Library Trends
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Library Trends, a quarterly journal in librarianship, provides a medium for evaluative recapitulation of current thought and practice, searching for those ideas and procedures which hold the greatest potentialities for the future.

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Library Trends
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Services to Readers

LESLIE W. DUNLAP, Issue Editor

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Introduction

LESLEY W. DUNLAP

Librarianship, like a cake, can be cut in many ways. One may slice vertically and divide the field by types of libraries as was done in the issues of Library Trends on college and university, public, school, special, and governmental libraries. Or, one may cut across the subject and serve, possibly unbroken, a thin and wide slice. This was done in the issues devoted to cataloging and classification, and to personnel administration, and this is attempted here. No plea is made for the superiority of the thin and wide slice over the thick and narrow; librarianship must be explored in many directions if we are to understand its nature.

Early in the planning for this issue the writer concluded that it would not be possible to make a close examination of every square inch of the broad slice of librarianship covered by the term “public services” and that the sensible thing to do was to develop segments of the subject which promised to be of sufficient importance and interest to warrant investigation at this time. To return to our culinary metaphor, vertical cuts were now to be made in the horizontal slice, these sections were to be described in detail, and the rest was to be left untouched. In this manner, the reader would be able to taste choice morsels from every section of the cake; if he would have more, he must wait for succeeding issues.

After the issue editor had decided what aspects were to be developed, librarians recognized as experts in these areas were invited to prepare appropriate articles. Each contributor was encouraged to look forward as well as backward and to venture predictions justified by relevant facts, and most were told that the watchword for Library Trends might well be the opening lines of Lincoln’s “House Divided” speech: “If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could then better judge what to do, and how to do it.” Contributors were encouraged to provide for their specialities the salient

Mr. Dunlap is Associate Director for the Public Service Departments of the University of Illinois Library.
points with which a librarian should be familiar if he is to determine a course of action. Only the greedy could ask for more.

There is little agreement in the succeeding pages except in basic considerations such as the importance of reading. Differences in points of view between a public and a university librarian appear in the first two articles in which Miss Warren maintains that libraries should meet all the needs of all the people and Mr. McDiarmid contends that libraries would be of greater value to society if they concentrated on services which might be described as “educational” in the best sense of the term. The special requirements of children, young people, adults, and scholars are then carefully considered by Misses Nesbitt and Roos, and by Messrs. Spear and White, respectively. In each of these articles an expert practitioner presents a careful review of the trends at a particular level of service, and here will be observed differences which derive from the different demands of the group served.

After a consideration of what readers in general require and how their demands should be met, and a closer look at how the requirements of several levels of readers are satisfied, attention is focused on three pressing problems of work with the public. These are: the choice and maintenance of a suitable circulation system, which is carefully developed by Mr. Bousfield; how to measure work with readers, which is shorn of a lot of traditional nonsense by Mr. Rogers; and how to help readers to make the best use of their libraries, which is reviewed by Mr. Jackson. In the final article Mr. Brummel of the Royal Library of the Netherlands calls attention to notable developments in public services in certain countries of northern Europe.

Additional details about separate articles do not belong here, for no one wants to be told a story he is about to read; on the other hand, the specialist and casual reader might be induced to savor the entire contents if they knew that all of the articles bespeak the courage of maturity. Their authors do not bother to dissent from the assumptions of an earlier day; for the librarian who would argue about the proprieties of the reference question shouted by a milkman in Gloversville seems to have gone the way of the milkman’s horse. Book enthusiasts no longer quail to admit that reading is not necessarily more worth while than fishing or gardening, and librarians agree that a record of a book borrowed signifies nothing more than workload unless the contents of a volume are recreated in the mind of a reader. The articles which follow indicate that good library practice in 1954 obliges the library to supply a reader with several publications on a subject of interest and then leaves it to him to select the work he will read, but
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throughout the issue is found the admission, implicit and explicit, that these are idle preliminaries unless the material selected does something, presumably beneficial, to the reader.

This rich and varied fare is served with a flourish in the direction of those who did the work.
The Needs of Readers

ALTHEA WARREN

In 1344 Richard de Bury wrote in *Philobiblon*, "Whoever therefore claims to be zealous of truth, of happiness, of wisdom or knowledge, aye even of the faith, must needs become a lover of books."¹ About six hundred years later the editor of this issue of *Library Trends* in considering the needs of readers wrote: "Reading satisfies certain basic human needs—how to do particular things, and certain urges—to laugh, to be excited, and to be reverent."² Can we then accept the recent recommendations of the Public Library Inquiry that the more frivolous requirements of readers be left to commercial libraries and that service to the less educated portion of the population be passed over in order to concentrate on the educational demands for which funds are not now sufficient to supply completely? What is the responsibility of a library to the scientist or statesman who may want to read an amusing novel or a detective story?

Mortimer Adler, who in his intelligence and enthusiasms may be looked upon as a modern reincarnation of the Bishop of Durham, analyzes in a lecture called "The Parts of Life" man's five daily requirements:

1. His physical needs to be supplied by food, sleep, and bodily health.
2. His livelihood expressed by the work which earns him his living.
3. Play which brings necessary relaxation from work.
4. Leisure to exercise his mind by contact with other minds and their expressions through the ages.
5. Lastly, his need to reach out to God—which is probably what de Bury had in mind when he wrote "aye even of the faith."

All of these daily needs can be satisfied if one is a lover of books. Physical health and work certainly profit from knowledge and zeal for the truth. Happiness results from play and from leisure fed on the

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¹ Miss Warren is a Visiting Lecturer at the University of Southern California School of Library Science.
The Needs of Readers

humanities. Faith gets help from all the other four—truth, happiness, wisdom, and knowledge.

It was certainly in the expectation of helping the entire citizenry in all their daily needs that the public library was founded in the United States. In July 1852 four men who had been appointed by the mayor of Boston to study a suggestion that tax money be appropriated for public library service presented a report which J. H. Shera, Dean of the School of Library Science of Western Reserve University, calls "the first real credo of the public library . . . [which] still stands as the best single statement of the relation of the library to the social order." According to the report, the people who would profit most from a public library are the members of the arts and professions—architects, engravers, musicians, engineers, and followers of any branch of science or literature. These readers could then be supplied with information needed in their work which they could ill afford to buy for themselves. Consequently, reference collections which would be continually at hand for consultation should be the first concern of the library. But, at the urgent instigation of Professor George Ticknor of Harvard University, the revolutionary idea of duplicating popular books for circulation was included as a secondary responsibility. Accordingly, "the pleasant literature of the day" (meaning chiefly entertaining fiction) was to be made freely and readily available to Bostonians "when fresh and new, the only time when it is greatly wanted."

About one hundred years after the adoption of Ticknor's innovation, the same needs of readers were identified in reverse order at the fifty-fifth annual meeting of the California Library Association by Walter Yst, editor of the Encyclopaedia Britannica: "... people must read . . . for emotional release and for information. . . . You can't make reasonable judgments unless you have the privilege of knowing something about the things you're judging."

Between these two pronouncements a long shelf of volumes about the needs of readers has been published, and the subject has been discussed from one aspect or another at every annual meeting of the American Library Association. In these discussions librarians have been almost as eloquent on what should be withheld as on what should be provided; for, like many missionaries, the nineteenth- and early twentieth-century library trustees and administrators were strict disciplinarians. Yet Richard de Bury had warned against this attitude: "For man is naturally fond of two things, namely, freedom from control and some pleasure in his activity; for which reason no one without
reason submits himself to the control of others, or willingly engages in any tedious task."

Most of the students who have tried to determine the needs of readers within a library agree with Philobiblon that liberty and enjoyment are paramount. These in turn are dependent on a congenial atmosphere and on pleasing arrangements. What desk attendants must do to achieve this atmosphere is set forth in a pamphlet prepared by a staff committee of the Minneapolis Public Library called Patrons Are People; How to be a Model Librarian. This ubiquitous first desire of readers for harmonious setting has caused F. N. Jones of Ohio University to observe: "Anything large or small to make the inside of the library more eye-catching, more inviting, is worth doing."

The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago has worked systematically to bring the methods of business and of science to bear on the readers' problems. Members of its faculty made surveys of the Cleveland and Chicago public libraries in 1939 and 1940. These recognize that a prerequisite for effective library service is a generous and well-organized collection selected by librarians who know books and the communities to be served. In his appraisal of the Cleveland Public Library Leon Carnovsky expressed the public's desire for modernization of the central building and for more branches to provide equal service in all parts of the city. Carnovsky assisted C. B. Joeckel, then Director of the Chicago school, in the survey of the Chicago Public Library. Cards were sent to a thousand borrowers in Chicago asking for comments about their library, but only seventy-three replied. The chief shortcomings noted by the respondents were the inadequate book stock and the inaccessibility of certain branches. Joeckel's first recommendation was the familiar one of the improvement of the climate required for good service. This was to be achieved through training the staff in courtesy and through the utilization of color, space, and light as is done in modern department stores. Book collections were to be improved through the maintenance of a large and accessible "Popular Library" in addition to four departments with reference and circulating materials in the social sciences, technology, fine arts, and adult education. Joeckel also advocated the introduction of a program of training to produce a readers' advisor for every branch, and, as had been recommended in Cleveland, the enlargement of the system of branches.

A study of readers' habits and interests was made in 1948 by Field and Peacock, Associates, as part of the survey of the Los Angeles Public Library conducted by Lowell Martin, Dean of the Graduate
The Needs of Readers

School of Library Service at Rutgers University, and by Carnovsky. The survey comprised 1,600 interviews of 63 questions, 1,000 of these being from a random sample of the city. These showed that less than half of the members of the adult population in a large city in southern California read a book or part of a book during the week preceding the interview. Only 31 per cent of those interviewed had been to the public library in the preceding year, and of these 76 per cent had obtained what they wanted in their last visit. Suggestions for improvement of the library’s services included provision for parking, 14 per cent; greater quantity of nonfiction, 12 per cent; extension of hours of opening, 11 per cent (main library open daily except Sundays 10:00 A.M.-9:00 P.M.); additional staff, 4 per cent.

The most extensive and scholarly study of public library services made in the first half of the twentieth century is the Public Library Inquiry conducted by the Social Science Research Council and financed by the Carnegie Corporation. It comprises seven volumes published by the Columbia University Press and five mimeographed reports to the director of the Inquiry on finance, mass media, music, work measurements, and the users of public libraries as compared with the users of other sources of information. The last emphasizes who the readers are rather than what they want. The volume of the Inquiry most directly concerned with readers’ needs is the Library’s Public by Bernard Berelson,11 who was Dean of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago when the book was published in 1949. Here Berelson utilizes the findings regarding who uses the public library, why, when, and how which had been obtained for the Inquiry by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan. The investigation showed that about one-fourth of the books read in the typical American community come from a public library, and that the majority of the public library’s readers are the younger and better-schooled members of the community. These readers may be further divided into five large groups, the largest of which comprises students who want publications not supplied by their school or college libraries. The next group, numerically speaking, includes the housewives and white-collar workers who desire light reading. Then come the members of business and industry who seek information on any one of a multitude of specialties ranging from airplanes to X-rays, and these are followed by the ambitious young men and women who want vocational information. The smallest of the five categories is made up of serious-minded workers and culturally alert men and women who continue to read and to learn throughout their lives.
Children under fourteen number a third of the library’s users. In Number 5 of the Planning for Libraries pamphlets of the American Library Association, the school librarians have analyzed the needs of their youngsters. Children, like adults, want above all else a congenial library area with a librarian as streamlined as her surroundings. In it must be a stock of books such as Lillian H. Smith, director of children’s work in the Toronto Public Library, describes in her recent *The Unreluctant Years*. Her standards are those of Walter de la Mare, who said, “... only the rarest kind of best in anything can be good enough for the young.” Paul Hazard is more specific:

Boys and girls want books where truth and justice triumph in the end. The bandit may be a sympathetic character but the police must win out—unless we are able to invent a particularly delightful and virtuous bandit. ... They do not like self-pity or ill-fated women who never manage to get cheered up, or gloomy dramas. ...

Boys and girls demand, in no uncertain terms, to be told about modern inventions. They almost scorn people who still go about in automobiles instead of airplanes. ...

... The finest and noblest of the books intended for children tell of heroism.

Next to the children in the number of demands made on our libraries are the young people in their teens whose requirements are often met in junior and senior high school libraries. The needs of high school readers are clearly defined in two works in the same series, *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* and *The Public Library Plans for the Teen Age*. These studies agree as to the requirements of adolescents, but different methods of fulfilling them are proposed for each type of institution. More than any other age group, the “teen-ager” craves de Bury’s “freedom from control” and “some degree of pleasure and activity.” Children take these two rights for granted, and adults realize that every member of a society must accept certain controls and engage “in many a tedious task.” The “teen-ager,” on the other hand, cares for little other than his own interests and those of his group. Young people require a shining, up-to-date library and the newest books to supplement their courses of study. The school librarian must use the vocabulary of the students and give them a part in selecting books, writing reviews, conducting discussions, and planning exhibits. Visual aids are vital. The comparatively few public libraries which have “rooms for youth” find that circulating collections
The Needs of Readers

of fine music recordings are the best bait they can employ. The number of such rooms is not larger because many librarians believe that special services for “teen-agers” should be given by the schools. The strongest argument against so doing is that if no effort is made to attract young people to the public library many of them will cease to read after they leave school. The resulting loss to society as well as to the individual is expressed by Hazard when he says: “How many human beings, bound to workbench or plow, imprisoned in studio or mine, give up reading after the joyful period of their first leisure is over! Or else they read newspaper accounts of accidents, suicides, crimes and wars.”

Perhaps even better than surveys of libraries in achieving an understanding of what readers want today and what they may want in the future are the investigations being carried on by a wider and more practical assembly of workers with books—the publishers, owners of bookstores, authors, and teachers. The Public Library Inquiry includes a volume, *The Book Industry* by William Miller, which describes changes in publishing policies in the last decade. Partly because of increased costs of production, the best-seller has come to be considered the only ore worth the mining. Distribution has become complicated and difficult because of the competition from book clubs and paper-bound “slicks,” and because of the pricing practices of department and dime stores. Unfortunately, the extension of popular education has not raised the standards of reading for, as Ernestine Rose comments, “a phase of democracy on the way up is mediocrity.” Instead of book buyers demanding substance and authority as they did in the era of the stout brown and maroon volumes of Herbert Spencer, Huxley, and Darwin, many now prefer pictures and tabloids. It seems likely that soon only the university presses will accept manuscripts replete with social, political, or economic profundity or freighted with the findings of scientific research.

In the hope of understanding and combating some of these tendencies, the American Book Publishers Council arranged a conference on reading development in January 1951, the findings of which stress the importance of authoritative books in our society. Their continuance deserves the sustaining efforts of big business, of educational foundations, and of institutions of higher learning, just as the products of manufacture and medicine receive aid and support from large national corporations. Long-term case studies should be undertaken to uncover the motives, gratifications, and effects of reading, and investigations which would study national, community, and individual tendencies.
should be conducted. With the information obtained thereby, publishers could determine the probable audience for different kinds of books, the best outlets for books now without a market, and most important of all, how to raise the status of reading.

Early in 1954 the Columbia University Press published a book with a sympathetic understanding of the needs of readers; this is *The Public Library in American Life* by Ernestine Rose, who recently retired from the New York Public Library where she had built up a remarkable community center in a branch library in Harlem. In the Foreword to this work Lyman Bryson, who has done more than any other individual to promote good reading by radio, admits that public libraries have fallen far below their possibilities, for there are still twenty-four million people in this country without any sort of public library service and the annual median expenditure for library service is but eighty cents per capita. Our libraries, Bryson believes, should demand more in order to become decisive agents in our culture because free minds are more important than money. While not often recognized as a publicist, the “librarian . . . is a keen hunter after the varying interests and needs of the public,” and the ablest librarians take a firm stand against censorship. “The librarian’s purpose is to stir the public mind with the thoughts of many, to offer alternatives, to expand perspectives and widen the choices.”

The greatest of all needs of readers according to Miss Rose is the freedom to choose as it has been prescribed by librarians in their “Bill of Rights.” In her book Miss Rose endorses the *National Plan* and the *Post-War Standards*, and she considers our paramount duty to be the development of adult education with all that the words “adult” and “education” imply. She also urges the improvement of education of librarians so that they may be more closely associated with beneficial activities in their communities. Miss Rose believes that collections of books should be made available in convenient, small centers, and she describes the widespread possibilities of the Library Demonstration Bill, larger units of service, regional catalogs, and bibliographic centers. On the other hand, Miss Rose challenges the Public Library Inquiry’s recommendation that the library because of lack of funds should cease to supply entertainment and should concentrate on service to the better-educated group. Miss Rose believes that both popular education and the preservation and interpretation of scholarship are vital. She tells us that “the paths tend to merge and the fields of interest to overlap, so that instruction slips into pleasure, or the recreative becomes educational, and it is quite impossible to
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guess what type of person will find either in a given piece of literature." 24

The most successful librarians have been those who have learned, not who their readers are, but what they want. They have developed and expanded their libraries to meet all possible of the expressed needs of their users and to bring more users into the unfamiliar but wide-open doors. Although the members of the dominant group of active users of a library probably are from the better-educated half of the citizenry, the people who fill the reading rooms daily are not as a whole an intellectual lot. In the forum on the Inquiry which Lester Asheim directed at the University of Chicago Library Institute in 1949, this profound truth was voiced, "The library’s public is a select group, but it makes use of material which is not particularly selective." 25 This applies to members of the various age groups, to persons who live on the "south side of town," to members of a given trade or profession, and to you and to me. At a certain time of the year, or on a certain hour of the day, each of us needs a different kind of reading to suit a particular mood or demand. Not all of a person's reading is or should be in pursuit of information. One of the loftiest professors of the California Institute of Technology often asks for a mystery "with blood on the front page," and Abraham Lincoln delighted in reading Artemus Ward aloud. Edward Radenzel pointed out "that the American public is not a well-informed public, but a half-informed public." 26 Our libraries have the opportunity and the obligation to supply Americans with the other half.

References

ALTHEA WARREN


THE QUESTION of what library needs should be met has long intrigued librarians and students of librarianship. The literature of the profession is full of articles touching this issue ranging from such discussions as J. P. Danton's "Plea for a Philosophy of Librarianship" to specific discussions of the relative importance of one type of service or one type of material as contrasted with another type of service or material. The discussion has ranged from the very theoretical to the very practical, but the question is still an open one or an article such as this one would be pointless.

The plain fact of the matter is that the library profession is not agreed as to what citizen or public needs the library should meet. This is nowhere better illustrated than by an examination of existing library practices. These vary widely, not only as a result of differences in community needs and emphasis, but because of essential differences of opinion as to what functions the library should serve. These differences are reflected in library literature. In 1938 Douglas Waples delivered a paper entitled "People and Libraries," which had as its general thesis: the library should set high standards of book selection and leave to the corner drugstore the providing of very popular materials.

Also, for example, J. M. Cory and H. L. Hamill raise and debate the question of whether the Louisville experiment is a legitimate way to meet public needs through the public library. In 1939 C. B. Roden, Librarian of the Chicago Public Library, advanced the theory that libraries should attempt to provide the materials that people want. Speaking from the same platform, C. E. Sherman presented the three major differences in the theory of public library objectives, outlining several viewpoints which he grouped under the three headings of censorship theory, sponsorship theory, and leadership theory. While it is probably true that most librarians would characterize themselves as believers in the leadership theory, there are many adherents to...
both of the other two, and library practices vary widely in the extent to which these viewpoints govern library administration and library affairs.

If one goes back to the stated objectives of librarianship, one finds, perhaps not directly contrasting views, but expressions in general terms which do not in any sense clarify or refine the issue. For example, the old A.L.A. slogan, "The best reading for the greatest number at the least cost," gives one a good deal of leeway in deciding what departments to have in a library or even what books to purchase for its community. Or take the postwar standards for libraries:

The objectives of the public library should be to assemble and preserve books and materials in organized collections, and through stimulation and guidance to promote their use, to the end that children, young people, men, and women may have opportunity and encouragement:

  To educate themselves continuously
  To keep abreast of progress in the sciences and other fields of knowledge
  To maintain the precious heritage of freedom of expression and a constructively critical attitude toward all public issues
  To improve their ability to participate usefully in activities in which they are involved as citizens of the United States and of the world
  To equip themselves, and to keep themselves equipped, for efficient activity in useful occupations and practical affairs
  To improve their capacity for appreciation and production in cultural fields
  To aid in the advancement of knowledge
  To make such use of leisure time as will promote personal happiness and social well-being

These standards, while they set up broad goals, are in a sense statements of objectives. But they, too, give one a great deal of leeway in deciding such a question as what library needs should be met.

The most recent formulation of library objectives is that of the Public Library Inquiry. Suggestions were made by various librarians and these were brought together into a concise "majority" statement of library objectives. In brief the Public Library Inquiry's statement is as follows: "1) To assemble, preserve, and administer books and related educational materials in organized collections, in order to promote, through guidance and stimulation, an enlightened citizenship and enriched personal lives. 2) To serve the community as a general center of reliable information. 3) To provide opportunity and en-
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couragement for children, young people, men, and women to educate themselves continuously. This is a little more limiting and confining in terms of defining what needs should be met, but within its framework a library could provide almost any kind of services it wished and could have on its shelves almost any book.

The history of libraries doesn't help us too much either. For there has been no consistent, central guiding purpose or principle that has operated to define precisely what library needs should be met over the long years of library history. The first libraries brought into this country were primarily aimed at promoting religious beliefs and religious faiths and to aid those who were in a sense missionaries to a new land. The other major factor was to aid education. People, either from their own collections or from materials collected abroad, were anxious to provide the books that could be used in schools and colleges.

Skipping many years and coming to Benjamin Franklin, one of the fathers of the public library movement, one finds again a very different emphasis. Franklin thought of the library as an improving device for business and professional people—sort of young tradesman's library which would help these people understand their work, and the history and traditions which went into the founding of America.

Many years later under the great influence of George Ticknor the Boston Public Library was thought of as a means of disseminating the good literature of the day. (Ticknor's term "popular literature" would imply a quite different type of material from the same term used today.) This library and the many which were substantially influenced by it had, one may safely assume, a goal closely related to the traditional goals of higher education—to educate people, to provide them the opportunity to understand better the great literature of all time, to make them better aware of their own world and their own problems.

During the later years of the nineteenth century a heavy influence on the Americanization function of the library came into being and libraries were thought of as an aid to citizenship information and service. Many people coming to this country from abroad needed education and information about their new homeland, and the library served this purpose well. At the same time there was the belief that the library could help prevent delinquency; that if people were provided good books to read they would keep out of mischief.

In the early part of the twentieth century libraries emphasized the promotion of reading by children and young people. As child labor
became illegal and unfashionable, as schools began to grow and a
higher literacy of the population was achieved, libraries attempted to
serve children in providing for them continuing education and con-
tinuing material for enlightenment and improvement. Later during
World War I libraries turned to serving the men in the armed forces
and providing materials for their leisure and information.

Following World War I there was a great deal of emphasis on serv-
ing the laboring man, based on the realization that now the laboring
man was rapidly acquiring large periods of time for reading and
other leisure activity and the library could and would serve him well
in providing him opportunities to train himself further and under-
stand his place in society better. Correspondingly, service to business
men and business groups increased through business branches and
technical or industrial departments in libraries.

Then came World War II. This time libraries decided to avoid the
former mistakes of just providing light reading for the armed services.
They emphasized the provision of material that would help our serv-
icemen understand the nature and the background of the conflict in
which they were engaged and the objectives for which they were
fighting. During this time and following World War II libraries turned
their attention to other types of materials such as audio-visual aids.
Particularly in the last few years, but extending over the years of
the twentieth century, the revelation that people in the upper age
brackets have leisure time and could still learn stimulated interest in,
and concern for, adult education, but there again one comes to the
essential problem in librarianship. Adult education as practiced in
many communities ranges from (if one may avoid any labeling of
levels) square-dancing groups to Great Books discussion groups. That
is to say, a library may well practice adult education and still have no
clear cut answer to the question—what library needs should be met?

This rapid excursion into library history gives us no final answer
to our central question. For it makes very clear the fact that at various
stages in American history certain library needs have been considered
to be most significant and important, but that these needs have varied
from time to time. What was once a major and very important objec-
tive now may be almost completely forgotten. But is not this in itself
a lesson and a starting point for an attack upon the central problem
today? History does give guidance and light on the issue, but after
even the most thorough study of library history librarians today must
make their decision in today's context. The fundamental thesis in
this article then is that the decision as to what needs should be met
Library Needs Which Should be Met

should be based upon our best analysis and appraisal of what American society most needs today that libraries can provide. Any decision based upon precedent alone would be likely to be a negation of the library's fundamental objective. Established by society, it should be an agency to improve society.

One could, of course, accept this approach completely and still come out with different answers to the central question. This writer would like to advance the thesis that what society needs most from the library should not be determined by the individual request of established or prospective library patrons. That is to say, the library should not be a place where any citizen can come and find anything he or she wants. It should be a place where society, acting through its regularly constituted channels, has decided what its members most need and what if provided from among these needs will serve best to improve society. To paraphrase slightly what is in essence the "motto" of the University of Minnesota: The American public library is "founded in the faith that men are ennobled by understanding, dedicated to the advancement of learning and the search for truth, devoted to the instruction of people and the welfare of society." It is proposed that the library's service be appraised by these goals, that public needs be appraised in terms of whether or not their satisfaction will contribute to these purposes, and that all else be forgotten. In this way the library would truly serve for the improvement of society and not as just another place for people to find things to read.

Before going on to discuss the specific implications of such a policy, let it be said parenthetically that there will be no proposing here any hierarchy of elders that will impose their standards on library service. Rather it is urged that some such major emphasis, discussed and thoroughly explored by the library board, would be accepted and used by the librarian as a guide in selecting personnel and in establishing major policies. It would guide those responsible for the selection of materials in choosing among the many types of printed and other materials that are available for libraries. It would be used by the department chairmen in assessing relative emphasis in the organization and planning of their departments. It would be the guide of each library assistant in determining how much time to give a certain patron or what type material would best serve the expressed need. But it would mean high standards in librarianship, higher than are now employed, in determining how the library's time and funds are being used. Those responsible for library service would face squarely
the issue—what can the library do for the improvement of society, this it will do and all else it will forget.

Now of course the easy way to handle such a discussion as this would be to stop here. Few people would disagree violently for they would read into the above statement of philosophy their own applications. Let us try to narrow the field a little bit and to make this viewpoint a little clearer.

First, no material should be excluded because of its subject matter; that is, if one could make a good case that a book on palmistry would help improve society it should be included. Second, no class of readers should be excluded, for, if it can be nothing else, the library should be a public library. Third, the library should serve the scholar, for there is no better way for any library to serve society than by doing all it legitimately can for the man who is advancing knowledge.

If, then, we accept as our goal for the library that of improving society, perhaps this can be narrowed down a little by again paraphrasing a statement of objectives of general education adopted by the University of Minnesota. Any need expressed by any person should be met if the desired material will help the person

1. To understand other persons' ideas or express their own more effectively.
2. To understand human behavior, social relations, and problems of working cooperatively with others.
3. To understand one's own health problems and make intelligent decisions about community health problems.
4. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to active responsible and informed citizenship in dealing with social, economic, and political problems of American and international affairs.
5. To understand the fundamental discoveries of science and their implication for human welfare and their influence on the development of thought and institutions.
6. To understand and appreciate scientific methods.
7. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural activities.
8. To develop principles for the development of personal and societal behavior.
9. To choose and become more proficient in a satisfying vocation.
10. To develop the ability to think critically and constructively.

If one developed each of these ten points, it would be possible to have a much clearer picture of just what needs are urged that libraries
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meet. But such a discussion would have to be far beyond any reasonable limits for an article in this series. Realizing that individual interpretations of the above could still be made and that these might well vary widely, these ten points, if carefully applied would serve to a considerable degree to guide any individual library. The central point, however, is that the test of library needs to be met would be a careful estimate of the degree to which meeting those needs would or possibly could help to improve society. Such needs as would improve society would be legitimate needs for the library to serve. Needs about which there might be doubt would certainly fall in a second priority. Needs about which there was no evidence of gain to society would be passed over. This would mean that the library would no longer be saying, all people support the library, therefore all people should receive from the library what they want.

A few specific points may help to clarify at least one person's interpretation of what such a general policy would mean. First, the library would set standards of literary and aesthetic quality for fiction. This point has been extensively discussed before, and there is little to add to the ideas in Waples' article cited above. It is a waste of public money for the library to provide material which patently can do nothing to improve one's understanding of literary values or deepen one's cultural or aesthetic insight.

Second, libraries should clearly avoid competition with the newspapers, radio, and television in the provision of the daily news. Rather should libraries concentrate on providing the background material, historical and philosophical, by which people may better appraise and understand the news.

Third, libraries should be very discriminating in providing the practical or how-to-do-it type of material. In this area the emphasis should be on the careful, thorough, and scientific—as contrasted with the popular picture-book type of thing.

Fourth, information and reference services should be carefully studied to avoid duplication or competition with existing services. Few libraries would think of attempting to compete with the information desk of the union station or the bus terminal, but they come very close to unnecessary duplication in other areas.

Fifth, adult education activities should be scrutinized very carefully to be sure that the library is concentrating on those that are educational and avoiding those that are purely recreational.

Many conscientious librarians will be troubled by the implication in all of this that the library would forget a large group of potential
patrons. Finding nothing in the library that would interest them, they would cease to be library users and supporters. The assumption that people will use the library at their own level and then graduate to better reading needs very careful study, and it is recommended that we neither accept it nor deny it. It is urged, however, that we limit severely the extent to which noneducational material is supplied, and be very sure that when it is supplied good habits of reading are encouraged.

In the earlier part of this article considerable point was made of the fact that library service at various times has emphasized certain especial needs of society. What is society's great need today?

This is an interesting field for speculation. There is some feeling that society needs higher moral and ethical standards. But this is essentially the job of religion, and, whether or not religion is doing the job, it will provide the only answer. Recreation and entertainment is another need of society, but here again, established agencies are spending far more on this than libraries can ever hope to spend. Society needs news and information, but here again society provides elaborate methods for disseminating news. Certainly the library cannot hope to compete with them.

In this writer's judgment the greatest need of society today is education, a need which in spite of the billions society is spending is far from adequately met. This is and should be the most compelling and most urgent of the objectives which libraries should attempt to serve. It is the best way, indeed the only effective way, in which libraries can contribute to the improvement of the society which has established them and maintains them.

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Library Service to Children

ELIZABETH NESBITT

Public library work with children, as an organized specialization, is little more than half a century old. This length of time is not far in excess of the possible professional lifetime of a single librarian. The significance of this point lies in the fact that children's library work, in the last two decades, has been emerging from the impetus and vigor of the pioneer period. Until the thirties this phase of library work had been under the control of the group of children's librarians who, building on the ideas and inspiration of the real pioneers, established children's work on a departmental basis, developed methods, and formulated objectives. Historical perspective, always important, is essential in this postpioneer era if the present is to be truly evaluated and the future predicted with any validity.

In 1876, the year that the American Library Association was formed, the United States Bureau of Education published a survey, Public Libraries in the United States of America. Included was a paper by W. I. Fletcher, "Public Libraries and the Young." This may well be taken as marking the turning point in the conception of the public library as something more than a storehouse of culture, with the ultimate inevitable change of attitude toward the right of children to have access to a public library. Pleading for the abandonment of age restrictions, which in general forbade library privileges to children under twelve, the future president of the A.L.A., and joint editor of Poole's Index, wrote:

Who will presume to set the age at which a child may first be stirred with the beginnings of a healthy intellectual appetite on getting a taste of the strong meat of good literature? This point is one of the first importance. No after efforts can accomplish what is done with ease early in life in the way of forming habits either mental or moral, and if there is any truth in the idea that the public library is not merely a storehouse for the supply of the wants of the reading public, but also and especially an educational institution which shall create wants

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where they do not exist, then the library ought to bring its influences to bear on the young as early as possible.¹

In spite of this argument the recognition of the necessity of service to the children of a community was slow in coming. In 1893 Caroline Hewins reported before the World’s Library Congress that out of 152 libraries, 108 restricted borrowing privileges to children of ten or over. However, the seed sown by Fletcher and nourished by the indefatigable persistence of Miss Hewins, Lutie Stearns, and others began to bear fruit in the 1890’s. Between 1890 and 1900, from the east coast to the west, libraries opened children’s rooms, and accorded children full privileges. At the turn of the century it was generally accepted that library work with children is a vital and distinctive aspect of the American public library movement.

There followed a period of approximately ten years which saw a singularly extensive and constructive development. Building upon the foundation which the pioneers had laid, their successors took over, and established children’s work on a departmental basis, extended it into branches, established policies and procedures, determined criteria for the evaluation of children’s literature, and developed methods of work. It is perhaps not an accident that this same period constitutes the golden age in the writing of children’s literature, in England and in America. There may have been something in the atmosphere of the late 1890’s and early 1900’s which accounts for the fact that these years produced unsurpassed classics among children’s books and simultaneously an extraordinarily vigorous and farsighted organization of work designed to introduce and make accessible these books to children. A study of published papers, talks, and reports reveals the astonishing breadth and permanent values of the conception of library work with children as it was defined and practiced by its organizers. They stated its objectives and these included not only the introduction of good books to the children of any community, but also the reinforcement and enrichment of classwork in the schools and cooperation with agencies for civic and social improvement. In order to attain these objectives, they established the necessity for specialized book collections, specialized training for children’s librarians, and specialized methods of work. They built book collections characterized by quality and close relationship to children’s reading interests and needs, and they compiled bibliographies as aids to selection. They organized and taught training classes for children’s librarians. They perceived clearly that the most far-reaching service a library can give
is service to the individual. At the same time, they recognized that one way to reach the individual is through the group. Consequently they developed group methods of reading guidance, book talks, club work, and storytelling. The fame of the last method seems to have prevented full recognition of the fact that other devices used today to promote and develop reading interests and appreciation were initiated in the early years of the present century. It is also worth noting that these methods were used with integrity in the sense that their primary objective, that of introducing pleasurably wider and increasingly productive reading interests, was never forgotten. The pre-eminence of storytelling is undoubtedly due to the fact that it was, and is, the only method which recreates a bit of literature, and which, by its interpretative power, makes clear the significance of that literature.

The early concept of the variety of services due to the children of a community was in agreement with the expanding vision of the public library as an educational institution. The early children's librarians were concerned with the value of recreational and inspirational reading for children. But this concern was not exclusive. They were fully aware of the necessity of establishing the children's library as an agency cooperative with and supplementary to the schools. Curriculum enrichment, as we call it today, is by no manner of means a new idea, although present teaching methods and the development of school libraries have given it wider scope and renewed importance. The early records are full of references to the importance of collaboration with the schools and to the need for recognition of the value of material supplementary to the curriculums of the schools. This, in turn, led to the stressing of reference service to children and of adequate facilities for such service. The insistent demands of the children themselves played no small part here. They invaded adult reference rooms, as earlier they had invaded the reading rooms supposedly open to adults only, in such numbers that some provision had to be made. The following statement from a report of Miss Hewins is one of many indicating the felt need for reference service:

The use of the reference-room by children steadily increased, until the need of a room for them became evident, both on week-days and Sundays. The Bulletin for March 1, 1900, says: "On Sunday, Feb. 25, there were eighty-one children in the small room. . . . They were all quiet and orderly, and some of them read seriously and absorbedly for several hours on 'The twentieth century,' 'The boundaries of the United States,' and 'The comparative greatness of Napoleon and Alexander.' . . ."
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Children's librarians of the day met the problem with their characteristic combination of vision and shrewdness. The above report goes on to say that the last straw that produced adequate room for the use of children was a newspaper article illustrated by a photograph of the reference room with one man, one woman, and fifty-one children.

Plentiful evidence exists too of the realization that the children's room, as an integral part of the public library, has a civic and social responsibility. Completely contemporary in tone are the frequent statements naming the schools and the library as essential to a democracy, pointing out the equality of opportunity offered by the same two institutions, and urging the practical and prompt opening of library resources to all groups within a community. The results of this deep-felt conviction were threefold. In the first place, there was the attempt to meet the felt needs of every group of children within a community by building a book collection designed to meet those needs constructively; by introducing books through story hours, clubs, book talks, and exhibits; by educating children in civic and social responsibility through their membership in the civic institution of the free public library. In the second place, there was the emphasis upon the desirability of a first-hand knowledge of the aims and methods of work of all the social and civic forces at work within a given community. In the third place, there was equal emphasis upon the promotion of friendly and cooperative relations with these other institutions; this with two aims in view, the recognition of the library as an essential and interested part of a community, and of the resources of the library as beneficial to the work of other agencies concerned with the welfare of children.

With all these problems occupying their minds, the originators of library work with children still had time to set up the machinery which would provide what one of the pioneers, Mary Wright Plummer, called "thoughtful administration." This included everything from the definition of qualities desirable in a children's librarian and the matter of open shelves to regulations concerning the number of books a child might reasonably borrow and the problems of fines and of clean hands. They even had the time and the foresight to point to the need for special attention to young people in their teens, an aspect of public library work which has developed all too slowly, and which is discussed in another article in this issue of Library Trends.

Unless its significance is fully realized, this historical survey may seem overlong. The significance is this—that the developmental phase
of library work with children was all-inclusive. The vision demonstrated was so clear and far-reaching, methods of work so comprehensive and constructive, the potentialities so clearly defined, that by the beginning of the second decade of this century, library service to children deserved the tributes of more recent years—that it is "an innovation that does honor to the sensibility of a people," that it is almost "the classic success of the public library," that it is "one of the truly important specialized branches of professional librarianship, one which has attained a recognition accorded few others in the public library field." It has been said before that sufficient tribute has never been paid to the women who brought this library service to so high a point. It would be pleasant to be able to predict that a future "trend" will be a complete written history of the early years of library work with children. The historical aspect, though important, would be the least of the values of such a work. The greater value would lie in the possibility of bringing to renewed life the conviction, the fineness and integrity of the concept of service which gave such vigor, vitality, and vision to the pioneer period.

It is difficult to draw any distinct line between the period immediately succeeding the pioneer stage and the present. The soundness and completeness of the exploratory stage precluded the breaking of new trails and necessitated only such adaptation and extension of existent methods and services as seemed desirable in view of trends within and without the library. Conditions which presently affect children's work had their beginnings in the 1920's and 1930's. The rise of children's libraries and the insistence of children's librarians upon the right of children to true artistry in books inevitably had effect upon the writing and illustrating of children's books. This effect was intensified by the initiation, in 1918, of informed published criticism of literature for children. Further impetus to children's book production was provided by the establishment of children's departments in publishing houses, a development which began in the 1920's and has grown until, in 1950, fifty publishing houses had such departments. As Ernestine Rose has pointed out in her book The Public Library in American Life, the cooperation between writers and illustrators, publishers, and librarians has been most effective. This cooperation has brought not only increased production and improved quality in books, but an intense interest in, and growing awareness of, the values of children's reading on the part of the general adult public. Coincidental with this is a deepening of the characteristic American concern for children, a concern sharpened by domestic social and economic
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changes, and by the uncertainty and apprehension aroused by inter-
national affairs. As a consequence, the early conception that the child-
ren's library has an obligation to all the social, civic, and educational
forces within a community has assumed an intensified urgency. Par-
ents, teachers, psychologists, social workers, come to the children's
room to use its resources and to seek suggestion and advice in the use
of these resources. The children's librarian, if she is to meet effectively
this demand, must be able to re-evaluate, at a moment's notice, the
books in her collection in line with the peculiar need of the moment.
It is also more than ever essential that she be intelligently informed
as to the community activities concerned with children, and that she
be known in the community as a reliable authority on any phase of
the social, educational, or recreational values pertaining to a child's
reading life.

This same postpioneer era has seen changes in educational methods
which have had inevitable and constructive effects upon book pro-
duction and book use. Contemporary teaching methods together with
rapid changes and continual broadening of information in all fields of
knowledge demand and obtain more and better books in all the sub-
ject matter fields. Present curriculums demand that children use a wide
variety of materials and that a children's librarian be aware of relation-
ships in subject matter and interest among books widely separated in
point of physical location by reason of a classification system. This
means that reference service to children, early recognized as desirable,
has become a major part of the work of a children's room. More
importantly, its present nature imposes upon the children's librarian
heavy demands in the way of increased knowledge of her resources,
of the requirements of local school curriculums, and of development of
the specialized technique necessary in reference service to children.
And this is true in spite of the altogether desirable development of
the elementary school library. There can be no argument, in view of
all that is implied in the term "curriculum enrichment," that a school
cannot function properly unless there is a fully equipped and ade-
quately staffed library as an integral part of the whole program. In
the opinion of many, there can be no distinct dividing line between
the functions of the public children's room and the elementary school
library. Due to many factors, it is impossible and unrealistic to at-
tempt to say that at this point reading for information stops and read-
ing for pleasure begins. Even if such a distinction could be drawn,
it would be destructive to the whole idea of library service to chil-
dren, whether in school or public library. The truth is, that for the
present and the foreseeable future, neither the public nor the school library can fulfill adequately all their obligations to the children in their community. They should exist side by side, with sympathetic and intelligent cooperation, motivated by the single-minded intention of affording children a balanced reading experience.

At the same time that advisory service to adults and reference service to children have grown to such proportions as to place upon children's librarians heavy requirements, the problems concerned with book selection, for the collection and for the child, and with reading guidance methods, have magnified. The tremendous increase in book production, together with staff shortages, renders difficult the truly critical evaluation of books so necessary to achievement of the fundamental objectives of a children's room. The many demands, within and without a library, upon the children's librarian, and the removal, in many libraries, of supervisory positions, means that reading guidance methods, unsupervised, uncontrolled, and too frequently inadequately planned, are losing their integrity of purpose. Consequently, a great deal of energy is dissipated to no good end since, under various pressures, the temptation is to introduce, through group methods, books of easy appeal which will insure, with a minimum of effort, the success, or what is presumed to be the success, of the activity. Whereas the true purpose and the only valid measure of accomplishment is the introduction of books which need introduction but which are worth the effort, time, and skill genuine reading guidance demands. It is a matter for concern also that there is an apparent lack of realization that the group reading guidance method is only the beginning; that the ultimate desirability is to break through the group to the individual child, since it is in effective service to the individual that the library achieves its unique and primary purpose.

The concentration of attention upon the total welfare of children has brought to the attention of the library the immense possibilities inherent in services to special groups, whether these be age groups or groups characterized by other common characteristics, such as the physically or mentally handicapped, the delinquent, the hospitalized or institutionalized child. In this type of service the greatest progress has been made in work with preschool children. Most large libraries and many smaller ones conduct story-hour programs for this age. Since necessarily the mother must bring the child to the library, a simultaneous program for parents is conducted frequently, with admirable results for the individual and for the library. Work with other types of specialized groups is more spasmodic and less well organized.
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This is presumably due to two factors: lack of time due to lack of staff, and a resultant inability to develop the organization, the special techniques, and the special book collections requisite to work with the sick, handicapped, or delinquent child.

The complications of the pioneer age lay for the most part within the work itself. The complications of the present age are outside the environment of the library as well as within it. There is, for example, the easy accessibility of media of recreation such as the moving picture, radio, and television, and the plentitude of organized social activities available to children. There is observable a tendency to think of these as offering competition to the library. There does not seem to be sufficient substantiated data to prove that the movie, the radio, and television have a lasting and universal detrimental effect upon children's interest in reading. If such data should be forthcoming, it would be unfruitful to adopt competitive methods, with all the implications of lowering of standards, of frenzied attempts to equal the easy and shabby appeal of sensational entertainment. The more positive approach would be through the realization of the occasional proven stimulation to reading afforded by these media, and an alert and flexible readiness to seize every opportunity to utilize them to serve the library's and, through the library, the community's best interests.

There are few libraries today which do not include service to children, the larger ones on a departmental basis, the smaller by means of a special room. The book collections are built to meet circulation and reference needs of children and to provide materials for adults personally or professionally interested in children. Programs within the children's room include circulation and reference work, story hours, book talks, club work, and individual reading guidance. Outside the library, the children's librarian cooperates actively with groups of a surprising number and diversity. Among these, she should, by constant study and reading, maintain her position as the authority in the field of children's literature and reading.

In the face of the amount and variety of work carried on within and without the children's room, and of neglected opportunities for service, it is appalling to realize that many children's rooms in small libraries and in the branches of large libraries are staffed by one trained children's librarian. It is even more appalling to discover that some children's rooms are being operated by a nonprofessional staff member. The gap between supply and demand has widened to the point of sheer disaster. Long before the second World War, library schools
were not training enough children's librarians to meet the demand. Ever since, demand has increased steadily, and supply has decreased steadily. This is a fact of which a large section of the general profession seems to be ignorant, if one is to judge from the placement requests which come to the library schools. In many instances one library asks for five or six children's librarians, with no apparent suspicion that, at the best, the total number of such graduates available for placement will rarely be more than ten, and at the more frequent worst, five or less. One library school specializing in library work with children, has graduated sixty-six children's librarians in the last ten years, of whom 20 per cent are available for placement. This brings to light another factor in the shortage, a factor of significance in recruiting and in connection with the future of this aspect of public library work. Children's librarians are not staying in the field for which they trained. This can no longer be blamed on salary; to do so is and has always been an evasion of the true problem. Beginning salaries for children's librarians are commensurate with those offered in other fields. If the experienced children's librarian is limited in salary, it is not primarily a question of financial advancement, but more basically a question of personal and professional advancement, and of the ability to use and develop particular capabilities. In the public library as a whole this is an age of appreciation of the subject specialist and of the person with special talents which may be used to the advantage of the library and of the individual. A children's librarian must be a specialist in children's literature, an administrator, a storyteller, a public speaker, a group leader, a reference librarian, a circulating librarian, a readers' adviser to adults and children, and a person skilled in adapting her service to a varied clientele ranging from the preschool child to the adult. The immediate reaction to this statement will be that it is, in large part, true of any librarian except the subject specialist. The fact remains, however, that in spite of a universal shortage most rooms and divisions serving adults are staffed by more than one professional librarian, whereas the great majority of children's rooms are staffed by one professional or by none. The result is a quantity of work achieved without quality, always a dissatisfaction to the intelligent person. Moreover, the accumulative effect of loss of quality is vicious in its effect upon recruiting and upon an administrator's estimate of the vitality and essentiality of work with children. Its effect upon a children's librarian is stagnation, relieved only by the possibility of change from one position to another of the same type in a different environment. It has been mentioned
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that the removal of supervisory positions has caused deterioration through lack of control of specialized techniques and services. The same deficiency has caused a loss of morale among present children's librarians and has rendered futile attempts to recruit new children's librarians. There is no inducement to develop leadership, or specialization in subject or skills, if there is evident no possibility of utilizing such development. An evil by-product of the same situation is that when an administrative or supervisory position does become available, it is too frequently filled by an individual who may be potentially adequate, but is actually inadequate because of lack of experience and training for the position. Miss Rose's argument regarding the need for better qualified personnel is nowhere more applicable than to the children's field:

One of the most essential directions for public libraries to follow is toward a better qualified personnel. . . . the problem must be attacked with fresh imagination, resource, and determination, by library school educators and library administrators alike before a clear course can be charted toward this desired end. For library personnel and library education must be thought of together, and both must be considered in relation to the library's program of public service. So long as library educators conduct their training in an ivory tower, with only an incidental thought of the field's needs and possibilities, so long as public library administrators offer limited possibilities in their pattern of service for trained workers of varied capacities, just so long will the service itself suffer, and so long will qualified librarians leave this field for more inviting prospects.8

The present and the presumable future offer to children's work endless opportunities, since this period is, and for years will be, one of deepened concern for the social, educational, and moral welfare of children, and since there are manifest evidences of a genuine and widespread interest on the part of adults generally in the values of children's books and reading. Children's librarians can win the support, respect, and gratitude of their communities by extension of services to neglected areas, by constructive attack upon new or changing problems, by initiation of sound innovations to meet changing trends in social, educational, and recreational aspects of contemporary life. Whether they can do this depends upon the winning and the training of new recruits. The possibility of this depends upon the willingness of the public library to make such changes as will induce intelligent and able people to enter the field. One thing only is certain. Too much concern has been expended over the question of [127]
whether library work with children will survive in public libraries. The greater concern should be with the manner of its survival.

References

Young People and Public Libraries

JEAN C. ROOS

The Public Library Inquiry revealed startling facts as to the extent that public libraries were actually reaching the public. R. D. Leigh makes the following significant statement: "In the last fifty years library schools and libraries have developed children's librarians of great skill and personal effectiveness, with an expert knowledge of children's literature. . . . Not only are the children's librarians expert but also in the community they are recognized as such. Thus, children's rooms and children's librarians have been the classic success of the public library." ¹

This achievement, the result of the work of skilled children's librarians over the years, is due to the philosophy of these librarians in the firm belief and interest in the individual child and his development. Leigh continues—children and young people in school use libraries in larger proportion than do older persons, about one-third as compared with one-tenth of adult users. Library registration of juveniles usually averages 50 per cent of the population as compared with the average 25 per cent registration of adults.²

According to the findings of the Survey Research Center, 1948, more than half (56 per cent) of the adult population indicated that they had used the public library more when they were younger, most of them when of school age. In Chicago 90 per cent of a sample of recent high school graduates (girls) who were nonusers of the public library had used the library while in school but had allowed their cards to expire. There is a sharp drop in library use when young people leave school. The public library carries over only a small percentage of its younger readers into adult use of library materials. Although libraries are used less by children after they leave school, still the major body of adult library users consists of the younger adults. Bernard Berelson³ states that under present conditions the

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public library attracts a progressively smaller proportion of people in each successive higher age level. Perhaps half of the adult library users are under thirty-five years of age.

These are hard facts. If work with children constitutes the public library’s classic success, the classic failure is the lack of the public library to meet the needs of young people with the best at its command. It is essential to use the keenest minds to study and analyze this situation, to experiment in technique and methods, to provide specially trained young people’s librarians to work with youth, to provide space and materials to develop adult use of the library’s facilities, and to work and plan together with all community agencies for youth and young adults, a program for the better development of youth into mature responsible citizens.

Has the public library lost out in adult areas because of the weakest link in the chain of developing readers—work with adolescents and young adults? In many libraries, even today, is there not a lack of interest, apathy, misunderstanding and even irritation when work with youth is discussed? Basically this attitude is prevalent because of lack of knowledge, the insufficient awareness of the needs and characteristics of young people which fosters defensive attitudes and accounts for many drop-outs of youthful library users.

Work with young people is definitely an outgrowth of work with children, and the philosophy of librarians working with youth is an extension of that of the children’s librarian, the urgent belief in the individual and the need to help develop young people into mature and responsible citizens. The beginning and terminal points of work with young people, if the word “terminal” may be used when the continuity of reading is the chief factor, is specialized service to the high school group and to the young adult group to the age of twenty. This period in the life of teen-agers and young adults, the middle and later adolescent years, is the time of change and growth which causes conflict both within themselves and in their outside world. It is the time when help and understanding are most needed for they are involved in many personal, social, and economic adjustments in their everyday lives.

The purpose of work with young people is to stimulate and direct reading interests of youth into adult reading on as high a reading level and into as many fields as possible. The reading interests developed in the children’s rooms are carried over, and the teen-agers are introduced to a broad selection of adult books chosen with their interests and reading abilities in mind. Of equal importance is the de-
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development of the readers at the other end of the age limit, those in their later teens. These young adults, when their capabilities and interests are discovered and tapped, are ready and often eager for the best in adult literature. Here is the spot where the greatest knowledge and imagination are needed by the young people's librarians, for the door for future adventures and growth in reading is open wide for that individual. Here, too, it should be said that the young people's librarian acts in an introductory role to the resources of the entire library.

The philosophy is that of leading out, not that of holding back. The time when a young person becomes an adult cannot be stated in chronological age, but only by individual growth and development. Reading guidance is of paramount importance and the extent and the height of this art is controlled by the reading background and imagination of the librarian. The common ground of work with young people is the merging at two points in reader development: from children's reading, bridging the gap through interests of the younger adolescents, and from the reading of the young adult to the mature adult use of library materials.

A brief backward look is necessary for background, to understand present problems, and to clarify future trends. In an effort to give guidance to older boys and girls, small collections of books for "intermediates" were developed in some children's rooms in public libraries as early as 1906 in the Brooklyn Public Library, in Buffalo in 1910, in St. Louis, Missouri, in 1911. The New Haven, Connecticut, Public Library was one of the first libraries to place a special collection for young people in the adult department to introduce adult books to children leaving the children's room.

These pioneer projects pointed up the need for service to young people in the public libraries and opened the way for further experimentation and study. Important facts were discovered from these early experiments: that the philosophy of work with this group must be forward looking, leading on with vision and understanding; that the place of special collections must be in the adult room and not in the children's room; that specially trained librarians with understanding of adolescents and with wide reading backgrounds were essential to the success of any project for youth. The New York Public Library made a great contribution to work with young people when in 1919 a Superintendent of Work with Schools was appointed. "One of her functions was to train in each branch library a member of the adult staff to aid young people in their reading and reference work." This
necessitated the development of a program to train librarians for work with young people and to institute a committee to evaluate books for this group. Mabel Williams caught the spirit of youth, and the continuity and development of this service was expressed in the article “A Book Committee Comes of Age” in 1943.

The next step in development was the organization of the Robert Louis Stevenson Room for Young People in the Cleveland Public Library in 1925, which was the first room devoted entirely to work with youth with a trained staff and a collection of adult books selected with the interests of young people in mind. Originally planned primarily for the recreational and personal information needs of youth, as indicated by their preferences in a preliminary survey, it soon became apparent that material to supplement the school curriculum was essential. In a large library organized on the subject division plan, the bringing together of material in one place is almost imperative to assure service to the uninitiated and the timid. It is the starting point for reference service, as well as the place for expert reading guidance and serves as an introduction to the whole library. Liaison relationships have been developed with all subject divisions. The book collection is composed of approximately 85 per cent adult titles, and the books are read and reviewed from the point of view of use with young people. The Stevenson Room has almost doubled its floor space, and it celebrated a “Coming of Age Party” in 1946 by adding an informal browsing alcove.

In this experimental period Brooklyn Public Library converted the second floor of the Brownsville Children’s Branch into a department for youth. Along with the organization of the Young People’s Reading Round Table in 1930 at the conference of the American Library Association in New Haven, Connecticut, there developed important extension service to youth; the appointment of a young people’s librarian to head the work at the main library and at branches in the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore; the opening of the Skinner Memorial Room in St. Paul, Minnesota; work in Portland, Oregon; a special room in the Rochester Public Library; and in 1941 a department for young people in the new Brooklyn Public Library. In Sacramento, California, the Ella A. McClatchy Library, a luxurious old home, was transformed into a beautiful library exclusively for young people, and another transformation of an old building was the Nathan Straus Branch of the New York Public Library, which has become a center for work with youth in New York.

A survey conducted by the Standing Committee of the Young Peo-

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People's Reading Round Table shows great increases in work with youth during the period of 1937-47, but also shows great diversity in policies and procedures. From 165 replies to the questionnaire only twenty-nine reported no specialized service for young people between ages thirteen to twenty-one. Seventy-three libraries center their services in the adult department, sixteen in the children's department, and five have special departments. Forty-two libraries have special rooms; sixty-five, alcoves; four have lounges; and the balance of approximately fifty have special shelves. The majority of libraries have permanent book collections varying in size from one hundred to fifteen thousand, with the average figure around two thousand. Sixty-eight libraries have no special budget. Only thirty-five libraries record having book reviewing groups or committees to help in the selection of books.

The need for a statement of philosophy, objectives, standards, techniques, and methods of work with youth was recognized by the American Library Association, and a subcommittee of the A.L.A. Committee on Post-War Planning was appointed. The Public Library Plans for the Teen Age, published in 1948, is the result of the work of that committee. It is an excellent beginning volume on services, standards for book collections, suggestions about space and equipment, standards of personnel, types of administration, and the training needed. It is time now to study and analyze work with youth in relation to present statistics, present needs, and selfishly, the potential value of youth in each community. The value of youth is high and many organizations and agencies compete with each other to reach them. Libraries have been slow to see these values. Churches have their special group activities; department stores spare no expense to bring together items from all departments and place them in the best locations to entice young people to buy; banks have special quarters; big business is sponsoring Junior Achievement; political parties promote youth programs. And the public libraries are still struggling on the fringe of specialized service without any dynamic, vital program.

In the New York survey 65 per cent of the readers in the Circulation Department were under twenty and almost 80 per cent were below the age of thirty. In New Rochelle more than 50 per cent were under twenty. A similar pattern is found in other libraries. It is important now to make a study to discover what causes drop-outs in libraries about the time children are ready for adult cards—what factors are involved in keeping young people as readers and what factors deter the use of the library by young people. There has been enough experimentation now in some of the larger public libraries to be able
to secure data and to analyze the facts to find out the reasons why some young people continue to use the public library even when they are not obliged to and others do not. On the basis of such information constructive programs might be devised. Such a study has been recommended by the Public Library Inquiry. A study in reading guidance techniques is another important area for research.

In order to carry out the objectives of service to youth, a major step in planning in any public library, large or small, is the necessity for the entire staff to have common understanding of the purpose of the work with youth in the over-all library program. The fact that work with young people crosses departmental lines brings up administrative problems, and is a deterring factor in some libraries. Any specialization crosses departmental lines to some extent, but does not duplicate services, and a clear understanding of the value and function of any special service in relation to the library as a whole is necessary. *The Public Library Plans for the Teen Age* discusses various methods of administration. Whether the organization is that of direct supervisory authority or that of a coordinator, the success of both is assured only through working cooperatively, with understanding and broadmindedness. Whatever administrative plan is used, there must be definite responsibility and authority worked through the director, and when situations cannot be resolved through conferences, the director makes whatever decision is best for the entire library. Flexibility in organization and a free interchange of ideas and plans is essential to healthy growth. Staff recommendations, promotions, and changes should be the responsibility of both coordinator and direct supervisor. The Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore is the best example of organization on the "coordinator" plan.

In Cleveland the Supervisor of the Youth Department directly supervises youth services in the main library and acts as a coordinator in the branches, integrating and developing work in this area for the whole system. One assistant in each adult subject division at Main is designated as a special young people's representative, attending occasional meetings of the Committee of Young People's Reading and being advised of current policies and activities. Insofar as possible, young people are sent directly to this liaison person when their first contact with the division is made.

Every public library has the potential for special service to youth. First comes the interest and understanding of the needs of young people by the librarian. Since young people are already in the library to some degree, it is desirable to capitalize on the interest of the
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leaders and give them an opportunity to participate in the planning. They have many ideas and the energy and capacity to carry them out. The best talented, trained staff member should be given the responsibility to develop the work. Space will be needed, specially allocated, not necessarily additional; books already on the shelves need to be brought out, displayed by interest and supplemented by new titles; furniture will need to be rearranged, probably repainted and probably by the young people themselves; activities planned by youth leaders and even responsibility for “order” in the corner, alcove, or what have you, will be accepted by the young people. Additional funds will be needed as the work progresses and the influence is felt in the community. Here, too, young adults can help in the interpretation of the place of the library in the community.

An attractive illustrated brochure prepared by the Young People’s Reading Round Table, now the Association of Young People’s Librarians of the American Library Association, entitled A Youth Library in Every Community cites many examples of different kinds of youth library centers and many youth activities. In all of these youth had a share in the planning which was essential to successful work. There are young people’s book discussion groups in many libraries that would compare favorably with most adult groups and surpass some. There is considerable use of films both for recreation and for discussion purposes. Vocational evenings are popular with films and with specialists who are invited to talk and to answer questions. Two libraries experimented successfully with the Great Books program. Sports and hobbies are represented by seasonal interests; there are music, chess, dramatics, poetry, and nature groups. “Personality programs” are popular, and so are “Listening Posts.” There are World Politics groups and Junior Town Meetings. Book reviewing groups often use the radio as a medium, or write their reactions and comments about books in a news bulletin like New York’s Circulatin’ the News. The most noteworthy example of a youth radio program is the “Young Book Reviewers Broadcast” presented over a New York City radio station Saturday mornings over a period of years. Margaret C. Scoggin is the master of ceremonies and skillfully brings out the opinions of her young reviewers.

The Cleveland Public Library is just completing the ninth year in the “Roads to World Understanding” program for young people, a series jointly sponsored by the Cleveland Press World Friends’ Club, the Junior Council on World Affairs, the Cleveland Art Museum, and the library. Programs are planned for young people of high school
and early college age to further their understanding of other countries
and other people and the problems of living together in "one world." A Young People's Planning Committee, composed of representatives
from schools and youth organizations, helps in the planning and assists
at the meetings, ushering, taking registration, interpreting exhibits, and participating in choral groups, nationality dances, and music.

"It's Our America" is a program for young adults between the
ages of seventeen and twenty-one initiated in the fall of 1952 as part
of the American Heritage Project of the American Library Association. Discussion groups are set up for young people to meet and talk about events and ideas which have helped to build America and to draw parallels with today's problems. Fiction and biography and documentary films form the basis of the discussion. Leadership training courses are given and book discussion guides have been prepared for leaders.

It should be noted that all these programs and activities are linked
to young people's interests, that they all tie in with library materials,
and that they all provide valuable group experience and an opportu-
nity to relate personal interests to broader social and educational
goals.

The success of work with youth is dependent to a high degree on
the librarian assigned to develop the service. He should be a graduate
of a library school, preferably with special training in work with young
people which should include standards in book selection for young
people, and a critical evaluation of the books and their use, dis-
cussion of reading interests, guidance techniques and methods,
background for the understanding of adolescents and the relationship
of service to youth in the library with other youth agencies in the
community. The two most important factors are the personality of the
librarian and his reading background.

The extent of influence can only be measured in terms of knowledge
of books, knowledge of young people, and the imagination of the li-
brarian in bringing them together. Book collections must reflect interests and needs of youth with a vision of the potential growth of
individuals. These collections in no way restrict but are recommen-
dations and an introduction to the rest of the library. Young people
are free to use any part of the library. There are many young people
who read magazines, and most collections have as wide a selection
as the budget allows reflecting again the many interests and hobbies
of youth. Magazines with their bright attractive covers are frequently the first to appeal.

One of the most delightful books to read and one filled with practical help plus inspiration is Amelia H. Munson's An Ample Field. Its broad approach to books and reading reflects experience and wisdom. Guidance is underwritten throughout, and a particularly helpful chapter is the introduction of books through book talks, one of the most important techniques in group guidance. The book lists included are good first selections for young people's collections.

Aids in selecting books are growing both in number and in scope. Current reviewing is very important and is offered through special sections in The Booklist, Library Journal, and The Horn Book Magazine, among others. The New York Public Library's Books for Young People is a basic list and includes more juvenile titles than any other similar publication as the beginning age is thirteen years. A number of larger libraries have available for a small cost mimeographed copies of the current recommendations of young people's books, e.g., New York, Baltimore, Detroit, and Cleveland. By Way of Introduction is a basic recreational list. Many libraries have short printed lists which show great individuality in approaching youth. One Cleveland list, Personality Patterns Through Books, has been popular with leaders of youth agencies for use with young people facing problems of adjustment. A book based on experience with young people over a period of years and planned entirely to develop reading interests of young people, Patterns in Reading, was published in September 1954 by the American Library Association. This includes over one hundred reading interests with the books placed under interest and arranged progressively to expand and deepen interests.

Young people’s librarians have established close cooperative relationships with the schools and school libraries, no matter what the organizational plan is. Schools and libraries are interdependent and supplement each other. Mutual understanding of common goals and objectives in the development of individual boys and girls are recognized, and plans for interchange of information are developed. Conferences on subjects relating to curriculum needs are frequent; discussions on books and other materials of communication are continuous. Discussions on individual teacher or pupil needs or problems are part of the everyday work. Book talks in the schools are given often by young people's librarians, visits to the public library are planned for the schools, introductory talks in the use of library ma-
terials are given in both school libraries and public libraries. There is joint planning of school and public libraries in book reviewing and book discussions, in exchange of materials, and in preparation of book lists. Experiments in devices to carry over young people from school library to public library are being tried at the time of graduation and at the time students drop out of school before graduation. The school and public library clientele is the same, the school compulsory and the public library voluntary.

The young people's librarian is the key person to develop a good public relations program with all agencies and organizations serving youth in the community in order to tie in library services and resources to agency programs as such, and also to better serve the individuals who are part of those organizations. Representing the library on youth councils, serving on agency committees, working with service organizations, and taking active part in the planning of community youth projects are important in library services. Book talks, preparation of special book lists, help in program planning are part of the work; a file of speakers, a file of information about youth organizations and activities are indispensable. Cooperation with organizations like the Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., Catholic Youth Organization, the Jewish youth groups, the 4-H clubs, the local vocational groups, the recreation and hobby groups in social agencies—they are manifold in number—offer many opportunities for service, and the results are rewarding in growth and development of individual members.

In all of these contacts, there are two points of emphasis: first with the younger teen-ager, with techniques suitable to that group; and second, with the young adult, which requires an entirely different skill. Too little is known about the latter, and a very important study with many implications for libraries has just been published by the National Social Welfare Assembly, Young People and Citizenship,¹⁹ which analyzes the characteristics and interests of young adults and makes recommendations for further study. Some of these parallel the needs for further study in relation to libraries.

Considerable work is done with adults working with youth—conferences with parents about many problems, work with teachers, social workers, religious leaders, club leaders, adults planning radio and TV programs, vocational counselors, probation officers, and the list grows as the library develops its public relations program.

No better statement about the future can be made than that penned by Ernestine Rose:
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. . . it is safe to predict that the future program of the library, changing to meet new needs and conditions, will include specialized service to young people on an enlarged scale.

Modern social problems hasten this action, but it is definitely in line with the social development of the public library. Moreover, there are questions involved in complete library service and in efficient library administration which can be answered most successfully only by recognizing this group as one unit in a coordinated library design. . . . There are no "larger issues" today. These young people will not receive a fair deal from the public library until they are given their own reference tools, their own space for study and conference, and their own librarians, vitally interested in the possibilities and problems of youth and qualified to deal with them. . . .

. . . there is adequate proof that in communities where for a number of years boys and girls have become accustomed to the use of books and libraries there now exists an adult group whose members possess a knowledge of the tools of education, and who turn from their academic education to the resources offered by the library with a feeling of familiarity and a sense of fulfilled desire. 20

Our future leaders are dependent upon the opportunities and resources of the present. Our high school graduates of 1954 will be college graduates in 1958; in 1959 some will be librarians complete with graduate training; in 1961 with still more professional training some will be scientists and doctors. These are the young people who are in our libraries today. Are they receiving the help, the encouragement, the understanding they need now in order to take their places in the adult world?

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2. Ibid., p. 33.
JEAN C. ROOS


Public Library Services to Adults

JACK B. SPEAR

From the beginning of recorded time knowledge has been treasured by adults for their own use. Whether the information was preserved in hand-lettered scrolls of papyrus or in volumes printed in countless copies, the record was made as an aid to memory and as a legacy to later generations. Libraries were formed to collect these records and to preserve them for use. In the beginnings, to be sure, there was no concept of use by the public; but with the change in recording from a hand process and few copies to a mechanical process and many copies came the idea of sharing. From this, and with this, come the roots of public library service.

It was Benjamin Franklin who spoke with a circle of his friends in Philadelphia about sharing some of their personal books with each other and with other interested adults in the community. From this venture grew what is commonly thought of as the first lending library, and soon this scheme for sharing books was adopted elsewhere in the country. In Franklin's library money for the necessities came from fees and subscriptions, and as the number of subscribers multiplied funds increased. Finally, the idea of a "free" library developed, but since money was necessary to pay for rent, candles, cords of wood, custodians, and even books, it could not really be free. The town fathers, seeing more and more the advantages of having a library available to everyone, began to appropriate small amounts of public monies for maintaining these collections of books which had been established to help fulfill a need felt by the adults in the community. Civic leaders in America believed then, as we know now, that formal education was important in the beginning years of life and that informal learning is equally necessary after formal schooling is completed. For did not the Constitution declare in 1787, "We, the people of the United States, in order to . . . promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this

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Constitution for the United States of America." Four short years later the adoption of the first amendment gave freedom of the press legal status and thereby established and insured one of the most important channels of adult learning.

During the early nineteenth century public libraries grew in influence and numbers. With this growth came in 1876 the founding of the American Library Association, and almost fifty years later this association gave appropriate recognition to the library's role in adult education by the appointment of a commission to study this movement and to make recommendations for action to the A.L.A. Council. This led to the establishment of an A.L.A. Adult Education Board to "encourage, inaugurate and assist in the conduct of a series of library experiments and demonstrations in adult education." Two years later came the extensive report, Libraries and Adult Education, which provoked wide professional interest in the subject. The readers' advisory services established in our larger public libraries were copied elsewhere until in "1935 there were some sixty-three professional readers' advisers at work in forty-four American public libraries." It is noteworthy that the American Library Association at the 1934 annual conference restated its objectives to include goals in adult education.

In the fall of 1937 the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago held an institute for librarians in service. Through this institute "an effort was made: (1) to indicate the increasing opportunities which libraries have of performing fundamentally educational service from which the nation can profit; (2) to formulate objectives which libraries should set as the goal of their efforts in this field; (3) to point out certain methods and experiments which seem to hold out possibilities of increasing the effectiveness of libraries; and (4) to indicate something of the significance of the library's contribution to the total adult education movement." This institute and the attendant publication added a great deal of professional know-how to the growing field of working with adults in our libraries. In addition it undoubtedly whetted professional appetites and supplied food for thought to those many farsighted librarians who were beginning to hear more and more of Alvin Johnson and his "people's university" and who perhaps in the not too distant past had digested W. S. Learned's basic theories on the diffusion of knowledge.

To the omniscient seer it would have been apparent that a quickening cycle was developing. "Adult education in public libraries" became a popular topic in the periodical indexes, and the expositions increased in length and in importance. Many theories, projects, prob-
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白马, and solutions were proposed in the years before World War II. These are readily available, and they are fascinating reading. C. W. Stone, in *Library Trends* in April 1953, analyzed and identified past "trends in public library thinking which have determined the library's place in adult education." Not available to Stone in 1953, but mentioned by him as in progress, is the Survey of Adult Education Activities in Public Libraries financed by a grant to the American Library Association from the Fund for Adult Education, an independent agency established by the Ford Foundation. The survey was directed by Helen Lyman Smith, and her report was available in manuscript to the writer. This report is the most comprehensive study of the services currently available to adults in our public libraries, and without the information contained therein no prediction of future trends in this area could be made.

The purpose of the survey, as stated on the cover of the questionnaire, was "to learn what public libraries and state library extension agencies in the United States are doing to help adults and young adults in continuing education," and it was to be "concerned primarily with three areas: (1) the services your library provides to other adult education agencies, (2) the services your library provides to community groups, and (3) your library's own programs and activities." The questionnaire was designed to find out what was actually being done in this field at a particular time—and after the facts were found, they were to be interpreted through a series of interviews with a representative sampling of the librarians involved so that the information could be properly related in a statistical analysis. The questionnaire, after careful pretesting, was mailed to some 4,096 public libraries in the United States. This number included every type of community as well as every political subdivision of government that is used for support of a public library. It is interesting to note that over half of the libraries were in what we unashamedly call "small communities," those with 2,500 to 9,999 people.

The final chapter of the survey has special significance in a consideration of the trends in the adult education activities of public libraries:

Since this is the first survey of its kind there is no yardstick against which we can measure the findings. However, the recommendations of the ALA Commission on the Library and Adult Education indicate that some of these services represented in the survey in quantity were only beginning, or were practically unheard of, thirty years ago. Among the definite needs which this Commission felt should have
serious consideration if libraries were to meet their responsibilities was "organized and more adequate library service to other organizations engaged in Adult Education," and establishment of "an information service regarding local opportunities for Adult Education." The professional literature reveals that the use of audio-visual materials and discussion groups in adult education began to be talked about in the middle thirties. The services of this kind which libraries now provide, coupled with those which they would like to provide surely proves that more and more libraries consider group services an important and natural function of library.

Before considering the findings of the survey, it should be pointed out that the questionnaire itself served as a detailed list of suggestions on the services a library might offer the adults in a community. Careful study of the seventeen pages introduced many librarians to undreamed of opportunities for local service, and this in itself will greatly accelerate the extension of library services to adults.

And now, what are some of these much flaunted facts? First and foremost, the fundamental assumption of the survey, "that the public library is a major educational institution with responsibilities for helping adults to learn," was confirmed.

The findings are conclusive evidence that the public libraries of the United States are providing adult education services to other agencies and groups and in the libraries' own programs by a variety of services and activities and with various materials, means, and personnel. The extent to which adult education services to groups are provided has been ascertained for the first time. It was found that, while slightly less than 10% of the libraries were doing a great deal in helping adults and young adults continue education in group activities, the majority of libraries were equally divided between those doing a medium amount and those doing a little.

In our expanding market of service to adults, two basic premises should be considered. First, existing collections of books and materials should be used more thoroughly and effectively by more of our people, and second, future recognizance by these same people of the role of the library in their lives should increase. A study of library income, book budgets, services to the community, and trained personnel during the last decade indicates that both of these premises are and will continue to be true. And this applies in particular to communities where the library is active and alive, for here, through careful and skillful interpretations of the needs of the community, the library has come to occupy an increasingly greater place in the minds of all its
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Public librarians have felt for a long time that the individual is the main recipient of our service. Where else in our communities today can a man go to read what he wants as rapidly or as slowly as he pleases—where, but to the public library? The individual and his problems, all as different as only people can be, are and will continue to be of primary concern to librarians. In the last decade, however, has come a new way of working with that individual—in groups with his neighbors, or with other people who have similar interest.

The survey found from the 1,692 tabulated replies to the questionnaire that 1,037 libraries (over 61 per cent) served women’s study and reading clubs, 995 served parents’ organizations, 834 served informal local clubs, and 832 gave their services to missionary societies and church groups. At the other end of the scale, there are only 129 libraries currently working with labor unions and 137 serving industrial groups. Labor unions and the attendant problems of labor and management should receive greater attention from public librarians within the next few years.

Some public libraries became acquainted with group work through the A.L.A. American Heritage Project, under the auspices of which 292 public libraries sponsored regular meetings in 1952–53. The 4,573 people who participated in the second year of the project came to the groups to talk:

And talk they did—not as they had been accustomed to in their civic organizations, clubs, PTA’s—but in a new way. For now under the American Heritage Project they talked together about an idea, a document, or an issue that they had individually explored for the specific purpose of discussion with others. Coming together, they found that this preparation led to productive discussion rather than the airing of preconceived ideas. And they were pleased—yes, extremely pleased—that as individuals equipped with information, they had contributed to each other’s thinking through group discussion and had come away with a well-rounded view.

The leaders of the Project believe that this type of adult education work will continue to thrive:

The first two years of the Project certainly indicate that future expansion in the major grant areas will be from strength gained from experience. But, one might ask, “What about the new areas where they must start from scratch?” The answer is: Now we have a working combination of substantial aids—administrative skills, plus a body of knowledge gained in leadership training, programming, selection of materials, preparation of guides, lists and publicity materials; and
work with a variety of community circumstances. We feel confident that, just as the experience of the first year gave impetus to the growth in this second year, so will 1952–53 contribute to a successful future.\textsuperscript{16}

The next decade will see more and more public library sponsored discussion programs. These may be titled “American Heritage” or “Great Books,” but they probably will bear a new name and will deal with the specific problems or interests of particular communities. The increased knowledge that a relatively few librarians have gained in the skills of leading discussions and working with groups will spread within our profession. The survey reported that 178 libraries were using films,\textsuperscript{17} and this number will increase as more public libraries employ film as the bases for group discussions. According to the survey, eighteen public libraries in the United States are now providing television programs,\textsuperscript{18} and others will find ways to work with it. What the Milwaukee Public Library has done with its “Today in History” series, and what the Mohawk-Hudson Council on Educational Television in Schenectady, New York, has done to help public libraries to present programs on a cooperative area basis are only two examples of things to come.

Among our people are many who have lost their sight. Little more than a decade ago the blind had to depend on Braille or other embossed type for their reading. Then came the recording of books on 33\% rpm long-playing records. The acceptance of “Talking Books” has been rapid among the blind, yet only 10 per cent of those who are eligible to receive these records free of charge actually do. This roughly parallels the percentage of our population that actively uses our public libraries. Challenging opportunities await librarians in working with the blind and persons handicapped in other ways.

There are many services to adults which public librarians will consider as they plot the courses of their institutions. Some will find that the maintenance of a calendar of community events and a speakers bureau will be enough to add to their present work load; others will offer training for mothers in the art of storytelling, courses in group leadership, instruction in remedial reading, or institutes and workshops for program chairmen. Whatever is attempted, if it is well done, will add to the stature of the public library as a community agency for adult education.

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5. Ibid., p. vii.
11. Smith, op. cit., p. 64.
12. Ibid., p. xii.
13. Ibid., p. 37, Table 22.
15. Ibid., p. 3.
16. Ibid., p. 29.
18. Ibid., p. 17, Table 15.
Services to Scholars

CARL M. WHITE

“Scholarship may be defined as high competence in a delimited field of conscious and sustained inquiry for related facts, valid generalizations, and workable truths.”¹ This is a good definition from the standpoint of the profession of scholarship but not from the standpoint of the library profession; it implies a remoteness, a separability of scholarly materials from the needs of “non-scholars” that is unrealistic and impractical. Intelligent laymen can, do, and should use many of these materials productively. They can do so because the greatest mass education program on record gives so many men and women the necessary basis of comprehension for use and also because so many of these people continue to grow in wisdom and stature long after they leave the classroom. William L. Clements illustrates how thin the line is which distinguishes professional and lay scholarship—although he is hardly typical. With limited schooling he made himself an authority on the literature dealing with the early history of our country. William Warner Bishop says of the collection he assembled and gave to the University of Michigan that its greatness lay less in the rarity, price, and reputation of its items than in the extraordinary scholarship and critical judgment shown in the selection of materials.²

Other examples are contributed by librarians themselves: “Time and again I have seen reference workers made wise by long years of training handle with consummate ease and success an inquiry which had baffled inexperienced folk of excellent, even superior, training.”³

We need more precise knowledge of differences, real and fancied, between professional and lay scholarship. Meanwhile library experience shows that when in 1939–40 debate teams in Michigan “Resolved that the United States should follow a policy of strict isolation towards all nations outside of the Western Hemisphere engaged in armed international conflict,” these young thinkers used materials similar to those being used in the same great debate by their parents who were

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editing newspapers, teaching, preaching, farming, and making automobiles—and that the best informed of these adults were in turn using materials similar to those being used by professional scholars at the University of Michigan. Library experience also shows growing public interest in having access to existing scholarly materials, shows it both in requests for access to institutional collections as well as in the multiplication of scholarly collections outside recognized centers of scholarship. The U.S. Weather Bureau has probably the largest library in the world devoted to the meteorological sciences. Certain specialized collections used by the automotive industry in Detroit are probably unsurpassed. While the Library of Congress "is primarily a scholarly library, . . . it is a 'people's library of reference' also."  

This paper assumes that the differences, while real, between scholarly libraries and certain other libraries are at times exaggerated by thinking of the scholar as a more distinct species than the facts of library experience show him to be. The differences seem to be a matter more of degree than kind. Accordingly, the meaning given "scholar" here will differ from the definition above. Ralph Waldo Emerson defined the scholar as "Man Thinking." 5 Born in the climate of reason provided by the eighteenth century, our nation stands in a peculiar way for the application of intelligence to the problems of life. It will accordingly be convenient to let the term "scholar" include any person who regularly uses the library—any type of library—for this purpose.

A word about "services." If we were to analyze the meaning of libraries in the life of a free society, such services could be enumerated as the role of libraries in giving man power over what Emerson calls the mind of the past, their role in putting this accumulated knowledge to work, in advancing the boundaries of accumulated knowledge, in formal as well as informal education, and in maintaining access to the record free of partisan or sectarian influence. Our job here has as its focus, not society, but individual readers. We are to take stock of what the individual scholar can and does receive from libraries. Such an inventory is too big a job to be done all at once, but here are seven services, or classes of service, which if quickly reviewed will tell us a lot about the shape our business is in.

1. Free lending. Sixteen years ago a study of the recorded use as shown by the circulation figures of university libraries over a period of years showed a long curve sloping sharply upward. 6 The summary in Table 1 brings the record down to date for twenty of the libraries which participated in the original study.
CARL M. WHITE

TABLE 1

Summaries of Recorded Use in Twenty University Libraries*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total Recorded Circulation</th>
<th>Per Cent Based on 1927-28</th>
<th>Total Persons Regularly Using These Libraries†</th>
<th>Per Cent Based on 1927-28</th>
<th>Per Capita Use Based on 1927-28</th>
<th>Per Cent Based on 1927-28</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1927-28</td>
<td>6,618,257</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>170,291</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>38.86</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936-37</td>
<td>9,042,708</td>
<td>135.1</td>
<td>191,825</td>
<td>112.6</td>
<td>47.14</td>
<td>121.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947-48</td>
<td>13,205,862</td>
<td>199.6</td>
<td>346,164</td>
<td>203.2</td>
<td>38.15</td>
<td>98.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952-53</td>
<td>11,051,630</td>
<td>168.5</td>
<td>250,409</td>
<td>170.4</td>
<td>44.13</td>
<td>113.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Brown, Chicago, Cincinnati, Columbia (Teachers College included in accordance with earlier practice), Cornell, Illinois, Iowa State, Iowa University, Louisiana, McGill, Michigan, North Carolina, Northwestern, Ohio State, Oregon, Princeton, Stanford, Temple, Tennessee, and Toronto.

† Figures include faculty and students during the regular academic year. To the total were added summer session figures, reduced in weight to allow for the fact that a student is in residence only a fraction of the time of a student who is in residence during the regular year.

Total use recorded in these libraries rose over 68 per cent in twenty-five years, the gain being around 100 per cent at the peak of postwar registration. Per capita use went down then, climbed back in 1952-53 to a point 13 per cent above the figures for 1927-28, but there has been a leveling off, and since 1936-37 a drop.

This drop is a reversal of a long trend in recorded per capita use which held steady till around the outbreak of World War II. Comments made by librarians in transmitting the information needed to bring the original study up to date enumerate various factors which have a bearing on this leveling off—in some libraries a falling off: the effects of the war and the unsettled times in which we now live ("The students now are less well prepared [due to the war-originated crisis in secondary schools] and reflect the fact that they are children of an uncertain age."); progress away from the use of reserved-book collections as textbooks in different form; lending regulations which reduce circulation statistics but provide better service—and better public relations; spread of measures designed to supervise institutional property without interposing physical barriers between readers and books. These measures include organization of materials by division, spread of the undergraduate library idea, opening stacks to more readers, placing room control at the exit instead of at the desk, and new buildings which emphasize free access. Princeton's faculty and students have worked in the midst of their books since 1948. The entire collection at Iowa has been on open shelves since 1952. Chicago,
Services to Scholars

Columbia, Illinois, Oregon, and Stanford, among others, have taken steps of various kinds in recent years all aimed at bettering opportunities for free access.

All this adds up to saying that postwar developments are accelerating a change in manner of use which in its way is as much of a departure from nineteenth-century lending practices as free lending itself is from the chained book. We do not have adequate measures to tell us how much, if any, the volume of use has gained while the manner of use has been changing the looks of our statistics. There are indications that the gain may be considerable—the count of students in the stacks at Stanford, circulation combined with door count at Princeton, etc. Be this as it may, the pattern of service is being recut around the idea of quality of service, and if lending services, old style, are losing ground in the process, it is to be expected. Meanwhile, statistics for books borrowed from the library—what is ordinarily meant by “recorded use”—are being kept, but kept perhaps in better perspective. Librarians have long pointed out that these statistics do not measure total use, and even the use thus measured is sometimes productive, sometimes not.

Nevertheless, free lending as one means of access remains a key service of the institutional library. The interlibrary loan is a reminder of this fact, if one is needed. The twenty libraries mentioned above made 59 per cent more loans to scholars through other libraries in 1952–53 than in 1947–48, and borrowed 22 per cent more during the same period. Table 2 shows the same upward trend over a longer period for a somewhat smaller group of libraries.

TABLE 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interlibrary Loans Handled by Eleven Universities*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items loaned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items borrowed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


We do not know all the factors back of this upsweep. We do know the curve would climb even faster if photocopying had not developed into such a valuable means of facilitating access. Though our information is scrappy in places, we know some of the factors on the other
side too: enriched collections which invite borrowers, wartime gaps which necessitate borrowing, pressures due to graduate study and postdoctoral research, new programs, costliness of inclusive coverage, and an expanding clientele.

This last phrase refers to a trend all by itself: to groups which are taking up residence as neighbors to scholarly libraries; to business and industrial organizations, which Columbia, Cornell, Michigan, Princeton, and others report as borrowers; and to government agencies. Government installations in or near Knoxville have received loans from the University of Tennessee in increasing volume ever since 1933. The same thing is happening to scholarly collections elsewhere.

2. Direct personal assistance given to readers in the use of resources of the library. This phrasing follows closely the definition of reference work given by Alice B. Kroeger in 1902. Margaret Hutchins had to expand this earlier definition in 1944 to encompass newer services treated in later sections. In this section we are sticking to a function of the library, not of one of its departments—the clear and present task of helping the reader get what he wants when he wants it. This is an elemental service of the present-day library, performed by persons styled as differently as “circulation librarian” and “documentalist.” Differing amounts and kinds of assistance are given readers, but the following description of the reference librarian as of 1915 gives a rough indication of what tradition has made the norm in the American library:

. . . the “reference librarian,” [is] the man who is compelled to be all things to all men, who, counting nothing and no one trivial, spends his days opening up to the miscellaneous public the stores of the library’s books. . . . He sends the interesting inquiry on to the specialist; . . . he greets generations of students . . . ; here he averts a difficulty, there he smooths down an irate reader with too often a just grievance; he is an interpreter, revealing to inquirers what the library has; he is a lubricant, making the wheels run noiselessly and well. . . . At his best scholars use him, like him, thank him. At his lowest ebb no one considers him save as a useful part of the machinery. This is the theory of his work—service, quiet, self-effacing, but not passive or unheeding. To make books useful, and more used,—this is his aim. 3

Today those who give personal assistance are perhaps more likely to recognize the trivial for what it is and to concern themselves with the “interesting inquiry” as well as the “machinery” of library technique. Certainly they turn the wheels as well as lubricate them, and self-effacement is distinguished from courtesy and tact. On the other
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side, some observers believe that the spirit in which personal assistance is given has deteriorated somewhat. Any such tendency must of course be resisted as the plague. Meanwhile, the total score is favorable. Direct personal assistance is the best known of our services and, if we may judge from the prefaces of books, the one consciously most appreciated by scholars.

3. Teaching and counseling services. By tradition the reference librarian, a teacher at heart, has used every reasonable opportunity to help the inquirer learn to proceed better the next time on his own. This is still the basic line of attack in teaching the use of the library.

The second form of instruction is the use of handbooks, leaflets, and other aids aimed at reaching one individual at a time. The quality of these aids is steadily improving.

The third method is formal instruction. To teach throngs of students one at a time is costly, and so far instruction through printed and visual materials, while good as first aids and even better for describing special materials or services, has not proved to be the answer. Organized class instruction is the normal device used by modern man in passing on a body of basic know-how. In high schools the trend is to offer such instruction through English courses, the librarian and the teacher closely cooperating. Colleges and universities are not so far along, and their librarians, while experimenting, are not very happy with the results. One thoughtful librarian puts it this way: "Despite many gestures made in the general direction of teaching the use of the library, it must be admitted that the library profession has failed to make its essentially esoteric tools seem easy to understand and use. Failed, not because of the difficulty of such teaching, but because of unwillingness to insist on the kind and amount of instruction necessary."

The minimum essentials in effective library instruction include students with homogeneous interests, subject matter selected and arranged to further these interests, and a stimulating teacher. All these points present difficulties. Some of the best work is being done in colleges and universities, as in high schools, by cooperating with other departments. Teachers College at Columbia University has had considerable experience with library instruction. A quick review of practice there may point up a tendency to use more than a single-shot approach. Alongside a reference department is a consultant service. It is directed by the Library Consultant, Associate Professor Ethel M. Feagley, also Associate Librarian, aided by an Assistant Library Consultant. The work of the consultant service includes:
a) Informal work with individual students.—Includes location of materials, the card catalog, indexes, bibliographical form to be used in dissertations, advice on books. Conferences, often initiated by the consultants, on these or other matters connected with the student’s work, as required.

b) Preparation of materials of instruction.—Includes tests on the library and leaflets for use in connection with the course work of the college. Leaflets deal with practical problems, contain equally practical suggestions. Some are prepared for sale and circulate widely.

c) General library lectures each semester.—These cover the use of the library, term papers, children’s books.

d) Special library lectures on invitation of professors.—During 1953–54 lectures were given to classes in childhood education, nursing education, supervision of teaching, home economics, physical education, rural education, and to groups of foreign students. Sometimes lectures are requested by the professor, sometimes suggested in conference by the Library Consultant.

e) Special courses conducted entirely or in part by the Library Consultant staff.—Education 221 LS. Locating educational information, 1–3 points. Education 321 ER. Orientation in educational research and planning, 3 points. Education 261 LU. The English teacher and the library, 1 point.

f) Participation in doctoral examinations, in project committee work, and other academic activities having a special library angle.

The University of Illinois is experimenting with a bolder move toward aligning the personal assistance given readers with the regular counseling and educational program of the institution. The experiment, centered in the Chicago Undergraduate Division under Associate Professor and Librarian D. K. Maxfield, has been in progress since 1948–49. The Reference Department was replaced in 1951–52 by a new Department of Library Instruction and Advisement. This department handles reference questions, assists the faculty in research, cooperates with the English Department in giving formal library instruction, and gives readers’ advisory service. Advancing beyond this rather inclusive range of tested library techniques, the experiment introduces the technique of counseling as developed by modern students of personnel. Three specially qualified Library Advisers have been appointed to the staff of the new department. Their job is to associate the services of the library closely with instruction and counseling services heading up in other departments in producing a
Services to Scholars

healthy, enriched educational experience tailored to fit the individual student.

4. The assistance of library tools. The well-stocked reference room which occupies a central place in the service program of the present-day library is a phenomenon largely of the twentieth century. Not only the room itself, but the very series and sets which are the backbone of these impressive collections do not go back too far past the turn of the century, if that far. A check was made of 831 titles in Constance M. Winchell’s *Guide to Reference Books* (1951), seventh edition. For each title a single date was listed, only the earliest date being used where there were subsequent editions, volumes, or supplements. Thus 1828 was used for the *Merriam-Webster Dictionary*, 1768 for the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 1901 for *Readers’ Guide*, and so on. For commentary a similar check was made of the separates (not periodical articles) listed in Kroeger (1902). A comparison of this work with Winchell (1951) is shown in Table 3.

**TABLE 3**

*Number of Works by Date of Publication Listed in Winchell and Kroeger*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date of Origin of Titles</th>
<th>Winchell (1951)</th>
<th>Kroeger (1902)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Up to 1800</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1801 to 1825</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1826 to 1850</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1851 to 1860</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1861 to 1870</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871 to 1880</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1881 to 1890</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1891 to 1900</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901 to 1910</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911 to 1920</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921 to 1930</td>
<td>111</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931 to 1940</td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941 to 1950</td>
<td>206</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>831</td>
<td>784</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the titles listed in these two sources, only four originated more than two centuries ago. Ninety per cent of the titles listed in Winchell originated in the last fifty years. Only 6 per cent originated prior to
1876. More originated in the last decade than in any other in spite of World War II, and the total for the last twenty-five years is nearly double that for all the years preceding.

The assistance provided by reference collections is uniquely the function of the institutional library. Many of the most basic tools are much too monumental to be incorporated into personal libraries. Moreover, they supplement one another and are most useful as part of a well-rounded library collection.

This dependence on institutional libraries to supply reference tools is related to other developments. The New York Public Library prepares bibliographies as part of its regular service and for years has published those of more general interest. This practice on the part of libraries is making them one of the most prolific sources of information about information. The preparation and distribution of such information about information has become one of the principal means by which the Library of Congress extends its services beyond its walls. Two days after the invasion of Korea, the Library had assembled a preliminary list of references and soon thereafter published a weighty annotated bibliography dealing with publications in Western, Far Eastern and Russian languages. "Bibliographies prepared" is a significant item in the Library's annual statistics of work done; but long before such anonymity is achieved, the actual compilations are out at work around the globe—usually in libraries.

Following World War II, certain international meetings brought home the fact that too much effort is being spent at the base of the bibliographical problem in proportion to what is being done at the top. For lack of a grand design to which separate projects can be related, there is needless waste in duplication on one hand and corresponding gaps in bibliographical coverage on the other. While much has been written on this subject, results of the kind which touch scholars at the point of library use would not justify extensive treatment here; but it is significant as part of a long tradition of improving library service through organized cooperative effort. M. E. Curti has pointed out that the advancement of American scholarship in the twentieth century owes a great deal to the talent of our people for organization, and this is so notably true of all phases of library development that 1876, the date of the founding of the American Library Association, is commonly used to mark the beginning of the modern period.

Service through cooperation, well known to librarians, is not fully understood by the general public—sometimes not even by distinguished citizens who disburse library travel funds. The lawyer's
triumph is at the bar, the engineer's, in—say—the trim grace of a suspension bridge. Both points of greatest service are public, sometimes prominently public. The library profession's point of greatest service is seldom at the circulation desk and often not even in sight of its public. It is just as likely to be at the planning meeting of some committee or subcommittee of the A.L.A., A.R.L., or other professional association. No treatment of the present subject would be adequate which omitted this unsung, unphotographed procedure regularly used in achieving many of the profession's most brilliant service triumphs.

5. Services which use librarians as the main channel between sources of information and people engaged in putting information to work. Standard practice in circulation and reference work developed around the theory that the staff's job in the communication process is to put the reader on the way to getting information for himself. The services mentioned in the four foregoing sections are all built around this idea. In 1915 William Warner Bishop, with characteristic lucidity, formulated present-day theory of reference in a paper by that name in terms which may become classic: "Reference work, as defined in this paper, is the service rendered by a librarian in aid of some sort of study. It is not the study itself—that is done by the reader...it is primarily help given to a reader, not performance of the reader's task."\(^3\)

While the theory is still valid within limits, it has never fully jibed with actual practice. As an example, Isadore Mudge, long-time head reference librarian at Columbia University, made it the frank policy of her department to produce any information requested by the President of the University. The legend grew that the staff never failed to come through with the information and this is in fact confirmed by the unpublished papers of Miss Mudge. To keep up that record, however, it was necessary to expand "help given to a reader," into "performance of the reader's task." A dramatic example was the time when the staff narrowed—or seemed to narrow—the answer of a question to Edmund Burke. There was nothing to do at that point but to read all twelve volumes of his collected works—ordinarily "the reader's task." This the staff set out to do—until it found the answer in the eleventh volume.

This hiatus between reference theory and reference practice led J. I. Wyer to conclude that "The only tenable, impregnable theory of reference work is that which frankly recognizes the library's obligation to give...unlimited service, and such a theory squares with practice in commercial and other fields."\(^{12}\) His example of "unlimited
service”—a damning phrase, by the way—was the librarian in Gloversville, New York, who came through when a local milkman, waiting with his horses at the curb, shouted through the door of the public library that he wanted “a book to cure my best cow.” But in spite of impregnable position in which he puts this type of service where the librarian gets the reader what he wants instead of referring him to appropriate sources for it, and notwithstanding the growing use of this service technique in “commercial and other fields,” Wyer concluded that more “moderate” standards really represent “the best current practice.” The explanation of this non sequitur gets at the heart of confusion over differences between “regular” and “special” library work. Gloversville and other communities and educational institutions where reference practice first crystallized were compelled, for reasons of budget and staff, to hold down on the amount and quality of personal assistance given their constituencies. An added factor, of course, was the desire, particularly in educational institutions, not to “spoon-feed” readers, but to teach them to help themselves. Orthodox reference theory as formulated by Wyer in the first textbook to address itself to this subject is a rationalization of common practice in libraries of this type. “Best” as used above has no validity except in this context.

Meanwhile, librarians in business organizations and government agencies were already building important services around a different concept. In the main, these “special” librarians have been better as doers than explainers, so if others have not always understood what they were doing, the fault has perhaps not been entirely on either side. The doings and writings of special librarians give us facts which have been observable right along but which do not fit into accepted library theory used to interpret the meaning of these facts. Specifically, these facts are that society has many people and organizations typified by the Gloversville milkman. They could learn to use the library if they had to, and they could do their own study and research if the division of labor in their organizations called for it. Neither point applies. In view of the total division of labor within some organizations and agencies, it is better to let a specialist in information services go ahead and procure the information and put it in form for use than to let that person break off at a given point in the process and refer someone else to sources where the information can be procured. This is an oversimplification, but it is enough to stress the fact that “best” has to be defined, not as Wyer defined it in terms of practices prevailing in libraries of certain arbitrarily selected types, but rather in terms of the objectives which each organization is free to set for itself.
Granted certain objectives, the service is not "best," is not even "good," unless the librarian does more than refer readers to information sources. In such case, "help given a reader" takes on new meaning, while lessons about "performance of the reader's task" may have to be learned backwards.

Cornell University Library has for some years employed a member of its staff to assist scholars with the library phase of research in selected fields. The University of Florida Library is experimenting with the use of graduate students for a similar purpose. Business, industry, and government, however, are the areas where most has been done to treat the information process all the way from source to fresh application as continuous. Since the Legislative Reorganization Act of 1946, the Library of Congress has made good use of this principle in organizing its Legislative Reference Service—now a separate department. Competent specialists, with the resources of the Library back of them, seek to provide members and committees of Congress with information of a quality, and in such form, that it will further legislative action dissociated from faction, bias, suspicion—and from ignorance of past experience here and elsewhere. The new service has caught on, has repeatedly been mentioned even on the floor of Congress, while several of the compilations have been ordered published.

6. Building up resources to support scholarship. The back-to-the-wall earnestness with which library development had to be pushed when the university movement in this country was getting under way can perhaps be recaptured by reading part of a statement by one president (E. J. James of Illinois) to his board, back in 1912:

Speaking from an experience of eight years as your executive officer, I think I may say that I have had more people whom I have approached to consider positions at the University of Illinois decline the proposition because of the lack of library facilities than for any other reason; even more than because of... inadequate salaries... .

One of the fundamental distinctions between our American universities as a whole and European universities, is to be found in this matter of library facilities, and I believe that one of the reasons why American scholarship has limped along at such a distance behind European scholarship is to be found in the lack of such inspiration and the lack of such assistance as are afforded by great collections of books, which contain in themselves the recorded experience of the human race.
In general, the librarian-collector has lost standing since America began to make her big push to free her scholars from dependence on Old World libraries. We hear less today about how he serves scholarship and more about how his habits resemble the less serviceable acquisitiveness of magpies. The shift in attitude is a by-product of the rapid growth in size of twentieth-century library collections. Fourteen university libraries with a total of five million volumes in 1912–13 had fourteen million volumes twenty-five years later and have many millions more now. These libraries, we have learned, tend to double in size every sixteen years or so. The University of Illinois Library has, in fact, been doubling in size every nine years. Where, we ask, does all this lead? Where is the money coming from to go on at such a rate? Even if the money is forthcoming, will usable space hold out? (Harvard uses up two to three miles of new shelving each year.) Are libraries growing beyond human scale? If, as the social scientists tell us, man tends to be defeated by buildings and urban communities when they get past a certain size, is it time to slow down library growth to keep the human race from being “suffocated” eventually with books?

Off and on since the time of the Old Testament man has worried about the fact that of the making of books there is no end; but it has not kept him from going ahead and working out sound solutions to his book problems one generation at a time. Current discussions of library growth do not always distinguish between solutions intended for the next generation and those intended for the next millennium. Maybe we should remind ourselves that Thales fell in the well because he forgot to watch the footpath while looking at the stars. In any event collectors in and outside our libraries deserve high praise for their services to scholars. Harvard was reminded when Alfred Claghorn Potter retired in 1936 that two-thirds of the books purchased up to that point by the College library, and the majority of those for special libraries within and outside Widener, had been bought under his personal supervision. The collections were “his true monument, crowned by his term in the Librarian’s office.” It is but one such monument, though one of the most magnificent.

The builders of our vast collections would not repeat in detail what has been done in the twentieth century if they were starting from where we are now, but they did not start there. Whatever their mistakes, now beyond recall, it is to their everlasting credit that, starting with so little, they led the nation into a golden age of library development. The very success makes the library collector’s task from this
point on infinitely more complex than it was earlier, and he must face up to this fact; but his remains the service to scholarship on which all other library services rest.

7. **Technical services.** Procuring and conserving library materials as well as converting them into orderly collections are also a service, and recent years have seen this fact begin to be re-emphasized. This trend is so closely associated with a second one that the distinction between the two is occasionally missed. Since the beginning of the last war one library after another has created a technical services division. It is a step which, each time it was taken, was believed to offer advantages in one or more of the following respects: in reducing the head librarian’s span of control, simplifying flow of work, reducing processing costs, integrating related work or promoting teamwork among staff members handling closely related operations. These reasons all stress unified control. They apply to a division which centralizes in one officer responsibility for acquisitions, binding, cataloging, classification, etc., regardless of the name the division happens to bear.

The term “technical services,” first used at Columbia in setting up such a division, was coined to help give a frame of reference within which canons for judging the purposes of the catalog, how much and what type of information should be placed on the card, etc., could be more easily formulated. Just prior to World War II librarians awoke to the fact that specialization was getting a little out of hand. For example, it was producing in acquisitions and cataloging over-departmentalization and the kind of confusion of purpose just alluded to. We spoke of a “crisis in cataloging.” It centered there, but it was in reality a crisis in library administration brought on by perfecting techniques and technical processes—or allowing them to be perfected—with too little attention to what the techniques, or the processes involved in applying them, were for. The A.L.A. Division of Cataloging and Classification, new courses in library schools, and various other influences have helped clarify what these processes are for. Service to readers, present and future, has proved to be the most appropriate frame of reference to use in defining these purposes. “Technical services” is one way of describing technical processes where the object is to express this orientation, and in such case the description fits the facts whether administrative control over them is centralized or not.

Seven services have been listed. The list is not complete, the treatment has been sketchy. It has seemed less important to follow lines of departmental organization than to organize the treatment along
lines which would interpret better the range of services to scholars and their interrelationship. Some trends have been disclosed. The social usefulness of scholarly materials is making it difficult to think merely of professional scholars in planning library services. Scholarly libraries are receiving much use, but the stress in current planning falls on productive use—through free access, library instruction and counseling, expansion of reference services, etc. Accepted library service theory is in process of reconstruction. It has been suggested that one or two of our best-known formulations of reference theory, while they interpret library services better than pre-Copernican theories interpreted the facts of celestial mechanics, nevertheless fit only a part of the facts in one case as in the other—and are therefore a source of confusion in professional thought. Current interest centers in services given directly to readers and certain activities have lost prestige as the focus of interest has shifted in this direction. Since the early 1940's, however, a more balanced view has been developing as librarians have tended to analyze, and measure the worth of, all library activities in terms of their specific service contributions to readers, present and future. This philosophy is implicit in our best library traditions; current developments are simply working it out in practice a little more consistently, maybe even a little more imaginatively.

References

Services to Scholars


Circulation Systems

HUMPHREY G. BOUSFIELD

Increasing attention has been given during the last decade to methods of circulating books in college, university, and public libraries. The reason for the general interest in circulation systems is obvious. Circulating books, particularly in large libraries, has always been a burdensome operation, but the process has become increasingly so in recent years. Larger enrollments in colleges and universities since the war, increased population, and library consciousness generally, have resulted in a greater number of books being issued. Scarcity of clerical help, higher labor costs, and, to a lesser degree, lower "production" resulting from shorter working hours have added to the woes of circulation departments. To accomplish more work in fewer hours, it was imperative to find more efficient methods of charging and discharging books. Maintenance of professional standards was also a factor in stimulating librarians to search for simpler circulation methods. Although the primary function of circulation departments is to circulate books, there was concern for librarians who were unduly involved with clerical details, thus reducing the amount of time they could devote to work on the professional level.

A good circulation system should save the borrower's time, reduce costs, speed up charging and discharging, and allow circulation librarians maximum opportunity for professional work. These are sound and practical objectives. The continuing search for simplification in circulation procedures suggests that they are still too complicated, too costly, and too time-consuming.

It is not possible to say just when librarians became sufficiently disturbed about circulation work to search for better methods; it is probable that they have always been concerned to a greater or lesser degree. Ten years ago librarians were already writing about the "currently inadequate charging systems." ¹ There have been dozens of articles on charging methods since then. As librarians began to experi-

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ment with new methods, circulation procedures, particularly in college
and university libraries, became characterized by a high degree of dis-
similarity. Probably in no other area of library work was there such
singular lack of uniformity. This was not the case in areas of catalog-
ing or acquisitions, where procedures were, to a great extent, standard-
ized. In circulation work the field was wide open for experimentation,
and inventive genius produced some interesting innovations.

Librarians have devised numerous variants of manual circulation
methods in their search for ways to reduce clerical work and to charge
and discharge books more quickly. The most rapid strides toward
simplification came with the elimination of certain files, and with each
file naturally went the filing operations that were required to maintain
it. In some college and university libraries the student borrowers' file
was eliminated; a very few did away with the file of faculty borrowers.
These files told how many books a borrower had at a given time and,
while convenient, the student file at least was not considered essen-
tial. Some librarians believed that the information borrowers' files
gave was not worth the cost of maintaining them in large libraries.
A more common step was the combining of the date file with the
book or circulation file, the combined single file usually being ar-
ranged by call number. The problem then was to get at overdue books
from a file arranged without reference to date. Here was a completely
new problem. Examining every card in the file to spot those repre-
senting overdue books was impractical if the file was extensive. One
device to accomplish this object was the use of metal or, later, cello-
phane tabs attached to the cards and extending above them. Because
the tabs dropped off and interfered with filing, a new type of card
was devised with the protruding tab a part of the card. In each case
the tabs were numbered one to thirty-one and the cards for books
in circulation were filed usually by call number, under due date. Al-
though the tab method is used today in some libraries with small
circulation files, it was never satisfactory for larger libraries. A single-
file system was devised consisting of a book record with a clue to
due dates, provided by the application of color to the edges of the
cards. A prearranged code based on color and the position of the
color on the card provided a visible record of the date due.

Experimentation continued perhaps more intensively in college and
university libraries than in public libraries. A new idea in manual
charging systems uses a simple numerical notation as a charge rec-
ord. Instead of a transaction number the accession number of the
issued book is written on the call slip by the borrower, in addition to
the borrower's name and address and the author and title of the book. A predated due slip is put in the book. This corresponds to a transaction card which is basically a date-due card. Call slips are arranged first by date due and then by circulation number. A large amount of clerical work is avoided as books need not be discharged from a traditional circulation file because this has been dispensed with. The system has all the advantages of machine charging except that the serially numbered charge slips must be arranged by hand. This system embodies the same disadvantages described later for IBM operation and photocharging. According to the published description, the system is simple and requires no machines, yet it permits the combining of charging and inspection with consequent savings of time and money. The system gets returned books back into use with as little delay as possible. Its chief value lies in the increased efficiency with which books are made available to students after the books have been returned from circulation. Other manual systems require time and labor to discharge returned books.

Another university library circulation system involves manual filing but permits returned books to be sent immediately to the shelves. It, too, uses a transaction card which allows the pulling of cards from a circulation file after the returned books have been shelved. This system is not expensive. There are no book cards, the transaction card replaces the date slip, and regular overdue notices are sent from a charge file arranged by date; however, the amount of clerical work involved is prodigious in a library circulating five hundred or more books a day. It is possible that mechanical charging systems with certain faults are preferable to a scheme that involves so much work, especially if there is a shortage of clerical help.

Charging machines, designed especially for libraries, offered some help. The Gaylord charging machine is popular in many smaller college, public, and school libraries. The Dickman charger, once popular in smaller public libraries, is not in general use today. With these machines each borrower is registered, and unless his card is filed in the library, it must be carried with him. The card bears a metal number plate. This is the borrower's number, which is copied onto the registration card. Charging a book requires the clerk to insert the borrower's card in the machine together with a previously prepared book card, and the machine imprints the number from the borrower's card onto the book card. The due date may be stamped on a date slip in the book. The borrower's card is returned to the owner and the book card is filed by call number or by date due. There is still a file of
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charges, which, if arranged by call number, must be combed through for overdue items. The machine merely does more rapidly work that had previously been done manually.

Keysorting is becoming popular in college and university libraries and, used with other machines, in public libraries. Keysorting was invented so long ago that this method—sorting by means of a spindle run through cards with holes and notches in the margins—is now in the public domain, the original patent having expired. Keysorting was not designed for libraries; it is a manual system, used for many years by business firms and by the armed forces, that has been adopted by libraries. There are several manufacturers of keysort cards and of the punch machine the system requires; the McBee products are found in most libraries using the system. A recent book and several articles adequately describe the operation of keysorting in libraries. Keysorting makes it possible for each assistant to do more work and to do it faster. It must be remembered that keysorting provides only one-way sorting; spindling the file removes cards but does not put them back. Filing is not eliminated by keysorting. As the keysort system generally includes the maintenance of a circulation file, returned books must be discharged from this file before they are shelved or borrowed again, thus producing the bottleneck inherent in manual operations. Keysorting provides a reasonably quick way for getting at overdues from a circulation file of charges arranged by call number. Another feature of keysort cards important in some libraries is that they may be bent or rolled without impairing their usefulness. This feature is important if the cards are to be sent through small-gauge pneumatic tubes. Keysorting has decided advantages for libraries if daily circulation does not exceed a few hundred although some libraries with much larger circulation are using the system with reasonable success. For these the more rapid business machine system might be considered.

Like keysorting, business machine systems were not devised for libraries. The two types of business machine equipment—the mechanical of Remington Rand and the electric of the International Business Machines Corporation—have wide application in business, industry, and the field of science. Libraries which have adopted business machine operations have generally used IBM. The application of business machines to libraries has been discussed in books and library school theses. Business machines have been installed in several large college, university, and public libraries. In one business machine system charging a book requires the clerk merely to insert a
prepunched, serially numbered transaction card in the IBM time stamp and then to slip the card in the pocket of the outgoing book. Returned books can be discharged as fast as an attendant can remove transaction cards from the books. A book can be issued immediately to another borrower on a new transaction card without pulling a card from a circulation file (because there is none in a transaction card system) or from a date file of original call slips. If the book has been reissued several times on the same day, all previous charges for the book can be discarded; only the last transaction for a particular book on a given day is valid.

A set of prepunched transaction cards, good for use year after year, can be prepared by the nearest IBM service office; the library does not require a machine for this work. The only machine that a circulation department must have ready access to is a sorter with a matching device and short-card-feed, and into this are fed the transaction cards for one or more days' circulation. The machine matches cards representing returned books against a complete dated, prepunched set of cards, and throws into a reject pocket a master-deck card for each book not yet returned. Only these "rejected" cards need be checked against the original call slips which are filed by date. Overdue notices are then prepared from the original call slips. The operator can be engaged in other work while the machine sorter is identifying the overdue books.

In many colleges and universities the registrar's office uses business machines. In some, students carry business machine punched cards with such personal information as name, address, class, etc. If the registrar uses business machines, a complete duplicate file of student registration cards can be machine-produced for the library. Cards from the registrar may be received by the library in any order and then rearranged by the library's sorting machine. Brooklyn College Library receives from the registrar about 16,000 IBM cards at the beginning of each semester, and the library receives a correction card for students who drop out of college during the term or who report a change of address, or for those who marry and change their names. In this manner the library's registration file is kept up to date, and this is important in an institution with a large number of nonresident borrowers.

The disinclination of college and university libraries to use circulation systems based on a transaction card is no doubt due to the fact that these systems require the elimination of the current circulation file. The term "circulation file" should not be confused with a "location
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file.” The former is a record of all books not in their accustomed place on the shelves; the latter is a record of long-term loans. If a manual circulation system is used, the customary single file is both a circulation file and a location file in that it includes records of books charged to readers for limited periods and records of books on permanent or semipermanent loan to departments. In a library using a transaction card system, the circulation file is eliminated; but a separate location file can be kept. This will contain records for books which are charged to departments, in the bindery, being mended, and missing books, i.e., records for all books not in place and not in current circulation.

In the absence of a circulation file, perhaps the most important single factor in transaction card systems is the waiting list, for it will contain not only titles wanted by borrowers but also those wanted by the library's preparation departments and by the reference and binding departments. If the transaction card system is used, waiting list cards arranged by call numbers should be checked against groups of books sorted by call numbers for return to the shelves. As a further check a student assistant should be sent to the shelves during slow periods with a block of waiting list cards to see whether any books have been overlooked in the regular checking. Books which repeatedly fail to turn up in their proper places on the shelves should be recorded without delay in the location file as missing, and the file should be checked regularly for all requested items not found in place.

The simplest form of business machine operation—that utilizing a transaction card—requires the library to adapt its operation to the capabilities of the machine, for the manufacturers of IBM equipment do not make machines for use in libraries. Moreover, business machines do break down, but a machine out of commission for a few days is not a serious matter in even the largest and busiest library; sorting is merely postponed until after the machine is repaired. Also, many colleges and universities have other business machines on campus—at least a sorter, the only machine essential in library operations.

Punched cards have already brought about revolutionary techniques in record handling,12-15 and their future possibilities are almost unlimited. The entire circulation operation would be completely automatic if a machine were available which would “read” the punches on cards carried by students as well as the information punched on book cards and would then punch all of the information on a third card. Such a machine is in regular operation at the Montclair, New Jersey,
Unfortunately, this model is unique; it is not in regular production and there is little likelihood that it will be until IBM is assured of a large market. This machine is ideal for libraries, but it has no known commercial application.

Transaction card circulation systems are not considered adequate in research libraries. The lack of a circulation file makes it impossible to know who has a book until it becomes overdue. Neither can a borrower be informed when a book in circulation is due. The research worker often needs a particular edition, and unlike the average undergraduate, he cannot make use of a substitute. He must know when the particular edition he wants will be due.

Transaction card systems have other shortcomings that must be weighed against the significant advantage of simplicity and speed. The weaknesses of transaction card systems all result from the impossibility of knowing where a book is until after it is overdue and the need to assume that if the book is not on the shelves and is not recorded in a location file, it must, therefore, be in circulation. These weaknesses affect not only borrowers, but most of the departments in the library.

In spite of their shortcomings more thought should be given to transaction card circulation systems. College and university librarians, by tradition, are not satisfied unless exact information is available about books in circulation, which, as explained above, is not furnished by transaction card systems. However, this information is not readily available in the increasingly popular open-shelf college and university libraries, even in those which use the conventional circulation file. With unhampered use of books students and faculty are free to remove them from the shelves and to read them anywhere in the library without making a charge record. Librarians in new-type libraries accept the situation because they appreciate the educational value of free access to books. The need for records of books used in a library and those used outside is not wholly comparable, to be sure, for the materials consulted in the building ordinarily are reshelved within a few hours. Yet, however valuable a circulation file may be, it must be weighed in the balance with the reasons for modernizing the circulation system—eliminating clerical work, speeding up the charging and discharging process, eliminating the bottleneck caused by delays in discharging, and freeing circulation librarians from clerical details so that they can do professional work.

There is another business machine system used successfully in several large research libraries. No transaction card is used in this sys-
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tem, and exact information regarding books in circulation is available. In this system borrowers write on IBM punched cards the author, title, and call number of books, and their own name, address, and status (undergraduate, graduate student, or faculty member). Issuing a book consists simply of stamping the due date in the book. No distinction is made between books to be used in the building or outside. The IBM charge cards are key punched for date due, status of borrower, and borrower's identification number, and the card is then filed manually in a master file. (A collating machine would file the cards by call numbers if these had been punched. Key punching for date due, alone, requires one to two hours a day for 600 to 800 books circulated; key punching call numbers as well would take considerably longer.) The master file contains a card for every book not in its place on the shelves, including books in circulation, those charged to faculty studies, those sent to the mendery or bindery, and those reported missing in a "running" or in an annual inventory. Books charged to a permanent location can be recorded in a separate file as these are not involved in the current circulation procedure and would only slow the sorting process if recorded in the current file. Cards representing all books currently held by a particular borrower can also be brought together by the sorting machine. Returned books are checked off manually in the master file before they are sent to the shelves. If holding books at this point creates a bottleneck, they may be sent to the shelves immediately on return. In this case the card is pulled from the master file when the book becomes overdue and then checked against the shelves, but if a returned book is wanted by another borrower, the card is pulled at once from the master file.

Many college and university libraries which circulate large numbers of books are faced with the choice of a keysort system or of a business machine installation. The work to be accomplished, how well the system will do the job, and how much the system will cost—these should be the chief questions, and in this order. Too often the cost of the system is placed first with the result that a less desirable system is adopted. No study suggests how much should be expended on a circulation system. There are rules of thumb for the size of the book budget, for relative costs of periodical subscriptions, and for binding; but there appear to be no rules about the cost of a circulation system. If the choice is between IBM or McBee Keyso, the cost of renting expensive business machines and relatively low-cost punched cards in the former system should be compared with the low-cost punches but high-cost cards of the latter. It should also be borne in mind that
keysort systems do not eliminate the circulation file as do all transaction card circulation systems.

The factors influencing simplification of charging methods in college and university libraries are also found in public libraries—an increasing number of borrowers, cost and scarcity of help, and a desire to free librarians from clerical work. In addition, public libraries have been affected by an increased awareness of libraries. Years of continual good publicity and the promotion of public library use in the schools have produced results. Even when young people enroll in urban colleges and universities, there is still a tendency for them to use the familiar local public library for assigned books of which the college library has too few copies, and insofar as funds permit, public libraries generally try to meet this demand. Consequently, circulation figures have increased and public library charging methods had to be simplified.

The Newark charging system has been satisfactory for many years, but with the need for a faster, simpler system many public libraries have been installing photographic charging. The Photocharger, developed by Remington Rand, is probably responsible for the popularity of this method of charging books. The Remington Photocharger differs from this firm’s Film-A-Record machine and the Eastman Recordak charger in that the Photocharger photographs on a roll of paper whereas the other two record the charge on film. The three machines simultaneously photograph the book information on a card or pocket, a transaction card with a serial number bearing the due date, and the borrower’s card or other form of acceptable identification. This record is then retained in the form of films or prints as long as it is needed for locating overdue records, i.e., for the loan period. As the books borrowed are returned, the transaction cards are removed and filed by serial number; and after a block of transaction numbers has been in the file for the period of the loan, any number missing from the series indicates an overdue book. The film or the paper record is then consulted, the name and address of the borrower is found, and an overdue notice is sent.

Advantages of photocharging are numerous. All slipping of books is eliminated, discharging a returned book consists merely in removing a transaction card, and any doubt about a borrower’s having a particular book can be settled by reference to the photographic record. There are some disadvantages. The time saved in slipping will be lost if transaction cards are sorted manually. Keysorting or, better, business machines should be used for this purpose. The lack
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of a file of books in circulation makes it impossible to locate a book until it becomes overdue. Catching books on the "waiting list" is also difficult with photographic charging or any transaction card system. Clerks report a certain amount of eyestrain in reading film and in deciphering poor prints. Photochargers formerly went out of order without the charging assistant becoming aware that charges were not being recorded, but this has been corrected in later models. These are also equipped with an indicator to show the amount of film left on the reel.

Less popular than photocharging but used to good advantage in some public libraries is the audio method of charging books. Audio-charging eliminates all handwriting. The assistant merely speaks into a receiver, giving the author and title of the book, the serial or transaction number, and the name and address of the borrower. Users of audio-charging report some embarrassment on the part of the borrower when the titles of certain books are dictated loud enough to be heard by other borrowers. This objection has been met by erecting a screen around the mouthpiece of the dictating mechanism. Another complaint is voiced by clerks who must play back the disk when overdue notices are to be sent. Unless the original dictation was clear and unless certain words in titles and in borrowers’ names were spelled out, some interesting misspellings may appear in the notices borrowers receive. Spelling out multisyllabic names wastes a great amount of time. A borrower may not object to an author’s name being misspelled but he may justifiably be irritated when the library takes liberties with the spelling of his own name. No library should do this to its customers.

Keysorting, too, has its place in public libraries. Used in conjunction with photocharging, keysorting provides a rapid way to sort transaction cards, and, without keysorting, full advantage of photocharging cannot be realized. Sorting by business machines is still faster.

The type of circulation system employed often determines the level of work circulation librarians perform; this alone justifies careful selection of the system best suited to a particular library. The separation of professional and clerical work, if not a major reason for introducing simplified circulation methods, is an important objective. It is incredible that so little progress has been made toward eliminating the clerical work connected with book circulation. Apart from wasting the abilities of librarians assigned to clerical work, there is another practical reason for seeing that librarians have professional duties.
This was voiced thirty years ago by C. C. Williamson, then Dean of the Columbia University School of Library Service, who said:

Until the distinction between clerical and professional workers is sharply made and adhered to the demand for adequate salaries for the professional group will prove ineffective because they will be economically impossible. A careful appraisal of the duties actually performed by many workers for whom professional salaries are demanded will show that they are often in large part clerical and not worthy of higher remuneration. Until library work is so organized that professional workers devote all their time and energy to professional tasks,—tasks which workers with less adequate general and technical equipment cannot perform without permanent damage to library service,—it is not worth while to expect librarians to be paid on a professional basis.23

In 1954 R. B. Downs24 wrote: “One of our first tasks, I think, is to achieve a clear distinction and separation between clerical and professional duties in libraries. The most telling objection to the acceptance of librarians into academic circles is that in perhaps a majority of our libraries there are too many routine, non-professional jobs being carried on by so-called professional staff members.”

L. W. Dunlap25 found that librarians appear to be more interested in acquisition and administrative problems than in ways and means to improve a library’s services to its readers. This observation does not apply to all chief librarians, but, insofar as it is true of some, it is indeed strange that use and service is not of greater concern, because this should be the end result of all activity—ordering, cataloging, binding. Someone must be vitally concerned with the all-important library function of service to readers and use of the collection. The circulation department “must be the active agent that introduces books to . . . [a] complex group [of students] and coordinates the library with advanced educational method.”26

What are some of the possible future trends in circulation work and public service? Certain of these can be predicated on the discernable trends which have been discussed. More of the larger college and university libraries are likely to adopt keysorting in circulation work. If these libraries overcome the existing disinclination toward eliminating the circulation file, the way would be clear for one of the photographic or business machine systems using transaction cards. On the other hand, university libraries may introduce business machines while still retaining the circulation file. Smaller college and
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university libraries are likely to adopt keysorting wherever card sorting becomes a burdensome process.

Public libraries appear to be re-evaluating their overdue fines practices. Libraries collect fines mainly to insure the return of books and to keep circulation flowing smoothly, and the cost of collecting fines is receiving and will continue to receive greater attention. One trend is toward lengthening the loan period so that fewer books are returned late and fewer fines are levied.

The trend in larger public libraries toward photocharging is likely to continue. The Newark charging system will no doubt maintain its popularity in the small public library, and the medium-sized library will have to decide whether to continue with the Newark system or adopt photocharging. The determining factors will naturally be available funds and need for quicker service. More attention will be given in public libraries to ease of users. Return receptacles at the curb will become more popular; new libraries will include drive-in windows in their plans, and where land is available, off-street parking areas for patrons will be provided. Messenger service to expedite the delivery and return of books to busy people will be used to a greater extent, and service to convalescent and old people's homes is likely to be extended. In short, ease of use and extension of service will dominate future trends in circulation systems.

Circulation librarians are the counterparts of commercial salesmen. Both meet the public, and upon them the organization relies for its reputation and success. The wise administrator will do well to give much attention to his salesmen.

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AN AMAZING AMOUNT of ink has been consumed in presenting the case against conventional methods of measuring and evaluating public services, but there is as yet no evidence that the pen is mighty enough to penetrate the divinity that hedges our traditional approach to circulation and reference statistics. If we could plead ignorance of the follies we commit and the fallacies we perpetuate in this regard, we would be entitled to a modicum of sympathy. However, most of us resort to statistics as the best method of impressing public officials, corporation executives, and school, college, and university administrators in the full knowledge that this technique will not bear close scrutiny. Some of us have contemplated without too much relish that some perceptive recipient of our reports would some day ask the embarrassing questions that we have already asked ourselves about the significance of circulation and reference statistics.

It has been authoritatively stated that statistics on book use are found in the earliest available records; however, it may be more significant that compilations of such statistics from a number of American libraries began in 1851. The cases are indeed few in which present day annual reports fail to include figures on book use, despite the fact that the inherent weaknesses of such statistics are widely admitted by librarians in all kinds of libraries and even in publications put out by our professional associations. The candor with which shortcomings are proclaimed on the one hand, and the frequency with which the continuation of present practices is advocated on the other, surpasses belief. The typical argument proceeds somewhat as follows: circulation statistics fail to present an accurate picture of what a library does; they have serious shortcomings; however, they have been used for a long time and are widely accepted; therefore, etc., etc.

At this point the reader has a right to ask for a bill of particulars against circulation statistics. Such a bill might read as follows:

Mr. Rogers is Chief of the Personnel Office of the New York Public Library.
1. Circulation statistics are a crude, quantitative measure, largely lacking in qualitative factors. To cite an extreme example, it is not proper to compare the circulation of a library which traffics exclusively in light romances, mysteries, and westerns with the circulation of a library composed of carefully developed subject collections and a critically selected fiction collection. The circulation of one technical book is more important than ten circulations of a popular novel, so the argument goes, although this unsupported statement cannot be categorically defended. In the same vein, it is not reasonable to compare a 1952 circulation which is 60 per cent nonfiction with a much larger 1932 circulation which was 65 per cent fiction. Furthermore, circulation statistics fail to reveal the significance of what is read, the impact of books upon the individual or upon society, or even whether or not the books circulated were read. Pursuing this line of reasoning, Hannah Logasa once wrote: “The circulation statistics in libraries tell the number of physical books furnished by the library. But the physical book is only paper, print and binding until it is reconstructed by a reader. By that standard, many books circulated are never born, because the reader has not read himself into the book. The only book circulation that really counts is one in which the reader has caused the book to be born.” Therefore, it is not enough to know that so many medical books, for example, were circulated. It is important to know whether or not the person who borrowed a given medical book was a biochemist, a physician, a medical student, a hypochondriac, an intelligent layman, or a curious young person, and to know to what use, if any, the information contained in the book was put.

2. The second item in the bill of particulars rests on the belief that book-use statistics, at best, are fragmentary. There are problems of unrecorded use in the case of open libraries, in stacks, in departmental collections, and in dormitory libraries, to cite but a few examples.

3. From the standpoint of comprehensiveness and comparability, statistics are greatly affected by a series of miscellaneous factors, and therefore it is not really possible to say that one library is doing a better job than another on the basis of circulation. These factors include the amount of money available for the purchase of duplicates, the presence or absence of a rental collection, curricular differences in schools and colleges, reserve book rules and the method of recording reserve book loans, the social structure and educational level of the community served by a public library, and even circulation rules and general operating procedures.
As has been indicated, many librarians who grant the validity of all the foregoing criticism have been reluctant to turn their backs on the blandishments of statistics. These people have sought to perform a minor operation here and a major one there in order to overcome some of the weaknesses. Leon Carnovsky suggests that librarians "weight" books according to merit. For example, one circulation of Lippmann's Good Society would be "equivalent to half-a-dozen issues of Temple Bailey, with, say, a biography by Ludwig coming somewhere between. Lippmann would be scored 6; Ludwig, 3; and Miss Bailey, 1. It would be possible to go even farther, and assign varying values to fiction of varying literary merit." This proposal is susceptible to criticism on the grounds of impracticability. Furthermore, such a plan would not give consideration to the reader and his purpose in reading a book. A social historian or literary critic might read extensively in light novels of the 1920's and thereby achieve a contribution to knowledge without the qualitative significance of the work being reflected statistically.

In attempting to refine circulation statistics, David Jolly has suggested ranking books according to "intrinsic worth," determining the age, sex, occupation, education, interest, and hobbies of each borrower and ascertaining "how much of the information is assimilated." H. I. Muller has taken a startlingly opportunistic attitude toward circulation statistics. He suggests, in effect, that the librarian determine those factors in the circulation statistics which bring good repute to the library, and then he proposes that we emphasize these factors in ingenious ways. For example, if it is more respectable to circulate a high percentage of nonfiction, one should not simply relate nonfiction statistics to total circulation but should show how many readers took some nonfiction, a much higher and more impressive figure.

An all-time low in pronouncements on circulation statistics was made in the October 1953 A.L.A. Bulletin. This article deplores the fact that libraries have not achieved, and are not likely to achieve, the per capita circulation of the depression years, despite the fact, according to the author's not-too-clear statistics, that we are getting much more financial support in 1939 dollars than we were in 1933. Reference is made to the "many new and additional services that take an important share of the library's income," but on an empirical basis it is concluded that this does not account for our increased well-being. The author then goes on to state:

In other words, the individual library is now lending about half
Conflicting statements in the above quotation to the effect that "statistics are indeed convincing" and "circulation figures don't tell the full story . . . nevertheless," are all too characteristic of many treatments of this subject. A parallel to the reasoning contained in the article under consideration may be found in comparing cost per-book-circulated in certain sub-branches which are purely mass circulation outlets open a few hours weekly, and cost per-book-circulated in branch libraries providing reference service, telephone service, leisure reading accommodations, story hours, community programs, and readers' advisory service on a forty to fifty hours per week basis. Certainly such comparisons are extremely hazardous just as a comparison between 1932 and 1952 is hazardous. This is further suggested by a letter to the editor published in the December 1953 A.L.A. Bulletin, commenting on the aforementioned article: "It seems to me there is a great fallacy in taking circulation statistics as a measure, without taking into account many other factors. . . . [During the depression] patrons were reading mysteries and westerns and any other kind of escape reading available, simply to forget their problems. . . . The fiction percentage in 1931 was 61%, in 1932, 62%, as against 27% in 1951 and 26% in 1952. . . . Twelve westerns a week count heavily against one technical handbook in a circulation record." 10

Before leaving the subject of circulation statistics, attention should be called to the Index of Public Library Circulation. 18 If the criticisms advanced thus far have any foundation in fact or reason, the Index should be re-examined in terms of the philosophy which motivates its publication and possible use. It seems painfully apparent that the Index is the product of an almost purely statistical mode of thought, untrammeled by deeper professional implications discussed here.

Let us now shift our attention to reference statistics. Public librarians took the lead in introducing reference services in the third quar-
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ter of the nineteenth century, partly because the custodial concept of librarianship delayed the development in colleges, and partly because public librarians felt a need to justify expenditure of city funds by offering additional services.\(^{19}\) Most of the people who have considered the problem of reference statistics have concluded with Fre- 

mont Rider that “the finest service that every library gives is the very one that can never be measured.”\(^{20}\) Although this has led to the comforting thought that most important cultural and intellectual achievements cannot be “weighed on a scale, measured in inches, or price-marked in dollars and cents,”\(^{21}\) it has not noticeably decreased the use of statistics of reference service. However, increasing numbers of people recognize that “qualitative measurement” of reference serv-

ice is a contradiction in terms,\(^{16}\) and they prefer the use of such terms as “evaluate,” “interpret,” and “judge.”\(^{21}\)

The small amount of space devoted to evaluation of reference serv-

ice in some of our outstanding professional literature is surprising. The Public Library Inquiry, \textit{A National Plan for Public Library Service}, and \textit{The Administration of the American Public Library} acknowledge that there is a problem but largely disregard it.\(^{13, 14, 22}\) For the college library field G. R. Lyle\(^{22}\) has made an excellent analysis of the sub-

ject. J. I. Wyer\(^{24}\) dismisses the problem by saying that “It is doubtful whether statistics of this kind are worth the time and trouble involved in their preparation.” \textit{Post-War Standards for Public Libraries} is to be commended for its approach to the problem of “quality” in standards, despite some perplexing statements which seem to contradict each other. Many standards are stated in nonstatistical terms. For example, to meet responsibilities in the field of reference, larger libraries are urged to provide a card catalog, research materials in fields of community interest, instruction in the use of the library, and at least one trained librarian to do reference work during public service hours. However, one also learns that “Statistical records of reference and reading aid questions should be kept” and “the statistical enumerations of library service which are used as the bases for quantitative stand-

ards are generally both accurate and uniform in definition” despite the fact that “Library service embraces many intangible elements of quality and excellence which cannot be precisely measured” and the “definition and recording of reference and reading aid questions have not been standardized satisfactorily in public library practice.”\(^{25}\)

Let us consider for a moment the methods that are generally used to “measure” reference service. Perhaps the most common is the keep-

ing of a running tally of questions asked. This may be supplemented
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by a classified list of questions, number of "search" and "research" questions as determined by certain time-to-answer categories, number of readers using service and time spent in library, record of actual questions asked, separate record of questions not answered, types of materials used in answering questions, number of bibliographies compiled, bulletins prepared, stack permits issued, telephone calls, letter requests, indexes made, club programs prepared, and interlibrary loan requests. This array is so formidable that it would be immediately suspect in the eyes of a competent administrator, and if the full battery of statistics should be turned upon public officials or their counterparts in school, college, and special library situations, these officials would be (a) completely confused, (b) impressed by the sheer weight of numbers, or (c) suspicious of librarians.

What are the criticisms of statistics of reference service other than mere proliferation?

1. Such statistics are not inclusive. Reference librarians say that only 60 per cent of the questions are recorded on a busy day, and an even smaller percentage of reference books used is ever recorded.

2. Qualitative measurement, so-called, is unattainable although the essence of reference service is quality. In response to a suggestion that the importance of a question might be determined by the place of the inquirer in the business, social, or faculty hierarchy, it has been humorously suggested that "a question from the President might be rated as worth ten, a question from a Dean as seven, and so on down to a question from an undergraduate which ought to be worth minus one which . . . reduces the whole thing to the absurdity which it is."

3. The effort to evaluate questions as to "search" and "research" has led to reliance on time differentials as a basis of identification. For example, a question that can be answered in fifteen minutes or less is a "search" question; a question requiring more than fifteen minutes is a "research" question. Obviously ridiculous though this technique is, it was once used by A.L.A. and the U.S. Office of Education. As Mary N. Barton has pointed out, time distinctions are invalid because they do not give weight to the competence of the librarian; a question that requires two hours to answer receives the same value as one that takes sixteen minutes; and if a file of difficult questions and answers is kept, the first time a question is answered, it may be classified as "research," the second and succeeding times as "search."
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Nine out of ten of the people who have analyzed the flaws in reference statistics have not even attempted a solution for the problem of interpreting reference services to the public, but they have demonstrated that certain records can be of great value in internal management of the reference department. During the time that he was at the Grosvenor Library, R. W. Christ made substantial contributions to the management aspect of reference department records. He demonstrated that a complete record of questions and source of answers provided the following valuable information to the departmental supervisor: (1) those subordinates in need of training and closer supervision, (2) weaknesses in the reference and general book collection as well as important available materials that were being neglected, (3) the need for more adequate graphic material to help readers use the card catalog, and (4) changed techniques for answering questions from reference books, documents, and from the general book collection. H. C. Bauer also pointed out that a running record of reference work not done is of great value in self-evaluation of staff and collection.

Before attempting to reach any conclusions in regard to the use or misuse of public service statistics, let us consider possible reasons for our strong attachment to such statistics:

1. We have seen "science" and "research" lend respectability to related fields, such as education, and we hope that if we do likewise some of this respectability will rub off on us. Statistical hypnosis, to coin a phrase, has become an occupational disease. As C. E. Sherman points out, "... librarians as a whole were, and have continued to be, influenced by mathematical considerations. Anyone who doubts this need only quiz the next half-dozen librarians he meets as to their understanding of the A.L.A. standards for public libraries."

2. Another occupational hazard, closely related to the preceding one, is the "Ph.D. approach." An anonymous colleague has observed that "the tendency to mechanize everything and measure everything by a centimeter rule is rapidly placing us librarians in the same class with Ph.D.'s from Columbia's Teachers College who have learned a technique of using standard measurements which they apply with so little imagination and cultural background that usually the result of their measuring is what the well-educated person knew intuitively all of the time." 15

3. Sherman, who, with Lyle, has done as much clear thinking on this problem as anyone, says that "the mounting statistics of circula-
tion fit perfectly into the American's affection for big figures.”

4. Number 3, above, is related to the Big Business approach to administration. Taking a leaf from the special librarian's notebook, Bauer 29 says: "Management today expects results and demands statistical evidence of efficiency and accomplishment." J. A. Lowe 30 echoes this sentiment when he says that the librarian who possesses statistics "approximates the position of a business executive who has definite elements of control, as standards against which he can check the actual efficiency of the business."

5. Even interdepartmental jealousy has contributed to the development of certain types of statistics. Margie M. Helm admits that exact measurement of quality in reference service is impossible, but she perceives the need for "objective data by which we could interpret the reference department to laymen and to college administrators. The circulation department has had its statistics of use. It seems that the reference department should devise some quantitative criteria by which its work could be interpreted or measured roughly. . . . If we can obtain objective data about . . . [reference] service it ought to be a better indication of the scholarly use of the library than circulation statistics." 28 This is not a lone opinion as Edith Guerrier 31 confirms: "... the statistics gained by such a survey [of reference service] are of use in convincing library boards that the library's efficiency cannot be judged solely by circulation figures." In other words we create poor statistics to compete with bad ones.

6. Miscellaneous reasons for the use of statistics are candidly described by a British librarian: "It is pathetic to see, when reading a large number of annual reports, the almost hypnotic effect of statistics upon ourselves. How we give ourselves away. Some of us glory in them and find exhilarating evidence in every group of figures, for the wonderful services we are giving. Others introduce them apologetically and make a pretence of hiding them away but even so, how often they refer innocuously to some figure which purports to enhance their service. Regretfully too, one cannot fail to notice at times disparaging implications with respect to other library services, the more to enhance one's own." 3

Most of this paper has been devoted to the shortcomings of circulation and reference statistics, but there is no desire to depurate the utility of statistics in internal management situations where they can be employed with caution and the attention to nonstatistical factors known to good administrators. Progress in sampling techniques and
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the use of operational statistics in other fields encourage one to hope that precise, detailed, and expert analysis of small samples of circulation and reference work might produce valid conclusions of significance for release to appropriating bodies and patrons. However, if successful, these techniques will probably only be usable by large libraries, while the statistical problem, like so many other library problems, is not so restricted. It would not seem amiss, therefore, to look outside the statistical realm for a general solution to this problem.

With this in mind it is relevant to inquire into our objectives in using statistics. The ultimate purpose is almost invariably to ensure a certain level of financial support or to increase such support. This is true whether we present public service statistics to those who control the purse strings directly or whether we appeal to a wider audience which may indirectly influence appropriations. Since this is clearly a case of "public relations" with a motive, we might profitably examine a definition of the term: "Public relations have to do with the development and maintenance by any legitimate means of favorable attitudes on the part of the people with whom an agency comes into contact." The italics in the quotation are added by this writer and are used to emphasize the fact that public relations must be based on truth not propaganda.

It has been the author's good fortune to be associated with college, special, and public libraries, several with a reputation for excellence in collections and service which no proliferation of public service statistics could enhance or deprecate. It can be conversely reasoned that all the statistical finagling in the world cannot measurably improve the reputation of a library which has a poor collection and a surly or incompetent staff. We need day-to-day awareness on the part of our "community," whether it be a city, college, school, or corporation, of the services we have to offer. This means consistent and high-level public relations based upon the only sound foundation of any such program—competent and courteous service.

Bauer confirms this point of view for the special library by saying: "In the final analysis, the true measure of a special library's service is the reputation gradually won for accurate, thorough, interested and intelligent help." Lyle has stated the case for college libraries in the following terms:

It is generally agreed that the functions of college libraries are not fully understood by those who are responsible for their welfare at the top level or by those who use its services. . . . Ask any student
what a librarian does and his generally unfurrowed brow immediately clouds up. The professor will parry the question with a perishable witticism or else state frankly that the librarian hands out the books at the loan desk. Yet no one should leap too quickly to the wrong conclusion. Students, faculty, and administrators know the importance of books in education and associate libraries and librarians with books. If they do not know what librarians do to make these books available . . . it is largely because they have not heard enough about such matters. . . . It seems reasonable to conclude, therefore, that efforts to improve public relations directly rather than as a mere by-product of good service are worth while.33

Back in 1876 Samuel Green of the Worcester Free Public Library understood some of the elementary truths of library service which too many of us have forgotten: "The more freely a librarian mingles with readers, and the greater the amount of assistance he renders them, the more intense does the conviction of citizens, also, become, that the library is a useful institution, and the more willing do they grow to grant money in larger and larger sums to be used in buying books and employing additional assistants."34

References

4. Ibid., p. 536.
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33. Lyle, op. cit., p. 488.

34. Green, Samuel as quoted in Rothstein, op. cit.
The Interpretation of Public Services

WILLIAM VERNON JACKSON

The word "interpretation," as applied to college librarianship has been defined as "the act or process of bringing information about the college to bear on library functions and policies, and the interpretation of library functions, policies, and procedures to the public served by the college library."¹ With some modification, this meaning also applies to the interpretation of a library's public services, and the following is offered as a working definition: the act or process of informing a library's users of its services to them. Since interpretation requires communication, a library naturally utilizes all available media: annual reports, exhibits and displays, newspapers, radio, television, handbooks, guides to collections, and other library publications as well as direct contacts between its staff and clientele (including all forms of instruction in library use). To attempt to discuss all of these media in the present article would be impossible not only because of limitations of space but also because libraries usually do not distinguish the interpretation of their public services from that of all other services. Therefore, this review has concerned itself with three of the most important ways of interpreting public services: all types of instruction in the use of the library, library handbooks, and guides to collections. Since the college and university libraries are far more active in these areas than other types of libraries, this paper draws heavily but not exclusively upon their experience.

Why has instruction in the use of the library been described as "one of the most neglected of all library responsibilities"² and as one of the "persisting problems [which] need vigorous new attack"³? The question is neither a new one, nor one which librarians have failed to be aware of and to write about. The idea of instruction in the use of the library was apparently widespread by 1876,⁴ and it is one to which librarians have continued to give attention, as a few representative examples demonstrate clearly. In 1914 the U.S. Office of Education published the results of a questionnaire sent to 596 col-

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Librarians have devoted considerable attention to the problem, as evidenced by well over a hundred articles listed in Library Literature in the last twenty years (excluding those dealing with instruction in elementary and high schools). If formidable in quantity, however, this literature does not impress one with its quality. For one thing, with few exceptions each article has not attempted anything beyond presentation of a case study—solution of a specific problem in terms of the needs of a particular situation. Moreover, there are no reports on failures—that is, the institutions which found programs of library instruction unsatisfactory or unsuitable. Finally, in recent years there has been nothing in the way of a comprehensive picture. According to the Office of Education report there were seven colleges and universities which had required courses in library instruction and twenty which had elective courses. The A.L.A. Survey reported that half of the college and university libraries of more than 20,000 volumes offered some kind of library instruction, but, in spite of all the published reports, we simply do not know what the picture looks like in 1954. Clearly there is a need for thorough investigation of the current practices of college and university libraries in providing instruction in the use of the library. The present paper perforce bases its observations on the published accounts which have appeared in recent years.

The statements, frequently seen, that the college should offer some kind of library instruction rest, of course, upon the assumption that large numbers of college students are often ignorant of the most elementary facts about libraries, that they know little about the catalog, reference books, and bibliographies. Available data, although small in quantity, support this view. Lulu R. Reed, analyzing the scores of 650 college students who took her test on the use of the library, summarized their shortcomings as follows:

1. Students have not acquired specific and detailed knowledge of reference tools, such as dictionaries and encyclopedias.

2. Students have not learned to associate types of questions with types of books most likely to answer those questions.
3. Students have not learned to associate authors or editors with types of material.

4. Students have not learned to associate topics with general fields of knowledge and consequently do not benefit, to a maximum degree, by labels indicating divisions of the classification scheme.

5. Students have not learned to use parts of books effectively and have inadequate knowledge of bibliographical features such as footnotes, bibliographies, and indexes.

6. Student interpretation of specimen entries from Readers' Guide, New York Times Index, and document indexes reveals inability to understand and locate information by means of these tools.

7. Students are not able to evaluate sources of information readily.

8. Students do not understand the functions of various library departments.

The results of a comprehensive examination on the use of the library given to 354 graduate students at the University of California and Stanford University included the following: 34 per cent received lower than C grades on the use of the card catalog; 42 per cent failed to answer correctly any of five questions on general reference books; 53 per cent had never used any of the following: Union List of Serials, Library of Congress depository catalog, United States Catalogue, British Museum Catalogue of Printed Books, and Library of Congress List of Subject Headings; 56 per cent made grades of D or E on questions on periodical indexes; 58 per cent did not know whether or not there was a good index to United States government publications; 89 per cent did not know whether or not there was a general index covering all state government publications.

On the other side, Miss Reed's study does indicate the value of instruction. She reported that freshmen who had had a brief orientation course scored about as well as seniors; "In other words, by means of some definite instruction, students attained in a short time the same degree of proficiency as they acquired independently in four years of college."

For convenience in discussing the problem here it may be divided into three parts, corresponding to three levels of instruction: (1) undergraduate, (2) upper division and graduate, and (3) professional. The first has received most attention from librarians, but recent publications record a growing awareness of the problem for the second and third levels as well. Progress in achieving a satisfactory program of instruction, however, has not been uniform by any means, and each of these levels deserves separate consideration.
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Library instruction for undergraduates falls into two broad categories: (1) that which utilizes informal teaching methods and is limited to a single contact such as the orientation tour, and (2) that which utilizes formal teaching, usually with problem assignments for the student, and which is designed to give him sufficient skill in library techniques to be able to cope effectively with most of his library needs up to advanced levels. Of course, there are many variations of each type, especially of the latter which ranges from a few hours of instruction in English or rhetoric classes to semester courses, both elective and required. Some colleges make use of both types.

The informal type of instruction is probably more common and is usually included in the college orientation program conducted during the Freshman Week, although it may come after classes have begun or even as one period in a required freshman course. It usually takes the form of a talk by the librarian or some other library staff member, often done as he takes the group through the library and points out the catalog, reference books, periodical indexes, etc. While such tours have the advantage of showing students the location of library tools, practical difficulties often prevent the instruction from being really effective: the group walks along, pausing briefly, while the guide points out and explains the catalog, periodical indexes, etc., but some students cannot hear what he is saying, while the mood and timing is hardly conducive to the students' asking questions. Moreover, if the tour comes during Freshman Week, it loses much of its impact, for then it is just one of many phases of college life which the students hear about; while if it is given as one meeting of a course the instructor often prepares the class poorly or not at all, so that it fails to see the relevancy of the discussion to the course. Other devices, such as motion pictures, slides, and exhibits in the library, or even an evening reception during Freshman Week, have been tried on occasion and may prove more effective in meeting the demand for brief library orientation and instruction. One interesting recent suggestion contemplates the use of an automatic slide projector capable of showing thirty slides in three minutes and repeating the series continuously as long as desired. Supplementing other methods of instruction, the slides could provide answers to routine questions of a general nature, such as explanation of the items on the catalog card, the use of the dictionary, etc.¹³

Teaching the use of the library on a more formal basis usually requires a number of hours of class time either in such courses as English composition or rhetoric or else by means of a whole course, en-
tirely separate, on how to use the library. The former occurs with more frequency than the latter, although many teachers are reluctant to give up enough class hours for an effective program. If such arrangements are made, the question arises as to whether the English staff or librarians should teach the unit. There are at least two reasons why the library staff should do the job: (1) it is competent to explain the library, whereas many faculty members are not themselves sure of library techniques, and (2) the contacts established probably make the students more willing to ask questions subsequently. A full course on how to use the library is occasionally offered on a noncredit basis, but at best this seems to have little to recommend it, and certainly does not enhance the status of library science as a subject. Usually the course on how to use the library meets once or twice a week for a semester and carries one or two hours credit. In a few institutions, like Louisiana State University, it is required, but when it is offered on an elective basis, the enrollment often proves disappointing. This is a question which should also be investigated. It would be interesting to know why college students fail to enroll in such courses. For the present we can only speculate that crowded curriculums (now moving in the direction of more required courses and fewer electives) a failure to realize the need for, or value of, such instruction, and the term "library science," which often has unpleasant connotations to the student, may combine to discourage him from registering in such courses as are available. A comparison of three lists of topics usually included in such courses reveals substantial agreement on the following points: card catalog, periodical indexes, major reference books, compiling a bibliography. Other points which may be discussed include the following: parts of the book, note taking, arrangement of books, government documents, buying books, and introduction to subject bibliography.

Perhaps at this point one may observe that although, as previously mentioned, we lack statistics, it would appear that a large proportion of our colleges and universities do not offer courses on how to use the library. On the other hand, extensive offering of such courses, especially if required, would place a heavy burden on the library, and special provision would have to be made for adequate instructional staff. One writer estimated in the thirties that for a university having a thousand prospective students, the cost of a required course in library science would probably be prohibitive. More recently it has been suggested that schools with more than 2,500 students should establish a separate department of bibliography to handle library instruction.
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A partial solution to this might be to require students to demonstrate proficiency in library techniques either by a satisfactory grade on a comprehensive examination or by satisfactory completion of a course. Such a system would not only save expensive instruction costs by reducing the number of sections but also allow students to avoid an unnecessary course. Stephens, Goucher, and Southwestern colleges use such a plan, and this permits the library to concentrate instruction on those who show need for it.

An adequate program of instruction in the use of the library should operate on an advanced as well as an elementary level. This paper has already mentioned the poor showing of graduate students on a comprehensive examination on how to use the library. The same study reveals the attitude of such students toward a program: 68 per cent of the total group tested felt they needed "instruction or information concerning the general technique of using a library" at the graduate level; this included 77 per cent of first-year graduate students, 67 per cent of the second- and third-year graduate students not yet admitted to the candidacy for the doctor's degree, and 58 per cent of those fully qualified candidates for the doctor's degree. Among the students in various subject fields the proportion ranged from 50 per cent of those in the physical sciences and those in history to 81 per cent of those in economics. This test was given over twenty years ago, and, although there seems to be no reason why a similar attitude should not prevail in 1954, it would be interesting to compare the views of today's students with these figures. Does a smaller or larger proportion sense the need for library instruction? That there is a definite need is the opinion of many administrators and the reference librarians who all too often have the dubious pleasure of introducing graduate students and faculty members to the Union List of Serials or the Catalog of Books Represented by Library of Congress Printed Cards. (Since today's graduate students are tomorrow's faculty, from a long-range point of view there are advantages for the library as well as for the students.) How have libraries met the challenge in this situation? It is disquieting to report that for the most part they have done little or nothing to provide instruction except through such informal devices as talks to graduate students in the library or a lecture or two in a departmental course; individual departments usually provide such bibliographical instruction as is offered at an advanced level. L. R. Wilson and M. F. Tauber have summarized the offerings of a number of universities. There are, however, a number of disadvantages to this approach. Too often such courses deal only with bibliog-
raphy of the field concerned, and usually a large portion of the time is devoted to the technique and methodology of the doctoral dissertation. Moreover, such general bibliographical information as they do contain is likely to be duplicated in the offerings of the various departments, at least those in the humanities and the social sciences, and since the professors giving them are usually scholars in specific fields often uncertain of bibliography outside of their specialties one may question whether they are the best teachers. To reduce this overlapping and at the same time to expand and strengthen the instruction, the library ought to offer advanced training in library use for upper division and graduate students. The best vehicle for this is probably a formal course, because, as Andrew Keogh²⁰ pointed out almost forty years ago, "Under ordinary conditions . . . a subject of study must be organized and placed in the curriculum, or it is apt to be neglected." Echoing this sentiment, R. B. Downs²¹ last year wrote of the University of Illinois Library, "Not now offered, but clearly needed, is a course in the utilization of library resources for graduate students in the humanities and social sciences." Such an arrangement should be both practical and efficient. The library would still leave the bibliography of the various subject fields to the individual departments, which are obviously more qualified to teach it; it should not take over responsibility for all bibliographical instruction.²² The college or university that establishes a three-level program (the general course for undergraduate students, the advanced course for upper division and graduate students, and "graduate courses in the bibliography and research methods of each of the principal fields of graduate study"²³) is providing an integrated program of library instruction and offering its students progressively more specialized courses to meet their bibliographical needs.

The University of California took a step in this direction when, following Peyton Hurt's investigation, it offered for a number of years an upper division course covering the following points:

(1) methods of writing footnote and bibliographical references; (2) the extent, nature, and relative significance of types of library materials (books, monographs, pamphlets, periodicals, Government documents, and reference books); (3) encyclopaedic compilations (dictionaries, encyclopaedias, and works dealing with biography, geography, and statistics); (4) reference tools that serve as indexes and guides to printed information (the library card catalogue, bibliographies, periodical indexes, abstracts, and indexes to Government publications); (5) the works that serve as aids to the selection of
reading materials (book reviews, guides to the literature of subject fields, selected bibliographies, and guides to plays, short stories, novels, and other materials), and (6) methods of procedure in using library materials for information on topics of interest.23

Iowa State College offers a course in bibliographical research, Library 614, which graduate students may take for credit in a major or minor subject. Its stated objectives with respect to graduate students are these:

1. To enable them to locate references to the books, journals, and other materials which relate to their theses and to other research topics.
2. To show how they can keep themselves well informed concerning current publications.
3. To enable them to develop an appreciation of the continued and active use of books and libraries throughout their professional careers.
4. To give them practice in the compilation of bibliographies in correct form for theses and scholarly publications.24

Such objectives are appropriate to any advanced course and to them might be added one more: to familiarize graduate students with the bibliographical tools used in advanced study and research.

To achieve these objectives the content of such courses might follow the general outline presented in the first unit of the Wilson-Lowell-Reed25 syllabus with selections from other units and such adaptations as might seem necessary in view of the local library situation. The following topics appear desirable: bibliographic form, library catalogs, current national bibliographies and book trade records, sources of information about current publications, bibliographies of bibliographies, periodical and newspaper indexes, abstracting services, bibliographies of periodicals, union lists and union catalogs, lists of dissertations and research projects, resources and the special services and facilities for research of the institution offering the course, surveys of library resources, and library cooperation and specialization.

Let us now turn to the third level of library instruction, which presents at this time the most encouraging of the three pictures. There seems to be a trend toward recognition of the essential role played by books and other library materials in professional education, a recognition which is being implemented by instruction. In the field of the medical sciences the fifty-first annual meeting of the Medical Library Association featured a panel discussion on "Teaching of Medical Bibliography." Four of the participants reported on specific pro-
grams of teaching at four different types of schools: medicine, public health, dentistry, and pharmacy. Only in the case of the medical school was a complete course offered, the others having only a few hours available for library instruction, but significantly the instruction in all cases is not optional but required of all students. The dental school and the college of pharmacy each offered training for beginning and advanced students. A similar panel discussion on the "Problems of the Law Librarian as a Teacher of Bibliography" featured descriptions of the methods and personnel used to teach legal bibliography in four law schools and reported that "It was agreed by all that instruction in the use of legal materials was necessary for all students, and the dawning recognition by faculties of this fact was a very happy sign." Furthermore, the law school can accomplish effective teaching of legal bibliography even in large classes. In theological seminaries faculty members do not seem to be generally as aware of the need for instruction in bibliography, but closer cooperation between them and librarians may eventually produce the desired result of teaching bibliography in required courses. In the field of engineering two examples of recent developments demonstrate increasing awareness of the value of knowledge of library skills to the engineer. Columbia requires a one-point, one-hour weekly course of all undergraduate engineering students, which is offered in several sections for the various engineering curriculums and is normally taken in the junior year (the first in the School of Engineering); Northwestern offers a two-hour elective course for upperclassmen. Neither course assumes any previous library instruction, so consequently both begin with classification, the use of the catalog, and other general bibliographical topics before discussing the literature of engineering. On the whole, however, teachers colleges seem to provide more orientation in library use than any of the types of professional schools mentioned above. Of sixty-one institutions, fifty-one (over 80 per cent) reported they had an orientation program, including sixteen which offered an entire course. Almost all programs attempted to teach the skills generally included in the college course: arrangement of the library, library rules and schedule, use of the card catalog, classification, use of two or more periodical indexes, and use of reference tools.

The handbook, long one of the most frequently used media for the interpretation of public services, has continued to be issued, especially by college and university libraries. Perhaps the most important development in this area stems from the growing feeling that the dif-
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ference between the library needs of undergraduates and those of advanced students and faculty ought to be recognized by the publication of separate handbooks. Even before the war a number of institutions, such as Pennsylvania State College and the Women's College of the University of North Carolina, issued one handbook for undergraduates and another for faculty and graduate students. Recently a number of universities, including Cornell, Harvard, Illinois, and Minnesota, have published a second handbook for graduate students and faculty, while Central College (Missouri) and Mount Holyoke are among the colleges which have done likewise. In almost all cases the title of the booklet for more advanced users contains the phrase "for graduate students and faculty," although Harvard entitled its handbook simply The Research Services of the Harvard College Library. How does the information contained in such handbooks differ from that in undergraduate versions? Examination reveals a number of points common to most of these new publications: discussion of the library system as a whole, explanation of interlibrary loan procedures, the routine for placing books "on reserve," listing of special services (study facilities, photostat and microfilm services, etc.). As in the undergraduate handbooks, there are floor plans or diagrams of the building. Occurring less frequently are brief surveys of the collection, lists of reference books, procedures for ordering books, notes on the library's administrative organization, and a list of other important libraries in the area. (The Harvard and Illinois manuals have notes about the New England Deposit Library and the Midwest Inter-Library Center, respectively.)

A number of colleges and universities which do not issue a separate handbook for graduate students and faculty do devote a page or two in their general handbook to services and facilities for advanced study and research. For example, the University of Pennsylvania heads one page "For Graduate Students Only," while the Kentucky, Duke, Florida, and Ohio State handbooks have similar sections. This trend will undoubtedly increase, and more institutions, especially the larger ones, will probably issue two handbooks.

The handbooks themselves continue to show as much variety in size, style, and content as always, but several tendencies may be briefly commented upon. The first of these is the growing use of the near-print processes of reproduction, which offer not only a cost advantage but also permit a greater flexibility in the use of illustrations. Second, a number of institutions—for example, California at Berkeley, Drake, and Northwestern—issue their handbooks in the form of leaf-
lets, each of which can be revised and reissued as necessary without the necessity for republishing the entire handbook. Another advantage of this form is that the student can take the leaflet which meets his immediate need, avoiding a pamphlet which may seem formidable to him when he is in a hurry. A few colleges—for example, the Chicago Undergraduate Division of the University of Illinois and Iowa State College—combine their library handbook with instructional material on how to use the library. A final trend which we may note is the publication of a number of brief handbooks supplementing the basic one or two; a number of the departmental libraries at Illinois have compiled such guides, which are usually mimeographed, total about a dozen pages, and describe the library’s special features and resources.

Public and special libraries’ handbooks, with the exception of those of some of the larger city libraries, usually differ markedly from those of college and university libraries; on the whole, they are considerably smaller, often a single sheet of typewriter-size paper being folded to make a four or six page leaflet. This format limits the information to such general items as hours of service, borrowing rules, fine regulations, and floor plans. The *Guide to the Reference Department* of the New York Public Library, just a little larger than a catalog card in size and only twenty-four pages long, shows how much information a compact guide can contain; other handbooks worthy of mention include those of the public libraries of Chicago, Cleveland, and Detroit. The Library of Congress issues two handbooks: a general *Information for Readers* and a brief *Special Facilities for Research* for persons engaged in “extensive and productive research involving extensive use of the collections.”

Another type of library publication which aids in the interpretation of public services is the guide to resources. There are guides describing holdings on the national, regional, state, and local levels, and in addition there are a number of surveys of the resources of individual libraries. Such descriptions contribute to the development of library specialization and cooperation by showing the nature and extent of present resources and serve the teacher, scholar, and research worker by locating and describing material which sometimes has not been fully cataloged. The relationship between such guides and union catalogs has been called a complementary one: “Whereas union catalogs list and locate specific titles and editions, the surveys of resources indicate subject areas in which libraries are strong.” A number of such guides made their appearance in the thirties and early forties;
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the A.L.A. Board on Resources did much to stimulate this activity, especially on the regional and national levels, and in 1938 the first attempt "to study all classes of library research materials distributed over a large region" described the holdings of Southern libraries. The notable guides to individual libraries published up to the war include those for Harvard, the New York Public Library, the American Antiquarian Society, and the universities of Chicago and Pennsylvania. Unfortunately the postwar years have not witnessed a continuation of this trend, as only guides to the universities of California and North Carolina have been published. Another major library, Yale, will issue a survey of its collections in 1955, but it is certainly regrettable that there are available only two brief guides to the Library of Congress. As Downs has indicated, there are a large number of important libraries which not only have not issued descriptions of their holdings but have also been inactive in publishing.

A number of practical difficulties may explain this paucity of publications. Probably the most discouraging problem is that of timeliness, which stems from the fact that in spite of the great amount of labor required for compilation and the considerable cost of publication, the surveys are out of date as soon as they are off the press. There seems to be no easy solution to this problem, although a number of suggestions come to mind. The first of these is the advantage of planning from the start to issue new editions at definite intervals. Preservation of the results of the basic investigation and definite arrangements for some library staff member to have responsibility for noting significant additions, changes in acquisition policies, gifts, etc., would reduce the editorial cost of new editions, while use of near-print processes for publication or issuing the guide in parts at intervals offers promise of lowering publication costs. Between editions brief mimeographed reports could supplement the current compilation. Libraries which issue a bulletin or journal might investigate the possibility of utilizing it as a means to aid the publication of a guide, either by publishing description of resources in subject areas as articles, or by using its pages for the supplementary reports.

At the present time, however, there is an obvious need for the publication of more guides. As one step in this direction, C. W. David, at the request of the A.L.A. Board on Resources, recently described the methodology used in A Faculty Survey of the University of Pennsylvania Libraries.

This paper has attempted to review the present status of the interpretation of public services by concentrating upon three important
media. Interpretation, it is clear, is now receiving more attention from librarians than ever before, but it is still not enough. Only further investigation, creative thinking and positive action will remove such matters as library instruction from the category of unsolved problems. The library provides public services, but it cannot neglect its responsibility to interpret those services to its public.

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Public Services Abroad

LEENDERT BRUMMEL

The other contributors to this issue of Library Trends are each responsible for a certain branch of public services or for a review of individual aspects. This article considers the subject as a whole in a number of western European countries whose library systems are, in point of service, comparable both among themselves and with that of the United States. In the west and south of Europe are several countries with long cultural traditions and with extremely rich libraries which are of invaluable service to the researcher, yet it is impossible to speak of a certain standard of public services in their library systems. Consequently, the limitation to a small number of countries and to certain developments in those countries will need no further explanation.

Not so very long ago R. D. Leigh said of the library system in his country, “In brief, the United States has a multitude of libraries, some of them magnificent institutions, but it has no library system.” This applies not only to the public libraries that were the subject of Leigh's study, but equally to research libraries where there is a growing realization that it is impossible to continue in the old way. The growth of the university libraries and the ever greater demands made on these institutions confront their leaders with whole series of problems. It is not only the financial consequences of the ever increasing accession figures and the resulting necessity to extend the buildings, but problems such as the upkeep of the subject catalog, maintenance of departmentalization, open shelves, and speed of service make librarians cast about for new ways and means. These new ways and means are found in the field of cooperation, witness the Farmington Plan, Midwest Inter-Library Center, and various union catalogs.

If in the field of library cooperation—primarily on behalf of the public services—Europe can already report achievements, this is not particularly to the credit of European librarians. As a rule necessity has here accomplished what in the United States was not felt as a need.

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Moreover, the markedly different geographical situation made cooperation much easier in the smaller European countries. But merited or not, cooperation is a characteristic of the library system in a number of countries.

Perhaps Denmark is the most perfect example of this. “Co-operation is an outstanding feature of Danish library policy,” is what the Danish librarian Knud Larsen declares in an article on the cooperation of the research libraries in Copenhagen. In it he demonstrates how by a rational division of tasks and a corresponding transfer of stock these libraries have made their holdings into a single rational collection which can be made available efficiently to researchers and to the country’s libraries. The latter, especially the public libraries, have profited to the fullest measure by this reorganization.

The whole Danish public library system is based on a close cooperation regulated down to the smallest details. Most of the public libraries in the country are very small and operate in communities with populations between 500 and 2,000. There are over 1,200 such village libraries—very often a collection of books housed in a school where the teacher does the librarian’s work as a sideline. These parish libraries are the basis of an organization of which the 88 city libraries form the next level. Of the latter, 33 are also county libraries acting as centers for the parish libraries in a certain district. When the parish libraries cannot meet a request for reading matter, they pass it on to the county library, which is generally able to help but sometimes has to call upon the research libraries. First among these is the State Library at Aarhus, which acts as the center for the public libraries and sends nonfiction without charge to any place in Denmark outside of Copenhagen. The library at Aarhus, founded in 1902, has developed very rapidly and is now also the library of the new university founded at Aarhus. Its holdings are not, of course, as extensive or as old as those of the Copenhagen libraries, so that these must often be called on for aid.

Though there are important differences between the library systems in the Scandinavian countries, there is a great deal of similarity between the Danish public libraries and those of Sweden and Norway in their methods of operation. Both these latter countries, on account of their much larger territory and very scattered population, are faced at the outset with different problems than Denmark, yet one is struck by a basic design that is often strongly reminiscent of the Danish. New library laws in the three countries have strengthened the financial position of their public libraries and have greatly improved the or-
ganization of the whole. The system of central libraries, each assisting the smaller libraries in its area in the provision of reading matter, has gained considerable popularity in Sweden and in war-stricken Norway. The bookmobile service also has an important part to fill in these countries with their enormous distances. The cooperation of the research libraries in the interlibrary loans system is also found; to give only one example, Uppsala University Library alone sends out some 12,000 volumes each year to other libraries.8-10

It is well known that the public library system in the Scandinavian countries has been strongly influenced in its development by the American example. Attention will now be focused on a country where receptivity to the idea of the public library has indeed been fostered by what happened in America and, even more, in England, but where this idea was put into practice in a very different way, partly because of the influence of developments in Germany. In Holland the public library in the modern sense dates from the beginning of this century. In contrast to what was done in the Scandinavian countries, there was no attempt made here to integrate the small popular libraries scattered up and down the country in the new system. In the Netherlands a system in which a limited number of larger libraries would be established in towns of reasonable size was preferred. Perhaps the tradition of the existing popular libraries was still being felt, for 95 per cent of Holland's public libraries have been founded and are run by societies or foundations. Under a state subsidies scheme of 1921—repeatedly amended since—these libraries are subsidized by the state if the local authority first lends its financial support. By this scheme local authorities are obliged to help financially if they wish to qualify for a state subsidy for a public library within their boundaries.

There now exist in the Netherlands over a hundred public libraries which do not leave the rural areas quite so neglected as the above might suggest. Many of them send weekly selections of books to nearby localities where they are usually looked after by the school-master. Very small and remote places obtain fair-sized collections of books for the winter months from the Central Society for Traveling Libraries at Amsterdam.

However, developments have not stopped here. Since the war there has been an increasing awareness that in comparison with other countries the public libraries were lagging behind and that a radical reorganization was demanded. This reorganization is making itself felt primarily in the library systems of the smaller towns and villages, which are more and more, and with ever mounting success, being
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serviced regionally from a central point. Libraries in the Netherlands are now experiencing a number of changes of great interest.\textsuperscript{11}

For works not represented in their holdings the public libraries and the library centers for rural areas can approach the research libraries. They will then turn first to the Royal Library at The Hague since it is there that the union catalogs of books and periodicals, which list the holdings of 53 and 166 libraries respectively, are maintained. Besides libraries individuals living anywhere in the country can apply to the Royal Library to borrow books, provided they have an introduction from a local official. All requests which the Royal Library cannot fill are passed on to those libraries which the union catalogs show as holding the works applied for, and these then send such works directly to the borrower. In this way the Royal Library receives some 90,000 requests by mail a year, while an average of 25,000 works are loaned outside The Hague. The other research libraries also take part in this lending scheme, though the university libraries show lower figures for works loaned out of town than the Royal Library. The function of the Royal Library in the Netherlands can to some extent be compared to that of both the State Library at Aarhus and the Royal Library at Copenhagen in Denmark.\textsuperscript{12}

The library situation in Great Britain is too well known to need ample discussion. The centenary of the Public Libraries Act of 1850 was recently celebrated. The number of urban public libraries and branches is very large, and with few exceptions libraries are now operating in all English counties. From these, collections are regularly sent out to local library centers, of which there are now between 22,000 and 23,000 in Britain. All the country's libraries benefit from the cooperation organized by the National Central Library in London and from the regional library systems into which England has been divided. Each request that a library cannot fill is sent to the central regional bureau, which either finds a library in its region which can fill it or transmits the request to the National Central Library, where the regional union catalogs have been combined into a single national union catalog. Moreover, N.C.L. lists the holdings of 225 so-called "outlier libraries," mostly special libraries which have agreed to loan books when special requests reach N.C.L. The number of requests thus dealt with by N.C.L. exceeded 100,000 in 1952. There is room for improvement in this system, and its benefits could be greatly increased through the participation of the largest libraries in the country.\textsuperscript{13-15}

Variations in the forms of cooperation are found in such countries
as Switzerland and Western Germany. Switzerland does not know the true public library; it has excellent research libraries, cantonal, and town libraries, but it tries to supply the want of a public library by the institution known as la Bibliothèque pour Tous. The activities of the latter are best compared with those of the traveling libraries in many of the countries dealt with above; boxes of books are sent to sundry neighboring places from local depots, while small existing libraries are provided with supplementary material. But once again it is the National Library at Berne, with its central catalog, and the university libraries which supply much of the reading matter.\(^16\) The need for cooperation in Western Germany, where the libraries suffered such enormous losses and where the postwar demand for literature was larger than ever, goes without saying. With union catalogs at Cologne, Frankfurt, and Hamburg, an information service and a corresponding interlibrary loans system have been created which, considering the difficult circumstances attending the work, are truly remarkable.\(^17\)\(^18\)

Thus, for all national differences, the picture is largely the same everywhere: a system of closely cooperating libraries in which the research libraries gladly make their holdings available to the public libraries, while the intensive interlibrary loans traffic is nearly always facilitated by the presence of union catalogs. Where the latter are lacking in the form of large card catalogs—as in Denmark and Sweden—it is by yearly collective catalogs of foreign accessions, published in book form, that the desired information is made available. This cooperation does not stop at national frontiers. There is a very intensive loans traffic between the Scandinavian countries; Western Germany, England, and Switzerland are the countries that top the international loans list with imposing figures, and even the Netherlands, with their confined linguistic area, sent 498 volumes abroad in 1952 and borrowed 395.

All this should not, however, convey the impression that the library systems of the countries discussed are largely identical. As soon as the individual library types of these countries are studied somewhat more closely, it becomes apparent how important the differences are. Consequently, it is far from simple to compare public services in these libraries with what is done in the United States, and what follows cannot be more than an outline picture.

A library type mentioned repeatedly above is the national library, for which tradition still retains the name Royal Library in a number of countries. Along with the Library of Congress, the great majority of these libraries are the repositories of the national production of
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books and periodicals. Some of them also have in common the maintenance of their countries' union catalogs. But in most other respects the difference is large indeed. If these libraries are assigned a general character, it is Oslo that best fits the description, since there we have a university library acting as national library. The royal libraries at Stockholm, Copenhagen, and The Hague confine themselves to the humanities, and even in the British Museum this emphasis is found. These four libraries are distinguished by important early holdings, both of manuscripts and books, which are regularly added to. On the other hand the Swiss National Library is pre-eminently a collection of Helvetica, the importance of which lies primarily in its modern holdings.

It is clear that the service given by these national libraries must be of a strongly divergent character. They are research libraries, but they have to cater for a very heterogeneous public; the educated layman interested in science and learning will come as well as the seeker of antiquities and the university-trained researcher. If, however, the British Museum is placed alongside the National Library at Berne, we are faced with two extremes: on the one hand the mammoth library with its world-famed treasures, which allows access only for serious study, does not lend, and, in its traditional sphere of solid bibliographical and scholarly work, withdraws somewhat from the dynamic tempo of the present; on the other hand, the much smaller Swiss library, founded in 1895 and now housed in one of the most modern library buildings of Europe, with a preponderantly modern stock of Helvetica, lent out in liberal fashion, while thanks to the union catalog the other interlibrary loans traffic is also centralized there. Both libraries give service, but a service of a very different character, and one should not demand of either institution the type of service that naturally belongs to the other.

Occasionally it can be said that in some respects the national library does not differ very much in its function from that of the large public libraries in the United States, as in cities like New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Cleveland, with their special collections and rare book rooms. There are no comparable libraries on the continent of Europe, though England has comparable public libraries in Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, and a few other cities. Scandinavia has similar libraries, such as the City Library of Stockholm and the Deichmanske Bibliotek at Oslo; but, generally speaking, in the Scandinavian countries, in England, and in the Netherlands, the public library holds, besides fiction, general educative literature and special literature for
those who want to obtain further qualifications for their career or their subject. Often the city libraries have additional collections in the field of local history.

Among the services given by the public library, the first that should be mentioned is reference. In this respect the States certainly are well ahead of European countries, perhaps less where the available material is concerned than in the information and guidance of the public in its use. Undoubtedly there are public libraries in England which do striking work in this respect, but in his 1942 report Lionel McColvin declared, "Reference library work is the outstanding failure of British librarianship." It is unlikely that the situation has been brought to a satisfactory level since the end of the war. But other countries may learn much from England in this field: thus the Netherlands have a number of public libraries with good reference rooms, but the use of these and especially of the information service could be greatly intensified. Moreover, the accommodations are often so poor that the installation of a real reference collection would be out of the question. In Denmark and the other Scandinavian countries the situation is definitely better. Denmark and Sweden are the happy possessors of numerous reference works; one is often astounded by the wealth of material which is awaiting use in the reference rooms of their public libraries. Good information and help, even extending to the preparation of reading lists, are assured. For the rest, it should be remembered in comparisons with the United States that the American library user is more inclined and better accustomed than his European counterpart to ask for information on matters for which the European libraries would direct him to other bodies.

An attractive branch of public library work is the work with children. In Denmark in particular this has been ably and minutely organized. School libraries are found in many schools, and these form an administrative whole with the junior library which is accommodated in a school or at the local public library. In many cases the junior library is an independent institution. It is the junior library which looks after the school libraries, while in rural areas where the parish library is also accommodated in the school, this is often done by the county library. The latter also sends class sets (one book in a large number of copies) to the schools for use in class. School reading rooms may be attached to the schools, and where there is no other public accommodation available locally for children they are open to all school children. Here the children can do their homework, but, in some places at least, they are also instructed in the use of the
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library and this instruction is part of the curriculum. They learn the
difference between polite literature and subject reading, learn to
handle the decimal classification, and are even trained in the use of
catalogs. Also they are made conversant with encyclopedias and works
of reference. The result is that afterwards, when visiting the public
library, they have hardly any difficulties, so that librarians are less
and less asked to supply purely technical assistance and have more
time left for other matters.\textsuperscript{20, 21} It is superfluous in this context to
expatiate on conditions in England and the other Scandinavian coun-
tries. It is sufficiently known that there, too, a great deal has been
and is being achieved in the field of junior and school libraries. What
is less well known is that since the war an evident increase of interest
in this field can be perceived in the Netherlands. In Amsterdam in
particular a number of charming, separately housed junior libraries
have been founded. There are children's libraries in other cities, and
in numerous public libraries a special room has been installed as a
junior department. There is a special course of studies for children's
librarians; a standing committee to study problems in the supply of
children's literature has been in existence for several years; and in
1951 a congress on Books and Youth was held which resulted in the
setting up of a bureau to deal with these matters.

We can only make a random selection of the other activities of pub-
lic libraries. Extension work in Europe has not reached the proportions
found in the United States, yet work in hospitals (including mental),
prisons, barracks, and on ships has become a normal task of public
libraries in England and Scandinavia. In Denmark the supply of read-
ing matter to the inmates of old-age homes has become a typically
national phenomenon, and in the other countries we find similar ac-
tivities. For example, we might point to the library for the blind in
the public library at Amsterdam. We might also include here the
cooperation found in some of the smaller towns of the Netherlands
between the public library and local industry in forming a works ex-
tension. The business branch which in numerous American public
libraries is a normal department—often separated from the main li-
brary—is found in a slightly different form in Europe. Here it is neces-
sary only to refer to the commercial libraries attached to a public
library in Manchester and Leeds and to the Library for Commercial
Economics attached to the Amsterdam Public Library.

Finally there is the adult education. England has had a long tradi-
tion in this field, but it is only in the last twenty-five years that the
public library has participated therein. Here the public library found
an opportunity to become a center of local cultural activity by providing accommodations for groups or by arranging the meetings (discussion groups, lectures, gramophone recitals, concerts, etc.). That this opportunity was fully realized appears from the fact that now some 150 libraries in England possess halls for lectures, meeting rooms, and occasionally even theaters. In Denmark, the classical country of the Folk High Schools, where there are also many other group movements for popular education, the study group has become a normal feature in the public library. From one to more than six rooms in the public library building are often reserved for these. Numerous textbooks for the work of these groups have been published, and it is the task of the public library to provide supplementary literature. To the end that public libraries may perform this work adequately, they are assisted by a Study Group Center at the State Library at Aarhus.

As was remarked above, adult education has a long tradition in England, the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and London having given it a start in the period between 1873 and 1876. Besides the Extension lectures aimed at a public with general interests there are the Tutorial classes, generally for a maximum of three years, and the Sessional classes, for one year, which involve regular studies during the winter months. The university libraries play an active part in that they make available traveling libraries for the students in these several courses.

This function of some English universities is not found on the Continent, but on the other hand it is characteristic of a European university library that its doors are easily opened to those outside the university. It is also not uncommon for a university library to serve also as a city library or as (in Switzerland) a cantonal library. And the strictly university library is often more accessible than its American sister. To give one instance, there is no fee for extramural readers in the Netherlands and the regular period of loan is one month for them as well as for the students.

As we all know, there is a considerable difference between the American and the European university in that the latter does not have undergraduates. The European student comes to the university at the age of eighteen after a secondary schooling of six years. He is then better prepared for university work than is the American student beginning his studies at a liberal arts college. And the problems which the European student presents to his university library to solve are simpler than those with which the American library is confronted.
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What service does the university library in Europe give to professors, students, and outsiders? In his 1951 Philadelphia disquisition on the financial difficulties threatening the university library, K. D. Metcalf mentions as one possible way out the reduction of the service to what might be called the European university library level. The service is less important than the books, and in any case the scholar will find his way. The handicap of having to wait twenty-four hours for one's book and refusal of access to the bookstack would have to be taken into the bargain. Metcalf's words make clear what is the American opinion of the service in European university libraries. And it cannot be denied here that America leads Europe in several respects. But all the same some marginal notes can be made to this dictum. In the first place the waiting period of twenty-four hours is certainly an exception. The German university library does not have a very good name in this respect, and it is regrettably often that one has to reckon with a few hours' delay. But there are numerous university libraries (and also national libraries) where conditions are considerably more favorable and where the waiting time is not more than fifteen minutes. Naturally departmentalization is an adverse factor here, but this is true in America as well as in Europe. The numerous departmental libraries common to the American university are also found in Europe, and one gets the impression that this development has not yet reached a standstill.

As to open shelves, this is indeed a privilege which the European library does not and cannot give its visitors. The German university libraries used to have systematic arrangements in the stacks which are, of course, essential if free access to the shelves is to have any meaning. Georg Leyh's famous dissertation on the drawbacks of systematic arrangement caused all the leading major libraries in Germany with the exception of the Prussian State Library to change during the interwar period to the numerus currens system. Even after the second World War not a single research library which had to make a fresh start chose the systematic arrangement. To be quite honest it should, however, be admitted that there are some libraries in Europe, mainly in England and Scandinavia, which allow free access to the stacks or to a systematically arranged part of their holdings, yet it is perhaps no accident that such libraries are housed in relatively new buildings. Many libraries in Europe are still handicapped by old or, at least, small buildings and would be unable, if only for this reason, to adopt a systematic arrangement. If we remember, moreover, that in many American libraries all works published before 1700 are

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placed in the rare book rooms, it is clear that in the large research libraries of Europe this system is hardly practicable.

Considering the difference between the American and the European bookstack, it is not so surprising that libraries in the United States swear by the dictionary catalog, while the research library in Europe uses the alphabetical author catalog and the classed catalog. Some tens of years ago a heated battle was fought in Germany between the supporters of the classed catalog and those of the alphabetical subject catalog, a battle which resulted in particular from the sorry state of the systematic catalog in the German university library. This battle was finally left undecided; but the fact that so many libraries were giving up their classed arrangement in the bookstacks undoubtedly contributed to the retention of the classed catalog. On the whole the classed catalog—always accompanied by an alphabetical author catalog, of course—preponderates in the European research libraries.

Here and there we also find an alphabetical subject catalog, sometimes even by the side of a classed catalog. In view of the often divergent systems underlying the latter, an alphabetical index of subject headings to this catalog is indeed necessary. If it can be said that the combination of alphabetical author catalog and classed catalog with index of subject headings forms a satisfactory apparatus, it must on the other hand be recognized that the libraries in the United States show a much greater unity in this respect. Moreover, the condition of the catalogs in many European research libraries leaves much to be desired, as the classed catalog is out of date or sometimes absent altogether. America also has its difficulties with the dictionary catalog when this becomes too unwieldy, yet possession of this catalog makes for better equipment than is found in many a European research library. For the public libraries equipped with an alphabetical author catalog and an alphabetical subject catalog the difference is not particularly great.

The typical general reference department of the American university library is entirely wanting in Europe, but information service is given at the catalog and in the general reading room, while members of the research staff, whether or not on duty in seminar reading rooms, can answer questions. The specialist knowledge of these staff members, who have usually completed a prolonged university training in their respective fields of study, makes it possible to give to even highly specialized questions the attention which they deserve.

There is one other group of libraries which is continually increasing in importance and which has not yet been discussed so far, viz.,
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the special libraries. This is a group of the most varied kinds of libraries, and it is impossible to give an idea of their service. Among them are very active libraries aiming at detailed documentation in their own fields but restricting their services largely to the institution or the business to which they belong. It is through cooperation with other libraries that the holdings of such special libraries can be made useful to a wider circle. Thus it is especially this type of library which contributes to the Netherlands Union Catalog of Periodicals, by which very important holdings of special journals are made available to research work in general.

From what precedes, it may be concluded that in principle there is not much divergence in the ideas of what service should be given, but that practical realization in America is in many respects in advance of European practice. Better accommodations, larger staffs, and ampler funds—at least for the larger libraries—are of course quite important, but what matters equally is the use that has been made of all this. We find this especially in the speed of delivery of materials, their accessibility, and the systematic arrangement of the bookstack, the excellent organization of the catalogs—advantages which are often, and notably in the university libraries, missed in Europe. The public library, too, has not reached anything like the level of its American counterpart, not even in the countries of western Europe which have made the greatest advances in this field.

On the other hand, the effort toward cooperation, which is manifesting itself more and more in American library circles, is often behind Europe in this very field of public services. Europe has a much more strongly developed interlibrary loans activity, and public libraries here are much more vigorously supported in their work by the holdings of the research libraries than they are in the cited States. Even in a country like Germany, where the gulf between the research and the public library (the latter being considered as a popular library) has not quite disappeared, we can speak of cooperation between the two kinds of libraries.

Another remarkable feature is that the apparently vast differences between the American and the European libraries turn out, on closer inspection, to be less important than was anticipated, and they show a tendency through changes in both camps to diminish. The catalog of the American library, on which so much pains and ingenuity have been lavished, probably cannot be maintained in the same fashion in the future in the face of the ever mounting costs. Moreover, the dictionary catalog has already increased to such an unwieldy size that
certain libraries have introduced a division into author and subject catalog. One prominent librarian has already advocated a simple author-finding list for the large mass of holdings.27

The space problem in American libraries has become so acute and the financial objections to extensions or new buildings have become so large that solutions are sought along European lines. In 1902 President Eliot of Harvard defended the view that books were still accessible if delivered within twenty-four hours, and that for reasons of economy shelving in double rows according to size would be necessary. At the time, Eliot raised a storm of indignation, but he would certainly feel some satisfaction if he could see the present developments. The New England Deposit Library and the Midwest Inter-Library Center are the first instances of an evolution in which works of small demand are put into storage by libraries and are thus accessible only after considerable delay. But even in the bookstacks of the libraries themselves we now see all manner of compact storage systems which clearly indicate the direction of developments. In the new library of the University of Wisconsin at Madison the books are stored in the stacks in three groups of volumes of different sizes, while in a separate section of the stack compact storage has been introduced for the more rarely used works.28, 29

The interlibrary loan, which has never been very popular in the United States, is certain to develop more strongly under the new General Interlibrary Loan Code of 1952, and the Farmington Plan, appointing numerous libraries as repositories for literature on a certain subject, inevitably results in an extension of interlibrary loans.

If we see here an evolution toward European norms, at the same time the American example, especially since the war, has not failed to make its influence felt in Europe. Notably in Germany this is clearly perceptible. If in 1932, in his book on the Scandinavian Public Library, Erwin Ackerknecht could still measure out at large his objections against open shelves, in 1952 we see Hans Hugelmann, in his work on the Volksbücherei, declare himself against the open shelves on pedagogic grounds, only to state in his preface that he has meanwhile changed his opinion.30 The development in Western Germany is proceeding clearly in the direction of free access to the books, and we need only look into the journal of the Verein Deutscher Volksbibliothekare, Bücher und Bildung, to discover how enthusiastically the new system is supported. The loss of books in Germany has also resulted in a stronger tendency than before to amalgamate the older holdings of local research libraries with the Volksbücherei into an
Einheitsbücherei, thus reducing the distinction between research and popular libraries and drawing nearer to the pattern of the American public library. Developments of a kind similar to those seen in Germany are also in evidence in the Netherlands where open access to materials has been introduced in many public libraries.

References


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Forthcoming numbers are as follows:


April, 1955, Financial Problems of University Libraries. Editor: Edwin E. Williams, Chief, Acquisition Department, Harvard College Library.


The numbers of LIBRARY TRENDS issued prior to the present one dealt successively with college and university libraries, special libraries, school libraries, public libraries, libraries of the United States government, cataloging and classification, scientific management in libraries, the availability of library research materials, and personnel administration.