for the Score

The Library of Congress has made considerable progress in bibliographic activities within the last few years. First there is the union catalog. I will not review the history of the expansion of our union catalog, but it now has under listing and locational control about three-fourths of the total number of titles held by libraries in the United States. It may prove necessary to develop classed union catalogs, and we have already started to build the nuclei of union catalogs for

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works in the non-Latin alphabets. Second, there is bibliographical synthesis on the highest level being carried on by the Legislative Reference Service and by sections on the Public Reference Service. I know from library mail and from personal conversation that many newspaper and magazine editors, research groups, and individual scholars would be grateful if the bibliographical services undertaken for Congress were regularly made available to consumers on the outside. These groups of consumers are the intellectual advance guard of this country, and keeping them informed is a vital part of the job of democratic political education. I have on my desk now a memo from the library of one of the most influential magazine combines in the country saying that the reports prepared by the Legislative Reference Service are "splendid works" and, though they are prepared for the use of Congress, it would be a great aid to receive them or at least to receive a list of the reports prepared in the Library of Congress; and similar comments are made about the Public Affairs Bulletins.

**Alternatives**

Perhaps citing bibliographical examples from the field of politics, history, and the social sciences in general is instructive about the direction of development for a subject bibliographical program. I feel confident that subject bibliographies in the field of the sciences will be given extensive treatment by government research, scientific groups, and business firms throughout the country, for funds are easily forthcoming for purposes of scientific research. Librarians should perhaps give more intensive attention to the problem of bibliography in the humanities and social sciences.

The question of bibliographical planning is one which can be surveyed only in the most general terms, without raising the fundamental question of financing. In theory, the Library of Congress and probably libraries throughout the world recognize that their bibliographical activities depend upon the closest cooperation with the professional experts in every field, who are capable of interpreting changes and of informing bibliographers about changing needs and, frequently, about the changing terminology of their respective subjects. Whether the Library of Congress should perform a significant role of national coordination and organization of bibliographical projects, depends to a great extent upon the kind of government subsidy or foundation support the learned societies and professional groups are able to arrange for. It seems safe to assume that the services and resources of the Library of Congress will doubtless be enlisted, and it is more than likely that it will be expected to act as a clearing house of bibliographical information for the entire country and in some cases for the entire world. But certainly there is little to be gained by thinking in terms of a high concentration of bibliographical activity in any one center.

Differences of viewpoint already exist, not only inside the Library of Congress, but throughout the world, about the best approach to ensure the establishment of adequate bibliographical control over the world’s literature. I am sanguine that these differences will be immaterial in the long run, since they tend to run to extremes as opposed viewpoints often do. One theory is that only the “selective” evaluative bibliography is worth sponsoring; another, that only the complete listing of works provides the needed base for intellectual sorties and that the scholars can concoct bibliographies to suit their own needs. I am at a loss to see why there must be war about these issues, since it seems plain to me that both types of activity are absolutely obligatory.
and indeed mutually complementary. The trick is to find the comprehensive pattern which will satisfy the needs of all significant groups who have occasion to approach recorded knowledge with important questions.

**History Presents New Issues**

In a special sense, history enters the domain of bibliography at the particular juncture of our present development. The exigencies of the war placed peculiar emphasis upon the “area” or regional approach. By and large, library practice in America had been structurally determined in terms of functional classifications. The functional versus the regional remains a vexed question, affecting the development of bibliographical programs. Yet, in principle, it seems sensible to me to make a distinction between the usefulness of regional organization for bibliographers on a purely factual or event level of interest, and of functional organization in terms of broader theoretic and analytic interests. Thus the geography, economic organization, political events, customs, and living conditions of Northern Borneo can be successfully treated on an area basis, although only up to a certain point. But questions arising about geographical theories, economic theories, political hypotheses and principles, and the broader issues in any science, as in philosophy and art, involve a typical viewpoint which is nonregional, nonnational, but properly international, conceptual, and testable by the usual canons of evidence to determine adequacy and inadequacy, rather than by place of origin or existence.

Separate collections and separate library sections—like those devoted to Slavic studies, to the Far East, or our Hispanic Foundation—can sponsor a certain kind of regional bibliography, like the *Handbook of Latin American Studies*. But a bibliography like the “History of Science and Civilization” contained in *Isis* performs a very different function and can have regional categories introduced only on a minor, subdivisional basis. Those who work with the history of ideas are primarily interested in themes, or concepts, or subject matter, if you prefer; and the very breadthness of the *Isis* classification, straddling the fields of history of science, philosophy, and civilization is and must be characteristic of bibliographies organized to achieve synthesis. Only experts in the literature of these fields can perform the selection and authenticate the judgments implicit in “broad” bibliographies of this order. Whether the experts put in an eight-hour day as members of library staffs or show their virtuosity on the outside in universities or as members of professional groups is immaterial. Possibly a better classification than the one in *Isis* might have been devised—“better” in the sense of aiding the user to find the books he wants in one rather than in any one of three or four categories—had intensive and enlightened library study been an integral part of the professional approach to this complex subject. But the unique service provided by the *Isis* bibliography nonetheless deserves appreciation.

**Other Important Problems**

Other important problems emerge from the historical actualities of the period in which we live. One of these is the inevitable effect of that specialization in knowledge referred to earlier. For we find that we must concentrate more than ever before on securing more adequate (meaning more comprehensive, standardized, and exhaustive) finding lists. This is work begun by the National Union Catalog and by publications like the *Union List of Serials* and *American Newspapers, 1821-1936*. Yet, at the same time there is an equally pressing necessity to circumvent the general
character of cataloging and to provide lists with some "personality" of their own, by which I mean special lists and other bibliographies constructed for rather well-defined groups whose particular interests can be anticipated. I am emphasizing that the historic juncture in which we now find ourselves no longer permits us leeway to debate whether we shall aim at more universality or more specialization and individualization. It rather makes it imperative that we become more comprehensive than we ever fancied we would have to be before and, at the very same time, more specialized on both the research and "general reader" levels. If it should turn out that the I.B.M. card can fulfil the promises predicted by those who are now investigating its bibliographical and cataloging potentialities, some of the more sensitive and discriminatory cataloging and bibliographical work may be performed with an economy of human labor.

But specialization places still other burdens upon us; for example, in attempting to control the periodical literature of the sciences and the humanities. Some years before the war an American expert on Chinese civilization decided that the important periodical T'oung Pao required indexing, in order that the subjects discussed in its articles, and even in the weightier footnotes documenting certain articles, be listed for the benefit of students and experts in Oriental civilization. Often titles of articles and the authors' names are insufficient to identify the contributions to knowledge they may contain. At the time the proposal was made, money was not available to finance the project; more recently, it has been revived by the American Council of Learned Societies and is being carried out at the University of Chicago.

Unrealistic Objection

I have purposely chosen this illustration because it may draw someone's objection that this is indeed descending to a fine level in the subject matter direction and that it belongs wholly to the scholars! However, such a position is as unrealistic as it is unimaginative: unrealistic, because even if university faculties wanted the onerous additional labor of supervising and editing indexing projects for serial publications and were willing to assume such new assignments without extra pay, they probably would not be able to command the right number and quality of library assistants. And they might not always undertake the project at the right time nor be prepared to see it through on a systematic year-by-year basis. Shall we try to pass the buck to professional societies? Are they not frequently straitened for funds and are they not in many cases composed of the same overworked instructors and professors whose difficulties in assuming this new responsibility we have just mentioned? And are their interests too individualistic to sustain such group planning and effort? Obviously, the organized profession in each field should give counsel and should participate in both the over-all rational program of bibliography and in the special bibliographies to be undertaken in separate fields. But nothing less will do to solve this problem than (1) a dependable, ample endowment to be routed, as the case may be, to the Library of Congress, other libraries, and professional groups, depending upon the program agreed upon by all qualified interests; and (2) a systematic procedure, suggested by a top planning group responsible for a cooperative national (or world) bibliographical program, perhaps centered for clearing house purposes in one or several great research libraries.

But history is not yet done with bibliographers. For, to cap the climax, the past (with which the naive believe they are done, for once and all, after it has been "put" into history books) constantly returns to
upset finished bibliographies. Thirty years ago, if we had consulted a bibliography of ancient Chinese history, we would have found mention of certain “emperors” of the period of about 2200 B.C. Recent research has shown that in fact these “emperors” were inventions of a later date. Bibliographies of ancient Chinese history will now have to follow the lead of the reinterpreted “past” and doubtless will need revision after revision as the past continues to cause a row in the “present.”

The Present and Future

If the past is troublesome, bear in mind that the present and future are even less docile. A few years ago when Princeton’s archeological expedition turned up a great cache of Roman mosaics never before viewed by the modern world, the new finds added to the artistic sources of enjoyment, they added to our knowledge of civilization, but they inevitably added too to the workload of the bibliographers of art history! Remember that we are getting to know more and more even about that amorphous period hitherto described as “prehistory.” Our microfilming techniques make materials available from the far corners of the earth. Our manuscript sources are constantly swelling the size of library collections. And the enormous quantity of government publications and war records has not begun to be subdued for listing and bibliographical processing.

From inside the libraries themselves comes another type of historical challenge. What major libraries contain is far from known by library patrons. This is true both for general and special book collections and for special forms like manuscripts, sound recordings, photographs, etc. In this field complete bibliographical control is feasible, requiring only adequate staff and time to prepare complete enumerative lists. How important such lists may be, can be shown by the following illustration. An editor was recently preparing a one-volume edition of the political writings of one of our great early presidents. Published sources were used first, and then the question of manuscript collections arose. No professional historians were certain about the location and description of these collections, and when they were finally located (after considerable loss of time) the historical societies and libraries holding them were unable to supply printed lists or typescripts calendaring their collections. For research in American history it is vital that scholars be given these initial aids if they are to do their best work—indeed, if this nation is to learn the accurate story of its own development. Should the day ever arrive when early imprints and manuscripts in this important field are adequately listed and described, we may be saved from the plague of secondary source rewriting of nineteenth-century American histories.

Question of Distribution

Extending this criticism further, brings up the inevitable question of the distribution of information and bibliographies by the libraries. If my account of the special sense in which history is forcing our hand, bibliographically, is true, we need a pretty radical revolution in our methods of reaching the public with information. The more the sociologists can learn about special reader group interests, the more obligation we will have to prepare bibliographies suited to reach them with pertinent information. The more our scholars turn to creative historical interpretations, the more need there will be to publish bibliographies suited to their needs—not only locating valuable collections, for instance, but giving them reliable lists of work-in-progress throughout the country, throughout the world, to save the
heartbreaking waste of years devoted to a project which someone else completes the day your own manuscript is finished. The more the movement for adult education grows roots, becoming a permanent feature of our national existence, the more demand there will be for listing, indexing, and abstracting motivated at the adult education level.

Understand that I don't care at this stage, who does what. Let small libraries, universities, colleges, research centers, government agencies, each do what they can and are specially fitted to do. But the work must be done, and it is the responsibility of the national library to voice the view that it should be done, supplying the lacks which others do not supply and taking priority on jobs that would suffer unless the greatest library in the world were behind them. If there is agreement on the principle that we ought to reach serious groups, interested in knowledge and in the long or short run influential in the character of opinion sustained in this democracy, a great many specific duties must follow. I am sure that many can be anticipated, but let me call attention to one project that I believe would be of great value to the efficiency with which work gets done by the federal agencies.

Our Legislative Reference Service looks with favor upon the idea of routing to appropriate research and analysis groups in the different government departments and agencies, references to periodical literature appearing in every important country in the world. Only those who have worked inside a government agency during the war can understand the saving in time and the assurance of completeness of sources involved in this suggestion. Now this is in itself not a very difficult project, but it does involve distribution of material previously not distributed in this same constant and dependable way. And there are countless other services of this kind which can help to utilize the material the library possesses and is acquiring in constantly increasing adequacy.

UNESCO: Center of International Bibliography

History has been forced through its own growth to be generous with the race of bibliographers and in effect has bid us to prosper and multiply. To the historical conditions affecting the future of bibliography, I must now add the logical culmination—UNESCO's possibilities as an international center of bibliographical activity. In one sense the whole national, rationalized bibliographical program referred to throughout depends upon international bibliographical controls. Or, to put it more accurately, national controls and international controls are interdependent. Since UNESCO's activities will themselves be determined by what America and the other leading powers propose, I believe it is important for us to urge a most ambitious bibliographical program in the interests of intellectual progress and the interchange of the materials of knowledge and art. Probably no other historic epoch will be better suited to this undertaking than is the present one, for the grave lesions inflicted by the war have only highlighted the necessity for large-scale international exchange of information and promotion of cultural understanding.

I therefore believe that a number of long-range objectives for international bibliographical policy must be coupled with practical measures sympathetic to them. UNESCO must prepare to carry out a program ensuring equal access to all scholarly material, implemented by trade agreements providing among other things
for freedom of these materials from export and import duties and currency controls. It should sponsor an international trade and document bibliography, composed largely of national bibliographies covering all publications for the country of origin, and national bibliographies of periodical literature. To aid scholarship in progress throughout the world, it might possibly find it desirable to create an international union catalog, based of course on catalogs of holdings by each nation. UNESCO should further provide for the exchange of bibliographical searching services and for the extensive and systematic international exchange of microfilm copies of publications.

The final provision that I consider highly significant for UNESCO's potential bibliographical activity is one which has been the subject of much planning and discussion on the national level in America; namely, the establishment of responsibility for the inclusive acquisition in designated subject fields. Although there are grave difficulties attendant upon the assignment of specific responsibility even on a national scale, it is obvious that the lines of national specialization must follow national interest and culture and that some kind of complementary assignment of responsibility must be introduced in order to maximize the pooled knowledge of the nations of the world.

**Will We Miss the Bus?**

I know these suggestions will involve in the years to come many men, many minds, and the almost endless patience required by group discussions and committee meetings. And, as I have pointed out, the specific modifications of some of my proposals and the forms in which they are to be implemented still remain to be worked out—I hope by the cooperation of libraries, scholars, and government agencies interested in this field. But I am convinced that we are historically at the crossroads of national maturity and know-how, and not only on an industrial, technological scale. We must act now, in the directions I have suggested, to control, extend, and exploit the fulness of the world's knowledge. Otherwise, we will find ourselves at some future day looking back with regret on the period when lack of historical imagination permitted bibliographical ventures to be sporadic private enterprises and individualistic struggles for recognition. We will be forced to realize that we flunked the challenge to cooperative problem-solving presented to us by the present historic juncture. What will there then be left to do but to shake our heads over our hapless folly and say in the words of our friends, the whole French people: "Si jeunesse savait, si vieillesse pouvait."
Some Remarks on Bibliography

IN THIS PAPER I propose to offer a few random comments and variations on the principal duty of librarians, which, reduced to its simplest terms, I take to be merely this: to get the right books on the shelves and to make them available to readers. The effort to fulfill that duty in these complicated days has run us square against two troublesome problems: What are we to do about the cascade of printed materials in the world? What are we to do about the growing mountains of catalog cards? Any consideration of those two problems brings us in time to two other queries: What is the purpose and character of modern scholarship? and Are we making the right books available to the right readers? All four of these questions are related, and I don't for a moment pretend to give an answer. Time, practical considerations of costs, and bad paper will probably solve them, though perhaps not in the best way, and all I want to do is to suggest some interrelations and ride a hobby. Let me begin with two stories:

As a professional group, we librarians are blood brothers to a gentleman of whom I know, the possessor years ago of a large house and a growing family, who also loved books. He bought them whenever occasion offered; he went out of his way to create occasions; he bought them low, he bought them high, he bought them of all sizes and kinds. Books came every post, a constant Niagara of books, and by and by, when he had filled his bookcases in the library, study, living room, dining room, bedrooms, and the shelves he put in the attic and in the basement, he began to pile books on tables, under the beds, on the chairs. They continued to arrive; they spilled out from the spaces under the beds, grew around the beds, covered the beds, hid in time the beds, the chairs, the tables; they swelled and swelled, like some monstrous evil growth, overflowing into the kitchen, the bath, the fireplaces—until the family had to flee to an outhouse and leave the books sole and useless masters of the field.

Isaac Disraeli, in the Curiosities of Literature, has a sentence on this "bibliomania, or the collecting an enormous heap of books without intelligent curiosity, [which] has, since libraries have existed, infected weak minds, who imagine that they themselves acquire knowledge when they keep it on their shelves. Their motley libraries have been called the madhouses of the human mind."

Obviously private individuals with such libraries need a scalpel, and the courage to wield it; some criteria for selection, in other words, a bibliography. And we professional librarians, who might be said to be infected at times with a bit of bibliomania ourselves, could perhaps use a scalpel too.

Now for a second story. Consider the case, fictitious if you like, of the young eager reader, coming blithely some fair morning to read a good book or two on Rome, or Shakespeare, or prehistoric man. Ignorant of the mystery of libraries, blessed only with the laudable democratic impulse to find out for himself, he makes inquiries at the desk and is told where to find the catalog and how to fill out slips. The catalog has

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1 Paper presented at the midwinter meeting, 1945, of the Association of College and Reference Libraries.
two drawers, at the least, on Rome, de-

pending on the size of the library, and, if it

is a fine, up-to-date scholarly library, letting

nothing escape its grasp, it may have five,
six, or more. He starts in, and after the

first half hour of turning over cards on

“The Topographical Study in Rome in 1581,” “The Italian Letters of a Diplomat’s

Wife,” “Historical Illustrations of the 4th

Canto of Childe Harold, Containing Dis-
sertations on the Ruins of Rome,” he gives

up and, being an intelligent reader, makes

further inquiry of the reference librarian.

Knowing the ropes, she directs him to the

World Bibliography of Bibliographies,

where he dutifully fills out the sixty slips for

the general bibliographies on Rome, sends

for the books, and sits, in growing stupefac-
tion, as the lists of titles unroll before him.

You can finish this story—already it is
twelve o’clock; by luck our reader, if his

ambition still holds, may find some sort of

book by three.

An Example: Lincoln

A Lincoln collection today, to be a Lin-
colin collection, must have 3500 to 4000

separate titles, not counting editions or vari-
ants. One of the best Lincoln scholars in

the country tells me that there are about

seventy good books on Lincoln. How, in

the creaking apparatus of modern libraries,
do you lead the inquirer to those seventy
books? He doesn’t need to be the begin-
ner, but the college student, the graduate

student, and even the finished scholar. For,

believe me, the authors of the best books on
Lincoln have never read the four thousand
titles. You don’t write a good book by

reading four thousand others—you read

the right ones, and think.

Of these 4000 Lincoln titles, 1340 have
been printed in the last twenty-five years,
36 per cent of them are recent. This figure
is not surprising, the Lincoln cult being

fairly recent, but other figures are not
greatly dissimilar. Of some 1800 titles
under “Abd” in the L.C. catalog of printed
cards, 500 bear a date within the last
twenty-five years, 28 per cent. At this rate,
which I don’t pretend to be accurate enough
to satisfy the statisticians, 600,000 of the
two million cards in the L.C. catalog are of
post-1920 titles. The books are getting out
from under the beds. Another fifty years,
and they will have won. We’ll have to start
burning them, and the trouble with book
burning is that the wrong ones always get
burned.

Without becoming emotional and devel-
oping weltschmerz, I can see some national
implications here which seem serious to me.
Ninety per cent of the use of most libraries
is by comparatively uninformed readers,
citizens and future citizens on whose sound
judgment the country depends for its sur-
vival as a free democracy. Fifty years ago,
much more so a century ago, a man who
wanted to learn law was given Blackstone
as a matter of course; if he wanted some-
thing on the Constitution, he read the Fed-
eralist; if on American history, Bancroft.

What can he be given today in any of those
subjects, or in any subject, as readily and
as satisfactorily? Granted that we know
more—or is it less?—about all these sub-
jects, we are rapidly reaching a point where
we cannot serve the public’s basic needs.
Readers are eager for guidance; we give
them card catalogs. There is a connection
between the existence of great sprawling
mysterious libraries and the prevalence of
cheap short-cuts to information, which have
taken the place of understanding, short-cuts
like digest magazines and radio quiz pro-
grams.

What we have done is to make most re-
search libraries into scholars’ libraries—that
is, we serve the 5 per cent and neglect the
95 per cent. We accept the notion of a
scholar as a man with a whim, any whim at all. If he wants to spend his time reading miserably inferior books and pleads his immunity as a scholar from all considerations of space and costs, we defer as librarians to the magic word—scholarship—and accord him greater privileges than anyone else in our modern society gets. We take seriously his fetish about bad books. Even though we know a book is bad, though everyone who has ever looked at it knows it is a bad book, though any scholar, after five minutes' examination, will throw it aside, we still keep it on the shelves in order that some other scholar, fifty years hence, will have the privilege of tossing it aside after another five minutes.

You remember the question which it occurred to the young John Stuart Mill to ask about Benthamism. Here was this elaborate cult, this scientifically conceived scheme for bringing about the greatest happiness of the greatest number, and Mill asked, "If everything that I am working for were gained, would I be happy?" Of course he had to answer "no." If all the books that had ever been printed, and all the pamphlets, sermons, broadsides, and wedding invitations, were available in American libraries, and all of them were properly listed on cards and in union catalogs, would scholarship be any better than it is now? My guess would be that the answer is "no."

I say "my guess" simply because we have seen very few books on the history of scholarship and we do not know exactly what it is that creates a great and distinguished school of scholars in a field. It is interesting that scholars are or have been quite un-historical about themselves; their motives and their purposes they appear to hold as above the need for study; they seem to think that every scholar, since the world began, has been impelled by precisely the same motives as they. Some American historians, the other day, were insulted when a businessman, using and using faithfully all the apparatus of scholarship, upset one of their cherished convictions about the character of railway land grants. His motives, they cried, were impure; he was not a disinterested person and, therefore, nothing that he said could be true. I have a sneaking suspicion that much great scholarship in the past, as with, shall we say, Catholic historians or Protestant historians, has not been disinterested but has been great.

Investigate in Library Schools

One place where the history of scholarship might be investigated is in library schools. No one is as deeply concerned about the purposes of scholarship as the librarian, for he must constantly hazard a guess at the direction that scholarship is taking. Historians are fond of saying that a man can look only so far into the future as he can see into the past. Here is a field where that aphorism can be tested and applied, to very sound purpose. A library school's course in the history of scholarship might do worse than to start examining Carl Becker's remark, that any history written for history's own sake is nothing but sterile antiquarianism, not worth the time it takes. Presumably Becker would be willing to add that he doubted whether books so inspired were worth preserving for all time, or for any time at all, on a library shelf.

To return to the 95 per cent of our readers, what ought we to be doing for them? I suggest that we might go to work preparing bibliographies. I use that word in a highly specialized sense. Andrew Keogh used to refuse to call a mere list of books, however long, a bibliography; to deserve that honorable name some evidence of intelligent discrimination, some form of annotation or comment, was necessary. I
rather like that insistence of his. Bibliography means writing about books, and a list, whether it be a list of first issues, or a list of everything an author wrote, including the material which he and everyone else wish might be forgotten, or the kind of padded list which one finds in doctoral dissertations, or just a list of all the books in a library on some subject, is not writing about books. These lists, these lists! Whom do they serve? I have been trying for some years now to finish a bibliography myself, in which I want to include all the books, with at least some sort of descriptive or evaluating sentence, which a sane and reasonable man might consider to be the best and next to best books on eighteenth-century England. A few of the fields I know a little something about. But in many of them I have to trust the judgment of others. I look around to find the judgment of others, and it doesn’t exist. I have sat for hours turning over the pages of so-called classified bibliographies, lists of hundreds of books on Scotland, say, or mathematics, as helpless before those lists as the eager fledgling of whom I told you, who wanted a good book on Rome. Other scholars tell me the same things about lists. For every one that they serve, there are a thousand whom they disappoint. Has this civilization of ours so lost all confidence in itself that it does not even try to distinguish between a wise, comprehensive, intelligent book and a job done by some student to get a job?

Teaching of Bibliography

Here is another useful subject for library schools: the teaching of bibliography. I do not believe that a man need be a specialist in a field to know the good books. Anyone who knows something of the technique of scholarship can learn the tricks, acquire the feel, by which he can spot the phonies. We tried this at Newberry, and staff members who had never made a critical, selective bibliography before learned to do it. The nonspecialist may miss 5 or 10 per cent—but the scholars themselves agree on no more than 90 per cent—and that is a good enough figure for the nefarious suggestion which I am about to make.

Indicate Good Books

This suggestion is that we print the titles of good books on pink cards or, if you think that procedure attended with too many technical difficulties, including the one of finding a paper that would not fade to white in twenty-five years, I’ll compromise by suggesting that we have a separate card catalog for the good books. This will be the catalog for the 95 per cent of our readers. And if any member of your faculty wonders why his book is not in it, you make him show cause. Tell him, in a kindly way, of course, that you don’t believe his book would be understood by the 95 per cent; tell him that you have room only for Aristotle or Gibbon and that in a few hundred years he may make the grade. Don’t let him question your judgment; you are the librarian, and yours is the decision.

These random remarks are nearly finished. I don’t expect them to carry much weight. I was shown today an article written by a former librarian of the University of Nebraska forty-three years ago which made somewhat the same points. Since the Vannevar Bushes and not the Whiteheads are setting the pace for us, we shall continue to regard the building of libraries as a scientific performance instead of the philosophic and artistic job that it really is.
Latin American Union Catalogs

The international character of bibliography and librarianship lends importance to all major efforts for recording published materials. Of particular significance are undertakings in this field for Latin America, because of widespread interest in Latin American books and the generally unsatisfactory state of national and trade bibliography in the countries south of us.

In the course of their extensive trip in the summer of 1944 on behalf of the American Library Association, Harry Miller Lydenberg and Carl H. Milam were impressed by the number and scope of bibliographical projects, especially union catalogs, in the countries visited. On the basis of information supplied by these two travelers, complemented by correspondence with and reports from individual Latin American librarians, the present brief review has been prepared.

The three United States libraries in Latin American capitals, operating with funds supplied largely or wholly by the United States government, are playing significant roles in the union catalog movement, for much of the current activity stems from these three sources. All founded in 1942, the libraries are the Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin in Mexico, the Biblioteca Artigas-Washington in Montevideo, and the Biblioteca Americana de Nicaragua in Managua. Other noteworthy union catalog or union list enterprises are under way in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and possibly additional countries about which no data were available.

Beginning with our immediate neighbor, Mexico, the Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin is sponsoring a valuable project for serial publications. When Mr. Lydenberg first went to Mexico, in 1941, as director of the Benjamin Franklin Library, he found an urgent need for a union list of serials. Accordingly, "El Catálogo Colectivo de Publicaciones Periódicas Existentes en las Bibliotecas de la Ciudad de Mexico" was established in March 1943, under the direction of Rudolph H. Gjelsness and with financial support from the Rockefeller Foundation. The recently organized Comisión Impulsora y Coordinadora de la Investigación Científica has actively collaborated with the undertaking.

To date, eighteen Mexico City libraries have been cataloged. All except one are in medical and biological fields. Omitting only newspapers, holdings have been recorded of every type of periodical literature, including magazines, government documents, pamphlets in series, and publications of societies, institutions, and congresses. The catalog is restricted to author entries. As for use, a statement from Harold W. Bentley, present director-librarian of the Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin, indicates that the catalog is being utilized for study and for professional research by students and graduates in medicine and biology, mainly in conjunction with the Quarterly Cumulative Index Medicus. The entries thus far recorded in the catalog are in process of publication and work is continuing in Mexico City's scientific libraries.

By the usual definitions, union lists rather than union catalogs are the chief contributions of the Biblioteca Americana de Nicaragua. The principal example is A Bibliography of Books and Pamphlets Pub-
lished in Nicaragua (with 1942 or Earlier as Date of Publication), to Be Found in Certain Private Libraries of Nicaragua. Issued in January 1945, as the fourth publication in the library's bibliographical series, the work records, with location symbols, 2663 titles held in six private collections. These six are rated by the former director-librarian, Edward Martin Heiliger (now in Santiago, Chile), as "among the best in Managua, the capital city of Nicaragua." The listing was made by a group of library staff members who visited and examined one collection after another. Among factors which induced the library to embark upon the project were the need for supplementing its small collection of Nicaraguan publications, the desirability of acquiring further knowledge of Nicaraguan books, and to encourage bibliographical work among Nicaraguans. All Nicaraguan imprints encountered, except periodicals, were recorded. Arrangement of the catalog is by author, with a subject index. In the short period since its appearance, the bibliography has proved its usefulness, especially as a staff tool for locating desired materials.

Prior to publication of the bibliography, the Biblioteca Americana, in July 1944, issued another union list, Lista de Libros de Medicina, Folletos y Periódicos, a record of books, pamphlets, and periodicals pertaining to medicine available in the Biblioteca Americana, the headquarters office of the Sociedad Cooperativa de Sanidad, and the Escuela Nacional de Enfermeras. This twenty-seven-page pamphlet, designed for the use of doctors and medical students, is arranged by subjects. A majority of titles originated in the United States, though there is a considerable sprinkling of Latin American imprints. Medical publications in the Managua libraries have increased to such an extent since the list appeared that a new edition is under consideration.

As to future plans, Mr. Heiliger wrote that there are other libraries rich in Nicaraguan materials, especially in Granada and León, and probably these will be listed early in 1946. Each new issue published of the union catalog will show the holdings of items recorded in previous parts, as well as additional titles.

On an average, over sixteen thousand persons are served each month by the Biblioteca Americana. The patrons are preponderantly Nicaraguan, but a high percentage of requests for information comes from United States citizens, chiefly soldiers, interested in a variety of topics. The present director-librarian is Gaston L. Litton.

Biblioteca Artigas-Washington

The third of the three United States-sponsored libraries is the Biblioteca Artigas-Washington, in Montevideo, Uruguay. In June 1945, this library began the compilation of a union catalog of works by United States authors and about the United States to be found in the principal libraries of Montevideo. At present the catalog is limited to author entries only. Both books and periodical publications are being entered. The problem of obtaining records of current accessions from each library is not yet fully solved. In the case of one institution, the University of Montevideo's School of Engineering, the information is received through current mimeographed lists of accessions. Symbols similar to those in Gregory's Union List of Serials are assigned to participating libraries. Arthur E. Gropp, the librarian, believes the union catalog will be of increasing value as it develops because of numerous requests for publications relating to the United States. Mr. Milam reported there are many substantial collections in Montevideo, with twenty thousand English books, it is said, in the National Library alone.

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Several other Uruguayan union catalog undertakings are deserving of mention. The National Library maintains listings of materials which it sends to libraries, created under its sponsorship, in the interior. Printed cards are issued for all items cataloged; the receiving library is supplied with sets of cards and duplicate cards are retained in the National Library's central file. The library school of the engineering association has devoted some attention to union lists. One student, as a thesis, prepared a list of "Periodical Publications in English in the Field of Medicine in Libraries of Montevideo," recording 133 entries found in three libraries. Another student wrote a similar thesis in the field of library science. Recently, an Association of Teachers of English was formed. Among the organization's first projects was the compilation of a list of materials, useful for the teaching of English, available in about ten libraries of Montevideo. Still another hopeful sign is the establishment of an official library school. The law creating the school specifies also a bibliotecological commission, charged with responsibility for setting up a national centralized cooperative catalog.

Union Lists in Brazil

In Uruguay's neighbor to the north, Brazil, a union list of scientific periodicals was issued as early as 1936. This work, in two mimeographed volumes, was done under the direction of Prof. Jayme A. Cavalcanti and covered the holdings of the leading libraries of São Paulo, plus one Rio de Janeiro library. Another union list of serials, for Brazilian biological and medical libraries, was undertaken in 1945, again under the supervision of Prof. Cavalcanti, who is president of the Serviço de Divulgação Bibliográfica of the Fundos Universitarios de Pesquisas at São Paulo. The catalog now in preparation is on cards and will record the holdings of some fifty libraries.

Except for these instances, Brazilian libraries are reported to have made no noteworthy progress in the union catalog field. The president of the University of São Paulo, in 1942, suggested that libraries send cards for all books cataloged to the Biblioteca Municipal of São Paulo, then under the direction of Rubens Borba de Moraes who has since gone to the Biblioteca Nacional in Rio de Janeiro. For various reasons, the proposal has never been put into effective operation.

Union Catalog in Chile

Chile has a single example of a union catalog. There the Central Library of the Ministry of Agriculture at Santiago, in June 1944, started a catalog to record the holdings of libraries serving the various specialized divisions of the agriculture department. Seven such bureau libraries are now included, and, in addition, contributions of cards for their collections are being furnished to the catalog by the libraries of the Agronomy Society of Chile and the University of Chile's School of Agronomy. At present, the union catalog contains only author entries, but a complete dictionary catalog is planned for later development. Among the patrons of the catalog are professors, technicians, agricultural students from the University of Chile, and the Ministry of Agriculture staff.

Interesting future plans were described by Héctor Fuenzalida y Villegas, librarian of the University of Chile Central Library. A group of librarians are to be trained in the university, through a Rockefeller Foundation grant, to prepare a union catalog of the twenty-two libraries associated with the different faculties or schools of the university. According to the program, which it is estimated will require eight
years to complete, the most important li-

braries of the university are to be recataloged

at the beginning. An individual catalog

for each library, with author and subject

entries, will be made and a duplicate card

forwarded to the central library for the

union catalog. The university's collections

total more than 300,000 volumes.

Another potential development noted by

Señor Fuenzalida is in the field of law. The library of the University of Chile's

School of Juridical and Social Sciences is

attempting to obtain a duplicate of the ex-

cellent catalog of the National Congressional

Library in Santiago. The latter institution,

with approximately 200,000 volumes, is

rich in legal materials. The school would

use the combined record as a basis for a union

catalog of law and legislation.

Some important work in the union cat-

alog field is under way in Argentina, but
efforts to obtain direct information from

that country have failed. One project

which attracted Mr. Milam's attention in

particular, and which he considered an ex-

cellent beginning, was a printed union list

of current periodicals in and around Buenos

Aires. Another undertaking centering in

Buenos Aires is a union catalog for each of

the six Argentine navy station libraries,

with central accessioning and cataloging.

A grant from the Rockefeller Founda-

tion was made to the University of Buenos

Aires in 1942 for the establishment of a

bibliographical center. The university has

a college and six professional schools served

by libraries located in various quarters of

the city, possessing a total of some seven

hundred thousand books and pamphlets.

One of the center's first activities was to

begin the preparation of a union catalog of

all holdings in the several libraries of the

university system.

From Caracas, Venezuela, while no

union catalog was reported, Enrique Plan-

chart, director of the Biblioteca Nacional,

wrote that a solid foundation for a future

union catalog was being laid by recataloging

operations now in progress for the National

Library, the Ministry of Health and Social

Assistance Library, and the Biogen Founda-

tion Library. All three are dictionary cat-

alogs on cards, the last two principally

concerned with medicine. One of the ser-

vices of the Biogen Foundation Library is the

preparation of medical bibliographies, at

the request of students, indicating libraries

where the works listed may be consulted.

A similar situation exists in Peru, where

union catalogs have not been established,

but whose National Library at Lima and

the University of San Marcos Library are

developing modern catalogs that might be

used eventually as a basis for one or more

union catalogs.

Distinctive Features

Two distinctive features of the union
catalog situation in Latin America emerge
from the foregoing discussion. First is

the stress on medicine, biology, and other

scientific and technical fields—a natural

emphasis in this scientific age. Second is

the fact that the union catalog movement

in Latin America is in its infancy. With

one or two exceptions, all union catalogs

now in existence were founded within the

last five years. The impetus, as in the

United States, has come primarily from
governmental funds and foundation grants.
Financial assistance from the Rockefeller
Foundation, for example, has been received
for the bibliographical centers in São Paulo,
Buenos Aires, and Santiago. There is
every probability that the union catalog
idea will spread to other Hispanic-American
countries, stimulating them to record and
make better known their resources.
By PELHAM BARR

Book Conservation and University Library Administration

SILENCE, rarely broken, seems to surround the subject of book conservation and the administration of binding. This applies to libraries in general and to college and university libraries in particular. Discussion of book conservation (under other names) is generally concerned with the techniques of maintenance and the routines of preparing materials for binding. In the literature of library administration, binding receives little mention, and surveys of individual libraries are skillful in satisfying the amenities with the briefest of nods. On organization charts, binding supervision usually is placed in a box in some out-of-the-way corner.¹

This polite neglect of the subject in discussion reflects its neglect in action, and conditions in many college and university libraries reveal, sometimes painfully, the results. This is not—and, because of the very nature of the problems, cannot be—a criticism of the hundreds of librarians, directly active in conserving millions of books, who are doing their work effectively. What is usually found to be hampering their work, chaining their activities, gagging their judgment, and often leading to crises and waste, is a fundamental problem of administration which should concern librarians and other institutional authorities.

What are the symptoms of book conservation and binding troubles, and what can be done about them? Without going into individual case histories, it is possible to analyze the conditions which have come to the attention of this writer in the course of ten years of dealing with the questions and confidences of hundreds of librarians and binders. The records show these to be the most frequent conditions which break out into troublesome “situations” requiring action: (1) valuable (old, rare, irreplaceable) materials deteriorating; (2) growing backlog of unbound stock which should be bound; (3) wearing out of items in heavy or continuous demand; (4) material “in bindery” when needed; and (5) poor binding (short life, poor appearance, inconvenience in using) and consequent spoilage.

The causes and their various permutations and combinations, which are revealed most often as origins and aggravators of trouble, are, at the operating or procedural level: (1) neglect of material in library, inadequate safeguards and precautions, abuse by readers, unnecessary wear and tear, too late discovery of material needing attention; (2) poor re-selection of materials for binding, including neglect of some and unnecessary attention and expense for others; (3) faulty scheduling in library or bindery, or both; (4) absence of adequate specifications or instructions, or insufficient understanding of them in bindery; (5) inadequate preparation of materials for binding; and (6) general incompetence of binder.

The librarian who has observed any of these conditions and diligently seeks to remedy them is confronted with the question, What changes, if any, are needed at the levels of supervision? Or, is the real problem a broader one of the administration

¹ A systematic search by Arthur R. Youtz, New York Public Library, confirms the impression of the writer.
of the library? Or, beyond that, are there vital factors in the situation which touch even broader problems of university administration, requiring perhaps years of patient education of university authorities? It is very difficult to answer these questions unless the diagnostician can compare what he finds with some definite picture of what book conservation should be and what place binding should have in it.

Scope of Conservation

The scope of book conservation may be outlined by following its essential tasks from the time of receipt of a piece of material (and before) to the time of discard: (1) selecting material before purchase with respect to usability and useful life; (2) examining condition and probable future condition of all material received, whether by gift or purchase, and prescribing conservation treatment, if necessary, before use; (3) providing proper housing of all material, in accordance with its conservation needs as well as its accessibility; (4) assuming responsibility for its condition at all times; (5) assuring its proper handling by staff and patrons; (6) organizing systematic inspection so that need for conservation attention is promptly recognized; (7) deciding on the proper treatment of all material needing attention; (8) supervising the treatment; and (9) deciding on storing or discarding.

The administration of book conservation, therefore, tends to touch other aspects of library administration at several points—and that may be one reason for its apparent elusiveness. Binding is only one part of real book conservation, and that is why the most efficient binding supervision may not be able to cope effectively with a library's program of book conservation.

Seeking to get closer to the possible administrative difficulties underlying book conservation and binding troubles, the librarian may find solutions, and perhaps remedies, in answers to questions like these: (1) Is the organizational position of the binding supervisor high enough and is his authority adequate? (2) Are coordination and cooperation in relations with other service departments of library effective? (3) Is coordination between central library administration and departmental libraries adequate? (4) Is the over-all program of book conservation well planned? (5) Are budgeting (for the library in general and for book conservation and binding) and allocation of binding funds carefully worked out? (6) Is the staff adequate in numbers or experience? (7) Is there effective machinery for cooperation with faculty and students? (8) Are housing of collections and facilities for care good? (9) Have there been lapses in judgment in selecting bindery, either by the librarian or binding supervisor (for reasons of "economy"), or by university or state authorities (because of ignorance, politics, or compliance with statutory requirements, especially in the case of state-supported institutions)? (10) How well organized are working relationships with the bindery?

University and Library Relationship

All these questions relate specifically to the operation, supervision, and administration of book conservation and binding functions. Obviously, the organizational relations of the library to the university would tend to affect conservation of collections as well as every other phase of library operation. Administration of binding operations would necessarily be influenced by the efficiency or inefficiency of these relations between library and university and would share the high or low status of the library in the university community.

Ultimately, therefore, some of the prob-
lems of book conservation are the same as those confronting every other phase of university library activity. Whatever may be the administrative “taking over” of departmental libraries by the central library, the book conservation and binding problems of the departmental libraries will need some sort of administrative solution. If the university library suffers from inadequate funds, it is natural that conservation and binding suffer, at least in proportion. The lag caused by university libraries growing faster than their administrative machinery is marked in the case of conservation. Here may be found, too often, not only the “traditions” of the university and its libraries, but some additional traditions of “the way we’ve always done it.” If there is outside domination of purchasing policies and procedures, through a state official or through a university purchasing agent, it is more likely to affect binding contracts seriously than the buying of coal or typewriter ribbons. The binding department of a university library may thus have its own lag behind the general lag. It may be on the receiving end of all kinds of unsound practices, without having the power to fight for itself.

*Stepchild Psychology*

The “stepchild” psychology of many binding departments, in all kinds of libraries, is probably partly responsible for its neglect. It behaves the way it does because it is neglected; it is neglected because of the way it behaves. It has to deal with books when they are least attractive and with serials when they are no longer interestingly new, and it is naturally associated with mending and discarding. The “logical” place for it is in the basement or one of the not-so-respectable corners of the building. The work of preparing material for binding or of supervising binding transactions is not as exciting as ordering new books or cataloging them or handing them to faculty and students. It is a chore and it calls for somebody who loves it for its own sake. It may, however, fall to one who does not love it and is not in a position to reject it. This, in turn, necessarily adds to administrative problems.

A key problem of binding supervision is where to put it in the administrative organization of the library. It may well be that the wide variety of solutions to this problem is a significant clue to a root cause of many binding and book conservation difficulties. That there is a general uncertainty about where to put binding supervision in the library organization chart is revealed again and again when libraries are reorganized, as they have been in increasing numbers in recent years. If the binding department (or whatever it is called) is not left where it is, as is the tendency, it seems to become the sheep which won’t be counted because it jumps around. The picture of the Harvard library organization, presented by Edwin E. Williams, might well serve to describe the real conditions in many libraries: “Serial records are handled by a division of the catalog department, and the binding records division, now unattached, may be added to the department in the future.” In the organization chart, there is a dotted line between “binding” and the catalog department, indicating “relationships not yet established.” (This is the only functional department thus left vagrant, the few other instances of dotted lines being for special collections and rooms which are common problems in many libraries.)

Solid lines instead of dotted in the organization charts of other libraries do not, perhaps, always picture greater certainty as to the relation-
ships between binding and other departments.

Church describes in a recent article not a university library but the Virginia State Library, and, although the report is not very detailed, the omissions are significant. The conditions are characteristic of those in other libraries. His chart B shows the place of the doorkeeper and the janitress in the organization, but not the binding supervisor. The proposed plan of the new building (C) provides space for "exchanges, binding," but the reference to binding disappears in the plan (D) of the actual building. The "general library division," he reports, includes the "serials section with visible file equipment for a consolidated serials record, including binding;" also "an order section to serve all divisions and conduct exchanges" and "a catalog section, all as closely related as possible." But the personnel and function chart (E) of the new organization shows no reference to a binding supervisor; presumably the person in charge of binding is a subordinate under the serials librarian.

California and Columbia

In the case of the University of California Library (Berkeley), as described by Leupp a few years back, the organization chart shows "binding" under the assistant librarian, together with the "catalog department," the "accessions department," and "gifts and exchanges." The recent reorganization of the Columbia University Libraries similarly provides for dividing the functions into two groups, each under an assistant director, i.e., readers' services and technical services, the latter including binding.

Combination of Duties

There are several ways of combining binding supervision with other duties. In one university library, the combination is "order and binding;" in another, binding is joined with photography; in a third, it is put with serials; in a fourth, the assistant librarian supervises binding. Some combinations seem to be fortuitous: the individual librarian may happen to have an unusual combination of interests or qualifications; binding supervision does not take full time; or binding supervision just "seems to fit in there."

In regard to the binding function in departmental libraries, the report of the A.L.A. University Libraries Section meeting on "Departmental and Divisional Libraries" (Chicago, Dec. 28, 1940) presents a varied picture. The paper of Fred Folmer, supervisor of departmental libraries, State University of Iowa, is summarized thus:

There are well-formulated relationships with each department of the main library: order; cataloging; serials; documents; reference; circulation; binding; reserves; library instruction. In observing these relationships, the custodian must maintain a delicate balance in loyalties between the department he serves and his colleagues in the main library. . . .

The report of the meeting continues:

Several of the speakers touched on the departmental reactions to the main library policies of acquisition and binding. Has the departmental librarian a right to change binders because he has found one who will do the work at a third less, in spite of the fact that the head of the binding department knows that particular binder's work is poor? . . .

Summing up, Dorothy H. Litchfield, who reported the meeting, declared: "The [departmental librarian's] problems of

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4 Leupp, Harold L. "Library Service on the Berkeley Campus, University of California." College and Research Libraries 4:212-17, 232, June 1943.

5 Wilson, Louis R., and Tauber, Maurice F. The University Library. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1945, Fig. 44, p. 113.
fifteen years ago are still unsolved: personnel; cataloging; binding, etc."

**Theoretical Advantages**

There have, of course, been cases in which the positions of the binding department head and the departmental librarian were the reverse of those in the cases cited. The advantages of centralization may become purely theoretical if the person in charge at the central library is unfamiliar with binding, if centralization involves buying binding through a purchasing agent's office which follows policies not adapted to the task, if the binder selected is incompetent, or if the specific needs of departmental libraries are not given attention. Whatever the details, it is evident that in a departmental system the logical place for authority to select a bindery is still undetermined.

Aside from the special cases of departmental libraries, what is the logical place of binding and conservation in the organization of a university or college library? This question immediately raises two others: Does the place have to be "logical?" Logical or not, can any place provide good working arrangements unless it is picked with some regard for the actual job which the binding department is supposed to do?

The adventures of logic in the wonderland of library organization are well described by Williams:

> ... As soon as the conditions that gave rise to the original organization have changed, and as soon as relationships are affected by traditions and personalities instead of explicit regulations alone, every feature of the organization involves a good deal more than simple logic, and many changes suggested by logic must be made slowly or postponed to a more suitable time. The danger is that if too little or too late an effort is made to keep the organization changing in the proper direction, it will become hopelessly inefficient and incapable of fulfilling present needs.

Williams thus sums up the reasons why the place of binding in library administration is so often not logical. He also points out the dangers of putting off reorganization to the point of hopeless inefficiency because "so-and-so has had the job so many years" or "we'd have to reorganize a lot of other things if we reorganized the binding department" or "we haven't an appropriation to keep up the department if it is reorganized." In such cases, even if all of these conditions were eliminated, the administrator, all too often, would still find it hard to decide just where to put the binding department.

Why is there such difficulty in locating the "logical" place of binding supervision in library administration? Perhaps an obvious answer may be found in the fact that binding is a vital part of the broader function of conservation of library stock. But the deeper answer lies in the further fact that the scope of book conservation is so extensive and touches so many different library departments.

**Active Recognition of Facts**

There is an urgent need for more active recognition of these two facts. There is a need for reorienting administrative thought on the whole subject of book conservation and binding; consideration of binding and book conservation as they are today is not enough. A few librarians who have passed through the stress of reorganizations have become aware of this, and, in the reorganization of the Library of Congress, this awareness became clarified into a program—or, at least, definite objectives.

Conservation, as responsible custody, is the only library function which should be continuously at work twenty-four hours a
day. It is the only function which should be concerned with every piece of material in the library from the moment the selector becomes aware of its existence to the day it is discarded. The reason this sounds so exaggerated is that it is a forgotten platitude. It applies to any library collection, whether it be of Egyptian papyrus, of the third-grade classroom library in an Iowa village, or of a university's incunabula.

There was a time when library administration was simpler, when these platitudes were living, activating principles. But, with the increasing complexity of universities and their libraries, the custodial function of the library—the “care and custody of the collection”—has deteriorated through neglect. The difficulties of welding miscellaneous collections, the slowness of growth of central libraries, and inadequate appropriations may all have contributed to the neglect. It may seem very human and “natural” that whatever time and money could be spared should be devoted to the things which just had to be done, the salvaging of material in unusable condition. But certainly this focusing on those activities of binding supervision dealing with crises has been accompanied by declining attention to prevention of crises.

Some strange phenomena in the evolution of library administration have resulted from this neglect of conservation. It became harder and harder to develop a program and procedures for book conservation, and, therefore, it was more and more neglected. As it withered away, it left binding supervision without any fundamental place in some library organizations. This is one cause of this “stepchild” situation. Some administrators have tried to dispose of the annoying department by attaching it to all kinds of other functions, which are frequently not closely related. But few have realized that it could “logically” be attached to so many other library functions for the very reason that it is essentially a conservation function and therefore fundamental in all library administration.

There are three types of situations in which a librarian may find this analysis of direct and practical interest: (1) the discovery, sudden or gradual, of one or more of the binding troubles described at the beginning of this article; (2) the need for library reorganization, partial or complete; (3) the recognition of the fact that, imperceptibly through the years, important parts of the collection have received inadequate or no attention.

If the foregoing analysis is at all valid and if the ten years' observations on which it is based do represent general conditions, the librarian confronted with one of the three situations may find some usable answer through these procedures: (1) apply frankly to the binding department the same types of questions as those which library surveyors apply to other departments; (2) through the questions indicated earlier in this article, trace out the weaknesses in the administrative relationships of the binding department; (3) plan and provide for a truly broad program of book conservation; (4) create a place for an assistant director in charge of this program, with full responsibility and commensurate power.

This last step is, of course, one which may well involve much more than the action of one librarian in one library. It is, essentially, a broad professional problem. Where are the administrators who can become library custodians in the true and effective sense of the title, when the function has for so many years atrophied? This is a problem of professional education and training and, of necessity, the spiral of making the custodian's position progressively more attractive and of attracting more and better trained librarians.

JULY 1946
Photostats in a College Library

In the last ten years much more has been published on microfilms and their use in improving and extending library service than on photostats. For certain purposes microfilms are unquestionably superior to photostats. In other instances the reverse is true, and at the two extremes there is almost no controversy as to the relative merits of the two forms of photoduplication. However, between the extremes is an area in which photostats are in competition with microfilms.

There is reason to believe, however, that more attention lately has been given to photostats than may be indicated by the preponderance of publications relating to microfilms. The Iowa State College Library, for example, is finding an increasing number of uses for photostats for which microfilms, although available, have proved to be unacceptable. Furthermore, the library has found that, by installing and operating its own photostat equipment, much better service to the public and to itself is possible than when it was necessary to rely upon outside facilities.

The decision to purchase and operate photostat equipment was not an unconsidered one. Certain urgent needs for photostats in connection with war research projects hastened the inauguration of photostat service, but they were not solely responsible. Other reasons are connected with the recent growth and use of the book collections, particularly in holdings of scientific and technical periodicals.

Partially responsible for the greater use of the library's collections in recent years has been the wider use of journals in the basic sciences. As is commonly realized, hard and fast boundary lines between the sciences no longer exist. Also, research workers in the applied sciences recognize today that they must be thoroughly grounded in certain of the basic sciences. An investigator in dairy industry must not only keep up with the literature of his applied field but also with that of chemistry and bacteriology. Scientific and technical periodicals in chemistry are now used intensively not only by chemists and physicists but by research workers in such applied fields as agronomy, dairy bacteriology, and veterinary pharmacology. As a result, files of journals in the field of chemistry, for example, may be insufficient to meet the demand. The same may be true of the journals in other basic sciences.

The Iowa State College Library's policy concerning loans of scientific and technical periodicals to faculty members has, by tradition, been liberal. However, with increasing demands on the collections, certain revisions in it from time to time have been necessary. The problem has not been one simply of further restricting volumes to use within the library building. What has been needed is a way to make the collections available both in and out of the library and to readers on the campus as well as to persons who are located elsewhere. Extensive duplication by purchase of additional sets, in order to improve and extend library service, was out of the question for obvious reasons. Of all the possible ways of achieving the desired objectives, a photoduplication service in the library seemed to be the most feasible.
Choosing Photostating

Once the decision was made to inaugurate a photoduplication service, the next step was to choose between microfilming and photostating. The comparatively large body of literature on the experience of other libraries with microfilms was consulted. As there was a paucity of articles on photostats, however, the writer visited a number of eastern libraries in the spring of 1944. Some of these institutions employed both microfilming and photostating, although if only one of the two was used it almost invariably was microfilming. In contrast, at the Iowa State College there was a definite preference for photostats.

The Iowa State College Photographic Laboratory—not a part of the library—has offered both microfilm and photostat service for many years. During that period microfilms have, in general, been ordered in lieu of photostats only if the length of the material copied made the latter too costly. By far the greater number of orders from out-of-town purchasers have specified photostats, irrespective of actual or relative cost. Faculty members have been extremely vocal on the question. Time after time they have elected to pay the higher prices of photostats. They point out that the microfilm is inconvenient and that reading it causes eyestrain, whereas photostats may be read anywhere and without the aid of any device. The poor quality of some of the microfilms obtained both locally and elsewhere in the past may be partially responsible for the disfavor in which they stand. Sometimes there are perfectly valid reasons for the poor quality of microfilms, but it has been impossible to persuade users of them to appreciate those reasons.

Neither one of the two photostat services now on the campus handicaps the other, for there is ample work for each. Except in emergencies, the library limits its copying to library materials or to volumes borrowed on interlibrary loan. All other types of orders, irrespective of place of origin, are declined. On the other hand, the library does practically all of the photostating of library materials. Such a policy has certain advantages. When pages of irreplaceable items, like expensive architectural folios, war issues of scientific and technical periodicals, or theses, are photostated, there is less likelihood of loss if they do not leave the library. Another advantage is that when the photostating is done by someone trained by the library staff there is less chance that the volumes will be damaged. It is particularly easy for an inexperienced or improperly trained technician to injure book bindings. Other hazards, such as rough handling and the splattering of chemicals, are minimized by proper care of the volumes as photostated.

Classed as Indispensable

Although the library's equipment has been in operation about two years, it is already classed as indispensable. Briefly the reasons are: (1) photostats have made it possible for the library to circulate articles in its files of scientific and technical journals more widely and on more liberal terms; (2) photostats at low cost have been used to complete important volumes which lacked pages; (3) graduate students, in studying foreign languages, have used photostats of specialized articles at reduced prices, for the purpose of making practice translations; (4) duplicate copies of materials in the form of photostats have been provided for assigned reading; and (5) special files of photostats of widely scattered information have been assembled in the reference department for the convenience of time-pressed readers.

Under the conditions of great demand now existing the library cannot, without
seriously impairing service, lend volumes of some of its scientific and technical journals to the faculty for extended periods. Moreover, war issues are rare and should never be lent for use outside of the library building. And even if the original volumes can be spared from the library, there is always the danger, and a very real one when the books are taken to chemical laboratories, that serious damage to them will result. Should the volumes escape chemical hazards, the bindings may not be overlooked by vermin. Also, in the past a number of fires in buildings on the campus have destroyed library publications shelved in offices and laboratories. Many of the volumes which were destroyed can never be replaced except by photographic reproduction. To obviate these difficulties, the library inaugurated a policy of making photostats available at reduced prices. Such an arrangement has proved to be advantageous to both parties to the transaction, since at times it is essential for research workers to have access indefinitely to data published in scientific and technical journals.

There are many objections likewise to sending valuable and much-used journals about the country on interlibrary loan. However, if neither the journals nor copies of them are furnished when needed, important research may suffer. On the basis of requests received from borrowers in this country and Canada, the Iowa State College Library apparently has certain volumes which are available in few, if any other, libraries in the United States. It is important that the information in such volumes be available to research workers regardless of where they may be located.

Then there is the matter of replacements. For a number of years the library has made a systematic effort to fill in missing pages and even whole numbers of incomplete, damaged, or mutilated volumes with photostats when originals were not available. It is now possible, because of savings made possible by library ownership and operation of photostat equipment, to provide fill-ins on a more liberal scale and at reasonable cost to the library.

**Photostats for Language Students**

The reading of specialized material by students in learning foreign languages also has entailed a problem. This, done for the sake of familiarity with specialized vocabulary and subject matter, has resulted on several occasions in the ruining of irreplaceable volumes. The forms of injury included ink smears, heavy underlinings in ink, and perspiration stains. The library finally was forced to forbid the unrestricted use of periodicals for this purpose. Extra volumes of certain periodicals in such fields as chemistry, botany, and zoology were then purchased and earmarked for the sole use of students in language courses.

But until photostat service was available in the library no fully satisfactory solution to the problem of supplying material for translation was found. The earmarked collection lacked a sufficiently wide subject variety of material. Now, however, a student who wishes to use a specialized article in any scientific and technical journal may do this provided he secures a photostat copy of the article. He may purchase the photostat copy; or, if he does not wish to do so, the library may assume the expense of photostating and lend him the material. A requirement of the latter arrangement is that the library have a voice in the selection of the pieces. Articles are selected with the aim that they will be useful to others.

**Assigned Readings**

The one activity of the library photostat service which is of greatest direct benefit to undergraduates is the making of photostats
for assigned reading. The original volumes of many of the library's periodicals, especially bound ones, for obvious reasons cannot be placed in the assigned reading room. There they would be subjected to the ruinous handling of classes of students ranging in number from ten to several hundred. Moreover, the limited number of copies of a periodical in the library would be insufficient to fill the demands during rush periods. Many times instructors request library material for assigned reading that is out of print or on such short notice that there is not time to order additional copies. Formerly the alternatives were to purchase photostats at the full commercial price rate or to make typewritten copies. Both methods were inordinately expensive. It is now possible to be more liberal in providing additional photostat copies at no greater total cost to the library. This, in turn, has improved service in the assigned reading room by shortening the time students must wait during rush hours to read their assignments. If necessary, photostat copies can be provided in two hours.

There is a final service which has proved to be a timesaver, for undergraduates especially. Certain assignments, which are repeated annually and in some cases every quarter, involve the search by students for items in widely scattered periodicals. Sometimes the information is difficult to locate. When each student takes the time to assemble and read a few articles, the total expenditure of class time and effort may be out of proportion to the apparent benefit derived. The objectives for the courses referred to apparently do not include training for greater proficiency in using the library. Hence, both reference staff and students are helped if photostats of materials are made and filed at the reference department.

Charges and Costs

Although a detailed discussion of costs is beyond the scope of this article, the library's position on that topic should be stated. Photostat service to the faculty and students is available at reduced prices. A part of the cost of making such photostats is absorbed by the library in accordance with the general policy applicable to all specialized services, such as translations and interlibrary loans. To do otherwise in the case of photostats would, it is felt, constitute an unjustifiable exception.

A few items naturally are covered by the charges made to faculty and students for photostats. Anyone may consult price lists of sensitized paper and photographic chemicals to ascertain the cost of those supplies. Add to that figure the cost of labor and utilities—light, power, and water—and the total is what the library considers to be a fair basis for the price of photostats sold to the faculty and students. Other purchasers are required to pay the regular prices in effect at both photostat services.

Two years are too short a period in which to develop the maximum possibilities of the photostat equipment. Enough time has elapsed, however, to show that with library-owned and -operated photostat equipment it is possible (1) to make the library's collections available to more persons and on a more liberal basis; (2) to save the library, the faculty, and students money on photostats of material in the library's collections or of interlibrary loans; and (3) to give better care to the library's collections by making it unnecessary for volumes to be sent out either on interlibrary loan or to be photostated. The above advantages alone would seem amply to justify the purchase and operation of photostat equipment.
New German Library Service During the War

After enemy troops had surrendered, allied intelligence teams proceeded to investigate important industrial and scientific “targets” in occupied areas. These teams, composed of scientific specialists and technicians, were assigned the mission of reporting on latest research developments. In some instances it was discovered that processes and methods adopted by the enemy, especially Germany, represented improvements over those known in the United States, Great Britain, or other allied nations. The present article is concerned with a noteworthy development in German library services, as revealed in documents gathered by the “Alsos” Mission, Military Intelligence Service of the War Department (R.F.R. File 228), now deposited in the Library of Congress.¹

Nazi Germany’s central research agency was the Reichsforschungsrat (R.F.R.), established by Göring in 1942 as successor to the Forschungsgemeinschaft (1937-41) and the Notgemeinschaft der Deutschen Wissenschaft (prior to 1937). In direct charge of the R.F.R. was a prominent S.S. man, Prof. Mentzel, who reported to Göring through Dr. Görnert.

Early in 1943 Mentzel asked Albert Predeek, librarian of the Berlin Institute of Technology (Technische Hochschule), to draw up a plan for the establishment of a central research card index. In compliance, Predeek submitted a detailed outline on

Feb. 18, 1943, envisaging a staff of twenty-one scientific analysts, fourteen librarians, and nineteen clerical assistants, and proposed an annual budget of 476,000 Reichsmarks (about $190,000 at prewar exchange rates), of which 68 per cent was allotted to salaries, 7 per cent to supplies, equipment, and photoduplication, and 25 per cent to printing.

Predeek pointed out that Germany possessed no central agency capable of giving up-to-date information on current scientific and technical research activities: Who was engaged in what projects? Where? Under what sponsorship? What were the results? To answer such questions it would be necessary (1) to maintain a card index of all scientists, (2) to publish abstracts of results of research, (3) to collect and make available all scientific and technical publications, and (4) to provide reference service and photoduplication.

More specifically:
1. The card index was to cover approximately 6500 scientists, giving for each his address, biographical data, research projects, and publications. The subject index was expected to carry at least 100,000 headings.
2. The abstracting journal would present about 3000 abstracts a month, with annual subject and author indexes. Fields already adequately abstracted in other media would be excluded.
3. Acquisition of literature was to include journals, research reports, dissertations, trade publications, and bibliographies. The number of subscriptions was expected to be 3300.
4. Reference service was to be provided for a fee. Translation services would also be

available. Photostats and microfilms would be offered at cost.

Predeek suggested that the new service should be located in the library building of the Technische Hochschule, Berlin, and that the work should be conducted in close cooperation with the library staff in order to utilize the experiences gained by that staff in a similar enterprise in the field of technology.

Albert Predeek

On Mar. 24, 1943, sixty-year-old Predeek was appointed chief of the agency for which he had drawn the blueprints. Officially designated as Kartei und Informationsstelle, it was to provide research reference service in the fields of technology, science, medicine, agriculture, and forestry. Predeek's position as chief was merely a part-time assignment without remuneration (except for a small expense account of 100 Reichsmark a month). His appointment was strongly endorsed by Mentzel. Predeek, said Mentzel in a letter to Görnert, was a veteran of World War I, a reserve captain, a recipient of the Iron Cross, and an eminent librarian. He had visited the United States in 1937 for the purpose of studying libraries and bibliographic methods. Mentzel had known him for many years and was prepared to vouch for the integrity of his character and his enthusiasm for library service. Nothing was mentioned about Predeek's attitude toward the Nazi Party. Had he been an enthusiastic party member, it would most certainly have been emphasized in the letter recommending his appointment; yet it cannot be denied that Predeek was quite eager to contribute his skills and services to the Nazi war effort.

The first step in establishing the card index of research projects consisted of mailing questionnaires to the personnel of all private and tax-supported research institu-

(Continued on page 236)
Acquisition of Microfilms: Commercial and Institutional Sources

Purchasing activities in connection with the acquisition of microfilm in scholarly libraries tend to fall into two classes. The first class is comparable to normal book purchasing activity; that is, filming agencies, either private filming concerns or institutional libraries, engage in the business of selling positive film prints from their master negatives. These agencies may offer to sell positive film copies of individual books, newspapers, periodicals, and manuscripts at a fixed price per title, or they may require subscription to an entire filming project, involving many titles or manuscripts, at an annual subscription cost or at a fixed subscription rate for the entire series. Orders for positive film prints are usually entered directly with the filming agency concerned. By way of illustration, some examples of filming agencies selling positive microfilm prints may be given.

The firm of Southwestern Microfilms, Inc., of Dallas, Tex., has filmed a number of books in the field of early Western Americana, its selection to some extent being based on Wagner's bibliography of the Plains and the Rockies. Individual titles may be purchased at a fixed price, and catalogs listing the titles for the series are issued periodically. Since many of the titles included in Southwestern lists are not likely to be obtainable in original book form or except at high prices, the college or university library may wish to use these catalogs as a buying guide to materials needed in their collections.

Another commercial filming agency is that of University Microfilms, of Ann Arbor, Mich., directed by Eugene B. Power. Mr. Power, foreseeing the full commercial possibilities of microphotography, has pioneered in this field, to which he has made several contributions. It is due to his enterprise that there was begun several years ago the filming of all books before 1600 listed in Pollard and Redgrave's Short-Title Catalogue of . . . English Books. This project is sold to subscribing libraries at a flat rate of $500 per year, for which sum film of one hundred thousand pages per year is supplied. It is roughly estimated that the project will require some thirteen years to complete. Titles which have been filmed to date for the project are indicated in W. W. Bishop's Checklist of American Copies of "Short-Title Catalogue" Books, published in 1944. One might suppose it possible to purchase positive film prints of single titles from the negatives on file in this series, but, for the present, orders for positive films of individual titles are difficult to obtain, as the profit for the filming agency lies in the subscriptions for the entire series; and, practically, until the contents of the numerous reels of negatives are fully cataloged, it is not profitable for them to take the time necessary to locate single scattered titles on the many reels of film.

A second project of University Microfilms is that of filming American periodicals.
prior to 1825, which is also sold on a subscription basis of $450 per year per 100,000 pages, including one set of catalog cards for each title filmed. Closely related to the American periodical project is the American Culture series, consisting of films of texts of the original editions of approximately 250 books of representative writings about America and Americans published between 1493 and 1800. This series is also sold on a subscription basis.

Still another project carried out by this firm is one in which microphotography has been used as a publishing medium. This is the University Microfilms' program of filming doctoral dissertations. The publication Microfilm Abstracts calls attention to all dissertations so filmed and quotes the cost of positive film copies or paper enlargements.

Many other projects of commercial firms could be noted, but attention may now be given to projects instituted by societies in cooperation with libraries and by libraries themselves. The Modern Language Association of recent years has largely turned its program of securing photostat reproductions of books and manuscripts in its field of study to a microfilming program. Microfilms selected and acquired by the Modern Language Association are deposited in the Library of Congress, and the photoduplication service of the Library of Congress can supply positive microfilm prints of these materials. In 1942 the Modern Language Association issued a pamphlet listing the materials photographed in the series, and P.M.L.A. has included at least one supplementary list since then. Arrangements also exist whereby libraries contributing annually to the Modern Language Association filming project receive, as a bonus, two thousand frames of microfilms per year, chosen from the materials copied.

During the war the Committee on Microcopying Materials for Research of the American Council of Learned Societies began, as a wartime measure, the filming of materials in England endangered by military action. Carefully selected lists of research materials in a wide variety of fields were prepared as a guide in this film undertaking. The Library of Congress serves as a depository for the completed film negatives and can supply positive film duplications at small cost.

The National Archives have instituted a microfilm series known as the "File Microcopy" program. It is their intention to make master microfilm negatives of their significant holdings, from which positive film prints can be furnished at a nominal cost. Brown University has two important filming projects; one, the Mathematical Reviews series and the other, Latin Americana before 1800, for both of which positive film copies can be furnished. The Library of Congress in cooperation with the University of North Carolina has filmed an impressive number of state legislative journals, obtainable in positive film prints.

Filming Newspapers

Finally, numerous old and current newspapers are obtainable in positive microfilm copies made from master negatives, which are variously owned by the publisher of the newspaper, independent filming agencies, or some sponsoring library. Projects of filming older files have frequently been sponsored by libraries, as, for example, the film reproduction of the Maryland Gazette, 1745-1820, by Yale University Library, and the Pennsylvania Gazette, 1728-1879, by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. The newspaper publisher himself may also undertake the filming of the back files and current issues of his own paper and sell positive film copies to consumers.

It seems appropriate at this point, in a
discussion of the purchase of positive film copies reproduced from master negatives, to point out that there is no coordinated medium of making known to libraries the various filming projects undertaken by private and institutional filming agencies, so that the order librarian must be constantly on the lookout for such information. References to reproductions that have actually been made or are in progress have been scattered through library periodicals, committee reports, and the literature of other fields, and some searching is required to track them down. For the brief period of five years, from 1938-42, the Journal of Documentary Reproduction was published under the editorial supervision of the American Library Association's Committee on Photographic Reproduction of Library Materials. This quarterly publication, besides dealing with the technical aspects of the subject, contained notices of filming projects and included bibliographies of newspapers available on film to which supplements appeared from time to time. A file of this publication is still useful to the order librarian seeking information on materials for which master negatives exist. It is heartening to learn from a recent report of the American Library Association committee that it is its intention to revive this periodical at the earliest opportunity and to publish volumes for the interim years. 

Union List of Microfilms

Still another effort has been made to locate, in convenient form, microfilm materials in this country. The Philadelphia Bibliographical Center issued in 1942 the Union List of Microfilms, which included 5221 titles. Annual supplements for 1942, 1943, and 1944, totaling another 9541 titles, have also been issued. Though a complete response from libraries was not forthcoming, over one hundred institutions have reported their holdings to the center and, in addition, titles of books and newspapers filmed by commercial agencies have been included. The value of such a union list to the order librarian would lie in the knowledge that the institution owning the negative could supply a positive film copy on request. Actually, many owning libraries do not possess equipment to make positive film prints, but, even granting they could be supplied, the question of the quality of the negative from which they are to be made has to be taken into consideration, as negatives vary greatly and many are not worthy of duplication. The next few years will probably bring about a higher quality of microfilming and, as microfilming facilities are more widely developed in this country, it will be possible for librarians to order positive film prints from such negatives.

Cumulative List Needed

Apropos of this whole subject of making known the existence of master film negatives, Herman H. Fussler, of the University of Chicago Libraries' Department of Photographic Reproduction, has suggested the need for a cumulative publication for microfilm reproductions similar to the Wilson series of cumulative indexes for books, so that libraries can keep informed of materials reproduced through this photographic technique and, if desired, acquire positive film prints from the filming agency.

The foregoing discussion of film acquisitions has been concerned with acquiring positive film copies made from master negatives owned by some filming agency which sells positive film duplications. The second class concerns itself with the acquisition of negative film reproductions made directly from original materials. This class of microfilm acquisitions requires a different approach than the first class and combines with it some of the features of interlibrary
loan work, in that the order librarian will benefit by a knowledge of those library tools which locate research materials in various libraries at home and abroad, since the first step in ordering microfilm negatives is to locate original copies. After he has located the original copies, the order librarian uses his knowledge of the quality of film work produced by the photographic departments or the filming agents of the institutions owning copies as well as the relative charges for their copying services, since differences in quality and cost may be great and should be taken into consideration.

For this class of microfilm orders the order librarian will also find it necessary to familiarize himself with some of the more technical aspects of microphotography. He will wish to have a firsthand knowledge of the film reading machines owned by his library, so that he can order film to the specifications best suited for them. He will also wish to understand something of reduction ratios, that is, whether, judging from the size of the original, it is more desirable to film the book one or two pages to a frame or exposure. This latter knowledge is of importance also in determining in advance the probable cost of microfilming a book, newspaper, or manuscript, as the order librarian in the process of locating copies of the original has at the same time endeavored to ascertain the size of the original and its pagination. Most filming agencies will supply quotations on request, but, if time is of the essence, much delay can be avoided by being able to calculate the probable cost. The quality and type of the film itself is another variable factor and, to insure a high quality of film being supplied, it is well to be informed on the acceptable standards in microfilm. Finally, the question may arise as to whether or not the material being requested on film is required for study purposes only and deposit in the library’s collections, or if it is desired for publication in whole or in part, since some libraries wish to control the use made of their rare books and manuscripts. For these latter institutions it will save time if the order carries with it a statement of the purposes for which the film copy is required.

For this class of orders the order librarian has at his service a helpful Directory of Microfilm Sources, compiled by Ross C. Cibella and published by the Special Libraries Association in 1941. This volume is already out of date and not completely adequate to the situation but it is soon to be issued in a revised edition. The directory lists libraries in the United States, Canada, and England having microfilming services, as well as commercial concerns, and includes facsimiles of the order forms of some of the larger filming organizations. These order forms carry much useful information and a file of them collected from major filming sources is useful to the order librarian. Notices of the establishment of new microfilming services are making their appearance more or less regularly now in our professional periodicals.

Filming Laboratories

The United States is fortunate in that most of the major research collections in the country have either their own filming laboratories or have arrangements whereby an outside filming agency can do the work. The Library of Congress has an outstanding photoduplication service and not only films material owned by the national library but will film materials from neighboring libraries, as, for instance, the Folger Shakespeare Library. The National Archives is equipped to supply film copies of its materials. Bibliofilm Service, located in the library of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, can supply film copies of materials in the libraries of the Department of Agricul-

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ture, the Geological Survey, and the National Bureau of Standards. The Army Medical Library operates its own medico-film service. In New York, the New York Public Library has an extensive microfilm service, as does Columbia University Libraries, which also films books in the library of the Union Theological Seminary. Most of the major university libraries in the country have filming laboratories, among them Harvard, Brown, Yale, Illinois, Minnesota, Princeton, Wisconsin, Virginia, Texas, the University of California at Berkeley, and the University of Chicago, whose finely equipped laboratory is also the film reproductive agency for the following libraries in the Chicago area: Newberry, John Crerar, Chicago Public, and Chicago Theological Seminary. Microfilm copies of materials in the University of Michigan Libraries are supplied by University Microfilms. In California, besides the laboratory of the University of California at Berkeley, the Huntington Library has for some years supplied film copies of materials in its collections, and it is understood that the California State Library and the Los Angeles Public Library have planned facilities.

Ordering microfilms of research materials from English libraries has been greatly facilitated by the service offered by University Microfilms. This firm has cameras in the British Museum, Bodleian Library, Cambridge University Library, and the Public Records Office, and can also obtain microfilm from some of the smaller outlying libraries in that country. All film orders to the British Museum and the Bodleian Library can be placed directly with University Microfilms, but for other English libraries, requests for microfilm should be placed directly with their respective librarians. In passing it might be said that, in general, English librarians are loath to accept “orders” for microfilms, though they are glad to consider “requests” for them. As a group they are more likely to be concerned with the use to be made of materials filmed and frequently require a written statement of the purpose for which film copies are desired. The British Museum is an exception to the foregoing, except where publication privileges of unique materials are involved.

On the Continent, University Microfilms has a camera in the Bibliothèque Nationale in France, at the Vatican in Rome, and in Amsterdam this firm has an agent to execute film commissions. Orders for materials in the Bibliothèque Nationale can be placed directly with University Microfilms. Commenting in general on his microfilming services abroad, Mr. Power writes:

The result is that, at least in those countries where cameras are located, microfilm copies of books and manuscripts may be obtained without great difficulty. You realize, of course, that there are always some restrictions on the copying of materials of this sort. The charge varies somewhat, depending upon the location of the original and the amount to be done. In general, however, in no instance is the cost more than that charged by the library itself, if the order is placed directly.

In conclusion, brief mention may be made of one other procedure of film acquisition by a library having its own microfilming facilities. This is to borrow the originals for filming in its own laboratory, providing the owner is willing to lend them for this purpose. It can have one great advantage so far as the cataloger is concerned, in that if the period of loan is sufficient it enables him to catalog from the original rather than the film copy. The Huntington Library has found this method highly satisfactory and has so cataloged and filmed a large number of pamphlets dealing with the English Civil War, owned by the Sutro Branch of the California State Library, which lacked its own filming facilities.
Microphotography and Cataloging: A Forecast

THE IMPACT of microfilm upon cataloging may seem superficial to some, but to others it provides implications of important changes. The current problems of high unit cost of cataloging books and the mounting work loads are forcing catalogers to reorganize their routines and utilize new techniques. More specifically, control of the vast and ever growing body of published materials not adequately covered by the present centralized cataloging services is one of the major problems facing college and university cataloging staffs. Some catalogers may consider the microfilm as merely an added burden, but others regard it speculatively as a possible new tool.

In current professional literature, many writers advocate an extension of centralization in cataloging, either by cooperative arrangements between colleges and universities or by commercial methods. The cry heard on every hand is: "Let there be printed cards for all books," and "Let the cards come with the books." Should cards come with all films, as well? In the future, might cards and films be integrated, in some new form of publication?

Against the background of the general problems which face catalogers, the specific topic—that of cataloging microfilm and associated materials—may seem a minor matter, at least at present. If the task is considered from the routine point of view, it can be said:

Treat the film as a book. Make a regular catalog card for the item contained on the strip of film and add a few notes covering the form in which the material appears. State that the item is on a film, which is so many millimeters wide; that it is a negative (or a positive print); that there are so many "frames" or exposures on the film, with the text reproduced one or more pages to the frame, and the lines of type running with or across the long way of the film (this last information being conveyed in code form with the words "placement I, II," or "III"). Also give credit to the institution owning the film which is reproduced or to the book of which the film was taken. These items of information are those requested by the Philadelphia Bibliographic Center in compiling the Union List of Microfilms. The inclusion of this information on the catalog card should adequately complete the matter of physical description and should provide all necessary help to the patron in the use of the film in a projector. From the subject point of view, full contents notes, which give a clue to the material contained in each reel, are probably needed by the patron. Form subject added entries and/or a separate card list of microfilms would also prove helpful. Since the film itself is in a box or a filing cabinet somewhere, a call number indication of its location must be provided. Then, to make the shelflist complete, the item could be closely classified and a card provided in the appropriate place, so that searchers using this tool should not be disappointed. Also, a dummy of the item filmed could be placed in the book stacks or vertical file so that patrons looking in those places would be rewarded.

By this time, at least, the average cataloger may feel overwhelmed. Yet each item on this list has been advanced in the literature for inclusion in the routine for handling microfilm. Can all of it be done? Is it all necessary? Is any of it
necessary? Since catalogers, as a group, do not agree about methods or even about certain fundamental aims and purposes, it is difficult to answer these questions, even the last one. Shall the film be thought of as not just another book but as something quite different—because of its form, the uses to which it is put, and the type of service it is capable of rendering?

**Materials Filmed**

The types of materials which are filmed and with which librarians deal may be considered. Generally speaking, a university will buy film when it is cheaper to do so than to obtain the original book or periodical, or when it is impossible to obtain it. When the expected use is heavy, enlarged prints or photostats will be preferable to film, but, in the case of lengthy research items, film is desirable because of its smaller bulk and lower cost. At present there are certain major categories of film: newspapers and serial publications photographed in long runs; old, out-of-print, and rare books, usually unobtainable in the original by the average institution; and a miscellaneous hodgepodge of theses, manuscripts, maps, and articles from serials. Newspapers and other serials, when considered as units and not analyzed, present no new problems. Rare books, as such, deserve careful treatment and justify the expenditure of time by the cataloger; cards for such items are increasingly available from centralized cataloging undertakings. In the beginning the cataloging of films of these materials may follow in the pattern of our present handling of the originals.

But what about the third group? A start is being made in the centralized handling of doctoral dissertations by the *Microfilm Abstracts* project. But there is nothing to help with periodical articles, which come frequently as a substitute for the interlibrary lending of originals. At this point there is trouble. If these items are handled as analytics—and the decision on this point is a matter of institutional policy—then considerable work results. Side by side with the problem of reprint via film, there is that of the "publication" of manuscript material. The recent phenomenal increase in the bulk of near-print publications, issued in small editions, indicates something of what may be expected from this quarter.

**The Rider Book**

It might be profitable at this point to refer to an important recent book: Fremont Rider's *The Scholar and the Future of the Research Library*. In it, Mr. Rider makes a frontal attack on the problem of handling the types of material under discussion—theses, manuscript material, maps, ephemeral publications of small editions, and serial publications; all research material, most of it of limited use. Yet so important does Mr. Rider believe the need for detailed cataloging of these items, that he advocates centralized handling of such materials to effect a publication or republication in microprint form on catalog cards. Serials would be analyzed, one article to a card. This is a significant matter, since the process is essentially one of modifying the present methods of microreproduction with the object of incorporating the benefits of centralized cataloging. The form of the card which Mr. Rider advocates is also worth noting. First of all, there is no call number and no numerically expressed classification, since the book is on the back of the card. The subject of the item is indicated in a "classificational subject heading" printed at the top of the card at first indention. Instead of the present classification systems expressed in numerical notation, Mr. Rider would use one utilizing word notation. In
place of the present alphabetical subject catalog he would use a printed index in book form, similar to Dewey’s “relativ index.”

The next thing which strikes the cataloger is the fact that the microcard is a true unit card. No added entries are to be supplied by typewriter. By widely separating the indentation and by varying the type face of the three entry lines, which indicate the subject classification, the author, and the title, Mr. Rider believes that recognition of the entry will be automatic to any patron who flips over a few cards in the file. It may be added parenthetically that underlining the entry letter with red ink would permanently “locate” the card.

Useful Information

Third, each card bears an annotation and a vita, which give consistently more information of a kind useful to the research worker than is provided in our present code for routine cataloging. Since the text itself is reproduced in miniature on the reverse of the card, the bibliographic description can be shortened and simplified, thus reducing cost.

With the microcard, true centralized cataloging and cataloging at the publishing level are provided. In other words, the cataloger has something to say about the form of the published item, taking advantage of the money- and timesaving features of mass reproduction. Each university would be supplying copy in its chosen field of concentration, to be edited and published in its own plant or, in cooperation with other institutions, at central laboratories. Mr. Rider would literally have us all participating in this new cataloging-publishing venture.

At this point the weary cataloger will say: “What about all this saving us time? Look at the bulk of the Union List of Serials. How long do you think it will take us to wade through that, analyzing everything?”

Under any plan of cataloging, such a program would take many years. But, under any plan of centralized cataloging, time is usually saved. Translated into budgetary terms, the saving of catalogers’ time is a major saving of money for libraries in the aggregate. Furthermore, if the most-used serials are handled first (and use-studies already made can be utilized as guides in this), the time elapsing before accomplishing reasonably complete coverage in many fields may be less than believed.

Microcard Suggestions

But what about the present? Microcards are still just a topic for discussion. Can a start be made? Present microfilm equipment, for example, can be used to experiment. Several writers have advocated that short strips of microfilm be mounted on catalog cards and filed by an entry typed in the usual way on the front of the card. The card could then be read in a Readex machine (an easier procedure for the patron than using a projector). Using this idea as a starting point, a modest program of institutional publication of certain items of limited use could be worked out. Master’s theses rarely circulate in carbon copy form outside the walls of originating institutions. The thesis of average length can be filmed in the unbound state for a dollar or two. The resulting five feet of film (average) can be cut into twelve strips, trimmed, and mounted three together at a time in a printing frame to make positive prints, the size of a catalog card, containing twenty-four pages of microtext. On the unsensitized sides, a catalog entry for the item could be mimeographed. This would include an annotation, or abstract of the thesis, and a vita. Total cost may be esti-
mated at something under ten cents a card, including labor and materials for filming, printing, and cataloging, in an edition of thirty copies. Larger editions and blanket subscription arrangements would reduce costs slightly. This total cost of forty or fifty cents a title would be only a little higher than the cost of an interlibrary loan for the bound book. If desired, sets of "regular" catalog cards to accompany the photocards could be mimeographed at the same time at little extra cost.

Not only theses but out-of-print titles in university serial publications and all sorts of material previously denied publication because of high costs could be issued. It might prove more economical if material to be filmed, with its catalog card copy, could be sent from several institutions in an area to a single central laboratory for processing. Wilson and Tauber, in *The University Library*, suggest such a laboratory for the Los Angeles area.

**Group Publishing**

It is not wise to confine thought to one style of technique. Catalogers think largely in terms of cards, though they use book-style catalogs and bibliographies as a matter of course and as a matter of preference when a choice is offered between books and cards. For many years, the Wilson cumulative indexes have been a boon to libraries. The development of mimeographing, miniature printing, and other low-cost methods of reproduction has made book catalogs increasingly practical for many uses. It is possible to contemplate a program of handling serial publications which would use the filming of continuous runs of text, accompanied by book catalogs similar to the Wilson periodical indexes. Publications could be filmed and published in groups. For example, serials in the field of organic chemistry which were not widely distributed in the original could be handled as a block. Nor would the plan restrict itself to serials. All dissertations in the field of education could be reduced to film and issued annually in one alphabet, on a few large reels, and indexed in a single volume. The cost of film and index should be only a fraction of that of the publications alone, as originally issued. The main difficulty would be in handling film. Special projectors, with high speed rewind, and provision for stroboscopic indexing of the film itself would be necessary.

Such a program would be larger in unit scale than the microcard one and would raise problems of commercial backing and publication. Since films, not books, would be forwarded with the index copy to the central "publishing" plants, the handling of materials would not prove difficult. In essence, the plan would not be as flexible as that of microcards, and would be harder to keep up to date—a fact that would not enter into the matter of issuing older titles.

**Other Suggestions**

In the July 1945 issue of the *Library Quarterly*, Ralph Eugene Ellsworth outlines a proposed book type national union catalog, with annual supplements and a parallel series of subject bibliographies in book form. Following this idea, there appeared in the November 1945 *A.L.A. Bulletin* an article on "Microbibliography: A Possible Alternative to Microcards" by Edwin E. Williams. He proposed subject bibliographies with "supplements containing the full text in microprint of all the materials they list." This idea, also, is capable of further development. Why not reprint groups of serials or similar materials, as suggested above, in book form rather than on film? If the cost could be brought down from the present Readex price of more than fifty cents a sheet to ten cents,
the text of the approximately seven thousand dissertations normally purchased by a large university library during the year could be available in ten quarto loose-leaf volumes costing a hundred dollars a volume. The format and degree of reduction assumed here is that used in the present Readex process. Greater reductions are foreseen by Fremont Rider and others. Should they be achieved, possibilities would increase tremendously. If space were the only factor to be considered, the proposed national union catalog, by tripling its contemplated size of 1900 volumes, could include not only the catalog cards for all books in the United States but the microtext of all the books as well.

**Indexing**

Whatever form microphotography may take in the future, those who forecast its growth and development also forecast a parallel development of centralized indexing in a form not interfilable in the present card catalog (and this applies to microcards, if one looks at the matter practically). This is a trend that scholars and librarians may deplore but it is determined by economic necessity. If research materials are distributed, they should be indexed, but the amount of use to which these materials will be subjected does not justify adoption of the present costly methods of piecework cataloging. Undoubtedly, there will always be items not included in the large, centrally issued blocks of micro-materials; these can only be handled as separate cards or reels, as is now done. It is to be expected, however, that the cataloging of such items will be patterned after that of other large compilations of microprint and not after the style of the present card catalog. It may be that the library will issue book catalogs of its own unique items or prepare cards interfilable with the unit style microcards.

The writer is aware that this point is debatable. For example, Keyes D. Metcalf, in the *Library Journal* of Sept. 1, 1945, asserts: “If microcards are filed separately, a catalog card for [each one of] them must be in the regular catalog and that of course adds to the expense.” At the present time, the cards for a small group of “rare book” or “manuscript” films would be lost if not in the main catalog. But, one may inquire, is a card in the main public catalog now deemed necessary for every government document, for every periodical article now indexed by the Wilson services? Is it too much to expect that the research worker of the future shall look in two or more files rather than in one? Whatever decision is made about the desirability of extending double cataloging coverage, an arbitrary division of materials will almost inevitably be effected. The matter of cost, it would seem, is a decisive factor here, as well as the large-scale development of the new medium.

**New Processes Developed**

The war interrupted the development of the use of microphotography in libraries just at the point where it was ceasing to be merely an auxiliary to the other, principal categories of material. The development of new technical processes in the field, however, was stimulated by wartime needs. No doubt new processes and devices will appear shortly on the market ready for use. It is not difficult to foretell that the use that libraries make of the new techniques will be determined to a large extent by the cooperation of catalogers. The economies and increase in volume of service made possible by microphotography will be in large part nullified if we persist in adding a dollar cataloging charge to the cost of each item.

Whatever is done in planning the future
of cataloging of microfilm and related materials, two things should be kept in mind: First, it must be decided what type of service catalogs are to render and what type of patron is to be served principally. Probably, we shall incline more and more to the subject approach—at least, in current large-scale cooperative cataloging projects more attention is being paid to this kind of detail than was before felt necessary. For the full coverage of a book from the subject point of view, we may have to wait, however, for some device such as Vannevar Bush's filmed catalog cards, with code indicators in dot form, to be scanned at tremendous speeds by photoelectric eyes and rephotographed on the fly by high-speed cameras to form films of selected cards for the formation of bibliographies.

The second thing that should be remembered is this: The only device yet evolved to avoid duplication of work and multiplication of the costs of cataloging is centralized and cooperative cataloging. Once standardization of approach is achieved, this shall follow. In the meantime, so long as there remains this chaos of varying sizes of film, types of projector equipment, methods of housing and storing materials, there will exist the problem of hand-typed, custom-made cards, tied to the present card cataloging system. It is only when microphotography can break away from the present routines that the fullest measure of independent and efficient service can be rendered, as independent as the government document collections but much more versatile, supplementing and, in part, even supplanting them.

New German Library Service

(Continued from page 225)

The principal questions Predeek's card catalog was prepared to answer were: (1) Who was doing research in what field? (2) What had been the results of previous research? Information would be furnished free of charge. The fields covered were general science, engineering, medicine, agriculture, and forestry. In fields adequately covered elsewhere, notably chemistry and mining, the card index was to supply only supplementary data. Extension of coverage to the social sciences and humanities was contemplated.

How effective the Kartei was in aiding the Nazi war effort could not be ascertained from the sources at hand. Had such a research information service been available earlier in the war, it would undoubtedly have helped to expedite emergency research in Germany. It was an attempt to avoid duplication of effort and to coordinate scientific research activities on a national scale, but it came too late in the game to be of much value.

Several facts seem significant concerning this German venture in research library service: (1) at a time of critical shortage of personnel and materials, library techniques received recognition as indispensable tools in an important governmental enterprise; (2) professionally trained library personnel was recruited for key positions within the framework of science and technology; (3) bibliographic investigation was deemed so essential a phase of scientific research that a special administrative unit was established and substantial funds appropriated for accomplishing the work.
Sleeves or Zigzag Lines: Salary Determination Through Fair Evaluation

The classic statement which inevitably appears sooner or later in any discussion of employee relations is, "People are much more interested in how their compensation compares with that of others than in their own compensation as such."

Trite as this statement has become, it is nonetheless true. To have the slightest chance of employee approval, any scheme of compensation must provide a fair relationship between the requirements of the position and the compensation paid to the one filling it. But even more important is the necessity that relationships between salaries for different positions shall be, in proportion, much like the relationships between job requirements.

No reasonable employer would dispute this, but many entirely reasonable employers do have salary discrepancies between positions which cannot possibly be in harmony with the qualities expected in those filling the positions. The reason for this condition is not lack of recognition of the correctness of the principle being violated nor is it intentional discrimination between employees. The reason is, however, that it is usually very difficult to judge, or even to measure, the real job values and to relate them to a valid compensation relationship.

This problem exists in a library, just as it exists in a factory or an office. We may be sure that a chief reference librarian should be paid more than a janitor, but can we be as sure about the relative positions of a searcher, a secretary to the librarian, a skilled tradesman responsible for maintenance, a building operating engineer responsible for the heating and lighting system, the person in the law library responsible for acquisitions, the curator of a small but very important special collection, and the faithful member of a small library staff who knows how to do any of the varied tasks in his organization? And even though such positions can be placed in relative order, can they be placed at a suitable distance from each other so as to determine fairly the correct percentage relationship between their salaries?

It is done some way, of course. The necessity is fundamental, and salary structures are made up, for better or for worse; but it is questionable if any large percentage of those responsible for directing the operation of libraries could say with entire honesty that they know that their salaries are correct and right as they relate each to the other.

Nonetheless, there is a way in which this can be done with reasonable accuracy and by which fairness to staff members may not only be maintained but may also be demonstrated. This is the way of position evaluation. Position evaluation consists, in its simplest terms, of three steps:

1. Listing of the factors which go to make up what we expect in qualities and abilities involved in any position—the things which are paid for when the incumbent is employed.
2. Determination of the relative values of each factor, and the allocation to each of the number of points expressing this relationship.

3. Analysis of each type of position, giving to each factor in its make-up the number of points indicated by the requirements of the position.

Step number one is not too involved. There are not too many major factors after all. Everything that is expected in a new employee for any type of work may be included under two main headings—preparation and personal qualifications. It is expected that both of these factors be paid for in relationship to the amount of each which is required as a minimum for satisfactory job performance. Once the new employee is on the job it is expected that responsibilities of some sort be given him. Some payment should be made for the assumption of responsibility. And if the employee is working under conditions which are either especially unpleasant or especially hazardous, again he is entitled to have his compensation reflect the degree of seriousness of these conditions.

Within these four basic factors, therefore—preparation required for the job, personal qualifications required for the job, working conditions surrounding the job, and responsibilities required on the job—every element of value for which salaries are computed can be found; and a proper regard for the degree in which each factor is required as a condition of satisfactory work performance will require that compensation finally granted should bear a reasonable relationship to the factors required for the job.

But the reader may well ask how all of this theory can be used in a practical way by a person not skilled in personnel techniques and not familiar with the professional jargon thereof.

Preparation, personal requirements, responsibilities, working conditions—although all will agree that these should be considered, how shall they be used as measuring tools? The following table of factor values provides an answer as developed at the University of Illinois.

Description and Value of Factors Used in Job Evaluation

I. Preparation Required for the Job ................................................................. 30

A. Educational Requirements ................................................................. 20

1. Formal Education ................................................................. 15
   a. Less than 8 grades ................................................. 0
   b. Grammar school graduation ........................................... 2
   c. High school graduation ................................................ 7
   d. High school graduation with requirement for inclusion of special course of study (as typing) ................................................ 9
   e. College or university degree (Where degree is not required, allow 1 point above c or d for each college year required) ...................... 12
   f. College or university degree with requirement for special course of study (as accounting) ................................................ 15
      Where more than the minimum required is indicated as "desirable" split the difference between the two levels.
      Equivalent training in night school or other special courses to be counted as above.

2. Post graduate or specialized training required beyond or in addition to general work listed in A above ................................................ 5
   a. Less than 3 months ................................................. 1
   b. More than 3 months, less than 12 ................................... 2
   c. 1-2 years ................................................................... 4
   d. More than 2 years .................................................. 5

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B. Related Experience Required .................................................. 10
   1. Two points per year up to a maximum of 10 points for 5 or more years.

II. Personal Qualifications Required for the Job .......................... 30
A. Skill or Dexterity ................................................................. 10
   1. Normal coordination ...................................................... 1
   2. Some manual ability required ........................................... 2-3
   3. Considerable use of hand skills ....................................... 4-6
   4. High degree of ability to make or do by use of the hands ......... 7-8
   5. Requirement for extremely fine and precise work .................. 10
B. Strength .................................................................................. 5
   1. Normal physical fitness .................................................... 1
   2. Some physical strength as a requirement of the job ............... 2-4
   3. Use of considerable physical strength a primary job requirement . 5
C. Accuracy .................................................................................. 5
   1. Requirement for accuracy, precision, or attention to detail not a factor in the job . .
   2. Some requirements for accuracy, precision, or attention to detail to a minor degree .................................................. 1-2
   3. Need for considerable accuracy, precision, or attention to detail ..................................... 3-4
   4. Need for strict accuracy, extreme precision, or marked attention to detail .......................... 5
D. Intelligence Level ..................................................................... 10
   1. Minimum to almost average ................................................. 1-4
   2. Average .................................................................................. 5
   3. Requirement for more than average intelligence, up to necessary for a very high IQ ......... 6-10

III. Working Conditions Surrounding the Job ................................ 10
A. Unpleasant Features ............................................................... 5
   1. Points to be allowed only if conditions of work are abnormally and unusually unpleasant because of material handled, physical surroundings, or the like, with top score given only to outstanding example ........................................ 1-5
B. Safety Hazards ......................................................................... 5
   1. Points to be allowed only if working conditions provide some definite degree of physical danger or hazard .................................................. 1-5

IV. Responsibilities Required on the Job ...................................... 60
A. Responsibility for Self-Direction .............................................. 5
   1. Work carried on under a maximum of supervision or review ........ 0
   2. Some requirements for dependability without close supervision or review .......................... 1-3
   3. High degree of dependability, for work with little or no supervisory check or review ........ 4-5
B. Responsibility for Use of Initiative and Independent Judgment .... 15
   1. Work follows regular and clear pattern laid out by supervisor with little or no need for use of own initiative or independent judgment .......................... 1-2
   2. Under direct supervision but with some responsibility for use of own initiative and judgment in carrying out certain details of work .................................. 3-5
   3. Under immediate direction as to general plans and policies, but with considerable independent freedom of action in developing working procedures ........ 6-10
   4. Within the general framework of departmental or university policy, major responsibility for planning and carrying out work program of the position .................. 11-15
C. Responsibility for Working with Others ................................... 5
   1. Normal work relationships within usual lines of authority with only ordinary contacts with persons outside own work area .......................... 1
   2. Some contacts with persons outside normal working relationships requiring cooperation, tact, and appreciation of other points of view and involving the representation of one's own department in these outside contacts .............. 2-3

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3. A large degree of outside contacts involving use of tact, diplomacy, appreciation of point of view of others, or an outstanding degree of teamwork .............. 4-5

D. Responsibility for Materials, Equipment, Funds, or Personal Safety ............... 10

(To be used to indicate the cost of physical damage or the degree of personal harm which would result from neglect or improper use of equipment or materials normally required for the job; or the degree of trust for funds handled or controlled in this position; or the danger to personal safety which would result from carelessness in performance of duty.)
1. No material or equipment subject to damage if neglected or improperly handled; no responsibility for handling money; no reasonable possibility of endangering personal safety of others .................................................. 0
2. Material or equipment subject to damage of very little measurable value; or responsibility for handling small sums of money under close check; or a slight possibility of danger to personal safety if work is carelessly done ........ 1-2
3. Material or equipment subject to damage of some measurable value; or responsibility for handling considerable money under close check; or safety or welfare of others depends to a measurable degree on this employee .......... 3-5
4. Material or equipment subject to damage of considerable value; or responsibility for regularly handling considerable sums of money without close and frequent check; or a considerable degree of responsibility for safety and welfare of others ...................................................... 6-8
5. Material and equipment subject to damage of great value; or regular and direct responsibility for handling large sums of money under conditions such that errors would not readily or immediately be caught by supervisory check; or direct responsibility for the physical welfare of others to the point where any neglect or carelessness would cause harm to others at least potentially serious in nature ..................................................... 9-10

E. Responsibility for Supervision ........................................ 25
1. None .................................................................................. 0
2. Helper or 1 junior ............................................................... 3
3. Routine task direction, small group (5—) ............................... 5
4. Routine task direction, large group (5+) ................................ 7
5. Direction varied and discretionary work of small group (5—) .... 8
   Assistant to above .......................................................... 6
6. Direction varied and discretionary work of large group (5+) ...... 10
   Assistant to above .......................................................... 8
7. Full responsibility small department under (10—) .................. 15
   Assistant to above .......................................................... 10
8. Full responsibility large department or division (10+) .............. 25
   Assistant to above .......................................................... 18

The factors are so broken down and the statements so worded that anyone who knows about the position can do a sound job of evaluating the factors which it requires.

It may easily be tried. A rough copy of the form "Job Evaluation Work Sheet" should be drawn. Any job thoroughly familiar to the person making the evaluation may be selected. The points which the job requires in accordance with the "Description and Value of Factors . . ." are filled in column by column. The total points are added and a job evaluation is attained. It should be tried on several jobs, the points for each added, and their totals compared. The totals may then be set down in ascending order. Opposite each should be placed the present salary of the job. If the first attempt is satisfactory and the salary schedules are correctly related, the salary totals should ascend as do the point totals.

*If they do not, one of three things may be true: the point in the allocation of point
values has been missed, the salary schedule is out of line and should be corrected, or factors other than pure theory are affecting the salary structures.

These three points may be examined in further detail:

1. If there is doubt about the judgment or actual knowledge of the person making the evaluation, someone else should be asked to put down his figures. In the work at Illinois this has been done effectively by supervisors and by those actually doing the job, as well as by the trained staff of the office. While totals may vary, the differences in relationship are surprisingly few. It is hardly necessary to point out, too, that participation by both employees directly concerned and by supervisors of those employees adds greatly to the probability of final acceptance of the end results by both groups.

2. If the person making the evaluation is satisfied that the values are about right, the burden of proof is on him, as employer, to justify salary schedules which do not accord with those values. Suppose there are one hundred different position classifications (these classifications are discussed in detail later) and a diagonal or ascending line or curve has been drawn on a piece of graph paper. Suppose then another line or curve plotting the salaries now being paid is drawn. They will not be exactly parallel; that would be too much to expect. But the salary line should move around within a fairly close "sleeve" above or below the value line, and, as long as it does, the compensation schedule is in good shape.

3. But, when there occurs in the salary line a sharp "zig" below the value line, or an abrupt "zag" above it, then at least questions should be asked: Was the salary for the "zigging" position, perhaps, set there because its incumbent at the time was a young or inexperienced person who was at the minimum of his earning power and worth as an individual? And was the "zag" due to the other situation in which the incumbent was an old experienced employee whose compensation was well above the average because of long life and faithful performance of duty?

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It may be well at this point to discuss what is meant by position classification. A proper discussion of that subject would require a separate article, but it should be underscored and repeated that the whole evaluation scheme has to be based on positions, not people; on what is required to perform satisfactorily the duties of the position, not the merits of the individual himself. The Ph. D. can do janitor work, but it is still a janitor position paying the same rate to the graduate of the third grade in the Fifth Ward School District. So, it is necessary to be concerned with what the position needs, not what the incumbent has, in this part of the discussion.

Supply and Demand

If this is assumed, the practical administrator still has to take a realistic point of view toward the ideal represented by an exactly parallel relationship between job values and compensation. He cannot ignore, as an outstanding example, the law of supply and demand.

Not long ago the writer made a position classification survey and evaluation for a large library. Its positions were divided into two groups—those requiring a library school degree and those not so requiring. Theoretically, the nonprofessional employee with, for example, thirty-five value points should have had the same salary as the professional with the same number of points, since the totals as arrived at were high for factors required in the nonprofessional positions and low for the same ones in the professional positions, and vice versa. But the prevalent rate in the community, based on supply and demand, was several hundred dollars higher for the thirty-five-point professional than for the thirty-five-point nonprofessional, and that discrepancy existed all along the line between the two groups. It would have been unwise to have insisted on paying the nonprofessional several hundred dollars over the local market. It would have been futile to have tried to hire the professional for an amount less than the rate he could get elsewhere in the community. The fact that supply and demand had a controlling effect here was accepted and two separate curves were set up, one for professional and the other for nonprofessional. The relationships within each curve were adjusted without trying to force one to work with the other. Of course, about twelve points might have been allocated for each year of library school, but that adjustment would have been a little dubious as compared to other values for education. It did suggest, however, that a year of library school was a sound investment.

This whole subject is not so complicated as it seems at first glance. It has been presented in simple terms and, actually, it is simple. The schedule of factor values illustrated here does not have to be used. This one has worked in practice, but so do others. The interesting thing is that the results, in order of relationship, tend to be similar with the use of any sensible set of factor values.

What procedure should be followed after the evaluation is made? First of all, the several “zigs” and “zags” should be carefully examined. If there is not some justification for their existence, they should be corrected. If they “zig” below the line, an early increase in salary levels is suggested in order to get up to the line. If they “zag” far above, the next hiring for that type of work should be down near the value line. Although it is not practical to reduce salaries for those now getting too much, a similar situation with new employees can be avoided. Thus, when a new position is established and a salary must be set, it should be examined closely and the salary based on its values. This procedure should lead to an effective personnel practice in libraries.
Catalogers' Salaries in Well-Endowed Colleges

There is considerable difficulty in recruiting and retaining cataloging personnel. In order to examine the question of salaries in regard to this problem in college libraries, the writer undertook to survey the situation in forty institutions which are assumed to be endowed adequately.¹ The World Almanac and Book of Facts for 1946 includes a list of "Colleges with $2,000,000 Endowment or More." Only the colleges on this list were circularized, in January-February 1946, on the problems of (1) salaries, (2) provision for increases, (3) amount of cataloging performed, and (4) faculty status of catalogers. A few technical institutions obviously not comparable with liberal arts colleges were omitted, while two, designated as universities but whose libraries are primarily for undergraduates, were included. This report is not concerned with what is done in poorly endowed, struggling colleges (although some of them doubtless support their libraries better than wealthier institutions), but rather with what is being accomplished by those financially equipped to perform on a high level. Since only a brief questionnaire was sent, replies were almost 100 per cent, although all librarians were neither willing nor able to answer all questions.


The median salary of the chief, and often only, cataloger in the forty U. S. colleges is $2100 a year. The average salary is $2200. In those colleges which have schedules for increases, the median salary that may be expected by the chief cataloger is $2500; the average, $2600.

The highest salary at present paid a cataloger in these colleges is approximately $3700; the lowest, $1600. The highest expected salary is $4,000; the lowest, $1800. Vacation periods are not uniform.

Of the forty colleges on the list, four have no professional cataloger. For two, this is apparently a temporary situation.

The median number of books and pamphlets (combined) cataloged per year is 3200. This figure has little value since the statistics range widely from 600 to 30,000.

The question of faculty status for catalogers, involving vacations, salary scales, club memberships, and sabbaticals was not raised further than to ask the rank of the faculty member whose salary was nearest to that of the cataloger. Thirteen colleges pay their catalogers on a par with instructors, twelve with assistant professors, and one with associate professors. Those replying for the fourteen remaining colleges did not supply data regarding salaries of faculty members.

A more thorough study of this subject is suggested. In the meantime these figures may be of interest to college administrators who want to bring their library staffs in line with the practice in the better institutions.
An Approach to a Theory of Subject Headings

The end of the war has brought increased demands on libraries. Problems of building a peaceful world are numerous and complex. Not only do we have to deal with much new material, but whole groups of our population—trade unions, women, Negroes, national minorities—that have come to positions of greater national importance, present new problems and points of view. The number of fields which do not have adequate bibliographical tools of their own will probably increase rather than diminish. Keeping subject catalogs up to date and in line with contemporary needs will be much more important than in the past.

But our subject catalogs have not been adequate even for past needs. Reference librarians express continuing dissatisfaction with the results of current practices; administrators worry about their cost and usefulness; library school teachers have spoken of the difficulty of teaching subject heading work; evidence of reaction by the public is inevitably diffuse and spotty, but all that is available suggests dissatisfaction and unmet needs.

Is there a pattern, a common element, in all the varying specific problems of subject heading work? If we turn to the literature—perhaps 250 titles in English in the last half-century—we find lists of headings, discussions of specific headings or criticisms of particular practices, and advice as to where to look for new headings, but almost nothing by way of underlying principles, of theoretical generalizations. Such principles as have been formulated—those in Miss Mann's textbook, for example—seldom have more of a rational basis than the writer's personal experience of the fact that most libraries do it that way. There is little that would help answer such questions as: What elements determine the formulation of a new heading? Or, How can one evaluate the subject catalogs of a particular library?

The reasons for this lack of theory are clear. It is only within the past decade or so that scientific methods have been applied to any branch of library procedure. The pattern of internal development in the larger libraries as well as various social forces have tended to make cataloging appear merely as a complex mechanical procedure, when actually it is an important educational function.

A theory is a statement of principles underlying a whole field, a generalizing of facts and experience for the purpose of guiding further work in the field. With reference to our immediate problem the principal uses of theory would be to simplify the teaching of subject heading techniques; to provide a rational basis for handling questions of level of specificity, subordination, and inversion; to aid in the development of new headings; and to assist catalogers in handling difficult titles. Probably it would incidentally provide a sounder basis for spreading knowledge of how to use catalogs and indexes and furnish criteria for evaluation of lists of headings and of particular catalogs.

Recent empirical studies such as those of
Knapp, 1 Quigley, 2 Swank, 3 and Van Hoe- 4 sen, 4 will provide material for testing and elaborating a theory, but they cannot alone produce one. Ultimately, the piling up of discrete empirical studies without the sorting, criticizing, and tying together of their results, which is the function of theory, would lead to further confusion.

The function of a subject heading is to enable groups of readers to find from the whole body of literature, material which will help satisfy their specific needs. Attempts to define subject headings in terms of "books"—commercially published, monographic works—comprise even a majority of the physical units processed. What, then, is the unit to which a subject heading relates? What is a subject?

A particular piece of literature is nearly always written for a specific group of people. Its writing and publishing is, in fact, a social process in which a number of individuals or organizations participate. But the boundaries between different activities are neither fixed nor watertight. As a particular field develops, the people concerned with it frequently come to have need for materials that were written for quite different groups; thus the workers in a certain branch of economics may find indispensable, papers or books that were written originally for mathematicians. Or a title may be useful, less for its formal subject matter than for the point of view expressed or generalization made. (An article on the economic aspects of the book trade, 5 for example, would be of considerable use to those concerned with the position and responsibilities of the creative writer in contemporary society.) Moreover, new activities, new emphases on old ones, do not develop at random. They grow out of definite changes—economic, political, technological—in society. This is true even for the development of new specialties in scientific fields; while such developments are influenced by the past history and the internal relations of particular sciences, more general social forces are the deciding elements in determining lines of work, what is emphasized or neglected, in even the most "abstract" sciences. The extreme complexity of modern society must not blind us to the fact that there are always patterns, definite—and often predictable—trends, in the development of intellectual activities and, hence, of the demand for printed materials.

Subjects, then, are definable in terms of the needs of people working in particular fields, and these are always growing, overlapping. The literature of physics includes all the material that may be useful to physicists, whatever its original source and purpose. Let us call the units to which subject headings relate, sectors of literature. A sector is defined as a part of the whole field of literature which is useful to a continuing, socially determined group of people with common interests and activities. For the sake of convenience we shall designate the latter as interest groups.

The principal value of this concept is that it focuses attention on the people who use books, on the actual uses to which printed materials are put, rather than on the books and journal articles themselves. Attempts to define "subjects" without reference to users of libraries are not relevant to cataloging work.

Just what bearing does this idea have on subject heading work? How, as a practical

1 Knapp, P. B. "Subject Catalog in the College Library." Library Quarterly 14:108-18, 214-28, April, July 1944.
2 Quigley, H. "Investigation of the Possible Relationship of Interbranch Loan to Cataloging." Library Quarterly 14:333-38, October 1944.
4 Van Hoezen, H. B. "Perspectives in Cataloging, with Some Applications." Library Quarterly 14:100-07, April 1944.
matter, are sectors to be defined and subject headings formulated? Through familiarity with current activities in particular scientific, technical, political, historical, or other fields. Because people are constantly working with them, ideas, concepts, processes, always have names, and the names used by people who are working in a field will usually be the best guide to correct and permanent subject headings. In a few very specialized and rapidly advancing scientific fields—possibly vitamin research, for example—this may mean daily activity in the field. But in most cases a familiarity with the literature and the way in which it is being used—the activities, trends, relations with other fields—will be sufficient.

An Example

Consider cartels, for example. A cartel is a specific form of monopoly, defined as an agreement between the heads of two or more firms to control production, allocate markets, and/or fix prices. The term has been standardized for at least twenty years and several groups are concerned with the topic; one recent bibliography* covers 120 pages. Both the Library of Congress and the Readers' Guide enter material on cartels (along with that on several other forms of monopoly) under the heading “Trusts, Industrial.” But an industrial trust is a different kind of monopoly, one that is now illegal in the United States and so largely of historical interest. Lumping them all together under the same heading is as useful as would be putting the literature on apples and pears under the same term because they are botanically related.

A somewhat more complex type of case is illustrated by anti-Semitism. There is a considerable amount of material on the problems of anti-Semitism and ways of combating it. It is essential that the whole be easily available. To enter it under a much more general heading such as “Jews—Political and Social Conditions” is comparable to burying all the material on geology under the heading “Science.”

It may be objected that the use of specific headings in controversial fields would involve judgments of the material which a cataloger is not competent to make. But judgments must be made in any case; they are as inescapable as breathing. Continued entry of material such as that mentioned under broader or antiquated headings (thereby implying that the needs of people who use correct terms are not significant) represents as much an intellectual—and in many cases a political—judgment as would use of the correct terms. There are rational, objectively valid ways of dealing with the unpleasant facts of the world.

Returning to specific practical problems, what difference might this approach make in cataloging work? The usual process of formulating a new subject heading is something like this: Here is a book on a new subject; can we find a suitable term in an index or encyclopedia? (And there is rarely any attempt to evaluate or criticize the practice, say, of a periodical index.) If not, what word or phrase can be used as a heading? Ordinarily new subject headings are formed by head or senior catalogers who have little if any contact with people who use libraries and who are only occasionally specialists in a particular field. With rare exceptions, the problem of publicizing a new heading is ignored.

In the light of the above discussion, the procedure should probably be somewhat as follows: Here is a new body of literature. For whom is it written? To what groups, for what purposes, will it be useful? What are the main trends or centers of interest of these groups? Will there be much or little

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material, and what forms will it take? To what extent will people who need this material be aided by older titles now under other headings? Will cross-references suffice or should additional subject entries be made for some of the older titles? Workable answers can be gotten for all these questions by anyone familiar with current activities in the field. The correct subject heading will usually emerge in the process of answering these questions. So will the answer to the question, Who among our own clientele should be told about new subject headings?

Specialized Knowledge

Recognition of the importance of close and continuing knowledge of activities in specific fields should bring several changes in the organization of cataloging work. For one thing, it makes clear the significance of special lists of subject headings. The idea that special libraries need specialized subject headings more than large general libraries, is hardly valid. Only rarely do special libraries have bodies of material not contained in university and research libraries. By and large, the same people use both types of institutions. The better special lists have value precisely because they have been compiled by librarians who have closer contact with the workers in a particular field and who are more thoroughly acquainted with its literature than catalogers in a general library. There appears to be no good reason why new headings developed by competent special librarians should not immediately be adopted by the larger general libraries.

In the universities there is a promising field for experimentation in the use of certain faculty members and research workers on a part-time basis either for consultation or for routine subject heading and classification work. This would create a number of administrative and training problems, but there is no reason for believing they would be impossible of solution. An immediately practical step in the larger libraries would be the fuller utilization for cataloging work of reference department and subject-matter department workers, as suggested by Lund.7 The Subject Cataloging Division of the Library of Congress has already made some progress in the recruiting of specialists for cataloging work in scientific fields. Moreover, fuller development of a body of theory should lead to a more extensive standardization of subject headings and, hence, to greater possibilities for centralized and cooperative cataloging. While there is no single, easy solution for the problem of getting into catalog departments workers familiar enough with various special fields to catalog adequately materials in those fields, combinations of several administrative steps would make the problem much less overwhelming than it may seem at first sight. It is quite true that people who have both a working knowledge of one or more fields and some facility in subject heading work will not be available for forty dollars or even sixty dollars per week, but this only takes us to the more general problem—into which we can hardly go here—of the need for sharp increases in all library salaries. It is worth noting, however, that all available experience indicates that the output of a cataloger who knows a particular field is so much greater than that of a general cataloger working in the same field, that differences in salaries would be more than covered.

Technical Questions

Apart from administrative problems, two or three technical points may be noted.  

One is the question of technical versus popular terms. The textbook proposition that university and technical libraries should use technical terms as subject headings while public libraries should use popular ones, is a vulgarization of the actual situation. People are constantly moving from one educational level to another. Even a clubwoman who is writing a brief paper on infantile paralysis will learn in the process that the correct name for that disease is poliomyelitis; incidentally, she will probably also learn that these two terms are not completely synonymous, that the former is occasionally used to cover birth injuries. In general, the correct—and hence most nearly permanent—terms will be those used by people who are working in a particular field. The indexes to both Biological Abstracts and Experiment Station Record freely use a mixture of "popular" and technical terms, apparently preferring the former whenever they are specific and stable enough.

Inversion

Then there is the question of inversion. The argument that it is desirable to bring together in the catalog several aspects of the same topic ("Insurance, Fire;" "Insurance, Life," etc.) involves a confusion of purpose. It is not a function of the alphabetical subject catalog to bring together material in logically related fields. In all dual aspect headings the question is, which form—inverted or direct—is the correct name for the sector to which it relates? The answer is neither a matter of subjective personal opinion nor of abstract logic, but of the purposes for which material on a topic is written and used. Even a casual acquaintance with the literature on unemployment insurance, for example, will show that the emphasis is almost entirely on the economic and social effects of unemployment and the place of insurance among other devices for protecting or cushioning workers against it, with only very incidental attention given to the technical aspects of insurance as a device for distributing risks or losses. With the possible exception of certain chemicals, it is difficult to think of any case where inversion is justified by anything more than the desire to tie new topics to old established headings, thus saving work—actually only postponing it—for catalogers.

The question as to whether certain topics should be subordinated to larger topics or given headings of their own will, again, be decided properly in terms of actual use of the material. Readers’ Guide, for example, subordinates material on dismissal pay to the larger topic "Wages" and enters material on small business firms in the form "Business—Small Business." But dismissal pay is a specific problem in labor relations; there are several groups of people concerned with it. The problems of small business firms are numerous and complex enough that at least two Congressional committees have been concerned largely with them. Material on both these topics will be made most easily available in catalogs and indexes by giving them headings of their own. On the other hand, the material on the educational or health activities of trade unions will best be subordinated to "Trade Unions" because the fact that the activities reported are being done by trade unions is what gives them significance for various groups of readers.

Need for Further Study

Space does not permit the consideration here of the work relating to subject head-
Schools limits its membership to faculties of accredited library schools. This in effect means that those schools which might conceivably benefit most by association are excluded from the advantages of an effective means for the interchange of professional library teaching ideas. This association of all library schools would be similar to the American Library Association for general librarianship; it would welcome all interested in library educational problems.

With detailed knowledge of present teaching techniques in use in all library schools and with an association admitting the entire professional library teaching personnel, we would have the lever and the wheel necessary for an examination of what teaching in the field of librarianship should be. At this point a third step toward our professional philosophy may be taken by inviting practicing librarians and the users of their libraries to contribute to the understanding of the type of library personnel which should be produced.

These three steps are in themselves an enormous order, and the goal lies still further. This goal of librarianship is well known. Librarianship aims to mate readers and ideas found in printed and nonprinted materials in any way that will be fruitful. What is not well known is that it is much easier to see where you want to go than to provide and utilize the means for getting there. The crucial problems in a philosophy of librarianship are not scientific or philosophical, but engineering problems concerned with time, money, and personnel with ingenuity for fitting means to ends.

A Theory of Subject Headings

(Continued from page 248)

ings of Bliss or Kelley or of practical rules proposed by Van Hoesen. But several problems needing further investigation should be noted. At first glance, one might expect that an increased number of headings would mean a much greater number of cross references, but there is some reason for thinking that fuller use of correct and up-to-date headings would mean fewer see and see also references; the relative scarcity of both in such a detailed and specialized index as that of Psychological Abstracts is interesting in this connection. The relation between the theory suggested above and the classified catalog needs discussion. My own experience, as well as that of Helen Starr, is that the use of more specific headings reduces the average number of subject entries per title (actually, since a cataloger who is also a subject matter specialist can often omit less essential added or title entries, savings are even greater); whether this would hold true for all fields is a problem to be investigated. Catalogers who are also subject specialists would undoubtedly discover legitimate needs which our catalogs do not now meet; on the other hand, they could probably withdraw large numbers of cards relating to fields where adequate bibliographies are available. The approach to subject headings suggested here implies changes in the organization of cataloging work and in library school curricula. But these problems are better left for future discussion.

11 Van Hoesen, op. cit.
Field Work in Accredited Library Schools

Education for librarianship poses problems that receive scant attention in our professional literature. In contrast to the many studies on all phases of primary, secondary, and higher education, there have been fewer than ten major studies of education for librarianship in the past twenty-five years. The authors of *The Program of Instruction in Library Schools* cite but seven references in their survey of the growth of professional training and note at the end of their introductory chapter that the instructional program in library schools is today far behind other advances in education for librarianship. They write:

The difficulties in this regard are concerned directly or indirectly with:

1. The training and educational qualifications of the instructors.
2. The fact that so much of the library school program is of an elementary nature.
3. The fact that there is no philosophy of librarianship to give point and depth to certain parts of the program.¹

The third point suggests the need for investigating not only the general philosophy of librarianship but also the teaching philosophies in librarianship. The purpose of this paper is to examine the present status of field work in the programs of accredited library schools, in the belief that this specific question leads directly to basic questions of library educational philosophy and, ultimately, to the still more difficult question of a general philosophy for librarianship.


The philosophy of library education with respect to the value of field work has been similar to the swing of a pendulum. The early library schools emphasized the practical; present schools tend to emphasize the theoretical sides of librarianship; and there are indications that a re-evaluation of both philosophies of librarianship are in store for the near future. A brief review of the history of field work theory illustrates these changing assumptions.

Melvil Dewey, in the first catalog of the School of Library Economy of Columbia College, states the apprenticeship method with which American library schools began. The aim of Mr. Dewey's curriculum was entirely practical: to give the best obtainable advice with specific suggestions for the solution of the questions that arise from the time a decision is made that a library is desirable until it is placed in perfect working order.²

The Williamson report, *Training for Library Service*, stimulated library educational philosophy to move in the direction of more emphasis upon the professional or theoretical aspects of librarianship. After an examination of field work requirements in the library schools of the early twenties, Mr. Williamson concluded that it should be looked upon as that phase of formal instruction carried on by purposeful observation supplementing classroom instruction. He

² School of Library Economy of Columbia College, 1887-89; Documents for a History. New York, School of Library Service, Columbia University, 1937, p. 90.
recommended decreased emphasis but not the elimination of field work from the library school curriculum. In his opinion it was still one important method of instruction.3

Thirteen years later the pendulum had swung still farther away from acceptance of the field work method. Ernest J. Reece, in *The Curriculum in Library Schools*, recommends that field work supplement the library school curriculum through summer assignments or postschool internships. He places special emphasis upon the separation of field work from the curriculum.4 It is a short step from this position to the complete elimination of all field work requirements in a few accredited library schools at the present time.

The need for a re-evaluation of library field work is evident in the recent study by the authors of *The Program of Instruction in Library Schools*. They recommend more careful planning, supervision, and reporting of field work experience and advocate the search for new devices such as clinics and motion pictures for presenting the practical aspects of librarianship.

II

If we turn from library educational theory to contemporary library school practice, what has been the effect of theory upon practice with regard to the status of field work? In an attempt to secure the necessary data for an answer to this question, a questionnaire was sent in 1944 to the thirty-four library schools accredited by the American Library Association through its Board of Education for Librarianship. Thirty-two schools replied. This high percentage of replies is testimony to the interest of the faculties of our library schools in this subject.

Twenty-eight schools indicated that some form of field work is required of at least some students. Of these schools, two reported that field work is required only of future school librarians. Two others indicated that longer field work periods are required of those preparing for school librarianship than for other students. In one case, special field work in addition to the regular period is required for those preparing for special library work. Of the twenty-eight, two indicated that field work is not required for students entering with substantial experience in library work.

Twelve schools require blocked practice periods only; three indicated that field work is done in connection with classes; ten reported that they require both blocked field work and periods of practice work scheduled with classes. Two have pre-matriculation periods of practice, and one did not answer this question.

The most common length of time for the blocked practice period is two weeks (80 hours). Sixteen schools use the two-week period; the others range from one week to one month.

The type of library in which the student practices depends upon a number of factors. Five schools specializing in the training of school librarians or who require practice only of future school librarians limit field work almost invariably to school libraries. Twenty schools indicated that public, school, college, university, or special libraries are used. Two said that public libraries are generally chosen, and one school uses both public and school libraries for all students.

In choosing libraries for field work, knowledge by the library school of the libraries is the determining factor in fifteen schools; students' interest in a specific li-

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brary, in four schools; and both factors, in nine others. Among the factors considered by library school directors in the selection of supervising libraries are the interest and training of the supervising librarian, the time that the librarian has to give to supervision, the locality, and the nature of the library program.

The supervision of the field work of twenty-three schools is done entirely by the cooperating librarian and his staff. In only two schools is the work supervised entirely by instructors from the library school. In three schools the library school staff aids the cooperating librarian in supervision. In most cases a rating scale is filled out by the cooperating librarian. These rating scales usually contain a series of questions about traits, technical efficiency, special aptitudes, and ask for general estimates and comments.

Follow-up work on deficiencies revealed by the field work is handled by a conference with the student in nineteen schools; with stress in subsequent classwork, in two schools; by a combination of individual classwork and conference, in four schools; by faculty discussion of ratings, in one school; and by oral reports and discussion of ratings, in one school. One school has only a pre-matriculation practice period and tries to correct personality defects during the year of residence. In only two schools is any attempt made to secure any written reaction from the student.

Twenty-six schools reported that the period is valuable. Approval is qualified in two cases to apply only to school librarians. Two schools with practice periods report that it is not especially valuable. Of the four reporting no use of a practice period, one indicated that it has an observation period and that the discussion of field work will be reopened when the curriculum is revised; one mentioned special field work projects from time to time but no regular period. Only two are firmly convinced that the period has no value.

To the question as to whether or not the field work program should be modified, thirteen replied in the affirmative and thirteen in the negative. In five schools the matter is now under consideration. Suggestions for modification included more practice (nine schools), more practice if library course were two years in length (three schools), more professional and less routine field work (three schools), and the addition of funds for library school faculty visits to supervising libraries (one school).

The last question on which reports were made was concerned with the use of practice situations involved in teaching specific courses; for example, the assignment of reference students to the college or university reference desk one or more hours per week. Ten schools reported that they use this type of teaching device in one or more of the following courses: administration, reference, book selection, circulation, methods, cataloging, and hospital libraries.

It is clear from the survey of current field work practices that Mr. Williamson's recommendations for decreased emphasis upon field work have been followed by the majority of library schools. A period of field work from four to twelve weeks in length was universally required by the library schools in 1920-21. By 1944, four schools had dropped the requirement entirely, two others demanded it only for prospective school librarians, and two others had flexible arrangements qualified by the amount of library experience each student brings to library school. Furthermore, the period devoted to field work has been cut to one to four weeks.

A large majority of the representatives of accredited schools, however, still consider
that this experience is invaluable. The reasons given are quite different from those cited by library school directors in the Williamson report. Classification of about twenty-five statements of the reasons for field work reveal four main categories:

1. Field work develops an understanding of what goes on in a library, allows for self-evaluation and the testing of theories, shows the unity of the library school course, gives the "feel" of library service, provides contact with active libraries and a sense of concreteness. Statements such as these occurred in twenty-four questionnaires. The common element in these opinions is the conviction that field work is a teaching device which clinches classroom points, reveals interrelationship of courses, and makes the textbooks come alive.

2. Field work develops student confidence and poise and increases professional enthusiasm. This is the gist of the replies in twenty-three questionnaires.

3. Many library school graduates, especially school librarians, go into "one-man" situations. They may anticipate little or no expert supervision and must have a trial period under supervision so that they will not be entirely unacquainted with the variety of practical problems for which they will be responsible. This was mentioned only twice, but it deserves careful attention.

4. Three schools mentioned the value of the field work for placement. The placement consideration is the only factor which is identical with the reasons given by the library school directors of 1920-21 for the field work requirement. Library school directors of 1944, unlike those of 1920, mention only once or twice the fact that routine skills may be learned. They stress the value of field work for the learning process that comes from comparison of theory with practice and for the integration of library functions. While the deans in 1920 decided that field work is needed to reveal student capacity for library work, the directors in 1944 stress the importance of the period for the development of the professional point of view. In general, present library school theory is based upon Mr. Williamson's idea that field work should be an instructional period pointing up the application and integration of theories rather than a period for the learning of routine skills.

How does this theory work in practice? Turning to the reasons given by the four schools which do not require field work and to the one school which, although disapproving in principle, is forced by state requirements to schedule this period for school librarians, we find the following objections:

1. Cadets are often exploited by assignment to routine work which the regular library staff has saved for them.

2. There are difficulties and unjustifiable expense involved in finding qualified libraries with supervision which has educational value and staffs organized upon a sound professional-and-clerical basis.

3. The problem method in specific courses is a more economical way of securing the same results.

4. There are many difficulties involved in the cooperation of librarians and library schools in this matter. Most librarians are not interested in teaching.

Many of the schools which do use field work assignments list these same criticisms, especially the danger of exploitation, but feel that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Several point out that their field work is directed more toward observation than toward active library work. One school indicates the need for a larger budget to permit supervision of cadets while in their field positions. Several report that more attention should be paid to follow-up procedures.

Only one of the four chief objections to field work is theoretical in nature. This is the position that the problems method in specific courses gives the same result with more economy than field work. All the other objections are practical. They all follow the form: "If the situation were
different, field work might be useful.” The implication is that the cost in time, money, and effort to secure conditions under which field work would be ideal are exorbitant.

IV

If the library field work period has possibilities as a teaching device and as an instrument to hasten the growth of professionalism, can anything be done to eliminate the practical difficulties mentioned by library school directors? The Department of Library Education at State Teachers College, Geneseo, N.Y., has been experimenting with field work practices over a long period and believes it can offer evidence for the following propositions:

1. Where a library school prepares librarians for one or two types of libraries, field work can be administered successfully with a very small staff. Under these conditions no insuperable difficulties have been met with regard to selection of excellent cadet centers, elimination of exploitation of students, supervision by the library school staff, and careful follow-up work for individual deficiencies.

2. When properly integrated with theoretical courses, the field work period proves to be an economical device for teaching students to apply theory.

3. Field work pays high dividends in developing professional attitudes among students.

4. The field work period is an effective instrument for discovering necessary curricular adjustments, both in the library program and in the academic courses pursued by the students.

5. The field work period exerts a beneficial professional effect upon the practicing librarians supervising the cadets.

The Department of Library Education at Geneseo trains librarians for the public schools of the State of New York. The thirty-six hours of the library curriculum are distributed throughout the four years, with most of the courses falling in the junior and senior years.

The field work period at Geneseo comes in the middle of the second semester of the junior year, following a period of practice teaching during which each student teacher is observed carefully to see how well he applies his knowledge of libraries in an actual classroom situation. Before students go to their field work centers, they are given topical outlines which are designed to direct their observation. These topics are discussed and students are required to submit papers summarizing and evaluating their field experience in terms of the topics outlined. Two days are devoted to intensive preparation for the six-week field work period.

Supervising librarians are furnished with a twenty-two-point rating scale and are asked to check a list of library, school, and community activities in which the cadet has had an opportunity to participate. In addition, a library school instructor visits each cadet at least once while he is in residence in the field. These visits are usually made not later than the third week in order that the instructor can be helpful if problems of personality or procedure have arisen.

Field work centers are chosen carefully upon the basis of a knowledge of the school and the librarian. When there are indications that the cadet is kept busy with routine or even with a limited group of professional activities, the objectives for requiring practice in a wide variety of professional fields are explained to the supervising librarian at the time of the visit. Field work centers are scrutinized each year and eliminated when unsatisfactory for the set purposes. In addition, conferences with supervising librarians have been held at the college to secure the joint contributions of librarians in the field for the improvement of courses and the field work program and to explain the objectives. The last conference of this type resulted in an improved rating scale.

When the cadets return to the campus,
there are two types of follow-up procedure. First, the instructor for school library service and the head of the department read the field work papers submitted and check the rating scales and the lists of activities in which the cadet has participated. Each student is then interviewed and questioned closely about which procedures or situations were easy and which were difficult. On the basis of the paper, the rating scales, the visits of instructors to field work centers, and the student interview, prescriptions are made for the senior year. For example, eight or ten students are reported each year to the speech department for special training to eliminate speech defects, to give more experience and confidence in making book talks, and to improve efficiency in all public relations work involving speech.

The course in school library administration, to which the full time of the juniors is devoted during the last four weeks of the semester, provides the second follow-up procedure for the field work period. This course is built around standard readings and problems in library administration and the experience which each student brings from his field work. Discussion of school library circulation systems, for example, draws upon the various systems in use in field work centers as well as upon textbooks. Discussion of all problems is enlivened with at least the beginnings of practical experience.

The careful integration of field work with other library and academic courses can be one of the strongest teaching and professional training devices in the curriculum. Many students who are only average or below average have suddenly found themselves during these periods. Observation of students applying library theories may result in suggestions for the improvement of courses. For example, correlated courses in the education department have been strengthened through suggestions from students who have analyzed their difficulties. Many supervisors have also indicated that they have obtained new ideas from cadets.

V

Does the foregoing discussion cast any light upon the basic questions of library educational philosophy or of a philosophy of librarianship in general? If field work problems are typical of other library school teaching enigmas, we are justified in looking for more practical than theoretical difficulties in our profession. Perhaps the essence of the teaching philosophy for which we are searching is found in discovery of ways to fit means to ends rather than in the discovery of the ends themselves.

The first step toward a philosophy of library education may be made through a careful study of the existing specific techniques used in the teaching of library courses. The Program of Instruction in Library Schools considers library school instructional problems in general and is the most helpful recent publication in this field. There is need, however, for a survey of specific techniques in library education. The listing, analysis, evaluation, and publication of all types of assignments, projects, problems, and devices used in the teaching of subjects in the field of librarianship should prove to be a most effective way to begin the improvement and reorientation of library school instructional programs. This publication should stimulate all library schools to evaluate and perfect their teaching methods and would present the raw material for this evaluation—the collective teaching experience of all schools.

A second step toward a working philosophy of librarianship might come with the formation of an association embracing all library school faculties in its membership. The American Association of Library
Schools limits its membership to faculties of accredited library schools. This in effect means that those schools which might conceivably benefit most by association are excluded from the advantages of an effective means for the interchange of professional library teaching ideas. This association of all library schools would be similar to the American Library Association for general librarianship; it would welcome all interested in library educational problems.

With detailed knowledge of present teaching techniques in use in all library schools and with an association admitting the entire professional library teaching personnel, we would have the lever and the wheel necessary for an examination of what teaching in the field of librarianship should be. At this point a third step toward our professional philosophy may be taken by inviting practicing librarians and the users of their libraries to contribute to the understanding of the type of library personnel which should be produced.

These three steps are in themselves an enormous order, and the goal lies still further. This goal of librarianship is well known. Librarianship aims to mate readers and ideas found in printed and nonprinted materials in any way that will be fruitful. What is not well known is that it is much easier to see where you want to go than to provide and utilize the means for getting there. The crucial problems in a philosophy of librarianship are not scientific or philosophical, but engineering problems concerned with time, money, and personnel with ingenuity for fitting means to ends.

A Theory of Subject Headings
(Continued from page 248)

ings of Bliss or Kelley or of practical rules proposed by Van Hoesen. But several problems needing further investigation should be noted. At first glance, one might expect that an increased number of headings would mean a much greater number of cross references, but there is some reason for thinking that fuller use of correct and up-to-date headings would mean fewer see and see also references; the relative scarcity of both in such a detailed and specialized index as that of Psychological Abstracts is interesting in this connection. The relation between the theory suggested above and the classified catalog needs discussion. My own experience, as well as that of Helen Starr, is that the use of more specific headings reduces the average number of subject entries per title (actually, since a cataloger who is also a subject matter specialist can often omit less essential added or title entries, savings are even greater); whether this would hold true for all fields is a problem to be investigated. Catalogers who are also subject specialists would undoubtedly discover legitimate needs which our catalogs do not now meet; on the other hand, they could probably withdraw large numbers of cards relating to fields where adequate bibliographies are available. The approach to subject headings suggested here implies changes in the organization of cataloging work and in library school curricula. But these problems are better left for future discussion.

11 Van Hoesen, op. cit.
By RICE ESTES

The Lending Service Library

IN JANUARY 1940 an experimental rental library was opened at Columbia University as a component part of the university libraries. After almost six years of operation this library stands out as one of the most popular and useful services ever offered at the university and is now one of the show places on the campus. While many college and university libraries have maintained small rental collections or duplicate pay shelves, no library has offered such a service on so wide a scale or so effectively as Columbia. An examination of the methods employed there may be of value to other libraries.

The problem of providing the most recent titles in great enough quantity and quickly enough to satisfy the readers' wishes was an old one at Columbia and had been studied for some time. It was decided that the feasible solution was a rental library from which enough revenue would be derived to pay for the many duplicates needed to meet demand. The Lending Service Library was thus created to make accessible to members of the university community the latest books on all nontechnical subjects and to offer as many of these books as possible for circulation on the day of publication. As a reimbursement for this service a rental fee of four cents a day with a sixteen-cent minimum charge was asked of borrowers. The subsequent success of the service resulted in a modification of rates to three cents a day with a ten-cent minimum.

One large corner room conveniently located in South Hall, the main university library, was set aside for this service. The room contained shelving space for approximately four thousand volumes, and, although the space had not been planned for this purpose, an arrangement of charging desk, catalog, and display cases near the entrance divided work space from the reading room. Three reading tables, lamps, and a number of desks of the type used for carrell study were placed in the center of the floor and along the walls, giving the room an air of brightness and informality.

When the library was first opened, the problem arose as to whom books could be rented. Commercial rental libraries in the neighborhood raised the point that they could not meet such competition as Columbia would offer if our doors were opened to all who lived in the community. Therefore, service was restricted to the faculty, students, staff, including the custodial workers, alumni, government employees located in the research laboratories of the university, and special permit borrowers. In the first six months 1642 readers had registered. Of these over 1200 were students. In December 1945 approximately 3000 active borrowers were listed and thousands of inactive ones. The inactive file consists of the registration cards of those readers who have not withdrawn books in the past six months. When registering, the new borrower shows a bursar's receipt or proper campus identification and then fills out a slip, giving name, address, and school of study. This information is first tabulated, then typed on a manila card. The card is filed at the

Note: Mr. Estes was formerly in charge of lending service in the Columbia University Libraries.
charging desk as an identification record. No books are charged until identification is checked.

Upon the opening of the Lending Service Library, a postal card with a printed message describing the service and the fees was mailed to the entire student body, the faculty, and the staff. Ever since then publicity of some sort has been employed to keep before the readers the idea of the service. Colored posters have been placed on the university bulletin boards, and each week a mimeographed list of new accessions, "Books You Want to Read," is sent out to all libraries for posting and is mailed to those borrowers who are interested. Within the Lending Service Library, posters, newspaper clippings, reviews of recent acquisitions, pictures of authors in the news, and best seller lists are displayed each week to stimulate interest in reading.

The most important problem involved in the directing of the Lending Service Library is that of book selection and book buying. Since one of the primary purposes of the collection is to provide books as they are published, a majority of the titles are ordered by the day of publication. The librarian must study every publisher’s list and all prepublication advertising and reviews in order to judge as carefully as possible the merits of each forthcoming title. Visits to bookstores and to jobbers are helpful in determining buying lists. The Columbia University Bookstore has cooperated with the library, making it possible to see all advance copies of books received.

Ordering the Books

Book orders are telephoned almost daily to the bookstore through which most of the stock is purchased. Generally one title of a book is ordered first and duplicates are requested only after the demand for the book has been established. If the title is a heavily advertised piece of fiction like Remarque's *Arch of Triumph*, one can be reasonably sure that twenty copies will be needed on publication day and order accordingly. However, the vagaries of the public's taste and misleading advertising have led us to err on the side of caution. As more copies can generally be obtained on a day's notice, it has been proved a wise policy to buy with caution. Some well-advertised titles do not live up to expectations and the books are soon left standing on the shelves while other titles not pushed so freely in advance by the publishers may be catapulted into immediate success. When *Strange Fruit* appeared, only two copies were ordered but subsequent demand led to the purchase of eighteen more copies. Only one copy of most mystery stories is bought, as it has been found that the mystery audience is avid but small and duplicates are a poor investment.

Nonfiction is more difficult to choose than either straight fiction or mystery stories. Its popularity is more variable and dependent upon many factors rather than upon the best seller lists which affect the reading of fiction to a great extent. In choosing nonfiction one or two copies of a book have generally been found to be sufficient, although some titles outstrip fiction in popularity. For instance, fifteen copies of *Teacher in America* were needed, but, on the whole, the need for duplication is not great and can be judged fairly accurately.

Orders for some books are placed well in advance of publication so that most books are delivered before or on the day of publication. Since orders are sent out directly from lending service, invoices are checked there on the arrival of the books and then sent to the acquisitions department where bills are paid and final records filed. New stock is examined to make sure no defective
material is present and then the books are stamped, wrapped in cellophane to preserve the dust jackets, and made available for circulation. These operations are performed immediately upon the receipt of the books, and the new stock reaches the public on the day it arrives in the library. Books arriving before publication day are held until the release date set by the publishers.

The cataloging of the books is handled in as simple a manner as possible. When books are ordered, two order cards are typed, one for the acquisition department and one for lending service, where the order card eventually becomes the shelflist card. On the order card appears the name of the author, title, publisher, date, and price, as well as the date ordered and the firm with whom the order is placed. As soon as a new title is ordered, the order card for lending service becomes a work card. An assistant checks it against the union catalog and the L. C. catalog to determine the main entry, the author's correct name, and dates. A simple catalog card is then typed, giving the information on the work card and the tracing which usually consists of only a title. No subject headings are used except for biography. Upon the arrival of the books, the main entry cards are sent to the cataloging department where the necessary duplicates are typed and filed in the union catalog. The original author cards are returned to lending service and they are filed with title cards in the lending service catalog.

Discarding

The discarding of books is equally as important as the adding of new material. Several times a year the shelves are examined and all books that have not circulated during the past six months are segregated for sale. At regular intervals sale lists are prepared and sent to all libraries in the university where the lists are checked. The lending service ordinarily supplies most of the fiction titles for the general library. Usually departmental libraries buy about half of the titles listed. These books are then transferred through the acquisitions department which in turn credits lending service with the money involved. Books which are not sold to the libraries are then placed on a sale shelf for the public. The prices of books so disposed of vary in accordance with the original price of the book, the physical condition of the book, and the type of the book. The standard price for secondhand fiction is seventy-five cents while nonfiction sells for one dollar or more.

The sale of books is more or less a continuous process since new sale books are added at frequent intervals. If books do not sell promptly, then their price is reduced. In the past all used books have been sold, so that the problem of excess material has never arisen. No binding of worn books is done. If a book circulates so often that the binding breaks, a duplicate copy is purchased and the worn one sold. This policy is adhered to for two reasons: first, a rebound book is difficult to rent and to sell; and second, the attractive appearance of the room, one of the most important factors in its success, would be injured by shelving rebound material.

Methods employed at the circulation desk are as direct and practical as possible. A book card is made for each copy of a title or volume and filed alphabetically by author in the charging tray. These cards are divided into two groups, the in-file and the out-file. As soon as a book is brought to the desk to be charged, the proper card from the in-file is withdrawn, dated, and the borrower's name written on it. During the course of the day, the circulation figures are determined by counting these cards which are then filed in the out-file. When a book
is returned, the reverse process is performed, the number of days the book has been in circulation is computed and the charge made accordingly. Receipts from each book are recorded in a receipt book and the sum taken in is tallied with the amount in the cash drawer.

Subjects of Interest

The readers at Columbia have shown themselves interested in the widest variety of subjects. Serious fiction attracts the greatest number of readers and rents more steadily than books in any other field. For instance, Hemingway's *For Whom the Bell Tolls* was so popular that forty copies were purchased. Furthermore, the popularity of a solid title endures. One copy of *The Heart Is a Lonely Hunter* still rents although it is now more than five years old. A new novel frequently revives interest in other titles by the same author. Although the general policy is to purchase only current books, the demand for earlier stories by Katherine Anne Porter when *The Leaning Tower* appeared caused us to add her other titles. The success of Marquand's play, *The Late George Apley*, caused a similar demand for the novel.

In the field of nonfiction, books relating to international affairs are perhaps the most widely read. The many recent titles on Russia and China, postwar planning, solving the riddle of peace, have all been in constant demand. However, war books have failed to rent well except for a few outstanding titles such as Ernie Pyle's *Brave Men* and Bill Mauldin's *Up Front*. However, most of the reports from journalists on distant fronts do not arouse appreciable interest. Recent books on popular psychiatry are widely read. All studies of Freud, both biographical and critical, and books by Horney, Zilboorg, and others are equally in demand. Biography is variable, certain titles catching the readers' attention and others seemingly as well written, being overlooked. Historical biography is followed by only a small audience. The poetry of W. H. Auden, Marianne Moore, and Karl Shapiro and books of literary criticism are constant renters. Plays popular on Broadway rent well, others do not. Art books which have sufficient text are excellent for display purposes and will rent fairly well. Virtually no technical books except photography guides are purchased. Scientific works are seldom requested.

Supply of Books

At present approximately 2500 books are in use in this room, about half of which are nonfiction. During the winter months about 150 new volumes are added each month, though considerably fewer are bought during the summer when publishing is not so active. The demand for the rental service has grown steadily since its beginning except for a slight decline in the war years. Members of the faculty and students now rely upon this collection for study as well as for leisure-time reading.

The financial success of the service has been outstanding. For the past three years the income from the rental and sale of books has paid for all books and all salaries. The department has cost the university only a few hundred dollars a year for supplies. It is possible that in the future all expenses may be covered. Lending service has in no way interfered or competed with the work done in the other university libraries. Their work goes on just as in the past, but the rental service has made it possible for any campus reader to consult the latest books on their immediate release. The Lending Service Library is more than a unique idea; it is the practical answer to the university librarian's problem of meeting popular demand with supply.

*JULY, 1946*
Buildings and Architecture

Air Conditioning

Dehumidification equipment employing triethylene glycol \((\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}_2)\_2\) as the dehumidifying agent, was announced jointly by Research Corporation, New York, and the Rogers Diesel & Aircraft Corporation, New York, at a meeting held Dec. 17, 1945. The system was developed by the former company, a nonprofit organization, which has licensed Rogers Diesel & Aircraft Corporation commercially to exploit the apparatus developed to carry out the cycle. The system which has been named the Rogers-Research system of air conditioning, has, in addition to the dehumidifying function, a second feature—that of sterilizing the air. This results from the introduction into the air stream of minute portions of triethylene glycol which has important antiseptic properties. It is applicable to industrial and comfort air conditioning.

The description of this system is contained in an article, “Dehumidifying and Air Sterilization with Triethylene Glycol,” appearing in the January 1946 issue of Heating and Ventilating, p. 78-80. Librarians should find this article helpful.

Notes on Partition Costs

IN ORDER to secure the kind of internal flexibility that librarians consider necessary to permit them to adapt their libraries to changing needs, much attention has been focused on movable prefabricated panel partitions. Such partitions made of steel, glass, asbestos, and other materials have long been on the market and have been manufactured by more than a dozen large reliable manufacturers.

The question of the costs of these partitions as compared with the standard hollow tile and plaster partition is one to which librarians are seeking an answer.

In order to make a fair comparison between these two types of partitions, it is necessary to take into consideration the following factors: the original cost of installation, the comparative costs of moving and changing, acoustical qualities, appearance, maintenance, and accessibility to building services such as electrical and communication outlets.

Mr. Long, superintendent of the Bell Telephone Laboratories, made the statement to a group of librarians and architects last spring that the original cost of the steel partitions used in the Bell Laboratories was higher than tile and plaster partitions, but that if a partition were moved only once, the steel partition would pay for itself. Furthermore, he said that the partitions used there could be altered without any interference with the work of the area concerned, which in his judgment was an important factor that could not be measured in terms of dollars and cents.

Another bit of evidence on this question can be found in a chart in Sweet's File—Architectural 1945 in the Hauserman catalog, p. 8. This is found in section 19-A. This chart also compares types of partitions in terms of erection time in days and tear-down time in days.

The essential fact shown in this chart is that the “master walls” made of steel or glass are approximately 40 per cent more expensive than tile and plaster partitions as a first cost but that at the end of ten years’ time, in terms of maintenance alone, the costs are equalized. If the partitions are moved once, the master walls are 30 per cent less expensive than tile and plaster. If they are moved twice, they are 60 per cent less expensive, and if they are moved three times, they are approximately 90 per cent less expensive.

These figures are, of course, those of one manufacturer and should be interpreted as such. Even so, they provide an interesting analysis of partition costs.
Fluorescent Light and Eye Trouble

The Pencil Points, Progressive Architecture, for September 1945, page 98, carries a brief statement refuting the rumors that fluorescent lights are harmful to eyes. The basis for the statement lies in the work of Dr. Matthew Luckiesh and Mr. A. H. Taylor, light scientists from General Electric's lighting research laboratory.

The statement, which is merely a summary of a report published elsewhere, discusses the problem in terms of the effects of ultra violet, infrared, and visible radiant energy.

Every librarian concerned with the lighting problem should read this statement and draw his own conclusions. The essence of the report is, "If fluorescent light itself is bad for your eyes, so are incandescent, electric, gas, and candle light—and even natural sky light."

Mold Preventive for Bookbindings

In warm climates following a protracted rainy spell, it is not uncommon to find one's bookbindings supporting a heavy growth of mold, which if unchecked will disfigure the books. Mere dusting removes the superficial growth without disturbing the mold actually growing in the paste of the bindings.

Several years ago, following a wet season, the Duke Hospital Library had an epidemic of mold in two stacks of bound journals which stood near an underground ventilator drawing air from an open areaway. The author was called upon for suggestions to remedy the situation. The vent was closed and the following solution was wiped over the molded bindings:

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<th>Ingredient</th>
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<td>Thymol crystals</td>
<td>10 grams</td>
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<td>Mercuric bichloride</td>
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<td>Ether</td>
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<td>Benzene</td>
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The treated volumes have never shown any tendency to mold since and any other outbreaks of mold have been similarly and effectively treated. The solution is poisonous and inflammable and should be used carefully in an open room or outdoors with no source of fire near by. It is best applied with a cotton sponge tied to a suitable applicator or held by forceps, so that none of it gets upon the fingers. The solution penetrates the bindings readily and dries rapidly, leaving no precipitate. One application is usually sufficient and the books may be returned at once to their places. It is wise to test first one corner of the binding before using the solution to discover whether the dye may run or change in any way. In our experience it has not altered the appearance of the goods nor affected the letter stampings.

The solution may, as well, be safely used on record album backs, leather boxes, and luggage, but it should never be used on any wearing apparel.

DUNCAN C. HETHERINGTON
Department of Anatomy,
Duke University School of Medicine,
Durham, N.C.

Otto Kinkeldey, librarian and musicologist, has retired from his posts at Cornell University. Happily, the news comes simultaneously that he will continue his teaching in other universities. And so there closes only a part of the career of one of the figures of whom the world of learning in America can be most proud.

Born in New York on Nov. 27, 1878, Dr. Kinkeldey studied at the College of the City of New York (A.B., 1898), New York University (A.M., 1900), and at Columbia with Edward MacDowell. From 1902 until the outbreak of the First World War he was in Germany, first as a student in the University of Berlin (Ph.D., 1909) and later as professor of musicology at the University of Breslau—an appointment of remarkable and probably unexampled honor for an Ausländer in his early thirties.

On his return to this country, Dr. Kinkeldey became chief of the Music Division of the New York Public Library, a post he held until 1930, except for two absences: in 1917-19 as captain of infantry in the United States Army and in 1923-27 as professor of music at Cornell. In 1930 he was recalled to Cornell as university librarian and professor of musicology. This was the first appointment to a chair in this subject in the United States.

To those who think of him principally as the librarian of a great university, Dr. Kinkeldey’s contribution to musical scholarship may to some extent be unknown. He studied in Berlin at a time of great activity in historical and scientific studies in music and in the company of a brilliant generation of German scholars. In that company, even though a foreigner, he won an immediate place with his dissertation Orgel und Klavier in der Musik des 16. Jahrhunderts, which, published in fuller form in 1910, established and maintained for him an international reputation. It opened up a new area of music history and is still the standard work on its subject. Like all his later writings, it is characterized by meticulous scholarship and artistic sensibility and is grounded in broad learning.

Dr. Kinkeldey’s career spans the period of the origin and growth of research work in music in this country and its gradual admission to the realm of scholarship. With Oscar Sonneck and one or two others, he was a leader and a personification of this development. Uniting in himself the best elements of the culture of America and of Europe, he was able to give the European tradition of musical scholarship a native place in our intellectual life. This achievement is due not only to his profound musical learning but also, and perhaps the more, to his very remarkable knowledge of other fields.

Dr. Kinkeldey’s professional life has given fruitful expression to his two great interests, music and books. His first achievement in this country was the development of the music collection of the New York Public Library to one of international importance, with a place in this country second only to that of the Library of Congress. In search of materials he went twice to Europe, in 1921-22 and again in 1928 for the sale of the great Wolffheim collection in Berlin, at which he was acknowledged by Europeans to be the most careful and discriminating buyer.
It was eminently fitting that the first university professorship in musicology in the United States was offered to Otto Kinkeldey. It was in his Cornell seminar and in his summer classes at Harvard that he brought the wealth of his learning to a generation of young American scholars, inspiring them with the knowledge he imparted and furnishing them with a model for the furthering of historical scholarship in music throughout the country. Fortunately this work will go on in lectures and classes at Michigan and Harvard in the coming academic year.

In professional matters Dr. Kinkeldey has been active in fields of his own choosing. He was a prime mover in the establishment of two organizations and the first president of both—the Music Library Association (1931) and the American Musicological Society (1934). He has been assiduous in attendance at the meetings of the Association of Research Libraries and the Conference of Eastern College Librarians and is an active member of the Bibliographical Society of America. He has frequently served the American Council of Learned Societies as a member of its Committee on Musicology.

If one seeks the man in his style, Dr. Kinkeldey’s writings will be rewarding. He is master of an English prose of precision, flexibility, and color. His thought is both precise and expansive, his exposition fluent, his metaphors and allusions of illuminating appropriateness. It may be a paper on American higher music education (proceedings of the Music Teachers National Association, 1934), an article on Schubert’s dances (Musical Quarterly, 1928), a paragraph on the new wing of the Cornell library (his Report for 1937-38), a chapter on palm-leaf books (William Warner Bishop memorial volume, 1941), or his definition of musicology (International Cyclopedia of Music and Musicians, 1939)—in all of them the learning is profound, the thought clear, the expression memorable.

In the plane in which scholars and librarians move, the circle of fame has a narrow radius. Otto Kinkeldey is the kind of man who does not seek to extend the length of his. He does not write in order to get into print. He does not speak in order to command an audience. Established in his mind, with the unawareness of self that excludes both pride and undignified modesty, he has been spared the pains of proving his worth to others. It is secure.—Richard S. Angell.

On Sept. 1, 1946, Stephen A. McCarthy moves to Cornell University where he succeeds Dr. Otto Kinkeldey as director of the library.

Readers of College and Research Libraries were acquainted, in the June 1944 issue, with the newly created post Dr. McCarthy now relinquishes at Columbia University. As one of three assistant directors of coordinate rank, he has been in charge, under the director of libraries, of certain functions of general administration—personnel, budget preparation and control, relations with the general public, management of the library office, and management of the physical plant. During Dr. McCarthy’s period of service at Columbia the responsibilities of this post have been especially heavy. In the first place, the director of libraries was on leave in 1944-45. Added responsibilities fell on all of the assistant directors as a result; but Dr. McCarthy was the senior assistant director and in that capacity took final responsibility for decisions made on behalf of the director of libraries. In the second place, the shortage of manpower for libraries from 1944 to 1946 has been acute, as all whose battle stations were along the
home front well know. Dr. McCarthy is the one who stood in the gap, with department heads at Columbia, and did most to keep readers' and technical services unimpaired in spite of unprecedented turnover in staff.

Probably the best brief description which can be given of Dr. McCarthy's work at Columbia is to say that he made a new position. It existed merely on paper when he accepted it. It is a position for which some would have been temperamentally unsuited because it fell too far to one side of the limelight. It is a position comparable in many respects to that of the player in the backfield whose duty is to run interference for his teammates; and in one case, as in the other, those who know the game know how much the score depends upon such unselfish, dependable performance.

Dr. McCarthy is a man of strength and firm resolution. His position, if not spectacular, has nevertheless been one of responsibility, and, in filling it, he has shown uncommon administrative ability. He has un-snarled tangled problems ranging from strings tied around prospective gifts to clarifying such difficult questions as who belongs to the clientele of the Columbia University Libraries. He has worked intelligently toward improving personnel management in the libraries. He has served on important university committees. In all of these things, he has consistently put the welfare of the libraries and of the university ahead of his personal interests. In his conversations about the work of the libraries, the first person personal pronoun never obtruded itself.

He will be remembered at Columbia as a man of marked administrative power and as a colleague who enjoys and who inspires good teamwork.—C.M.W.

In appointing Benjamin E. Powell as director of libraries, Duke University brings back to the campus one of her own graduates and a former member of the library staff.

Mr. Powell was graduated from Duke in 1926. Following a year of high school teaching and two years in the circulation department of the Duke University Library, he began work for his library degree, which he received from the School of Library Service of Columbia University in 1930. Four years later he entered the Graduate Library School at Chicago, where he has completed the residence requirements for the Ph.D.

After graduation from Columbia Mr. Powell returned to Duke as chief of the reference and circulation division, a position he held from 1930 to 1937. In that year he became librarian of the University of Missouri. Possibly his most important single contribution at Missouri lay in the truly notable progress which was achieved during these seven years in the development of the library's book collections. Hardly less conspicuous was the growth of staff and staff esprit de corps under Mr. Powell's administration.

Mr. Powell has been active in the Missouri Library Association, of which he was president from 1938-39; the Association of College and Reference Libraries, of which he was secretary from 1941-44; and in the American Library Association and the Columbia, Mo., Library Club. He has been a contributor of articles to School and Society, College and Research Libraries, and the Missouri Library Association Quarterly.

Those who know Mr. Powell as a librarian only are unfortunate; he was a crack miler in his undergraduate days, and the writer of these lines can testify that, as late as 1935, he was a nasty opponent on the handball court. The editor of these notes has forbidden
mention of any of Mr. Powell's further and, in our opinion, more interesting nonprofessional activities.—J. Periam Danton.

RICHARD S. ANGELL, the new chief of the Copyright Cataloging Division of the Library of Congress, was graduated from Princeton in 1927 and studied musicology at Harvard, where he was awarded his A.M. in 1933. After study at the School of Library Service at Columbia, Mr. Angell was made cataloger of Columbia's music library and, in 1935, its librarian. In 1942 he became assistant professor in the School of Library Service. Mr. Angell has taught courses in music library administration and music bibliography in the library school and in the department of music. In 1944-45 he served as acting chief of the music division of the Reference Department of the New York Public Library.

Mr. Angell was awarded a Guggenheim fellowship in 1945 to prepare a book on music library administration, which will be published in 1947. He is a member of the Music Library Association and the American Musicological Society and has served as a member of the executive committee of the National Music Council. He was a leader in a movement to establish professional standards for music librarianship and for the adoption of a code for music cataloging.

Although Mr. Angell will continue to be interested in music bibliography, his new appointment represents a departure from music librarianship. The Copyright Cataloging Division of the Library of Congress includes four departments, of which one processes music. The division is endeavoring to increase the usefulness of its catalogs to scholars, librarians, and other interested groups; to this end, the division solicits the advice of trade and professional groups. The work of the division and the special problems of its music catalog were discussed at a recent meeting of the Music Library Association held in Washington.—Andrew K. Peters.

RAYNARD C. SWANK assumed the duties of university librarian at the University of Oregon on July 1, 1946. In this position he succeeds Matthew Hale Douglass who retired in 1942 after thirty-four years of service at the university. Dr. Swank goes to Oregon from the University of Minnesota, where he has been chief catalog librarian and assistant professor of library science.

Dr. Swank is a graduate of the College of Wooster and took his first year of library training at Western Reserve University, graduating in 1937. The next four years
were spent at the University of Colorado as junior cataloger, then as documents and serials librarian, and finally as documents librarian. In the last capacity he organized the present documents division in Colorado's new library building and devised a classification scheme, later published in *Special Libraries*, for state, county, and municipal documents.

In 1941 Dr. Swank enrolled as a fellow in the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, where he specialized in bibliography and cataloging in the university library field. He was granted the Ph.D. degree in June 1944, his dissertation being *The Organization of Library Materials for Research in English Literature*.

After a summer as bibliographer in the University of Chicago Libraries, he went to the University of Minnesota as visiting lecturer and later as assistant professor in the division of library instruction, where he taught courses in cataloging and classification. Since July 1945, while still teaching part time, he has been head of the catalog department of the University of Minnesota Library.

The selection of Robert H. Deily as head of the Department of Library Science of the University of Kentucky has been announced by President Donovan. Dr. Deily, recently discharged from the Army after almost four years of service, will assume his new duties in July. Much of Dr. Deily's Army career was spent with the Manhattan Engineering District, commonly known as the atom bomb project. He was assigned to the district as assistant to the district intelligence officer, with station at the Los Alamos Experimental Laboratory near Santa Fe, N.M. Since December he has been detailed to duty at the main production plant at Oak Ridge, Tenn.

Dr. Deily returns to the academic scene after residency on several campuses. He attended Muhlenberg College as an undergraduate and received an M.A. in English literature from Lehigh University. At Columbia University School of Library Service he received the B.S. and M.S. degrees. In 1939 he was awarded a University of Chicago fellowship and in 1941 was graduated with the Ph.D. degree from the Graduate Library School, with a major in administration.

His first positions were part-time ones at Muhlenberg College and Lehigh University, and in the Reference Division of the New York Public Library. After a year of cataloging experience and a year in the reference department at Lehigh he became librarian of Wagner College at Staten Island, N.Y. After three years there he went to the Brooklyn Public Library and secured further training by working a year in the book order department and a year as a branch librarian in that system.

At Kentucky Dr. Deily wishes to experiment with the basic first-year library school program as a part of the regular four-year undergraduate course. It is his belief that this method should help fill existing library vacancies more rapidly, provide earlier earning power, and lower the educational costs to the student.

Edward B. Stanford, recently appointed assistant university librarian and assistant professor at the University of Minnesota, now returns to librarianship from service in the armed forces overseas. A graduate of Dartmouth College, where he majored in biography and comparative literature, Dr. Stanford obtained his first professional experience in the library of his alma mater and later served on the staffs of the Detroit Public Library and the library at Williams College.
In 1934-35 Dr. Stanford served at A.L.A. Headquarters as editorial assistant on the *A.L.A. Bulletin*. Later, as senior assistant at Williams, he developed the freshman orientation program for the college and made a study of college library handbooks while preparing one for the use of local undergraduates. Also, while at Williams, Dr. Stanford obtained his M.A. degree in English literature.

In 1939 Dr. Stanford was awarded an A.L.A. fellowship grant from the Carnegie Corporation to study the effect of honors work and independent study programs on library service in liberal arts colleges, at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. The findings of this study were reported in the *Library Quarterly* in 1942. His *Library Extension under the W.P.A.: An Appraisal of an Experiment in Federal Aid* (University of Chicago Press, 1944), presents an evaluation of the techniques employed in conducting area-wide demonstrations of library service with the assistance of federal work relief funds during the years of the depression.

Early in 1943 Dr. Stanford shipped as an Army classification specialist to England, where he was in charge of the reclassification of combat casualties to "limited assignment" occupations. Later he was called to Paris to help organize the library instruction program for the E.T.O. V-E Day found Dr. Stanford teaching in the information-education officer's staff school at Shrivenham, near Oxford; and shortly thereafter he became responsible for establishing unit libraries in the redeployment camps throughout southern England.

As a result of his experience with the Army library program overseas, Dr. Stanford feels that publishers and librarians alike would learn much from a thoroughgoing study of the reading and library services provided for military personnel in World War II.

**Norman L. Kilpatrick** has recently been appointed to the staff of the State University of Iowa Libraries as associate director in charge of technical processes.

Mr. Kilpatrick came to the State University of Iowa from the Department of Agriculture Library in Washington, D.C. At the Department of Agriculture he was chief of the acquisition section and assisted the librarian to develop work standards and simplify procedures for performing the various jobs connected with order, exchange, and serial checking.

Before becoming a member of the U.S. Department of Agriculture staff, Mr. Kilpatrick was chief of the preparations division at Brown University. In this capacity he effected a reorganization of the catalog department and synchronized the work of the
technical processes to meet the needs of the library when it was reorganized on a divisional basis.

While at Brown he was granted a year's leave of absence to organize the survey of federal archives in Rhode Island and Connecticut.

Mr. Kilpatrick received his A.B. from Brown University in 1928 and, upon graduation, was appointed instructor in English and Latin at the Sofia American College in Sofia, Bulgaria. After two years of teaching and traveling abroad, he returned to Brown for graduate study and was awarded an A.M. in the field of history in 1932. In 1940 he received his B.S. in Library Service from Columbia University.

He has held several offices in the Rhode Island Library Association and served as president of that association from 1938 to 1940. He is the author of several professional articles.—Ralph E. Ellsworth.

Appointments

John VanMale, librarian of the University of South Carolina, will join the staff of the University of Denver on August 10 as librarian of the Mary Reed Library and assistant director of libraries of the university.

Kenneth R. Shaffer, executive director of the American Book Center for War Devastated Libraries, has been appointed director of the School of Library Science at Simmons College, Boston.

Albert C. Gerould, librarian of the College of the Pacific, Stockton, Calif., has been appointed assistant librarian of the United Nations in New York City.

Richard H. Logsdon, recently released from the Navy, is now chief librarian of the U.S. Office of Education in Washington. Dr. Logsdon has been head of the Library Science Department of the University of Kentucky at Lexington.

James G. Van Derpool, head of the art department of the University of Illinois, has been appointed librarian of the Avery Library of Architecture at Columbia University and has been given a seat on the faculties of architecture and library service.

Wayne S. Yenawine, until recently acting director of libraries of the University of Georgia, is now librarian of the new Air University at Maxwell Field, Ala.

Luis E. Bejarano, who has been with the training division of the United States Naval Reserve, has been appointed chief librarian of the United States Merchant Marine Academy, Kings Point, N.Y.

Andrew K. Peters, librarian of the Journalism Library of Columbia University, has been appointed university librarian of St. Lawrence University, Canton, N.Y.

Catherine Keyes Miller has been appointed music librarian of Columbia University and instructor in library service of the School of Library Service, Columbia University.

Clara T. Heck has been appointed librarian of the reference department of the Army Medical Library, Washington, D.C.

Lydia M. Gooding, acting librarian of Mount Holyoke College since 1944, has been appointed librarian of Pembroke College, Brown University, Providence.

Edward C. Heintz has been appointed assistant librarian of Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.

Mrs. Dorothy Flower Livingston, research assistant and reviser in the catalog department of the Yale University Library, has been appointed head of the department.

Stanley West, recently released from the Navy, has returned to the Columbia University Libraries as assistant law librarian.

Miriam McPherson has been appointed assistant librarian of the State Teachers College at Brockport, N.Y.

James W. Phillips, recently released from the Army, has been named reference librarian of Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.

Naomi J. Rushing is now assistant librarian of Miner Teachers College, Washington, D.C.

Marion C. Terry has been promoted to assistant librarian of the State Teachers College at Farmville, Va.

Corinne Bass, formerly on the staff of the Cossitt Library, Memphis, Tenn., has ac-
cepted the position of librarian of the school of law and instructor in law at the University of Mississippi.

Henrietta Howell has left the Descriptive Cataloging Division of the Library of Congress to become head cataloger at the University of Cincinnati.

Kent Underhill Moore, recently released from the Army, has been appointed head of the cataloging department at Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio.

Thomas F. Gardner, until recently supervising librarian in circulation of Teachers College, Columbia University, is now assistant librarian and instructor in library science at Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

Harry T. Dewey, assistant reference librarian of the Engineering Societies Library, New York City, has been appointed chief cataloger at John Crerar Library, Chicago.

Wilmer H. Baatz has been appointed assistant librarian in charge of service and instructor in library science at Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.

Helen Northup has been named associate reference librarian and bibliographer of the University of Wisconsin.

R. Webb Noyes has been appointed librarian of Northland College, Ashland, Wis. He was formerly librarian of the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University.

Thomas S. Harding, recently released from the Navy, is the new librarian of Missouri Valley College, Marshall.

Helen Baird, former instructor in library science at Our Lady of the Lake College, San Antonio, has been appointed assistant librarian of the Abbey Library of St. Benedict's College, Atchison, Kan.

A. S. Gaylord, Jr., is now librarian of the Texas Technological College at Lubbock.

Martin Schmitt, recently released from the Army, is now associate librarian of the University of Idaho.

Mary Elizabeth Bradfield, ex-Navy, is now librarian of the Bancroft Library of the University of California at Berkeley.

Eva Louise Olson, recently released from the WAC, has been appointed librarian of the Biology Library, University of California at Berkeley.

Pauline Calendine, former documents librarian at the State Library of Washington, Olympia, is now documents and periodicals librarian at Reid College, Portland, Ore.

Allan R. Laursen, acting librarian of Knox College, Galesburg, Ill., has been appointed librarian of Pacific University, Forest Grove, Ore.

John S. Mehler, ex-Army, has been appointed librarian of the University of Alaska at Fairbanks.

Retirements

Mrs. John A. Goodwin, the former Fanny A. Coldren, reference librarian on the Los Angeles campus of the University of California, has retired after twenty-three years with the university library.

Mary Torrance, head of the catalog department and assistant librarian of the Emory University Library, Emory, Ga., has retired after twenty-two years of service with the university.

It is the policy of College and Research Libraries to print personnel items in the college, university, and research library field that are of general interest. The major source of supply for such items are the reporters of "News from the Field." As the staff of reporters does not remain constant, we frequently fail to receive news from important areas. The Personnel Editor earnestly solicits information on appointments, retirements, and deaths from administrators and staff members of colleges and universities, deans of library schools, and interested members of the association. Address contributions to the Office of the Editor, Columbia University Libraries, New York City 27.

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The four thousand-volume private library of important Americana which the late David Wheeler Hazen spent nearly forty years acquiring has been donated to the University of Portland Library by his widow. Included in the collection are approximately five hundred volumes about Abraham Lincoln. The library has received two additional gifts during the year, one of $3000 for a purpose to be announced and another of $1300 from Edgar J. Daly, of Portland, to establish a library building fund.

The New York State Library recently received a copy of the rare Hudson edition of Washington's Farewell Address from Mrs. Mable Hunt, of Indian Lake, N.Y., who was prompted to make the gift by the newspaper story of the Washington-Lincoln exhibit in the rotunda of the state education building. The volume, which is in its original binding, was printed in Hudson by A. Stoddard in 1797. It has been added to the exhibit, which includes Washington's original manuscript of the Farewell Address.

The memorial book fund was initiated at the Oregon State College Library in 1944-45 with a gift of $100 from D. W. Porter, of Palo Alto, for books in memory of his son. A group of alumni raised $160 through the Friends of the Library of Oregon State College in honor of R. J. Nichols, librarian from 1902 to 1908, and other additions brought the total fund to $750 by April 1946. A special bookplate gives the name of the donor and the person commemorated, with an additional gold star for the military personnel who have died in service.

The library of Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa, has received most of the private library of a former president, John L. Hillman. It is of special value to a Methodist institution. A gift of five hundred dollars from the Methodist Board of Education and another of the same denomination from an anonymous friend were also received during the year.

A few years ago, H. J. Thornton, a member of the history faculty of the State University of Iowa, began collecting correspondence, programs, journals, and other material on the Chautauqua movement in the Middle West. More than a dozen theses dealing with local Chautauquas in Iowa and neighboring states have since been written by graduate students using this material. Various persons connected with the Chautauqua movement have offered to hand over their materials if a proper place could be found for their safekeeping. With the cooperation of Ralph Eugene Ellsworth, director of libraries, arrangements have been made whereby the material will be housed in the State University of Iowa Library. Among the collections are those of the late Keith Vawter, director of the Vawter Redpath Bureau of Cedar Rapids; of Harry Harrison whose material from the Redpath Bureau of Chicago filled three hundred packing cases; and the small remaining part of Charles Horner's collection from the Redpath Bureau of Kansas City. Some material has also been received from the International Lyceum Association of Chicago. The library of the State University of Iowa thus becomes headquarters for material on the Chautauqua movement in the Middle West.

Many autographed letters of Theodore Dreiser and first editions of his works have been added to the University of Pennsylvania Library. This is now the most important collection of Dreiseriana in existence.

At the Emory University Charter Day banquet on January 25, Sterling G. Brinkley, secretary-treasurer of the Class of 1907, presented a check for $150 to the university librarian. Since 1938 the members of this class have made a yearly donation to the library. This gift brings their total contribution to more than $3000, and 481 volumes now bear the special 1907 gift plate.

The senior medical class at the University of Utah raised approximately seven thousand dollars during 1945-46 for the university library. The library also received five thousand...
dollars for a collection of books to be named in honor of Milton Bennion, dean emeritus of education, and Esther Nelson, librarian emeritus.

Recent gifts to the Library of the Florida State College for Women include 1200 volumes in the fields of history, philosophy, and science from Mrs. H. E. Bierly in memory of her husband who was formerly a professor at the college; a collection of 24 volumes presented by the family of the late Mr. and Mrs. T. E. Byrd of Tallahassee, including works of Washington and Franklin, a *Biographical Souvenir of Georgia and Florida*, and the 1785 Harrison edition of Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language*; and a collection of authoritative works on Jewish history and religion from the Jewish Chautauqua Society of Cincinnati.

Davidson College Library is building up through gifts a considerable collection of Peter Stewart Ney (d. 1846) manuscripts and relics. Regardless of the identity of this mysterious Frenchman in North Carolina (believed by many to have been Napoleon's Marshal Ney in hiding), he is of interest to Davidson College because he designed the official seal of the college.

Salem College Library has received a gift in memory of Mary Duncan McAnally, associate librarian, who was given leave of absence in 1943 to serve as an Army librarian and who died while serving in this capacity on the island of Oahu in July 1945. Miss McAnally had been interested in expanding the microfilm equipment of the library. The gift includes, in addition to a portrait of Miss McAnally, a Recordak reader and a substantial fund for use in the acquisition of microfilm and other needed equipment.

The Library of the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina has recently received one hundred dollars to purchase books on China in memory of Constance Lam of the Class of 1933. During the war Miss Lam became director of a camp of two thousand refugee Chinese girls, in addition to teaching classes of children and supervising handwork classes for adults. Later when the city of Hongkong fell to the Japanese, she was permitted to devise whatever relief was possible for the internees. This gift will serve as a memorial to the outstanding work and leadership of Miss Lam and will be a permanent memorial to China's culture of which she was so proud.

The Templana Room was opened in the Sullivan Memorial Library at Temple University on February 12. The Conwellana and Templana collections, which are the printed sources for the history of Temple University and the biography of its founder, Russell H. Conwell, are housed in the room. All friends of the university are urged to contribute any material they may possess to make the collections as complete as possible.

A reading and humanities room was opened at the beginning of the spring quarter at Oregon State College Library in space which had been used for storage during the period of decreased enrolment. One of the most accessible and attractive rooms in the building, it contains a selected browsing collection on low shelves, with the balance of the space occupied by the books classified as literature. Seating capacity is provided for seventy-five readers.

At the Ursinus College Library a well-furnished, soundproof room to be used as a combination music and treasure room has been opened. A collection of phonograph records of classical music, donated by Henry Charlton Beck, Jr., and Sarah Hatton Beck in memory of their father, and the William A. Grubb collection, a gift of books in especially fine bindings which came to the library several years ago, are housed in the room. Miss Beck's large personal collection of records has also been placed in the room. Additional gifts will be made from time to time by Miss Beck and her brother, and it is expected that other gifts, particularly from interested students, will follow.

The first issue of *Publications* for the *Newsletter* of the Junior College Libraries Section of the Association of College and Reference Libraries, American Library Association, to be published under the recently appointed newsletter committee, appeared in March. The *Newsletter*, which goes to all members of the Junior College Libraries Section, is edited by Mrs. Eloise Lindstrom, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo. Contribu-
tions of news items on activities, publications, exhibits, building plans, etc., are welcomed.

The Library of the Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, is again publishing its informative and interesting bulletin, *Calling All Readers*. The bulletin contains material on various services and facilities of the library, short reviews of new books, and miscellaneous data.

"Dissertations, Theses and Papers of the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1930-1945; A Bibliography," compiled by Dorothy Charles, is a presentation of the research work which has been produced during a fifteen-year-period at the Chicago school. The 132 titles represent investigations in which practicing librarians and teachers may find considerable use. The Graduate Library School is willing to loan any title on proper application; if a microfilm copy is desired the school will obtain the requisite permission of the author.

Among theses completed at the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, during 1945 which are of interest to college librarians are the following: Thelma Andrews, "Trends in College Library Buildings;" Minnie R. Bowles, "Library Activities for the Stimulation of Reading among College Students;" Celia Hauck, "A Study of Low-Cost Books;" Sister Mary Rose Warburton, "The Attitude of the Educator towards the College Library."

The *North Texas Regional Union List of Serials, Supplement, January 15, 1945-February 15, 1946*, is a mimeographed 133-page volume intended to bring up to date the original list (1943) and the first supplement (1945). The present volume gives evidence of the efforts that are being made to fill the gaps in the files held in the region. Arthur M. Sampley, North Texas State Teachers College, Benton, is editor.

Two recent studies of importance to librarians and educators are the *Mississippi Study of Higher Education, 1945* by Joseph E. Gibson, director, and others, and *Public Higher Education in South Carolina, A Survey Report* (1946), made by the Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers.

The American Russian Institute, 58 Park Ave, New York City, has issued in mimeographed form the *Special Libraries Conference on Russian Materials, November 17, 1945*. The conference is the first coordinated attempt of special libraries handling Russian materials to pool their experiences, with the eventual aim of enlarging the resources on the subject. Copies of the report are available from the institute at $2.50 per copy.

*Jewish Social Studies* has issued a special supplement, vol. 8, no. 1, 1946, entitled *Tentative List of Jewish Cultural Treasures in Axis-Occupied Countries*. The list includes only movable treasures, such as books, documents, or museum pieces.

A publication of interest to college and reference librarians is *Research in Public Administration* by William Anderson and John M. Gaus (Public Administration Service, 1945). The volume considers such aspects as major research projects, capturing and recording administrative experiences, case reports in public administration, general planning and promotion of research, and other matters connected with the Committee on Public Administration. Essentially, the book is a report of this committee to the Social Science Research Council. Insofar as the work of the council is made up of the work of its committee, it is also a report of the council.

The second edition of the Philadelphia Regional Catalogers' Group *Directory of Catalogers of the Philadelphia Area* has been announced. Copies are obtainable for 30 cents from the secretary, Mary A. Crozer, University of Pennsylvania Library, Philadelphia 4.

Certain publications of the Royal Bank of Canada are available for free distribution to libraries and individuals who wish to complete their files. All copies not requested will be destroyed and the publications will then be out of print. Inquiries and requests should be addressed to Mildred I. Turnbull, librarian, Royal Bank of Canada, Montreal 1, P.Q.

The Feb. 1, 1946, issue of *Higher Education* contains an article by Robert R. Hudelson on the "University of Illinois Future Programs," while the February 15 issue includes "Development of the United States Office of Education" by John W. Studebaker.

The U.S. Office of Education has published its annual report for the year ending June 30, 1945. In the section devoted to higher education the report refers to the emphases on research, curriculum construction, and...


Document librarians will be interested in knowing of *Documents Office Classification,* a compilation of the classification numbers used in the Office of the Superintendent of Documents, by Mary Elizabeth Poole, reference and document librarian of North Carolina State College. It is available at $10.40 in a loose-leaf, lithoprinted edition (notebook not included) and includes Superintendent of Documents’ numbers through August 1945, arranged in shelflist order. The information given in each case is the entire number, the name of the class or particular series, frequency (if regular and known), format (if processed), and references to earlier and later classifications. No dates are given for individual publications, but, where obtainable, the dates and statutory authority are given for the origin and termination of agencies. In the index, bureaus are listed under their own name and under the name of their department.

The Library of Congress in collaboration with two publishers is sponsoring a series, *European Imprints for the War Years Received in the Library of Congress and Other Federal Libraries,* which is intended to provide a checklist of wartime titles both as a finding list for use in research and as a tool for ordering work in libraries. The first part of the series, *Italian Imprints, 1940-1945,* has been published by G. E. Stechert, New York City. It lists approximately 7,500 titles, principally monographic, now available in the federal libraries. The second volume, *German Imprints, 1940-1945,* published by J. W. Edwards, Ann Arbor, Mich., lists approximately 13,000 principally monographic titles, all now held in Washington libraries. A third volume, listing French imprints, 1940-1945, will also be published.

*The Final Report of the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Legislative Methods, Practices, Procedures and Expenditures* (1946) contains extensive references to library services. The report is of special interest to librarians in that it sets a new standard in legislative research.

University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Mich., released the first one hundred thousand pages of its new series in June. The first series was commenced in 1941 to make available on microfilm all known, extant, and available periodicals published in the United States between 1741 and 1799. The new series continues the project through the years 1800-25, the first one hundred thousand pages covering 1800 to 1809. Libraries may purchase any or all of the following periods: 1800-09, 1810-19, 1820-25. It is expected that it will take five years to complete the entire project, but film will be distributed as each title is completed. About one hundred thousand pages will be completed each year at an annual cost of $450. A catalog locating each title on each one hundred-foot reel and catalog cards will accompany the set. The film series are designed to meet the needs of the scholar and research worker and make it possible for the first time for any library to acquire important early source materials at a lower cost per page than is paid for many current publications.

During the war the Aslib Microfilm Service made available microfilm and paper enlargements of scientific and technical periodicals from enemy and enemy-occupied countries which would not otherwise have been generally accessible to research workers. The end of the war reduced the demand for this special function but made apparent the need for rehabilitation of medical libraries. By arrangement with the Royal Society of Medicine, and with the consent of the Rockefeller Foundation and the Royal Society, it has been agreed that the equipment hitherto used by Aslib should be transferred to the
use of a special medical microfilm service, and on January 1 the Aslib Microfilm Service became the Central Medical Library Bureau of the Royal Society of Medicine. Aslib will still be able to arrange for the supply of photographic copies of certain types of literature. The A.M.S. library of master-films of scientific and technical periodicals contains some fourteen thousand issues of several hundred titles published during the war years of which a cumulative list is available. To save time and labor, not less than whole issues of the journals in the cumulative list will be supplied in microfilm in the future; orders for individual papers will be executed in paper enlargements. All orders, including requests for copies of individual references from varied literature, should be addressed to Aslib, 52 Bloomsbury St., London WC1.

A gift of $200,000 toward the new library building at Bucknell University was announced at the midwinter commencement held March 4. The name of the donor was not made public. This gift and previously announced contributions of $175,000 bring the university's library fund to $375,000. The new building will cost approximately $500,000.

Mrs. J. H. Crosland, librarian of the Georgia School of Technology, has completed preliminary plans for a new library building to be a central wing of a large administration and academic building. The library wing, to cost approximately $800,000, will greatly increase the service areas for students and faculty and will provide open shelves and bookstacks for five hundred thousand volumes.

The Abbey Library, St. Benedict's College, Atchison, Kan., has ordered additional steel stacks to shelve fifteen thousand volumes and is making plans for a new library building which will cost about $300,000.

Western Union College Library, Le Mars, Iowa, is making a drive for $125,000 for a new library building. The present collection of fifteen thousand volumes is being augmented rapidly by purchase and gift.

A contract has been let for the building of a fourth tier of stacks, to house twenty-five thousand volumes, for the library at Luther College, Decorah, Iowa. The collection, which consisted of twenty-five thousand volumes when the present building was erected in 1920, has now reached a total of eighty thousand.

New York University School of Law has announced a proposed new building for construction at Washington Square. Preliminary subscriptions have reached nearly $46,000, over 70 per cent paid in.

New York University has announced plans for construction of a $15,000,000 medical center, adjoining the area of the present Bellevue Hospital, the latter to be rebuilt by the City of New York at a cost of $12,500,000. The combined project will occupy nine city blocks. The university area will include a new college of medicine building, a university clinic, a university hospital, a hall of residence for medical students, an auditorium, and an institute of forensic medicine. At the opening campaign dinner, advance contributions of $122,000 were reported, and an additional $615,000 has been raised toward the $750,000 goal for the hall of residence.

Michigan State College Library offers a half-time assistantship for the academic year 1946-47 to an experienced librarian with a full year of library training who will work for a master's degree. The stipend, fixed by the college for half-time assistantships, is $800 for twenty hours of work a week for ten months. The candidate may choose his own field in which to work for the M.S., M.A., M.Music, M.Forestry, or a professional degree in engineering. A curriculum is available for county and rural librarians in rural sociology. A transcript of credits and record of experience should be sent with letters of application to Jackson E. Towne, librarian, Michigan State College, East Lansing.

The organization and functions of the American Book Center for War Devastated Libraries were briefly described in the April issue of College and Research Libraries. A further announcement from the center makes clear their present needs. It is probable that much of the material sent abroad will go to national, university, and college
libraries. Scholarly works useful in research and for rehabilitation of war-ravaged areas are wanted. Emphasis is placed on books and periodicals of a scientific and technical nature or which are standard in their fields, and particularly those published in the last ten years. Light fiction, material of purely local interest, most textbooks, and popular magazines are not needed. Federal, state, and local documents dealing with such subjects as municipal planning, public health, medicine, etc., will be very useful abroad, but it is suggested that a description of the documents available should be sent to the office before the documents are shipped. All shipments should be sent prepaid to the American Book Center, c/o the Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C. The center hopes that donors will assume the costs of transportation but when this is not possible reimbursement will be made upon notification of the amount due.

The University of California Library at Los Angeles opened an exhibition of typography, books, and printing by Grant Dahlstrom on Mar. 25, 1946. Since 1943 Mr. Dahlstrom has owned the Castle Press at Pasadena.

An exhibition of unusual importance at the University of Pennsylvania Library is a collection of Nazi schoolbooks from a village in the Black Forest and typical of the party's educational methods. It clearly shows the many devices used to influence the young German mind.

An exhibition of water colors by Stanley Corneal was put on display in the Templana Room at Temple University when the room was opened on February 15.

The Library of the University of North Carolina has had on display a large and colorful exhibit drawn from the Bowman Gray Collection of World War I materials. This very extensive collection of books, pamphlets, posters, maps, photographs, documents, and periodicals, some of them unique, offers to historians a remarkably complete source for studying the various ways of influencing public opinion employed by both the Allied and the Central powers in the years from 1914 to 1920.

The fourth National J. and E. R. Pennell Exhibition of Prints, which was opened at the Library of Congress on May 1, included engravings, etchings, wood engravings, block prints, lithographs, and serigraphs of 296 artists. Thirty purchase prizes were awarded by the Standing Committee for the Purchase of Prints on the Pennell Fund.

During April and May an exhibition of a collection of first editions of James Fenimore Cooper, a gift of Leonard Kebler, was held in the Columbia University Library.

A library institute, sponsored by Western Reserve University School of Library Science and the Ohio State Library, will be held at Western Reserve University, Cleveland, from July 8 through July 20. Carl Vitz, librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library, will open the institute with an address on "The Public Library of Today and Tomorrow." Both children's library service and adult library activities will be emphasized with sessions devoted to children's literature and basic principles in its selection, the library as a central information office for the community, new developments in library-community activity, and trends in adult book publication in 1945-46. The program for three afternoons will include a practical library clinic. The fee for the course is $10. Registration will be held July 6 and July 8 in the School of Library Science, Thwing Hall, 1111 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland.

The Rock River Community College, an evening school of the liberal arts, was opened as a community service by Beloit College, Beloit, Wis., in March. Classes in literature, government, art, dramatics, music, and other subjects met weekly from March 4 to May 9. Courses were planned to interest men and women regardless of their previous formal education and credit was not offered, classes being open to all upon payment of a small fee.

The "New Plan of Study for the Bachelor of Arts Degree at Princeton" is described by E. Harris Harbison in the March 1 issue of Higher Education. The necessity for both general and special education, the relationship of the two, and Princeton's plan for a four-year progression from general to specialized study with requirements to meet these needs are discussed.

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The second short training course in the preservation and administration of archives for custodians of public, institutional, and business archives, was offered by the American University in Washington, D.C., with the cooperation of the National Archives and the Maryland Hall of Records from June 17 through July 6, 1946. The program provided lectures on the most important phases of archival administration and practical work in such fields as arrangement and description of archives, repair and preservation, cataloging, calendaring, and photoduplication.

The State Teachers Colleges of Pennsylvania at Millersville and Kutztown are sponsoring jointly an annual school library conference for eastern Pennsylvania. This year it was held at Kutztown on April 5 and 6. In 1947 the conference will be held at Millersville on March 7 and 8.

The World Congress on Air-Age Education will be held August 21-28 at International House, in New York City, for the purpose of considering how aviation may contribute to a peaceful and united world.

At the final convocation of the sesquicentennial celebration of the University of North Carolina on Apr. 13, 1946, the Library of Congress was represented by Lewis Hanke, the American Library Association by Charles M. Adams, the Bibliographical Society of America by Charles E. Rush, the Association of College and Reference Libraries by Olan V. Cook, the Huntington Library by W. Dougald MacMillan, the state library commission by H. Marjorie Beal, and the North Carolina Library Association by Susan Grey Akers. On this occasion a doctor of letters was awarded to Joseph Quincy Adams, director of the Folger Shakespeare Library.

The Bull's Head Bookshop, in the University of North Carolina Library, makes a custom of presenting a local author at a tea each month. Those who have spoken at the teas this year are Betty Smith, author of A Tree Grows in Brooklyn, James Street, of The Gauntlet, and Noel Houston, of The Great Promise. The final speaker this season was Thomas Tileston Waterman, whose Mansions of Virginia was published by the University of North Carolina Press on April 27.

An undergraduate library committee has been formed at the University of Pennsylvania to meet with library officials at frequent intervals. This committee, as well as the graduate student library committee, brings up matters of importance to the student body. It is hoped that close cooperation will make possible a more effective service.
Administration As a Science and an Art


In recent years a respectable literature of library administration has been accumulating. In the earlier stages, it was largely represented by _ad hoc_, rule-of-thumb pronouncements. As library administration has come of age, of necessity it has increasingly been refined and systematized through drawing on systematic library studies and experiments. Likewise, it has built upon the worth-while findings of students of administration in other fields and students of administration in general.

The war years have produced an increased flow of such valuable general administration materials which the library administrator can only ignore at his peril, for it provides bases and breadth for the specialized studies in his own field.

One of the best of these recent works is Marshall E. Dimock's _The Executive in Action_, which is the first detailed published analysis of the day-to-day work of a top executive—a study of what one able executive did and why. The quality of the book results in large measure from the happy blending of the author's theoretical and practical backgrounds—his years as a professor of public administration at the University of Chicago, his detailed studies of the administration of both business firms and government agencies, and his establishment and administration of the Recruitment and Manning Organization of the War Shipping Administration. He is thus able effectively to combine general explanation with examples from personal experience, in his effort to show the universality of large-scale management's chief problems, whether in business or in government.

Like Urwick and some other leading authorities on administration, Dimock feels that the field has developed a sufficient number of valid generalizations based on experience to have its scientific aspects. But the human aspects of administration will always keep it also to a considerable extent an art. He is aware of the delicacy of administrative relationships in which the intuitive sense of the leader, produced by good experience and good judgment, counts for much.

Dimock differs with much recent administrative thought in urging caution in the expansion of separately organized staff functions. He feels that these should be kept to the minimum of efficiency and tied in closely with the flow of executive work, but (in general) not in the chief executive's office. Thus, the chief has maximum time for supervision of line departments. Thus, the good staff officer will feel himself a part of the stream of operations but will retain his perspective.

Public relations, planning, and personnel, as staff functions, come in for incisive comment. The first is given a wide and adequate interpretation. The author emphasizes planning as a comprehensive, continuous, and democratic process, underlining the point that major contributions to both goals and strategy often originate far down the line of command. The interrelatedness of an organization's parts and problems is presented as a demand for comprehensive and continuous planning. An interesting section discusses the role of advisory groups in the administrative process, together with suggested tactics for administrators.

Personnel comes in for detailed treatment. More leeway is urged for the chief to make free choice of his chief assistants in order to assure compatibility, a condition rated high by the author. Modification of civil service procedure is also urged for the rank and file of employees, making the personnel officer a truly advisory official and not an executive official. The author emphasizes that results are obtained largely by happy combinations of personnel rather than by systems alone.

Dimock regards the chief functions of the top executive as three in number: keeping the enterprise on an even keel ("he must constantly expect the unexpected"); delegating as much as possible; and using the rest of his time for planning. The first includes the
executive as trouble shooter and as supervisor, which he recognizes as demanding a fine balance between too strict and too loose a check, either extreme resulting in reduced efficiency. But he would check at least once daily with subordinates who report directly to him. Good supervision will not prove odious to either party, for the good executive can be said to have influence with people rather than power over them. This influence will be engendered by the executive’s having superior ability which will be recognized as such, by giving proper recognition to the contributions of others, and otherwise being fair to associates and subordinates. One of the executive’s big tasks may be that of bringing together and harmonizing conflicting viewpoints of his chief assistants, since potential friction increases with the depth of specialization of people with different backgrounds. Effective techniques of staff conference are suggested.

Central-Peripheral Relationship

The author feels that the central-peripheral relationship should be one of centralized policy decision and check with decentralized execution. Since management is the power to determine what happens to and through personalities, he opposes Burnham’s philosophy of a managerial elite. He agrees with Urwick that in a complex social order, people at all employment levels can exercise some measure of leadership. And he feels that encouragement of people on all levels to exercise some aspects of leadership promotes the interests of both the organization and its individuals. The extent and types of power delegated will, of course, vary with the personal qualities of the chief and his subordinates and with the subject involved. Lack of proper delegation, however, may indicate conceit, perfectionism, or lack of self-confidence on the part of the chief, any one of which may be fatal to his administration. In feeling that the chief “must be steeped in the detail of his organization and yet not lose sight of the grand strategy . . .,” the author may himself err somewhat. He seems to feel that the chief cannot delegate a great deal of top supervision, public relations, and planning work.

While Dimock has written a volume of the inspirational type which is a happy combination of the theoretical and the practical, it is ably supplemented by Chester I. Barnard’s The Functions of the Executive (Harvard, 1944) and Lyndall Urwick’s The Elements of Administration (Harper, 1944). The first gives a stimulating philosophical approach to administration, with emphasis on those intangibles of effective, democratic day-to-day personal relationships (the informal organization), which Dimock has acutely shown as capable of inspiring supreme achievement or institutionalizing sabotage under a placid surface of formal correctness and genuineness.

Urwick believes that there is a logical and scientific foundation for the art of administration. On the basis of his acute analysis of the conclusions of leading authorities, he is confident in stating a group of verifiable principles. Most authorities agree with this thesis; but an occasional penetrating challenge comes from the pages of the specialized journals, such as Public Management, The Personnel Journal, The Public Personnel Review, and The Public Administration Review. A good example is Herbert Simon’s “The Proverbs of Administration” (Public Administration Review 6:53-67, Winter 1946), which raises modifying questions regarding such widely accepted principles as those which hold that administrative efficiency is almost always increased in large organizations by specialization of tasks, arranging employees in a hierarchy of authority, limiting the executive’s span of control to only a few deputies, and placing workers in groups for purposes of control according to a single criterion: e.g., purpose, process, clientele, or place.

We might conclude with a word about bureaucracy, a much-maligned term but a reality throughout the worlds of private and governmental business. Joseph M. Juran devotes a small but penetrating book to this phenomenon (Bureaucracy: A Challenge to Better Management, Harper, 1944), emphasizing its strengths, weaknesses, and potentialities. Dimock’s chapter on “The Structural Groove” likewise emphasizes how the executive’s ability and tactics may determine whether he can use the bureaucracy effectively or it uses him for its purposes.

There is no royal road to success in a profession which is an art and is striving to become in part a science. But the current literature of the field holds forth promise of being an increasingly effective guide along the way.—William P. Tucker.
Surveysing the Resources of a Library


The University of North Carolina is an old college but a young university. Like most Southern institutions, it remained an academy in fact, but not in name, until the turn of the century. Like the others, it got off to a slow start, because the South moved slowly up to the Civil War. Thereafter, Southern colleges did well to survive the poverty and social upheavals which lasted nearly two generations. Forty years ago Southern universities made a poor showing in comparison with those of any other region, including the West, where colleges were in their infancy. Since then Southern universities have grown markedly. None has gone ahead quite as fast as the University of North Carolina. While not the largest, it is unquestionably the most progressive.

Despite its youthful attitude, the University of North Carolina is 150 years old. Characteristically, it chose as director of the sesquicentennial celebration not a historian but a pioneer, Louis R. Wilson. Like his own writings, Dr. Wilson's series of Sesquicentennial Publications glances backward and then takes a long look forward. The library volume in this series devotes six pages to the library's first hundred years, fifteen more to the last fifty, and over two hundred to a survey of the library's resources now. Moreover, the survey points to the future by noting gaps to be filled.

This volume portrays a young library of limited means. Fifty years ago the library comprised 22,500 volumes, but now it contains nearly half a million. This remarkable growth resulted from enterprise, not wealth. The Southern Historical Collection is the best of its kind, because of its strength in personal manuscript collections. Gifts have placed the library above par in general bibliographies and the history of the book. North Carolina's activities in drama, music, folklore, economics, and sociology have given the library better-than-average holdings in these subjects. Faculty specialization, the agreement with Duke and Tulane, and foundation grants are responsible for comparative strength in Latin American publications in literature, public administration, and other fields. In comparison with these more outstanding collections, North Carolina appears to be weak in American literature, philosophy, and all sciences except mathematics. Only

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one section would be remarkable in any library, the Southern Historical Collection.

The survey reports the university's achievements in building up library resources. While that is sufficient justification for the time and effort which went into the book, it leaves unanswered the question of how valuable a contribution to library literature this survey is. It is vulnerable to criticism in several respects. Textually, it betrays poor proofreading by an error on every second or third page. It usually fails to mention the number of volumes in a given field. A quantitative statement gives some indication of the quality of a collection, as it does about the library as a whole, since duplication is infrequent in a university library and because larger holdings serve more kinds of use. Few standard bibliographies were checked to determine how well the books cover the subject. Library resources can be described by one person or by a group. Whichever method is adopted, the survey is open to criticism for not following the other. Like the volumes describing resources at the universities of Chicago and Pennsylvania, this survey was written by many authors. The editor, Charles E. Rush, avoided the extremes of the other two. He did not rewrite his contributors' papers, like Raney, but he achieved greater uniformity than in the Pennsylvania volume.

The result gives librarians another example of how to describe, in the mass, those individualities, books and manuscripts. What else is it good for? Who uses a survey of resources? Librarians can use it as a finding-list for interlibrary loans, but they will find themselves handicapped by the lack of a title index. Scholars can use it to find out beforehand whether a trip to Chapel Hill is necessary or desirable. Like all resources surveys, it has some value as a compact, classified bibliography. Library school teachers will find it useful, along with other resource studies, in the training of university librarians. Judiciously circulated on other Southern campuses, it may arouse a desire to emulate North Carolina, as Professor Hamilton's activities have. Unquestionably, however, this book will find its principal justification on the North Carolina campus, where it will serve as a guide to the library, a stimulant to the faculty and administration, and a tract for prospective donors. Its utility elsewhere might be greater if it indicated the size of individual collections, the percentage of titles in standard bibliographies, what studies have been made from the materials (theses are noted in some instances) and what other studies could be made from them, the accidents of personality and university history which gave each collection its peculiar quality, and comparisons with other libraries.—John VanM ale.

The Future of the Research Library

Fremont Rider's The Scholar and the Future of the Research Library, which exploded like an atomic bomb in the library profession, has not only aroused a sensation among bookmen, but has also caught the imagination of the layman of the popular magazine and of the daily newspaper—an unprecedented event in the history of library literature. It dazzled its readers with the prospect of a new era of undreamed-of potentialities, an era which will enable the average college library to acquire research resources nearly as complete as those of the larger university libraries, without the attending problems of processing and housing, and with a catalog which will, literally and actually, place the resources of the library at the fingertips of the readers. This is made possible by an idea of Mr. Rider, an ingenuous idea yet so simple as to make the inventor wonder why it has been by-passed by others all these years. The idea is to reproduce, by means of microphotography, the texts of books on the blank backs of their catalog cards. Thus, when a library has bought a catalog card, it has also acquired the "book" itself; when it has filed the card in the catalog, it has allayed the fears of the librarian who has been following earlier discussions in College and Research Libraries. It is therefore reprinted here, with revisions by the authors, from The Classical Journal 41:108-12, December 1945.

1 The editors consider this paper of interest to all readers who have been following earlier discussions in College and Research Libraries. It is therefore reprinted here, with revisions by the authors, from The Classical Journal 41:108-12, December 1945.

2 In a very interesting review to appear in a forthcoming issue of Isis, Dr. W. J. Wilson indicates that the Belgian bibliographer Paul Otlet anticipated a similar idea as early as 1906.
ready "processed" and "shelved" the "book;" and when the reader has identified a title or titles in the catalog, he has also located the books he wanted to see or read.

**Vital Idea**

This is not only an interesting and exciting idea, but one of vital importance to the future of the research library. It is Mr. Rider's solution to a problem, or rather complex of problems, which grimly confronts the administrator of a research library. These problems include: the extensive research resources required by the scholar and the difficulty and high cost of their acquisition; the high cost of cataloging which has shown an unchecked tendency to increase and has become the bane of large libraries; the cost of binding which attaches even to publications received free by the library; and, finally, the problem of housing the library's collections which, in the past, have shown a tendency to double in size about every sixteen years—a prospect which must be appalling to the research librarian who contemplates his library a bare one hundred years hence. To illustrate the concrete meaning of these problems, Mr. Rider points out that, if the situation is to continue unchanged, the Yale Library will, by the year 2040, have approximately two hundred million volumes occupying over six thousand miles of shelves, a card catalog of nearly three-quarters of a million drawers occupying some eight acres of floor space, and an annual increase of twelve million volumes requiring a staff of over six thousand catalogers. Mr. Rider discusses the measures proposed or taken to meet these problems and points out the inadequacy of these measures. He then sets forth his solution, which he christens the "microcard," as one answer to all these problems. The microcard, combining the catalog entry on its face with the micro-text of the book on its back, will, at the author's estimated cost of five cents per card, make available to the research library books in a form that will require no further cataloging, classification, binding, marking, labeling, shelving, and no space whatever for housing, and will be handy for immediate use by the scholar as soon as identified in the catalog.

However, Mr. Rider's revolution does not end with the microcard. Having changed the shape of the library's books, Mr. Rider proceeds to change also the shape of the library's catalog so as to expand vastly its potentialities and increase its usefulness to the scholar. The changes affect the make-up of the individual entries as well as the constitution of the whole catalog. The individual entry will contain a briefer description than that given at present on Library of Congress cards but will include, in addition, an abstract which will "try to provide the would-be user with some clue as to the author's scholarly competence, viewpoint, and background . . . to indicate the scope, and to summarize the subject matter, of the text." And the catalog will seek to bring together for the scholar "in one single place, in one single card catalog . . . every thing that the library has on his subject," first, by the employment of "classificational subject headings" in place of the present specific subject headings—i.e., "Chemistry—Inorganic—Potassium—Ferricyanide" in place of "Fer ricyanide"—and, second, by the cataloging of individual "periodical articles, pamphlets, government documents, committee reports, society proceedings, and the like," which are of primary interest to the scholar but which are not now individually recorded in our catalog. Carried to their logical conclusion, Mr. Rider's proposals promise a veritable research paradise to the scholar. At the touch of a drawer the microcard catalog will hold out to the scholar a complete and up-to-date bibliography of his subject and the related subjects, with an account of the authors, with the contents of the works conveniently digested for him, and with the books themselves at the tips of his fingers, on the backs of the cards, ready for use at his pleasure.

The vista is very enticing, but the road which leads to it bristles with obstacles which may prove as difficult to surmount as the problems which Mr. Rider set out to solve. These obstacles are now the concern of a special Microcard Committee and need not here be considered. The intriguing features of Mr. Rider's plan, nevertheless, invite reflection.

The addition of abstracts will undoubtedly increase the potentialities of the catalog. One may doubt, however, their justification for microcards, which are to represent titles of a very limited use. The prospective returns would appear disproportionately small for the enormous investment required. And one may
feel uncertain about the merit of making the abstracts part of the catalog entries. As part of the entries the abstracts will be made to fit the size of the cards rather than fit the contents and character of the books. They will also be wasteful of the precious space which Mr. Rider endeavors to conserve, being repeated on every edition of the title and on every entry for the edition, in addition to repetitious author information on the various entries for the author. And lastly, abstracts are ordinarily read and used like books by those who wish to survey, or keep abreast with, the literature in their fields. And a drawer of cards is not an appropriate medium for such purpose.

"Classificational Subject Headings"

The proposal to use "classificational subject headings" for the microcard catalog, in order to enhance the bibliographical value of the catalog by bringing together not only the books on a given subject, but also related subjects, has since been withdrawn by Mr. Rider. One will readily realize that the effect of such subject headings would be to bring together tens of thousands of entries under the main subjects, like "Chemistry" in the above illustration, thus making the location of a given entry, or group of entries, very difficult for both the scholar and the catalog filer. These headings also present difficulties of design, application, and up-to-date maintenance. They have been tried in our libraries and abandoned, and Mr. Rider was wise to withdraw this proposal.

Analyticals
(Catalog entries for individual articles, chapters, or other parts of a larger bibliographical unit.)

Mr. Rider is also right when he points out that the scholar's research materials are more frequently found in the form of articles, essays, reports, etc., forming part of a book or title, rather than in the form of individual books, and that our catalog, neglecting to record these individual pieces, fails to provide for the interests of the scholar. To appreciate the full implication of his proposal, however, it should be observed that the recent annuals of the Agricultural Index, Art Index, and Engineering Index contain accumulations of some twenty-five thousand entries each, the Bulletin of the Public Affairs Information Service and the Education Index some thirty thousand entries each, the Industrial Arts Index some seventy-five thousand entries, and the Quarterly Cumulative Index Medicus some one hundred thousand entries—and these cover only part of the periodicals that the research library would possess under Mr. Rider's plan. This prospect moved Mr. Metcalf, of the Harvard University Library, to point out in his excellent appraisal of Mr. Rider's plan that under this proposal the Yale catalog in the year 2040 "instead of being ten times the size of the card catalog . . . might easily be forty times as large. It would then have thirty million drawers of cards which would occupy three hundred and twenty acres of floor space, or just half a square mile. If they are all stored on one level, the catalog would occupy a building some fifteen times the size of the Harvard Yard . . . and Yale, instead of having a cataloging staff of over six thousand persons, would have a filing staff of somewhat similar size." In his reply Mr. Rider states that he had never meant "that analytics, if they were made at all, would be made in any such flood as Mr. Metcalf proposes. Only a minority of volumes would . . . require analytics at all. . . ." But this qualification really brings back the microcard catalog to the condition of our present catalog. The microcard catalog, like our present catalog, will function essentially as a record of the library's books or titles. For individual articles, essays, etc., the scholar will have to rely, as heretofore, on bibliographies and indexes, and on his own ability to compile a working bibliography.

The Microcard

This brings us to the principal feature of Mr. Rider's plan, the "marriage" of the catalog entry and the micro-text of the book. The idea is full of romance, and the present reviewers are not immune to its appeal. An intimate analysis of the character of the catalog and the books themselves, however, will cast a doubt on their compatibility. To begin with, the function of the catalog is to describe and identify the books in the library's posses-
sion at all times, whether or not the desired book or books are at the moment of inquiry available for use. This information is necessary to the scholar in order to determine whether or not the library has the exact book he wants, and to the staff in acquisition, cataloging, and reference work. In the microcard catalog, whenever a "book" is withdrawn its record is withdrawn with it. Perhaps this is not serious, since the charging slip replacing the withdrawn entry may direct the reader to the other entries for the book in the catalog; and, the microcard materials being of infrequent use, it is probable that the drawers containing the other entries will not then be in use by one studying their abstracts. Nevertheless, there is an element of incompatibility which may prove irritating. Conversely, the books themselves require custodial protection which will preserve them safely and in a condition adequate for their ultimate use. The catalog scarcely provides such protection. In the microcard catalog the materials themselves will be exposed to the thumbs of the catalog users, to the fingers of the abstracts' readers, and to the elements of nature and human nature, and may be rendered unusable when they are ultimately needed. And here is another element of incompatibility of unpredictable importance.

Physical Incompatibility

Equally inauspicious is the physical incompatibility of the entries and their micro-texts. The entries of the catalog admit of a uniform physical size and have been satisfactorily reduced to 3" x 5" cards. The materials themselves do not admit of a uniform physical size. The materials issued by the La Follette Civil Liberties Committee, for example, range from three pages to more than seventy-five volumes. To make an individual microcard for the former is not to use effectively the microprint space in the catalog. To make 3" x 5" microcards for the latter is to clog the catalog with numerous text cards which will intervene between the entries and further decrease its precarious efficacy. Moreover, an entry without the micro-text on its back permits the recording of several related bibliographical units and the indication of their relationship on the same entry—for example, the several editions or issues of a title, or a title and its supplement, index, etc. In the microcard catalog this entry would be split in several entries and separated by the intervening texts, and the relationship of these entries would be obscured. In other words, given a separate catalog and a separate collection of texts, related bibliographical items can often be effectively combined on the same entry—even if their texts cannot. And vice versa, various micro-texts could be combined on one card even if their entries could not—for example, miscellaneous publications of small size. Lastly, the micro-text of the book is final in shape for the book represented; but the entry of the book is always subject to change on discovery of new bibliographical information, which, in the past, has proved to be fairly frequent. Here, the stability of the text and instability of the entry does not augur well for the wedding.

External Circumstances

Finally, external circumstances are bound to disturb the felicity of the union. Since the microcard catalog is to be limited to materials of relatively infrequent use, the library will continue to acquire most of its current publications, for its own and the readers' convenience if for no other reason, in the form of books, which it may or may not later replace with microcards having already incurred their cost of acquisition, cataloging, and processing, and perhaps also binding. The future library will thus contain some of its materials in the form of books and some in the form of microcards, with two corresponding catalogs. Since, however, the scholar does not come to a library for books or micro-texts, but for materials he needs in whatever shape the library may have them, the two catalogs will have to be integrated, functionally, if not physically, if the scholar, and also the library staff, are not to be confused or misled by them. Thus, while the materials themselves may be separated for custody and kept in the form of books and micro-texts, the catalog cannot be so divided satisfactorily if it is to remain a reliable guide to the library's research resources.

In sketching the problem of the research library, Mr. Rider has ingeniously reached into the future and produced a staggering picture of growth of the library's collections and catalog. He depicts "a veritable tidal wave of printed material," mounting higher and
higher "yearly, monthly, daily, hourly," and threatening to engulf not only the library but civilization itself. He repeats an earlier warning: "We seem to be fast coming to the day when, unless it is afforded the most expert sort of bibliographical service possible, civilization may die of suffocation, choked in its own plethora of print." This is a serious condition requiring surgical operation. But Mr. Rider is willing to content himself with a palliative. He suggests a microcard which will reduce the physical size of the mass of print. But the real threat of the "plethora of print" lies in its quantity, not in the size of its paper container, and Mr. Rider's microcard does not reduce this quantity. This condition is properly the problem of the scholar rather than the librarian, and the scholar should be urged to suggest a remedy. It is possible that the condition is due to an atavistic habit of the days when there was a scarcity of recorded facts and when every record discovered filled a vital gap in our knowledge. In these days of overabundance of print the problem is not in filling gaps but in preventing obstructive mountains. The problem of the librarian and of the scholar is not in the acquisition of all printed "records," but in the selection of representative records—i.e., records exhibiting the contents and characteristics of numerous existing variants—so that the library will be spared the task of preserving mountains of print of dubious, though possible, value, and the future scholars will be spared numberless hours of futile search in illusive "treasures."

The profession owes a profound debt to Mr. Rider for throwing a glaring light on the starkness of the research library problems and for dramatizing the great potentialities, and also the great need, of microprint and centralized cataloging in meeting the problems of space and cost. These reviewers incline to envision the future research library as containing materials in various forms—books, films, microprints, and other media which may yet be developed—each form used for the materials for which it is most suitable and kept in the special conditions required by it; specialized authoritative bibliographies prepared by scholars to guide other scholars in the literature of their fields and librarians in their task of purposeful acquisition; and a catalog which will guide the inquirer to the library's resources, in whatever form they may be available. The catalog will be cooperatively produced for the good of all libraries, and its ultimate shape is still in the lap of the future.—Herman H. Henkle and Seymour Lubetzky.

Official Publications of Latin America


The compilation of guides to the official publications of the other American republics is a project undertaken by the Library of Congress to meet an urgent need for securing adequate information about an area of publication which, while difficult of access, is, nevertheless, of vital importance to those concerned with the study of administrative, economic, social, and cultural conditions in Latin America.

The three sections published in 1945, namely, Argentina (Section I), Bolivia (Section II), and Cuba (Section VII), were prepared under the general editorship of James B. Childs and have been issued as a part of the program of the Department of State's Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation. The project is the outgrowth of preliminary and special studies made by Mr. Childs, the earliest of which appeared in 1932. The value of this early work was recognized at once by those inter-


ested in the field of official Latin American material. Many who have used the studies must have desired further breakdowns in the descriptions of governmental organizations, with a listing of as many of their publications as possible. These conditions have been met in the three guides recently issued insofar as the circumstances governing the compilation and available material permitted. From their introductory statements one senses the magnitude of the field in which the compilers have been working, and it seems natural for them to emphasize the fact that the publications in hand are intended merely as introductions to rich informational sources, upon which much work remains to be done.

The scheme of arrangement of the three sections which are the subject of this review, as well as the treatment of the material included, gives indications of criteria, which, it seems reasonable to assume, will govern the editorial policies of the entire project.

First: conditions of compilation. The collections described are based upon those of the Library of Congress, probably the most extensive in existence. In order to clear up doubtful points and to secure data which would otherwise have been inaccessible, a Library of Congress representative undertook direct investigation in the capitals of Argentina and Bolivia. The cooperation of officials of the countries concerned has given the guides, in all parts of their development, a further cachet of authority.

Second: arrangement. The general arrangement of the contents of the three parts of the series now available is by the three branches of the government—legislative, executive, and judicial—with a section preceding the whole devoted to general publications. The sections dealing with the executive departments give the ministries in alphabetical order with the subordinate agencies of each ministry grouped by their distinguishing names in the hierarchy, e.g., comisión, comité, consejo, dirección, etc. Within each group the agencies are arranged in alphabetical order with their publications listed below the respective names. A variation in the general administrative scheme appears in the case of Cuba. A group of independent establishments, learned societies, professional colleges, associations of producers, and retirement and social security funds follows the list of ministries—an indication of the extent of quasi-official participation in activities of a scientific, cultural, and economic nature which in many other Latin American countries come under the jurisdiction of specific ministries.

Third: content. The nature of the contents indicates that the guides have been prepared to fill the need for practical reference works for the agencies and individuals interested in the affairs of the Latin American republics. Primarily, they aim to inform concerning the governmental structure as it exists at the present time, with all statements supported by adequate documentation; to trace significant changes in governmental organization, particularly those reflected in the official publications; and to list the publications of each agency within the limits prescribed in the conditions of compilation. Secondarily, there has been a consistent effort to furnish adequate references to be consulted for details and discussion concerning the government and country under consideration. Care has also been taken to include statements regarding official printing and to note existing bibliographies of official publications.

In each guide, the achievement of these several objectives has resulted in a work which partakes of the dual nature of a handbook and a bibliography. The histories of government agencies are written in a form which may be studied with profit by others attempting to compose statements of this kind. The descriptive notes of serial publications are rich in beginning dates and terminal ones, where the latter exist. Although there has been no attempt made to be consistent in giving the contents of monographic series, many are listed. Under the names of agencies and institutions having to do with cultural matters there are given composite and single works by personal authors. Although they are at opposite ends of the books, the sections treating the gazettes, found under General Publications, and those dealing with legal material, under Judicial Branch, should be consulted and studied together.

The indexes included in each guide are open to criticism. Presumably, they contain the names of all agencies included in the text as well as the titles of significant publications. A sampling of personal names seems to reveal no editorial policy for their inclusion or exclusion. It is unfortunate that the excellent
cross references abounding in the text are not incorporated in the index. These criticisms are made on the hypothesis that one may be using these guides without having in hand the documents described—a situation in which one needs all the help from an index that one can get.

So far, what has been said about the contents of the work under review merely appraises its component parts as pieces of fine craftsmanship. What raises them above this level to that of distinguished compilation is the presence on every page of timely and revealing data concerning the publications described. These data are the products of painstaking research and a keen and unerring sense of what is relevant, bibliographically speaking. Such a sense is the result of a combination of permeation by a subject and assurance in the use of prescribed forms and is the factor which causes some bibliographies to be long remembered as outstanding. Perhaps the greatest contribution of the series so happily inaugurated by the three sections reviewed here is to have introduced meaning and order into a field of publication where, from the point of view of the average user in the United States, a state of confusion possibly approaching chaos has prevailed up to now.—Violet Abbott Cabeen.

Library as a Teaching Instrument


The University Library Planning Committee of the State University of Iowa has issued a brief but compact outline of its program and the principle upon which it intends to construct its new library building. As a preliminary step to any building program, the University of Iowa has set up a model of procedure from which other colleges and universities planning a new building might well benefit by first analyzing their program and aims of the institution. The physical structure will be based throughout on a modified version of the unit type of construction. This type of building will permit the library to do everything it can think of now and will also, since the interior will be flexible and adaptable, meet the needs of the university for a long time to come. Rather than a great architectural monument, the building will be a sensible workshop in which the instructor and the student can work together in the midst of the book resources of the university, assisted by the latest audio-visual aids to learning and by adequate facilities for group and individual study. The program sets up principles which attempt to place within one building all the academic activities, including much of the instruction, which may wish to utilize media of communication now available for educational purposes. It has high aims which, as they become successful, will bid fair to revolutionize our present library programs and build-
planning of many of the new libraries in colleges and universities throughout the country. Higher education in America is seeking for new solutions to the problems of curricula, instructional aims and methods, and faculty-student relations. President Virgil M. Hancher in the introduction to this pamphlet foresees the library in relation to those departments which use books and other written records for research and instruction, as laboratories are now successfully used by doctors, dentists, engineers, psychologists, artists, and musicians. The program is one of a pioneering university not as yet tied down by traditions in its buildings or in its thinking and yet one which has successfully pioneered in other fields. More and more emphasis is being placed on the instructional functions of the library in the curricula of our colleges and universities. The new building at the State University of Iowa is a step in this direction and its program should be read with care by all librarians in academic institutions and be brought to the attention of their administration. It is hoped that as the plans progress and the building materializes more detailed information will be published.—Charles M. Adams.

American Historical Societies


Mr. Dunlap, who defines a historical society as an association of individuals organized primarily to collect, preserve, and make available the materials for the history of the United States or a section of it, divides his informed and useful essay into two parts: first, a general account of the origin, diffusion, aims, activities, and struggles for existence of the sixty-five societies established in this country between 1790 and 1860; second, a particularized account of the founding and growth of each of the sixty-five societies. The latter, though it provides much convenient and useful data, was the easier and less important task. For the attempt to outline this particular segment of our cultural history as set forth in the first part is beset with all of the difficulties that face any historian who deals with cultural growth—the intangibles of motivation, influence, relationships, and institutional evolution.

Mr. Dunlap's essay is the most satisfactory account available for the early history of the societies founded before 1860, for he has grounded his work on an extensive examination of both the publications of these useful institutions and the minutes and correspondence in their archives. But the chapters forming the first part of his essay are less satisfying than the factual account of the societies in the second part. Both contain much interesting and fresh data—some of it no doubt informative even to those who now have custody of these societies—yet the accumulation of facts is not the most valuable part of cultural history. On the important question of origins and causative factors, for example, Mr. Dunlap merely points to an incipient interest in American history (it was much earlier and much more vigorous than he indicates), to the need for preserving historical sources, to the absence of research libraries, and to the requirement of establishing new agencies—hence the formation of historical societies. This obviously leaves much to be desired in answer to the question why and when these interests and needs originated. Again, the changes of emphasis or interest that sometimes pass for growth in a society, though extremely difficult to chart, are unsatisfactorily presented. Mr. Dunlap, I fear, has less respect for the early founders than I have. Their circular letters asking for source material he finds undiscriminating; to me they appear to be remarkable for their catholicity, their broad and inclusive definition of history, and their sense of contemporaneity—qualities often sadly lacking in these same societies once they have acquired age, respectability, specialization of interest, and comfortable endowments with well-trained staffs.

The early societies were founded by vigorous, enlightened, public-spirited men. Even at the end of Mr. Dunlap's period there are signs of hardening of the arteries in some of the more venerable institutions. But the clinical analysis of this ageing process as performed by Mr. Dunlap is often less flattering to youth than to age, and wisdom does not
The New Medical Classification for the Library of Congress and the Army Medical Library—
A Progress Report

At the meeting of the Army Medical Library consultants in October 1944, Mary Louise Marshall reported (in the Bulletin of the Medical Library Association 33: 180-82, 1945) the initial steps which had been taken toward producing a system of classification suitable for the Army Medical Library. Working under the auspices of a committee representing this library, the Library of Congress, and the Army Medical Library Survey Committee, and with the counsel of physicians concerned with the various specialties of medicine, she had made the preliminary studies for new alternative schedules for Medicine, Class R, and for the preclinical sciences in Class Q for the Library of Congress system.

Since that time Miss Marshall has been hard at work putting the results of this study into effect. The schedule for each subject division has been drawn up and submitted for advice and correction to medical specialists and to members of the committee on classification. As may be imagined, this has proved a long process. The first draft of the whole is finished, and the Army Medical Library has begun to classify its collection by it. In the actual application of the schedules, it is expected that alterations, additions, and subtractions will be found necessary. Consequently, until such trial has been thoroughly made, it is judged wise not to make the provisional first draft of the classification available for general distribution. The process of classifying the Army Medical Library collection should result in establishing the system in permanent form. It will then be possible to publish it as an integral part of the Library of Congress classification schedules.

It should be noted that the notation for these new schedules has been planned so that it will not conflict with the use of those in the original Library of Congress scheme for Class Q and Class R. The material from these classes has been assigned to hitherto unused portions of the alphabet, the new Q divisions occupying QS to QZ, while Medicine proper (the former R sections) utilizes the wholly vacant letter W. This will make it possible for libraries already using the present Library of Congress classification for medicine and related sciences to continue to do so or, if they prefer, to apply the new system, leaving their previous collections as they are. The Library of Congress will announce its policy with respect to use of the new schedules before they are published.

Keyes D. Metcalf, Chairman
Committee on a New Medical Classification for the Library of Congress and the Army Medical Library

always come with years to institutions any more than it does to men. Yet the value of his essay is great and he has performed a useful service to the institutions themselves and to historians of our cultural life.—Julian P. Boyd.
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