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Library Trends

Metropolitan Public Library Problems Around the World

H. C. Campbell
Issue Editor

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Library Trends, a quarterly journal of 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.

Each issue is concerned with one aspect of librarianship. Each is planned with the assistance of an invited advisory editor. All articles are by invitation. Suggestions for future issues are welcomed and should be sent to the Managing Editor.

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Introduction

H. C. CAMPBELL

Planning for the growth and development of public library systems in metropolitan areas anywhere in the world today is an exercise fraught with difficulties and few rewards. The conditions of urban life which have transformed the role and purpose of the public library in all great cities are only dimly understood by most local authorities, local library users, and local librarians caught up in a multitude of problems and changes. Such is the inescapable conclusion from reading the comments and appraisals of public library administrators as they describe the library situation in fourteen of the major cities of the world. This is probably to be expected, and is in fact no less than the common plight of all urban public services struggling in a fast changing world to reshape their institutions.

The public library system of any large metropolitan city is clothed in archaic and outmoded legislation, and administrators spend years trying to achieve results within this existing framework. Alexis de Tocqueville commented in The Old Regime and the French Revolution: “It is easy to see how large a part is played by habit in the functioning of political institutions, and how much more easily a nation can cope with well-nigh unintelligible laws to which it is accustomed, than with a simpler legal system that is new.”

It is not the function of this issue of Library Trends to set out how this legislation should be changed. Such a change is overdue in most metropolitan cities, but so slowly do we adapt ourselves to new conditions that years will elapse before some of the problems described in the following pages are solved. However, in some metropolitan areas, library administrators are seizing the initiative and appearing with solutions to specific problems. In the normal course, some of these solutions might remain unknown for decades, so slowly do new ideas and institutional changes travel in spite of the much discussed “infor-
information explosion." The purposes of this issue are to elucidate the main library problems of urban metropolitan areas, and to document the trends in the development and possible alleviation of these problems. What are the means that a central public library can use to organize its relations with the total environment on which it depends? How can the cultural pluralism that is a characteristic of the central section of a metropolitan area be brought to the suburban regions? In attempting to show the problems that exist, this issue may help speed up the rate of communication between the more than 250 metropolitan areas in the world, ranging in size from some with half a million population, to some containing 8,000,000 or 10,000,000 people.

Seven cities of more than 1,000,000 population and less than 2,000,000 have been selected as representative of the smaller metropolitan areas of the world. These are Stockholm, Vienna, Liverpool, Brussels, Johannesburg, Hamburg, and Warsaw. A librarian from each of these cities has been asked to give a description of some of the problems that arise in making books and reading available through the established public library systems. All of these cities might be characterized as being caught up in the beginning stages of acute urban public library growth.

Librarians in a second group of metropolitan areas where the populations are over 3,000,000 have been asked to describe their problems. In these "middle-sized" metropolitan areas the factors of historical development and the need for both centralization and decentralization are quickly apparent. This group includes Detroit, Los Angeles, and Berlin—both East and West. All are in the more highly industrialized continents. Although there are cities of Latin America, Asia, and the Middle East with similar concentrations of population, they have not yet developed their library services to the same extent as some cities of 500,000 persons in Europe or North America.

As Kantaro Nishifugi, the Librarian of Osaka, Japan, puts it: "What is the citizen's image of a public library? From the point of view of the traditional East, it should be an extension of private libraries in which one meditates in silence. It must be an austere building standing among the green trees away from the dust and noise of the city. But from the point of view of the pragmatic West, the library should be in the middle of the city, easily accessible to the public, and convenient for borrowing." In many Asian, African, and Latin American metropolitan areas, the concept of the free public library has received little attention except from a small group of enthusiastic supporters.
Introduction

Even after fifteen years of operation, the Delhi Public Library, largely financed by the government of India, is spending less than $215,000 a year in a city of 2,500,000 persons.

Much can be learned from a comparative study of the library problems of metropolitan areas of similar complexity and development. This issue of Library Trends hopefully points out some possibilities in this direction. No work is as yet being done on such inter-metropolitan comparisons. Even within national boundaries, little attention is paid to the problems of large public library systems, with the notable exceptions of such countries as the German Federal Republic, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America. In these countries can be found nearly half of the urban metropolitan concentrations of the world, and the leadership in library affairs which is coming from them is to be welcomed.

No look at the metropolitan scene anywhere in the world would be complete without some word from the giants: London, New York, Paris, Moscow, and Tokyo. Here the urban situation is so complex that only the briefest summary is possible in the space available. We are fortunate to have observers to relate some of the events taking place in Tokyo, New York City, and London, and regret that Paris and Moscow, although invited, could not be included.

For reasons of space, it has been necessary to condense many of the articles supplied by contributors. In making this condensation, the editor accepts full responsibility for the material omitted. Every effort has been made to ensure such condensation without loss of essential information, but in some cases background information on the library situation in particular cities has had to be eliminated. It was not felt necessary to include a detailed description of the composition of each metropolitan urban area, but in some cases these have been supplied by contributors, and where they relate to the question of public library service, have been retained.

The articles on Hamburg, Brussels, Vienna, East and West Berlin, and Warsaw required translation into English; in the translation, American and Canadian library terms have been introduced. The editor apologizes for this freedom in adapting the material supplied in other languages, but trusts that the result will pave the way for a wider discussion of recognizable common problems.

I am indebted to the individual contributors for their patience and cooperation during the long period of assembling and checking the articles for the issue. I am also indebted to staff members of the To-
ronto Public Library, notably Leonard Wertheimer, Renate Torok, Charles Cushing, Freda Zych, Wanda Trzos, and Raye Howard, for invaluable assistance in the work of translation and compilation.

I would like also to express my gratitude to Emerson Greenaway for suggesting this topic to the Publications Board of *Library Trends* and to the Board for allowing me the opportunity of exploring it with them. I trust that in future years a further look can be given to other metropolitan urban areas around the world.

**References**


The Public Libraries of Johannesburg

ANNA H. SMITH

The Johannesburg Public Library, serving a privileged section of the citizens of the area, was mainly a lending library until 1911. Between 1911 and 1936, the chief emphasis was on reference work, and many sets of learned publications were acquired. It is said that novels were not purchased until six months after publication. On the whole little was done to attract the general reader. In 1936, Johannesburg, a city of some 54,000 acres populated by 474,908 people of all races, had one public library service point in an up-to-date and attractive building on the Market Square with a total staff of thirty-six and a stock of 150,465 volumes. On July 17, 1936, R. F. Kennedy, Deputy since 1921, became Chief Librarian, and immediately began to plan changes that would bring the Johannesburg Public Library into line with modern public library concepts. From the time of his appointment until his retirement in June 1960, he persuaded the City Council of Johannesburg to institute libraries in schools; to start deposit libraries in fire stations, residential clubs, and factories; to open hospital library services with qualified staff; to establish branch libraries in the suburbs; to introduce library services for non-whites in residential areas, schools, and hospitals; to maintain a municipal reference library in the City Hall for the use of councilors and officials; to expand the music collection into a special library; and to establish traveling libraries to serve the outlying suburbs. In the years from 1936 to 1960, the Johannesburg Public Library changed from a small-town library with a good basic stock to an urban system with perhaps the best book stock in the country and certainly with the largest number of qualified staff to be found in one institution in South Africa. Johannesburg took the lead in the late 1920's and early 1930's in training librarians and in appointing qualified staff to posts carrying commensurate salaries. The Library's tutorial classes ceased only after library

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schools at the universities had become a reality, but even today senior members of the Johannesburg Public Library staff are part-time lecturers and examiners in various schools of librarianship. It is not surprising then that this library has served as a reservoir and training ground for staff throughout the country. The emphasis both in teaching and in organization has always been on the practical side of librarianship.

In 1938 Johannesburg abandoned the deposit system, and thus became the first urban library in South Africa to operate on a free basis, setting the pattern since followed by most of the library authorities. It was such a revolutionary step at that time in a city notorious for its ever-changing population that few realized the enormous saving caused by abolishing much unproductive and costly accounting. At the same time, the number of users of the Library increased rapidly.

By 1945 the staff was divided into professionals (i.e. those with academic or library qualifications) and generals (those with matriculation or typing qualifications). The duties were reorganized in such a manner that qualified librarians were expected to do the work for which they had been specially trained instead of trying to be typists, stenographers, bookkeepers, or routine workers. This method has been most successful in improving the standard of service to the public, important in raising the status of librarians, and invaluable as an argument in defense of increases in salaries. Today fully qualified librarians are college graduates with a postgraduate diploma in librarianship.

In 1955/56 full catalogs in the branch libraries were abolished, with no ill effects. In suburban libraries (with limited stocks continually replenished from a central pool), which are mainly used by general readers, the important factors are (1) which books are on the shelves, and (2) whether a particular work can be obtained on application by the reader. The reader is not interested in whether the book he wants belongs to the stock of the library he normally visits or whether it has come from a library five miles away, provided that he gets it in a reasonable time.

Methods of accessioning, cataloging, and issuing books are subject to careful scrutiny from time to time to see if they can be improved or simplified in the interests of efficiency and economy. Much duplication of records has been avoided in this manner, and unnecessary details excised from all records.

The Johannesburg Public Library has never been afraid to break away from traditional methods if it was thought advantageous to do
The Public Libraries of Johannesburg

so. It has an extensive collection of government publications of most African territories and some other countries which are fully cataloged in a classified catalog in a rather unorthodox but most practical manner, enabling readers to obtain what they require with a minimum of effort.

The trend in Johannesburg since the middle 1930's has been to provide some trained staff at all public service points to assist readers not only with their choice of books, but also, in the Reference Library and subject collections, in the use of the catalog. It is believed that the catalog of a library of any size is too complicated a tool for the average reader to use effectively, and as every effort is made to exploit the resources of the Library to the full, skilled librarians are at hand to explain the entries in the catalog and to assist in tracing the required information. Still more is needed to be done in this direction as the book stock expands.

South Africa is a developing country in which much thought in recent years has been given to the importance of libraries and their resources. Efforts are being made to bring to serious students such book materials as the country as a whole possesses, by every possible means including interlibrary loans and photocopying services. Here the Johannesburg Public Library has played its part well, particularly in relation to the many special libraries attached to mining houses, industry, and commercial firms in the vicinity. All these libraries draw on the Johannesburg Public Library's collections, particularly for learned and technical journals and for material outside the scope of their interest. There is also the closest cooperation between this Library and that of the University of the Witwatersrand. The compilation of bibliographies and indexes, particularly in the field of Africana, is a major library activity because of the lack of such tools. The Library's best-known publication, issued annually, is the Index to South African Periodicals.

The Johannesburg Public Library is financed by the municipality from the ordinary rate fund and from the native revenue account. Some bequests and gifts of money are received from firms and individuals, but the City Council is responsible for maintaining an adequate and properly organized supply of reading matter for the community. Recently it has been suggested that, as the Johannesburg Public Library plays a large part in supplying the book needs of students outside the municipal boundaries, some grant should be made by the Government. The Johannesburg City Council considers it both
a duty and a privilege to maintain an efficient library service for its citizens, and over the years it has given the Library sympathetic consideration and a sufficiently large grant to maintain a reasonable service with due regard to economy. The Council has, nevertheless, stated that a grant for the supply of very special material (for example, foreign patents to supplement those the Library has from Britain and the United States of America) would be welcome, but is prepared itself to foot the bill for the day-to-day needs of its citizens.

The city of Johannesburg is considered an excellent employer, and the staff of the Johannesburg Public Library enjoys equal pay and conditions of service for men and women (married or unmarried), a pension scheme with provision for widows and orphans, good leave privileges and sick benefits, opportunities for overseas exchanges, subsidized education, and scholarships for postgraduate study in librarianship. Library workers are in great demand throughout the country, especially because of the serious shortage of qualified librarians for the expanding library services in the towns and in the rural areas. By general standards, the Johannesburg Public Library is understaffed, and it is not easy to maintain a stock of nearly 900,000 volumes (excluding unbound material), a circulation of well-over four million volumes a year, and a system with just under thirty major service points, seventy traveling library stops, eight hospital services, some thirty schools, a few old-age homes, a busy reference department, and four special subject libraries.

The estimated population served by the Johannesburg Public Library (June 1963) is 1,222,903 of whom 406,200 are white, 711,595 Bantu, 65,568 Eurafri cans, and 39,540 Asiatics, living in an area of 115 square miles or 73,842 acres. Johannesburg is a complex and vital community and its residents make great demands on its library service not only for its educational and cultural needs but also for its scientific and technical requirements. Its various peoples differ in language, in standards of living, in educational background, and in religious views. Where the white population (both Afrikaans- and English-speaking) resembles that of many British or American cities of similar size as far as its library needs are concerned, the non-white peoples are entirely different. Where the Eurafri can (or Coloured as he is generally called in South Africa) and the Asiatic more closely resemble the white man of the same education as far as his reading tastes go, the Bantu (or African) is in a different category.

The average adult African has had very little schooling and may
The Public Libraries of Johannesburg

even be the first generation of his family in an urban environment. Here one has the perennial problem of finding reading matter which will interest him and not present too much difficulty in view of his elementary standard of education. In practice it has been found that when the contents interest the reader, he frequently does not read fluently enough to manage the book with ease. There are exceptions, of course, but reading for pleasure is unusual among adult Africans. Their demand is for works of information and study to help them to pass an examination or to better themselves financially. Ever since the first separate library for Africans was opened towards the end of 1939 (because they were debarred from using the existing public library by the conditions on which the subscribers handed over their assets to the municipality), the endeavor has been to provide study books for the small proportion of readers able to make use of them. But even today the libraries in most African areas serve nine children to one adult. The problem of providing books for this section of the community is further complicated by the fact that some seven different African languages are spoken in Johannesburg, and there is very little literature in any of them and no real children's books at all. The Library is therefore called upon to provide attractive but simple English or Afrikaans books so that the children can become accustomed to the idea of a library and make use of its facilities as they grow older and master the mechanics of reading.

These libraries are administered by the Johannesburg Public Library on behalf of the Non-European Affairs Department of the City. This Department is responsible for recreational facilities of all kinds, and encourages people to read instructions for games and handicrafts. The result is that the ability to read easily has become a status symbol, and the decline of illiteracy is very noticeable during the last five years or so as educational facilities have improved. As the African becomes more educated, he becomes more articulate in his demand for books, and in recent years the rise of the vernacular press and radio has had a marked effect on the requirement of library users. Johannesburg spends lavishly on these library services which are far more costly per capita than similar services for whites owing to heavy wear and tear and losses due to the lack of a library tradition. The service points in these libraries are operated by matriculated or graduate Africans, and the same standards of book selection are maintained as for any other part of the library service—that is suitability of content and physical make-up. During the year 1963/64, there were 23,282 regis-
ANNA H. SMITH

tered members (3,799 adults and 19,483 children) who borrowed 215,714 volumes for home reading. Just as each branch in a white area has a basic reference collection, so each non-white library is provided with some dictionaries, encyclopaedias, yearbooks, atlases, gazetteers, etc. In addition, the libraries for non-whites include newspapers and representative collections of study books, for which the whites have to visit the Central Library, and a beginning has been made with special services by providing music scores in some of these libraries.

It has recently been said that an efficient library service should concern itself with the kinds of people whose needs are to be met, the numbers who are being and who should be served, and the ways in which the service is working in actual practice. If these criteria are applied to the white population of Johannesburg, the library service is reasonable, but when they are applied to the non-whites, the present service is inadequate and much remains to be done to make them readers and conscious of the benefits of a library service.

The present trend in South Africa is to provide more educational facilities for all groups in the community, and at the same time there is a strong movement afoot to improve all library service. To achieve these objectives, increased funds are necessary; various committees (on which Johannesburg is represented) appointed by the Government are at present investigating the matter. Johannesburg itself needs still more public libraries near the homes of its people, particularly in the non-white areas, and plans have been made for half-a-dozen to be completed within the next year or two. It has also been agreed in principle to include a library for students in the Civic Center near many educational institutions to relieve the congestion in the Reference Library. The immediate future should see the completion of an underground stack below the gardens in front of the Central Library to provide the necessary expansion required by a Central Library which has occupied the same building for thirty years. A separate Art Department should be in operation in a nearby building in 1965, and consideration will have to be given to separate departments with specialized staff for science and technology, and for business and commerce. The policy of subject departments staffed by qualified librarians with a special knowledge of the subject has been accepted, because it has been illustrated in Johannesburg that far better use is made of the book stock in these departments than can possibly be the case when these subjects form part of a general collection.

The Johannesburg Public Library cannot escape the problem which
confronts any library except the very smallest today—mechanization
in some form or another. It is believed that at present it would be
uneconomical to introduce computer methods at the Johannesburg
Public Library, as the necessary programming would take as much
time as the manual preparation of catalogs and indexes, and more-
over, it is also thought that reference library work in Johannesburg
is not of a sufficiently repetitive nature to warrant the outlay at present
inherent in such a system. But as mechanical methods of information
retrieval improve and become less costly, and as the Johannesburg
Public Library grows, consideration will certainly have to be given
to these newer methods if Johannesburg is to run an efficient library
service.
Public Library Problems in Warsaw

FELISKA BURSOWA
AND
CZESŁAW KOZIOŁ

The basis of library organization and activity in Poland after World War II is the decree of April 17, 1946, on libraries and the protection of library collections. It includes both the theoretical and organizational policies of Polish librarianship, the purposes of specific types of libraries and the guidelines of their organization. According to the decree: “Public libraries serve the reading public in the widest sense, for social education, general and professional education, as well as the cultural recreation of all the citizens of the State or of a definite area.”

The organization of public libraries in large cities in Poland has depended on the urban character of each city, as well as on its demographic situation and the diversity of interests of the population. Most of the big city libraries, e.g. Poznan, Warsaw, Lublin, were established in a difficult period of Polish history, when the country had lost its independence. The Polish nation had to protect and to develop Polish culture and education, and at the same time to prevent a loss of Polish nationality and to fight for social and economic progress. These purposes were carried out by cultural and educational institutions, including the libraries, run by various social associations, as well as by the collectively-organized educational groups.

The Warsaw Public Library was founded by the Public Library Society as a reference library for the city in 1907. It was established, as proclaimed by its charter, to cooperate in the development of science and education, by providing suitable book collections to people of all professions and special interests. It also fulfilled, in this period, the function of a national library. Through the contributions of the public,

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the Library developed quickly. In independent Poland, from 1918 on, it was one of the most important reference libraries of the capital.

In 1928, the Warsaw Public Library became the basis of the city library system, when it was taken over by the municipal government. The Library then secured permanent financial support and the backing of the municipal authorities for its own work. In 1929, Faustyn Czerwijowski, at that time the chief librarian, organized the city library system as a complex of libraries, connected with each other on the principle of centralized administration and territorial decentralization. This principle assured the location of the various branch libraries, a reasonable use of collections, and economic administration of the system. The principle of central administration at this time was particularly valid. The city library system was barely in the organizational stage, but plans were made to allow for the inclusion under the central administration of about fifty libraries serving 1,200,000 residents in an area of 130 square kilometers. In order to disseminate education widely, district libraries were to be established. In 1939 the library system consisted of fifty-six libraries, including sixteen children's libraries. Book collections in all libraries together with the Main Library amounted to 503,000 volumes. World War II destroyed Warsaw almost completely, and along with it the results of many years of work in developing the libraries.

Warsaw had entered the twentieth century with a quickly growing population. In 1900 the population numbered 686,000 inhabitants, and in 1913, 884,500. The main reason for this growth was the development of industry, which attracted a large influx of people chiefly from the villages.

The population levels in the period 1915–1960 were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>780,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>936,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>1,029,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>1,171,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>1,225,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>1,334,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1945</td>
<td>377,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>803,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>1,001,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>1,139,200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above figures show the tragic results of both World Wars in the development of the city. The population losses at the time of the Second World War reached catastrophic proportions. The German occupation forces deliberately and ruthlessly destroyed the population of the capital. More than 150,000 of the civilian population died in the Warsaw uprising of 1944. After the surrender, the Germans forced the
evacuation of the rest of the inhabitants. The number 162,000 given in the statistical yearbooks as the population of Warsaw in 1944 refers only to Praga on the right bank of Warsaw. The left bank of Warsaw at the end of the year was completely depopulated.

After the liberation of the left bank of Warsaw, only a part of its former inhabitants returned, along with people from all over Poland, to rebuild the capital. The 20-year period which has elapsed has not been sufficient to compensate fully for the losses of the war years. The area of the city has more than tripled by the incorporation of the suburban zones with a population of more than 180,000, and by an influx of people as well as by the natural population increase. In 1962 Warsaw numbered 1,189,620 inhabitants.

The problem of rebuilding the city library system immediately after the war had to be settled provisionally. Libraries were opened where and if possible. At the same time arrangements for the rebuilding and development of the libraries were included in the general plan of the reconstruction of the city. The plan for the rebuilding of the system, worked out in 1949, by R. Przelaskowski, at that time the chief librarian, was in accordance with the general outlines of the organization established before the war. He advocated the far-reaching decentralization of library services as well as the organization of several different types of libraries in order to satisfy the diverse needs and interests of the readers.

The new element in this program was the proposal that the organizational design of libraries follow the administrative structure of the city, which was divided into districts. From this arose a triple level of organization: (1) the Main Library—the headquarters for the city; (2) the district or regional library—administrative headquarters for a region in cooperation with all types of libraries, and also a reference and circulating library for adults and children, and a deposit station headquarters; and (3) branch libraries—one for every 10,000 residents—consisting of two departments, a circulating library for adults and a children's library. The whole city system was put directly under the management of the Main Library. The author of this project applied to the public library system the organizational plan of the country, the government of which was based on a three level administrative structure, whose basic units were province, county, municipality.

The project was accepted and has gradually been carried out under consecutive 5-year planning periods. In practice each plan does not constitute a rigid goal, but a general guide for the development of the
Public Library Problems in Warsaw

city library system. It is modified by circumstances which present new
problems for solution. A few of these will be singled out for further
consideration.

The plan of the development of the city of Warsaw has undergone
various evolutions and is still being discussed, modified, and deved-
oped, depending on the work of educational institutions, offices, and
governmental agencies. This work keenly interests the Public Library,
which along with the other cultural and educational institutions has
its place in the general development of the city. It is expected that by
1980 the public library system will need to serve about 1,700,000 resi-
dents in the Greater Warsaw area.

According to statistics for 1962, there existed in the Greater Warsaw
area 136 scientific or learned libraries, the National Library, academic
libraries, libraries of educational institutions and associations, mu-
seums, archives, etc., with book collections of over 6,200,000 volumes,
and 1,730,000 volumes of periodicals. There were 455 school libraries
with book collections of over 2,100,000 volumes; 148 libraries of trade
unions with book collections of around 540,000 volumes; and other li-
braries, very numerous but not included in the published statistics,
such as special libraries in plants and workshops. However, in addi-
tion to the services of these libraries, there is a constantly growing
need for the services of the public library system in all subjects and
on various levels of reading. The result of this growing need can be
seen in the intensive development of the Public Libraries, as shown
in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Comparative Data on Warsaw Public Libraries, 1950 and 1963

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit of Measure</th>
<th>1950</th>
<th>1963</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of libraries</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book collections (volumes)</td>
<td>410,000</td>
<td>1,530,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of readers borrowing books</td>
<td>25,500</td>
<td>146,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of visits to reading rooms</td>
<td>527,400</td>
<td>762,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of books borrowed for home use</td>
<td>696,300</td>
<td>3,719,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of books used in reading rooms</td>
<td>608,900</td>
<td>1,178,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At present these public library agencies are heavily occupied in
giving service to high school and university students. A large increase
in the number of seats in the reference rooms of the National Library
and several of the higher academic schools is anticipated in the next
ten years, which will change this situation and enable the public li-

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braries to satisfy the needs of the general public. By 1980 there can be foreseen a tripling in the number of individuals with higher education, and a corresponding increase in the development of extramural students and postgraduate students. The Warsaw Public Library will be able to meet these demands only after completing the planned extension to the central building, and developing the regional library system, with further additions of reference rooms. There will need to be a gradual rebuilding of the book collections of the circulating libraries, and a significant increase in the percentage of non-fiction holdings.

The place and role of the public libraries in the library system of the city is changing from the traditional position, in which recreational reading predominated. There is need to increase the sphere and range of library activities in the field of scientific literature, self-education, and professional training. It is now necessary for the public library to provide a rich collection of books and additional services to the people of the city, not withstanding the activities of the various libraries mentioned above. Universal access to public libraries as well as to their cultural and educational activities plays an important part in the integration of Warsaw citizens into the large city community, particularly in view of the growing urbanization of Warsaw. The fostering of different local community interests, as well as strengthening the social and cultural activities of the neighborhoods, is an especially gratifying field of activity for public libraries.

The flexibility of the organization of a municipal library system is the condition for efficiency of its operations. The standard accepted by the library for the number of branches—1 for every 10,000 residents—can only be regarded as a guideline. In peripheral residential areas it is less. On the other hand, in large or in central areas it is greatly increased. Practice must be confronted with theoretical assumptions. This calls for studies, both spot checks and records of observations over a long period of time. The Warsaw Public Library carried out in one section of the city some sample studies of the extent of the activities of circulating libraries. The analysis included six libraries, of which two were situated in the center of the area (Koszykowa and Marszalkowska Streets). Of the readers found using these two libraries, almost 50 per cent lived not only beyond the provisionally outlined library region but beyond the administrative borders of the city district and even beyond Warsaw. These are mainly people working near the library, and from that point of view it is more con-
Public Library Problems in Warsaw

convenient for them to use it. The pattern of the spacing of cultural institutions thus cannot be subject to a rigid administrative scheme, but must conform to the urban and demographic character of the city.

The area of Warsaw (not including the Vistula River) in 1939 amounted to 134 square kilometers. In 1962, after the incorporation of various suburban areas, it had grown to 430 square kilometers. This created the problem of satisfying the needs of readers in the peripheral areas of the city, in small communities, and in places of employment scattered about in these areas. This problem was solved by bookmobile service on the one hand, and by organizing small libraries and deposit stations run by voluntary workers in factories, clubs, etc. The first solution provides for a wider selection of reading matter and qualified staff. The second provides less extensive and less expensive service, easier access to books, a better acquaintance with local problems by the social worker who directs the deposit station, and the possibility of connecting the library activities with the other cultural activities of the community.

The present Warsaw Public Library system concentrates the specialized services and the big reference book collections in the center of the city. The gradual development of larger community districts on the periphery of Warsaw would indicate a need to decentralize even this type of service, and to create new large reference collections.

Another problem that may arise is that connected with service to young people. Such service drives out the adult readers from the libraries. In the present arrangement of the library system, there is a lack of libraries for young people. Only the main library possesses a young people's reading room. This problem is particularly important, and its solution is only in the first stages of exploration. This matter establishes the need for the extension of public library activities beyond that which is strictly library work. It would appear that the organizing of concerts, lectures, discussion groups, exhibitions, amateur artistic activities, and other events by the Library is necessary in the programs of suburban agencies. On the other hand, the matter of carrying on such activities in a considerable extent in libraries in the center of the city is debatable, since there already exists a concentration in the central parts of the city of specialized institutions which provide such programs—22 museums, 150 exhibitions yearly, a Philharmonic Society, 17 theaters which present over 100 new plays each year, and 71 cinemas with a total of 32,500 seats.

Some important problems arise from the progressive decentraliza-

[ 19 ]
tion of the city administration, increasing the powers of district authorities and their community boards. The immediate subordination of the administration of libraries to the district authorities, and the close connection of their activities with the local organs of power and community agencies, has great educative value and opens many useful avenues of cooperation, but it can also produce unsatisfactory conditions of service to readers in the individual districts. The solution for these difficulties taken by Warsaw is that of keeping in the Main Library the centralization of responsibility where it increases economy and extends the range of professional work, e.g., the planning of the development of the library system, the training of staff, the direction of the book selection, the central processing of books, etc. On the other hand, local initiative in the organization of library activities in districts and communities is being supported and strengthened.

References

6. Ibid., p. 190.
7. Ibid., p. 188.
The Public Libraries in East Berlin

HEINZ WERNER

In order to better understand the present-day trends in the development of the public library system in Berlin (capital city of the German Democratic Republic), a brief statistical review of the situation before World War II is necessary. In 1938, approximately 4.3 million people lived in the twenty municipalities of Metropolitan Berlin, which occupied 884 square kilometers (218,327 acres) of land. There were 114 public libraries with a stock of almost 900,000 volumes. The large and learned libraries like the Prussian State Library and the University Library were generally used by members of the intelligentsia only, and there was no cooperation with the public libraries. The link between the Berliner Stadtbibliothek, a learned library with a stock of 330,000 volumes, and the public libraries was relatively loose and practically limited to interloan services. In the eight municipalities making up today's capital of the German Democratic Republic, there were forty-one public libraries with 302,000 volumes in 1938 which served 31,300 readers during that year (2 per cent of the 1.6 million inhabitants); a total of 674,300 volumes were taken out by those readers.

Immediately after the war, reconstruction of libraries commenced, with the result that in East Berlin thirty public libraries had a stock of 125,500 volumes by December 1945, and 13,500 persons could be counted as steady readers. Administrative authorities of the library system paid much attention to the training of new librarians. The Berlin Library School was reopened shortly after the war. The detailed steps leading to the present situation are not relevant here, just as problems in library work with general literature and fiction need not be considered. However, a study of statistics is necessary in order to clarify the changed situation in the supply of books through the libraries.

East Berlin occupies an area of 403 square kilometers (99,581

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acres) and has a population of approximately 1.06 million. While before the war the population increased steadily, it has remained practically level since 1946 because of the decimation of the younger generation during the war. This fact is important, since today’s problems in supplying the inhabitants with books through libraries do not arise from an increasing population but from a qualitatively and quantitatively fast-growing need for reading. The people’s increasing demands on libraries are, above all, a result of planned economic development in the German Democratic Republic, where a continuous increase in production efficiency is required and an increase of scientific-technical knowledge among the working class is necessary, thus creating new needs for technical and scientific literature.

At the present time, 125 general public libraries have 800,000 volumes at their disposal. In 1963 they were visited by 133,000 readers who took out 3.3 million books. These figures represent a 100 per cent increase over the last ten years. In relation to total population, the number of readers (12.5 per cent) represents a sixfold increase over 1938. In addition, most nationally owned industrial plants have established libraries, serving employees with fiction and non-fiction literature, as well as with professional reading. There are 275 of these libraries, with 668,000 volumes, and 75,000 readers who took out 1.1 million books in 1963. The strength of the factory libraries varies. Only seventy-six had a full-time librarian in 1963; these libraries made available about 450,000 volumes to 51,300 permanent readers who took out 836,000 books.

If one takes into consideration the other “allgemeinbildende” libraries, such as institutional libraries (in hospitals, old age homes, etc.) 20 per cent of the total population in East Berlin can be said to frequent libraries—a number ten times greater than that before World War II. To this about 500 scientific and professional libraries must be added, since now they admit the general public and contribute more and more to the provision of educational literature. Altogether there are more than 15 million volumes in the scientific and public “allgemeinbildende” libraries of East Berlin. Approximately 32 per cent of the population are users of these libraries.

While the number of libraries might be sufficient, their accommodation, equipment, and personnel do not satisfy the growing demands. Lack of staff makes the work most demanding, and staff positions can be filled only with great difficulty. The growing demand by readers for literature in technology and science also creates problems in the
work of the public libraries. The key to these problems, it is believed, is to be found in close cooperation between the public libraries and the scientific libraries.

In East Berlin, public libraries are under the administration of each separate municipality; however, they are, together with the Central Stadtbibliothek under the jurisdiction of the Cultural Department of the Municipal Council of Greater Berlin. Such cooperation has led to thorough knowledge and respect of each others’ specific working methods. With its extensive scientific material and skilled staff, the Stadtbibliothek is able to offer more and more assistance to the public libraries. At present the Stadtbibliothek has a stock of 820,000 volumes and circulates 250,000 volumes of a scientific nature annually. (This does not include volumes used in the Reference Departments, and works of fiction are loaned only for scientific and professional purposes.)

Years ago the Stadtbibliothek catered mainly to the arts, but now literature which directly serves industrial production takes up a more important place. In 1949, one year after the division of Berlin, 15 per cent of the books circulated dealt with technical subjects, natural science, and mathematics. In 1963, these subjects amounted to 42 per cent of the circulation. It is also interesting to note that the percentage of adolescent readers is increasing steadily. Today, approximately 60 per cent of the readers are young people in training or continuing their education. With its rich collections and well-selected additions to the scientific book and periodical holdings, and with judicious duplication in view of the needs of the public libraries, the Stadtbibliothek is in a position to help the public libraries. A regional interloan service was established in 1950. Since then, every reader registered at a public library has available to him, under certain conditions, the scientific material of the Stadtbibliothek.

In 1959, a special information bureau for technical and scientific literature was established, with the particular task of bringing about close cooperation with the libraries in East Berlin’s factories. At the same time the regional interloan service of the Stadtbibliothek was extended to a greater number of Berlin industrial plants. Thus, the working people are able today to obtain literature which is not available from their factory library; the literature requested will be sent to the plant on short notice. The bureau’s work with the plants is not restricted to this more or less passive phase; it has also helped solve production problems which became known to it. The use of “initiative
information” is gaining increasing importance. “Initiative information” consists of bulletins on new acquisitions which may be of service in special projects. Although this activity is relatively time consuming, due to its individual nature, it is extremely effective. Experience shows that 75 per cent of the information sent out results in requests for the respective literature. The bureau operates the well-equipped photocopying department of the Stadtbibliothek.

In 1954 central libraries were established in all administrative districts in East Germany in order to improve the library system as a whole. Berlin was not involved in this. Rather, the functions of the Stadtbibliothek were extended through creation of a Department for Public Libraries. Since then, this Department aids the responsible municipal branches and guides the public libraries in East Berlin. The Department is mainly responsible for maintaining uniformity and rationalization of working methods and for further education of library employees. An additional task is the writing and editing of informational materials, e.g., recommending bibliographies, preparing guides for literary events and exhibitions, etc. The Department analyzes and evaluates the results of the work done in all “allgemeinbildende” libraries. It cooperates with the Central Institute for Librarianship, the latter being responsible for guidance of all public libraries throughout the German Democratic Republic. Through the work of the Central Institute it became possible to create a uniform cataloging system in all public libraries. The Central Institute carries on research studies, advises on building up book stock, and publishes promotional literature and the professional periodical Der Bibliothekar. For further training of librarians, a professional school was established, which offers every librarian the possibility of attending a three week course every year; much attention is paid in such courses to the literature in the fields of technology and the natural sciences.

The future work of the Berliner Stadtbibliothek will be of considerable importance for the development of East Berlin’s public libraries. At present, the maximum capacity of its building has nearly been reached. A new modern building is under construction which will be equipped with technical improvements. It is planned to make the new building serve the functions of a general research library, a central library for East Berlin’s public libraries, and versatile cultural center.

However, support for the public libraries can not remain the task of the Stadtbibliothek only. In order to improve the regional supply of literature, other scientific public and trade libraries in East Berlin
The Public Libraries in East Berlin

will have to make their contribution. After all, the increased needs for literature—a result of the technical revolution of our days—is a symptom of the growth of scientific knowledge; it is estimated that man's knowledge will double in less than ten years, which calls for cooperation and specialization. It can therefore only be handled in the long run by highly developed technical equipment. Similarly, the heavy increase in population will also be felt by libraries in the next years to come. This again will require further automation of working methods.

The Berlin group of the recently founded German Library Association, to which all types of library systems belong, expects to make studies of all these problems. Some of the tasks deal with the precise coordination of holdings and bibliographic information services, as well as the incorporation of collections from different libraries in the regional interloan service. This cooperation among librarians of different types of libraries will contribute to prepare the formation of a uniform library system.

The present problems in the library system of East Berlin, unlike those of other capitals in the world, are not due to unusual growth of population but are rather a result of a quantitative as well as a qualitative increase in the need for reading materials. To overcome this difficulty, cooperation and specialization has begun which, as between the Stadtbibliothek and the "allgemeinbildende" libraries, is already well-developed. The same types and methods of cooperation will be continued and other public and professional libraries will be included.

References

1. In this article, the term "allgemeinbildende Bibliotheken" (public libraries) includes public as well as non-public libraries of general educational character. In contrast to the former which admit everyone, the latter are available to a restricted group of persons only, e.g. libraries of factories, schools, hospitals, etc. (Issue Editor's note.)


4. The term "Volksbüchereien" (popular libraries) has been changed to "Allgemeine öffentliche Bibliotheken" (general public libraries), as the task and character of these libraries have changed considerably since 1945. Today they serve
to an increasing extent for the raising of the general education level and for both professional training and continued professional education.


6. They are called "Gewerkschaftsbibliotheken" (libraries of the trade unions), as they are used by members of the factories.


The Public Libraries in West Berlin

HEINZ STEINBERG

The city of West Berlin is far better off with regard to the number of its public libraries than any other German city. However, the fast-growing use of these libraries has caused problems which were previously unknown. Much of the responsibility for these problems of the West Berlin libraries rests in past history; however, the State and society as a whole have done little so far to relieve the burden.

The present success achieved in West Berlin can hardly be explained without considering the particular political situation of the city. Berlin's status as a divided city sets the very problems in a special light, although similar problems do exist in all West German libraries. In addition, the libraries of West Berlin have to cope with the problems arising out of the conflicts within municipal government, a situation existing in almost any democratic system.

When the history of German libraries is examined, it can be seen that Berlin is not altogether a special case. Before World War I, library work in Berlin and in Germany as a whole was based on the concept of social instruction. The basic idea of the libraries was to provide books to needy persons who could not afford to purchase them; at the same time, it was expected that the level of education of the citizens would rise. On the other hand, nearly one hundred years ago the first news reached Berlin that public libraries in the United States neither tried to attract needy persons nor intended to serve their readers for only educational reasons. Such news undoubtedly staggered the naive self-confidence in the social-pedagogic metaphysics of the libraries. However, it has not yet been fully realized even in present-day Germany that the aim of a library is to satisfy the total needs of the readers for information of all types.

In the first stage of the development of a German library system,

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the highly complicated theory of the so-called "where-to-go" quarrel was often heard, with Berlin being the focal point of the battle field. The city is located half-way between Leipzig and Stettin, i.e., between the home ground of Walter Hofmann and Erwin Ackernecht, the prominent German figures who argued over the reason and purpose of a library. Berlin in the 1920's was the preferred residence of the highly educated avant-garde. It was a metropolis oriented toward moderate development and progress, and not at all the home of particularly narrow-minded groups. It was this international orientation plus the city's post-war occupation which finally gave the libraries of Berlin a promising start, after the city had gone through some years of recovery from the wounds it received in World War II.

The starting signal was given in 1954 with the establishment of the American Memorial Library by the United States of America. Today it is by far the largest public library in German speaking territory. The Library was a donation of the Americans to the Berliners. The building comprises 1,478 square meters (15,900 sq. ft.) of useable space and has approximately 300,000 volumes which were selected by Berlin librarians. So many visitors came on the opening day of the Library that the building had to be closed temporarily by police order. In the Library there was an atmosphere similar to that of a final summer sale, and thousands of Berliners could be seen leaving the Library with piles of books under their arms. There were, of course, some pessimistic voices; even librarians expressed fear that only sensationalism was leading the crowds to the library, and that the serious reader would be neglected by sacrificing quality for quantity. Fortunately, their fears proved to be wrong, and the library still circulates about 700,000 volumes annually, a far greater number than any library on the European continent.

The great success achieved by the American Memorial Library in Berlin made headlines in Germany's daily press, which libraries had not done previously. However, not the large crowd of readers but another happening became the decisive event for the improvement of German libraries. On March 31, 1955, the Parliament of Berlin passed a bill which had been in preparation for many years, and may be compared with what is known as a "library law" in the English-speaking world.

Cultural affairs in the twelve municipalities of West Berlin enjoy great independence, but their financial sponsorship is assured by the Senate of West Berlin. Thus the bill introduced may be called a finan-
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cial guarantee on the part of the legislature. This would have been impossible if the heavy use of the American Memorial Library had not proved that the Berliners' need for information was underestimated. Details of the ordinance and the results obtained since its introduction are published annually (since 1956) in Berlins Öffentliche Büchereien (The Public Libraries of Berlin). An article printed in English features summaries of the Berlin Public Libraries Act.\(^1\) The Act constitutes a ten-year plan, and the success achieved so far reveals that, from March 31, 1955, to December 31, 1963, the number of books circulated each year has almost doubled, i.e., it increased from 3.3 million to over 6.5 million volumes. This amounts to almost three books per capita.

The success becomes even more evident when one realizes that— to the knowledge of this author—there is no other city which has doubled the capacity and service of an established library system in so short a time. The above achievements may lead to the conclusion that the Berliner has a mania for reading books, far greater than other Germans. This, however, is not true. It is evident from the figures in Table 1 that the great success is based on the planned and organized extension of facilities and personnel.

TABLE 1
Comparative Data on West Berlin Public Libraries, 1955 and 1963

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit of Measure</th>
<th>May 1955</th>
<th>December 1963</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of libraries</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel (includes librarians)</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarians</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book stock (volumes)</td>
<td>646,000</td>
<td>1,613,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditures per year:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Deutschemarks (DM)</td>
<td>5,896,000</td>
<td>17,131,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In American dollars</td>
<td>1,592,000</td>
<td>4,625,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were thirty-four new libraries set up during the period indicated. In fact, however, an even greater number of libraries was established because the condition of some of the sixty-five libraries in existence in May 1955 did not justify their retention. In addition, in 1955 only twenty-four libraries featured open access, whereas at the end of 1963 only ten of the ninety-nine libraries still maintained closed access. Included in the ninety-nine libraries are four mobile units serving three suburban areas. The city library ordinance provided for a
considerable increase in staff. Until 1962 the pattern of staffing followed a formula based on the size of the book stock and the number of readers.

The almost one million books additionally acquired include paperbacks purchased in large numbers in recent years. The life of these books, however, is very limited and frequent replacements are necessary. These as well as other books taken out of circulation and replaced must be taken into consideration when the one million net increase is evaluated. It is interesting to note that the same experience of other countries also holds true for West Berlin; the modernization of libraries, for example, has brought about a change from closed access to open access. Non-fiction is increasingly in demand.

If the book circulation is divided into the annual expenditures, the cost of loaning a book amounted in 1955 to DM 1.79 and to DM 2.63 in 1963. However, the 47 per cent increase in cost parallels the increases in salaries, wages, materials, etc. In purchasing power, the costs of operating a public library in West Berlin neither increased nor decreased.

Books for the public libraries are selected by the Chief Librarian appointed in each municipality. He, in turn, lets the head of each library in his district make his own choices in most instances. Such a decentralization is primarily in the interest of the reader because only the on-the-spot librarian really knows what type of literature is requested by his readers. From an economic standpoint, however, the purchase of books through one central office might be more justified. If the office work involved were centralized and directed from one point, the necessary costs would be reduced considerably; making out an order for 120 copies of one title does not require more office work than ordering ten copies. There have been some attempts in the past to simplify the book ordering procedure, but no ideal solution has been found yet.

A foreign librarian visiting West Berlin will recognize some shortcomings in the library picture only after he has spent some time in the city. It will not take him very long, however, to notice from certain faults of sitting, and the ground plan of new buildings, that the various districts have failed to learn obvious lessons from each other and from the American Memorial Library. His first impression will be that the public libraries are open only a few hours daily and that there are no uniform opening hours throughout the city. Too short opening hours and inadequate reference stock undoubtedly prove that the most pur-
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Poseful service to the public has not yet been fully accomplished in West Berlin. All the drawbacks mentioned would not exist today if the Berlin public libraries were directed from a centralized office. In practice, however, no authorized and responsible top management spans the entire library system; West Berlin in fact has twelve library systems which are only in loose contact with each other and with the American Memorial Library.

An amalgamation of the ninety-nine public libraries in West Berlin is not likely to come. Berlin is not a bibliopolis whose Utopian library system is described by the author in another paper. It seems, however, feasible that a law might be introduced which would make the American Memorial Library the Berlin Central Library, with the municipal public libraries remaining autonomous to some degree. Such a library law should also make financial provision for the preparation and carrying out of a long-range plan for public library use.

References

Public Libraries in the Hamburg Metropolitan Area

RUDOLF JOERDEN

THE OFFICIAL NAME—"The Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg"—calls to mind the glorious heritage of municipal freedom during the German Middle Ages; but present day metropolitan Hamburg does not show any of the characteristics of those far-off times. The oldest buildings still standing date from the seventeenth century, and there are only a few of these left. Although the original plan of the town and the site of the fortifications can still be seen from the arrangement of the main streets, Hamburg is not rich in visible marks of its early traditions. This lack of architectural remains is due partly to the Great Fire of 1842, when large portions of the old city were destroyed. It is also due to the ruthless, as well as admirable, vitality of the city's residents during the second half of the last century. These citizens, whose commercial interests ranged all around the world, are responsible for the spacious planning of the inner city with the Alster basins and the large-scale extension of the harbor, and at the same time they are responsible for the dreary city streets with their shabby tenement houses.

During the 1920's, famous architects tried to solve the housing problem. As one of the consequences of the bombings of World War II, space for new planning became available. Although the inner city remained nearly undestroyed, it was necessary to work out an area wide rebuilding plan because 60 per cent of all residences were destroyed. Today Hamburg offers the fascinating spectacle of an old city vanishing while the outlines of a new city are appearing. The main feature of Hamburg is no longer just its harbor, but there are growing industries, administrative centers, the University of Hamburg, schools of art, and many other cultural activities. Hamburg is a modern city or—more modestly—it is on the way to becoming a modern city.¹

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Not counting Berlin, Hamburg is by far the largest city of the Federal Republic of Germany, with a population of 1.8 million. The next largest city, Munich, has a population of more than one million, and all the other towns have a population of less than 800,000. This exceptional size is due to the "Greater Hamburg Act," which dates from 1937, when three former Prussian towns, Altona, Harburg and Wandsbek, together with their rural districts, were annexed by the city of Hamburg. The Act was the last step in the consolidation of the four towns whose divided administration, economy, and culture was becoming more and more senseless. Nevertheless, it was not easy to incorporate the autonomous towns into a large community with one central administration, and the process of incorporation is still not finished. The problem which remains is to balance central administration with the local interests of the single districts.

In order to take this into account, the city was divided into seven administrative districts; three of them are the former Prussian towns, and the remaining four are parts of the old city. These districts, different in size and in population, have their own councils, which are called "Bezirksversammlungen." These councils are considered to be the representatives of the people, while at the same time they have to represent the requirements of the central administration to the citizens. Because these councils lack control of the budget, they have no real power. This makes a difference in the district administration of Hamburg and of Berlin. Hamburg as well as Bremen, another Hanseatic City, is a "Land" having direct representation in the parliament of the Federal Republic.

In the field of culture, there are two different central authorities, each presided over by a senator. The City Authority for Education controls all schools (including the University of Hamburg with its institutes) and the State and University Library. The City Authority for Cultural Affairs controls the theaters, museums, High School of Music, High School of Art, and the Hamburg Public Libraries.

As is so often found in German cities, there are two different kinds of library systems, the scholarly libraries and the public libraries. There is no connection between them, and the librarians get their professional training in different schools. The 1957 directory of special and research libraries in Hamburg lists more than 250 different ones; most are financed by the "Land" of Hamburg, the rest have various sources of support. The World Economic Archives ("Weltwirtschaftsarchiv"), for instance, with a reference stock of 451,000 volumes and
10,546 German and foreign periodicals, is supported by the "Land" of Hamburg and by a federation of the North German countries. The Commercial Library, with a book stock of 75,000 volumes and 1,317 German and foreign periodicals, is supported by the Chamber of Commerce. One of the most modern libraries is the Max-Planck-Institut für ausländisches und Internationales Privatrecht with a reference collection of 105,000 volumes.

The most important library that forms part of the North Germany Union Catalogue is the Hamburg State-and University Library, supplemented by the college libraries. The State-and University Library has a book stock of about one million volumes and receives 4,662 periodicals in German and foreign languages. It developed out of the old city library which was founded in the fifteenth century. The State-and University Library was severely damaged during World War II. The building was destroyed, 710,000 volumes were burned, and the book stock further reduced by the removal of valuable books, all of which have not yet been returned. In addition, it has also been necessary to cope with the unexpected growth of the university after the war. Before the war, there were 1,600 undergraduates, but by 1964 this number had increased to 19,000. It is obvious that a library of the traditional type cannot cope with such a development. Although it might take some time to realize all of the plans, it is expected that the following new developments will take place.

Since the end of the last century, the special libraries of colleges and institutes have multiplied enormously. Formerly, these special libraries were considered as supplementary to the central library, but today they are used more and more independently for research work. The new relationship between special library and general library has changed the character of the latter entirely. Today much more attention is being given to the role and usefulness of the special libraries than to the value of having a general collection. This situation has brought about a change in methods. The task of the large central library is no longer only to serve university teachers, graduate students, and undergraduates as well as possible, but to help all members of the public who are interested in or dependent upon scholarly and technical books of any kind. In order to do this, collections of open access are planned on the lines of the service provided by special and public libraries. This new style of university library is considered a vital need for Hamburg; however, it cannot be set up at present because space and buildings are not available.
Public Libraries in the Hamburg Metropolitan Area

All the various administrative problems cannot be discussed here, but it may be of interest to know that even the idea of a continuously growing central book stock has been dropped. The present book stacks of the State-and University Library hold two million volumes. However, there is a definite belief that a large central book stock does not help but actually may prevent useful research work. The problems of the central book stock may not be of immediate concern, but they have to be considered in all future plans. Considerations that have been applied up to the present only by public librarians to describe their work, now have to be used in discussions about scientific and university library work, e.g., book selection, scope of collections, choice of replacements, etc. In other words, the development of research work and the organization of universities force the scholarly library to change its methods. Thus, the relationship between the scholarly and the public library appears afresh.

The Hamburg Public Libraries were founded in 1899 under the name of Hamburger Offentliche Bucherhallen. Responsible private citizens were able to interest the Gesellschaft zur Beförderung der Künste und nützlichen Gewerbe von 1765, or, as it is now known, the Patriotische Gesellschaft or Patriotic Society in supporting the libraries. For decades the public libraries received only an annual state grant as a portion of their revenue, but after World War I, the state supported them entirely. Today, the libraries still retain the status of a private foundation. This early arrangement may possibly have prevented a full extension of the public library system. In the first forty-five years of existence, only eight libraries were established. This could have been due to the difficult financial and economic times that the city faced continually. The largest library built at that time had a book stock of 30,000 volumes. The character of the library system did not differ from the kind of public libraries or Volksbüchereien that existed elsewhere in Germany. It was first and foremost an institution of civic betterment, as opposed to an Anglo-American type of public library. But in one respect the Hamburger öffentliche Bucherhallen was an exception; in keeping with the Anglo-American pattern they adopted the open access system for non-fiction, and for fiction used an adaptation of the standard "Indicator," which finally disappeared in 1943.

The main task after World War II consisted of rebuilding a library system that had been completely destroyed. In addition, the administration of the Bücherhallen had to reorganize not only the Hamburg
library system but to incorporate into it the libraries of the towns of Altona, Harburg, and Wandsbek. It was an extremely hard task because of the differences in tradition and organization of the institutions being incorporated. There was not a vast physical job to do, since the total book stock amounted to 130,000 volumes, i.e., one book per ten citizens. In spite of the terrible situation at that time, it was possible to achieve the consolidation rather quickly. By the time of the currency reform of 1948, the first steps to normal daily living had been taken. The Hamburg Public Libraries had finished their preparatory work and all books were available to the public on open access. Hamburg acted as a pacemaker for open access in the rebuilding of libraries and library systems in the whole of Germany. As soon as some experience in the new methods had been secured, various plans for the extension of the library system were prepared and presented to the City Council. As is usual with plans and programs, they could not be fully realized. But the desire to have such a plan showed that there was support for the idea of an efficient public library system.

### Table 1

Comparative Data on Hamburg Public Libraries, 1955 and 1963

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Book Stock</th>
<th>Annual Circulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1955</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branches</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>307,543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookmobiles</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20,259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music library</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>34,981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20,259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(records 1953)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32,957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplementary stock for book stations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9,707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book stations</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>44,012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>396,243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,296,438</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the growth in the past few years. Today there is one book for every two citizens. This is less than the standard for Scandinavian or Anglo-American libraries, but it represents a great advance over previous years. The problem of quality of book stock in relation to quantity cannot be discussed here. Instead it might be of interest to know that a recent proposal has been submitted to the city authorities which if it is accepted will double the book stock in a very few years.

Any scheme to enlarge the work of the Hamburg Public Libraries has to take into consideration the following difficulties. There are two
equally important projects which cannot be financed at the same time. One is to build up the present branch libraries and place the central administration of the system in a central library. The function of the central library would be to make available both reference books and general books for home use to a public that is not being served by the University Library. In addition, this central library would be used for interbranch lending, and serve as the basis for branch organization and growth. The other important project is the building of libraries in the new housing areas and quickly growing suburbs of Hamburg. If a public library has not been part of an area scheme from the very beginning, it will not be possible to get a library in such a district for decades. Due to the priority on branch building, the planning of a central library has been neglected up to the present. The disadvantage of this decision becomes more and more visible because the number of branches is continually growing. The main project of the next city building plan, which will get under way in 1966, will be to build a central library.

Another difficulty is that Hamburg is not only a city but also a federal “Land” with small villages at its edge. Small libraries without professional staff become more and more inadequate to serve these villages. The book stock does not meet the needs of a public which is no longer the same as the rural population of former times. Because of this situation, the number of small libraries was reduced in recent years, and several of them were either replaced by bigger branches with professional staff or by bookmobiles. The same question arises in regard to the small housing areas with a population of 4,000 to 6,000 citizens which are just big enough to justify an elementary school. Present plans call for professionally staffed libraries for such areas, yet collections of 4,000 to 6,000 books cannot serve the demand of modern citizens, and they are much too expensive to maintain. In the future, only libraries of at least 16,000 volumes will be planned, which means that branches will be established only where the population is at least 10,000. The smaller housing areas will be served by bookmobiles or, in special cases, by book stations. The problem looks slightly different in regard to children who cannot be expected to walk long distances. Future arrangements call for libraries in all schools; these libraries would be set up by librarians and administered by teachers with all possible support from the public libraries. Similar schemes are being planned for hospitals and prisons. Much remains to be done, however.
Finally, not only must the scholarly libraries change their style and methods, but the public libraries will also have to find new patterns. The general trend in Germany in the first part of the century was to set up a special "German" type of library with a tendency to spiritual guidance of the user. This attitude has changed entirely since the last war. The new concept takes into account the implications of modern life and the demand of the public for information and education. Although books and periodicals on a high scientific level will always be used by specialists, it is now necessary for every member of modern society to have a basic knowledge of the results of research. This means that the public library has to serve everybody interested in any available book as quickly as possible. Without dropping their traditional fields of work, the public libraries are about to form closer bonds with the scholarly libraries. Only the very first steps have been taken in Hamburg to bring about a closer relationship between the two types of libraries. The main subject in library discussions of the coming years should be how to create a united library system in Hamburg without destroying the individual characteristics of the various different parts which make it up. Part of this project would be the training of librarians to meet the demands of general as well as specialized tasks. Although the present control of libraries by two different public governing authorities will not favor the idea of closer connections, this complication may be overcome. The most useful public service demands cooperation.

References

Public Libraries in the Hamburg Metropolitan Area


Problems of the Public Libraries of Vienna

RUDOLF MÜLLER

THE PRESENT SYSTEM of public libraries—Volksbücherei—in Vienna needs to be appraised in the light of its historic growth and development. This background still exerts a strong influence; and both the merits and the faults of the present situation can best be understood if reference is made to the history of Viennese public librarianship.

Libraries for the use of the general public have been present in Vienna since the middle of the nineteenth century. These institutions, often with very diverse tendencies, were established in definite opposition to the scholarly libraries existing at that time. In many cases, the scholarly libraries had been established for centuries and were exclusively devoted to the needs of research and teaching. The setting up of libraries for the people marked the birth of the basic two-way development of librarianship which continues to the present. The reasons for the establishment of libraries stemmed both from philanthropic considerations (it was expected that they would bring about a great increase in the general level of popular culture) and from the endeavor to diminish the gulf between the leading intelligentsia and the great mass of the people. The rise of the middle class in the beginning of the nineteenth century and the later importance of the working class and trade union organizations had an effect on the libraries. A third party which was concerned about libraries was the religious community, equally interested in letting its voice be heard.

It is difficult to get a complete picture of Vienna public libraries in the past fifty years mainly because of the lack of source material and also because of the political events of the period, which caused violent upheavals and changes of control. While public libraries in the beginning were denied any real support from the state, during periods of dictatorship, they felt its heavy hand. Thus it can be said that public libraries in Vienna have had a particularly checkered career. Up

The author is the Director of the City Libraries of Vienna.
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to the beginning of the 1930's, the libraries for public use were with
one exception entirely supported by private means.

The shape of the public library started to develop between 1850 and
1900 in two markedly different organizations. One group was formed
by the Catholic educational associations, e.g., the St. Severinus-Verein,
the St. Vinzenz-Lese-Verein, and the Catholic Damen Lese-Verein
(Ladies Reading Association). Another group of organizations prom-
inent in setting up working class education started the libraries of the
Wiener Volksbildungsvereines (Vienna Association for People's Edu-
cation) and of the Verein Zentralbibliothek (Association for the Cen-
tral Library).

Side by side with these organizations were the libraries linked to
political parties. Several district groups of Social Democrats began to
build small libraries with their own means during the second half of
the nineteenth century. The establishment of the Verein Volkslesehalle
(Public Reading Rooms), originally by the Christian Socialists, fol-
lowed in 1899. The situation is graphically shown by the figures in
Table 1. The first municipal library was established in the Villa Werth-
einstein in the nineteenth ward of Vienna in 1912 as the result of a
private grant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Library</th>
<th>No. of Libraries</th>
<th>Book Stock</th>
<th>No. of Loans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verein Zentralbibliothek</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>390,000</td>
<td>3,400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wiener Volksbildungsverein</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>180,000</td>
<td>1,730,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verein Volkslesehalle</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>c. 80,000</td>
<td>750,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>650,000</td>
<td>5,880,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The libraries of the Vienna Association for People's Education, in
common with the Catholic libraries, maintained their former influence
up until 1920. At that time, however, the workers' libraries of the
Social Democratic party began to get stronger. The basis for their
strength lay in the leadership of Joseph Leopold Stern. He knew how
to persuade the organized workers to provide the necessary financial
support. He created a uniform administration for the libraries—the
system "Stern"—and, by amalgamating small collections into strong
central libraries, he produced efficient instruments for workers' edu-
cation. The final report for the year 1932 shows the success of these
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libraries; sixty-nine branches had 301,000 volumes and loaned 2,670,000 books to 48,000 readers. About one-fifth of the present-day branches of the Vienna City Libraries have their origin in the former Arbeiterbüchereien (Workers' Libraries).

The destruction of the First Republic and the ban on all democratic parties in February 1934 put an end to the regular work of the Arbeiterbüchereien. However, in the same year the new government tried to restore them under the political supervision of a Vienna city official as the Verein Arbeiterbüchereien. The experiment failed to produce the desired result, and a city ordinance brought the libraries completely under the control of the city of Vienna on August 1, 1936. This was the first time in the history of the city, and under politically rather questionable conditions, that public libraries became a part of the municipal government. The central administration was placed in the hands of a group of appointed officials, while the branches were run by staff who received a modest monthly recompense.

The assumption of power by the National Socialists brought a second wave of purges, and resulted in more complete political control of the libraries. A significant aspect of this period was the complete assumption of control over the libraries by the city as a result of the dictatorial power of the state. The library headquarters were enlarged, and the staff was made a part of the municipal services, and trained for its new duties. Table 2 summarizes the general state of the libraries for this period.

**TABLE 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Official Title</th>
<th>No. of Branches</th>
<th>Book Stock</th>
<th>No. of Readers</th>
<th>No. of Loans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>Verein Arbeiterbüchereien</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>277,000</td>
<td>37,800</td>
<td>1,411,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1937</td>
<td>Büchereien der Stadt Wien</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>256,000</td>
<td>32,500</td>
<td>1,124,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1943</td>
<td>Stadtische Büchereien</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>166,000</td>
<td>22,600</td>
<td>591,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The cultural and material loss of the Vienna public libraries during the war years was very heavy. The post-war recovery period brought a fundamental structural change. There was a return to the control that had existed in pre-war years. The libraries of educational associations and parties, some of which had done very good work, were by this time completely destroyed and lacked the means to rebuild. New organizations had to be set up to replace them, either carrying on as
Problems of the Public Libraries of Vienna

before, or undertaking new work. In the first group were the parish libraries, now united in the Kirchliches Bibliothekswerk, and the up-and-coming libraries of the non-partisan trade union federation. In the second and new group were the municipal libraries, which formed the neutral and technical core of the Vienna public library system.

Since 1949 all Austrian public libraries have been affiliated with the Verband Österreichischer Volksbüchereien (Austrian Public Library Association) which is a member of the International Federation of Library Associations, and which aims at a union of all public libraries supported by public and private institutions. There is nothing like it for scholarly libraries in Austria. The academic librarians, however, established the Vereinigung Österreichischer Bibliothekare (Association of Austrian Librarians) for their professional needs.

A glance at all Vienna libraries at the present time, both scholarly and public, reveals the following picture of present conditions. Six large academic libraries in Vienna are open to the public; two of them—the Nationalbibliothek and the Universitätsbibliothek—have large general collections while the other four specialize, as indicated in Table 3. There are also twenty-four other libraries with collections in specific scholarly fields. Altogether these have 2,765,000 volumes and make 434,000 loans yearly. The numerous institute and seminar libraries of the universities, for which no statistical information is available, are not included in the above figures. The thirty special libraries of public corporations in 1963 report a total stock of 6,694,000 volumes and 1,244,000 loans.

**TABLE 3**

*The Main Scholarly Libraries of Vienna*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Libraries</th>
<th>Book Stock</th>
<th>No. of Loans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nationalbibliothek</td>
<td>1,792,000</td>
<td>181,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universitätsbibliothek</td>
<td>1,508,000</td>
<td>458,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stadtbibliothek (history of Vienna &amp; Austria)</td>
<td>270,000</td>
<td>62,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pädagogische Zentralbibliothek der Städt Wien</td>
<td>143,000</td>
<td>61,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(psychology, education)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliothek der Kammer der Gewerblichen</td>
<td>127,000</td>
<td>28,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wirtschaft (economics, sociology)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliothek der Arbeiterkammer</td>
<td>91,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(politics, sociology, economics)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,929,000</td>
<td>810,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As already mentioned, public libraries in Vienna today are run by religious, political, private, and public organizations. Their different outlooks are the result of their different aims; this is especially the case regarding professional staffing and the chances for further growth. The libraries of the Kirchliches Bibliothekswerk (Parish Library Service) are all about of equal size and very weak. The Federation of Trade Unions has its own library section with ten full-time staff members. It advises libraries on book buying, conducts courses for plant librarians, and gives gifts of books and money. In 1964, the section spent 1.8 million schillings, but much more is needed for the upkeep of these libraries. A small amount of funds is supplied by individual unions, shop groups, and by certain employers.

The Verein Zentralbibliothek, with seven branches, and the five libraries in the Vienna Volkshochschulen (People's Colleges) are private popular libraries supported by private means with some aid from the municipal authorities. The People's Colleges in 1964 received subsidies amounting to 4,150,000 schillings; more than half of it came from the city of Vienna and a quarter from the Federal Ministry of Education. One-tenth, i.e. 420,000 schillings is used for the support of the libraries. The 1964 budget of the Verein Zentralbibliothek was 720,000 schillings, of which 320,000 schillings came from the city of Vienna, 80,000 schillings from the Federal Education Ministry, and 320,000 schillings from library revenue.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Library</th>
<th>No. of Libraries</th>
<th>No. of Volumes</th>
<th>No. of Loans</th>
<th>No. of Readers</th>
<th>No. of Paid</th>
<th>No. of Unpaid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parish Library Service</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>95,000</td>
<td>110,000</td>
<td>5,700</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Union and Plant Libraries</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>448,000</td>
<td>1,278,000</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Popular Libraries</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>179,000</td>
<td>287,000</td>
<td>6,200</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Libraries</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>402,000</td>
<td>1,526,000</td>
<td>63,600</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>1,124,000</td>
<td>3,201,000</td>
<td>130,500</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>1,253</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is no doubt that the municipal libraries of Vienna are now the most powerful agents in bringing books to the people, as shown by Table 4. In 1965 the municipal system consists of forty-nine well-located community branches with children's sections, and seven special agencies. The book stock of each library varies from 5,000 to 15,000 volumes. Two traveling libraries serve forty-two points at the periph-
Problems of the Public Libraries of Vienna

er of the city on a regular schedule. There are three young people’s libraries in the larger vocational schools, one rotating library for the ninety-one pensioners’ clubs established by the city of Vienna, and lastly the Central Library. The Central Library has about 40,000 titles and is the base for the Vienna public library system. Its function is mainly to supply the branches with more expensive books, in order to meet special requests of readers.

The Vienna City Libraries come under the Department of Culture and People’s Education. Total expenditure for 1964 was 15.5 million schillings including an ad hoc grant of 930,000 schillings by the Education Ministry for books. Out of this total, 61 per cent went for salaries and wages, 16 per cent for books, and 23 per cent for rent, office supplies, etc. Library users pay a fee of 25 groschen to 1 schilling per volume; out-of-town borrowers must deposit 50 schillings.

During the next five years the gradual solution to some of the most urgent and fundamental questions of the Vienna municipal library system will be attempted. Construction of a new central library building has been approved. Initially it will house the central administration (acquisition, cataloging, staff training, etc.) and also the basic book stock with space for 100,000 volumes. It will be a two-story building of 2,000 square meters and will use the modular plan. Due to shortage of space, the present central library has closed access except for 2,000 reference volumes on open shelves. The intended change-over to open access needs much planning. A problem of particular difficulty is the expected tripling of the book stock. Eventually this central library will attempt to bridge the gap between the public and the scholarly libraries.

A new public library law is expected to create a healthy financial basis by securing a more equitable distribution of the support of the libraries between the federal government, the county, and the city. Besides the existing budgetary difficulties, there are also considerable constitutional obstacles. So far five different bills have been drafted and submitted by the Education Ministry, the Carinthia government, the Federation of Austrian Libraries, the Association of Austrian Public Libraries, the Association of Austrian People’s Colleges, and the Socialist Party of Austria. Educational legislation, unlike other sorts of legislation, cannot be adopted separately by the Austrian Federation or by the Länder. Both governments must pass identical laws simultaneously. At the present time conflicting political views on centralization versus federation render such unified action very difficult.
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The professional training of librarians requires considerable improvement. At the moment it consists of 150 hours of basic instruction and 100 hours per year in a training course. It is hoped that the recently appointed Austrian Educational Advisory Board will find a satisfactory answer to the matter of training for librarianship. The Board consists of one representative each from the Federal Ministry of Education, the Städtebund (whose members constitute the greatest number of professional librarians), and the Verband Österreichischer Bibliothekare.

The public libraries consider that cooperation with the primary schools represents an additional challenge. In practice, this could mean joint selection practices, a properly planned relation of book stock to curriculum, and the familiarizing of children and young people with books at an early age. At present there are very few contacts between academic and public librarians, and one can almost speak of an atmosphere of isolation on the part of these institutions.

Lack of staff has so far militated against the desirable extension of lending hours, which at present are twenty-four hours per week, and against the use of the libraries on Saturday (all staff members have Saturday off). A change is most likely to come in the new central public library. A plan for the development of the Vienna City Public Libraries provides for the extension of the library system to a total of sixty-five branches well-built, well-stocked, well-staffed, and situated with proper regard to the population of the city. This means that there would be one library for every 25,000 Vienna citizens. Five or six of these branches at focal points may be enlarged and become regional libraries with a minimum stock of 50,000 volumes each. A new and modern form of municipal libraries for Vienna is taking shape; its realization in the near future depends in the first instance on the understanding and the helpfulness of the relevant authorities.

General References

The information on the religious libraries is mainly based on communications from the Head of the Kirchliches Bibliothekswerkes, Dr. Michael Stickler, librarian of Parliament. Statistical information on the trade union libraries was supplied by the head of libraries of the Austrian Federation of Trade Unions, Kurt Link. Information on the Central Library was supplied by the Verein Zentralbibliothek, those on libraries of People's Colleges by the Secretary for Education of the city of Vienna. The Federation of Austrian Public Libraries supplied the information relating to the Austrian public library system as a whole.
Public Libraries in Greater Stockholm

GERT HORNWALL

What is commonly termed Greater Stockholm consists of the city of Stockholm and twenty-eight other municipalities which, as far as urban development and industrial geography are concerned, are in all respects closely bound to the capital city. Six of the neighboring municipalities are cities; some of the others are mainly rural but several have attained a high degree of urbanization. The population within the area is rapidly increasing. In 1940 Greater Stockholm had a population of 770,000 inhabitants. Now the population of the area is 1,210,000 inhabitants, about 16 per cent of Sweden's total population. About 800,000 people are living within the boundaries of the city of Stockholm alone. In twenty years the population of Greater Stockholm is expected to grow to over 1.5 million, with most of the increase in the neighboring communities.

Greater Stockholm is not an administrative unit. Each municipality within the area is independent and has its own local government, and the smallest municipality within the area has a population of about 2,000 inhabitants. Recently, however, a plan has been approved by the Swedish Government which undertakes the consolidation of the smallest units into communities with at least 8,000 inhabitants each. All the neighboring municipalities outside Stockholm are in Stockholm County and benefit from the central city, particularly with respect to medical services. The city of Stockholm does not belong to Stockholm County but is, in most respects, regarded as a separate county itself.

The development of Greater Stockholm has brought about far reaching intermunicipal collaboration. This is, however, attained wholly on a voluntary basis through various joint bodies or through legal agreements, without infringing upon the independence of the different municipalities. Proposals aiming at making Greater Stockholm a single administrative unit have been presented, but so far no alternative to the present system has been accepted.

The author is Chief Librarian, Stockholm Public Library.

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In 1960 the Government approved a regional plan for the Greater Stockholm area. The plan draws up basic principles for land use, and includes proposals for the main highways, airfields, built-up areas, and recreational facilities as well as for the provision of water and sewage. In order to carry out the regional plan, the Greater Stockholm municipalities have appointed a special planning committee. The most important task at present is the provision of housing. Agreements have been made in this regard and also in connection with secondary school teaching, medical services, traffic control, water supply, and other matters.

Higher education has a long tradition in Sweden. The first university of the country, Uppsala University, was founded in 1477, and in 1668 the University of Lund came into existence. Preparatory education was provided by the monastery schools, and after the Reformation the first gymnasia were founded in the 1620's. During that century, provision was made for the elementary education of all children. The 1686 law of the Lutheran Church of Sweden gave the clergy control of the elementary teaching of reading and writing. During the following centuries, elementary education was improved through private schools, and since 1842 all Swedish children have been educated in a compulsory school system. The period of compulsory education was for a long time fixed at six years; but in 1936 it was extended to seven years, and local authorities were empowered to make a further extension to eight or nine years. In 1950, the Swedish Riksdag decided to adopt nine-year compulsory unified schooling, and the final legislation for this was passed in 1962. The nine-year school will be divided into three stages, each of which comprises three years. The compulsory school will teach basic subjects, e.g., language, mathematics, history, nature, culture, technology, and social science. The teaching of English begins in the fourth year. This compulsory nine-year school will be organized all over the Greater Stockholm region.

Having passed the compulsory school, the pupils receive further voluntary education in a continuation school system. The secondary school system consisted until now of the realskola and gymnasium. It will be replaced by the upper stage of the compulsory school and of a new continuation school system. Those who are most gifted for theoretical studies enter into a three-year gymnasium which prepares students for the universities. Within the gymnasium, the pupils will have to choose between five curricula: general, commercial, social-economic, natural science, and technical. The length of the technical
Public Libraries in Greater Stockholm

course will be four years. Side by side with the gymnasia there will be two-year voluntary continuation schools with social, commercial, and technical curricula. The earlier secondary school system is established in the cities and some other places within the Greater Stockholm region. In a few years, however, the new system of continuation schools probably will be established all over the region except in purely rural districts. Both the primary schools and the continuation school system will be financed by the municipalities with special grants from the State.

The number of pupils who receive secondary school education will increase rapidly within the next few years. The existing gymnasia now receive about 25 per cent of the 17 year-olds. It is estimated that in 1970 the new continuation school system will educate about 50 per cent of those in school, and by 1975 this figure is expected to be 60 per cent.

University education within Greater Stockholm is concentrated in the city of Stockholm. The Stockholm University is divided into three main faculties: humanities, natural sciences, and law. In Stockholm there are also many institutes for professional education on a university level, e.g., medicine, technical studies, commercial studies, and so on. About 22,000 university students are studying at the different educational institutes in Stockholm at present. All these institutes are operated by the State.

Swedish adult education, in the modern sense, began in the early part of the nineteenth century. By the middle of the century there were established more than 1,000 parish libraries throughout the country. A unique technique of Swedish adult education called the bildnings-cirklar (education study circles) began in 1845. The Danish influence in adult education was felt in Sweden in 1868 with the establishment of the first Swedish people's high school. Workers' institutes and lecturing centers followed in 1880. Modern adult education in Sweden is in many respects connected with the gradual increase of power assumed by the masses of the Swedish people. As more people began to take an active part in the protection of their social and political interests, more attention was paid to programs of adult education.

As a rule, adult education in Sweden is not provided by the government as such, with the exception of some of the people's high schools. The bulk of that education is carried on by associations of private citizens. In recent years, however, the state and municipal authorities have given substantial financial support to adult education.
Many citizens' organizations arose from what is known as popular movements. These organizations, which were essentially protective societies, developed associations to promote educational programs. The labor movement organized the great Workers' Educational Association. The agricultural organizations cooperated to found and to maintain the Swedish Rural Educational Association. The Central Organization of Salaried Employees carries on its educational activities through the Salaried Employees' Educational Association. Many educational associations, however, are connected with idealistic movements of various kinds, e.g., the Church of Sweden, the Order of the Good Templars, and so on. A unique adult education organization called the People's University was founded in 1942; it arranges programs in the university towns of Sweden, and provides a means whereby university students can take an active part in adult education.

All of the associations mentioned sponsor a great number of courses and lectures in a variety of subjects. There are also special organizations known as "lecturing associations," which arrange lectures for adults; they are united into the National Federation of Lecturing Associations. The system of residential people's high schools is a special development in the field of adult education. Their purpose is to impart general and civic education to young people. Young adults from a wide variety of social groups and vocations live and study together in the people's high schools. The emphasis is on learning to work together cooperatively. About half the people's high schools are run by private organizations, and the other half by regional governmental authorities.

Adult education in Sweden thus has a century-long tradition. A high percentage of the population now takes part in such activities. In Greater Stockholm all forms of adult education are carried on intensively. It is estimated that about 100,000 people annually take part in the different adult education activities within the area.

Public library service is available to all residents within the Greater Stockholm area. However, there are great differences in the resources as well as the use of the libraries, as shown by Table 1. The libraries contain on an average 1.5 volumes per capita. The highest figure, almost four volumes, is to be found in Djursholm, a small city with an essentially well-to-do population. Huddinge, with less than one volume per capita, is a rapidly expanding municipality near the city of Stockholm, and its library resources have not been increased very quickly. The municipalities of Märsta (1.14), Nacka (1.27), and Järfalla (1.27) are in a similar situation. Some essentially rural municipal-
Public Libraries in Greater Stockholm

ities, Tyreso and Vasterhaninge, show remarkably low per capita figures, 1.01 and 1.25, respectively. As to the figure of the Stockholm Public Library (1.37 per capita), it should be observed that a great number of research and special libraries are situated within the city of Stockholm.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>1,096,444</td>
<td>3,834,507</td>
<td>11.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundbyberg, City</td>
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<td>61,537</td>
<td>121,876</td>
<td>23.05</td>
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<tr>
<td>Solna, City</td>
<td>54,281</td>
<td>98,850</td>
<td>303,507</td>
<td>29.82</td>
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<td>Stocksund</td>
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<td>14,432</td>
<td>22,626</td>
<td>18.77</td>
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<td>Danderyd</td>
<td>13,794</td>
<td>20,211</td>
<td>41,392</td>
<td>15.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djursholm, City</td>
<td>7,544</td>
<td>23.65</td>
<td>39,711</td>
<td>10.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lidingö, City</td>
<td>57,986</td>
<td>172,907</td>
<td>16.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Järfälla</td>
<td>30,745</td>
<td>161,034</td>
<td>15.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sollentuna</td>
<td>31,060</td>
<td>158,490</td>
<td>14.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Täby</td>
<td>26,121</td>
<td>135,726</td>
<td>17.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upplands-Väsby</td>
<td>11,690</td>
<td>16,921</td>
<td>41,040</td>
<td>4.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Märsta</td>
<td>10,457</td>
<td>11,928</td>
<td>42,123</td>
<td>17.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boo</td>
<td>7,318</td>
<td>10,919</td>
<td>17,834</td>
<td>8.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nacka, City</td>
<td>23,026</td>
<td>29,179</td>
<td>66,620</td>
<td>14.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saltsjöbaden</td>
<td>5,994</td>
<td>13,288</td>
<td>24,057</td>
<td>9.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tyreso</td>
<td>11,514</td>
<td>11,694</td>
<td>25,973</td>
<td>6.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Österhaninge</td>
<td>12,694</td>
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<td>70,618</td>
<td>11.72</td>
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<td>Huddinge</td>
<td>37,731</td>
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<td>125,192</td>
<td>12.13</td>
</tr>
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<td>Botkyrka</td>
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<td>27,318</td>
<td>75,179</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vallentuna</td>
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<td>15,710</td>
<td>52,535</td>
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<td>Österåker</td>
<td>7,335</td>
<td>11,554</td>
<td>35,448</td>
<td>6.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaxholm, City</td>
<td>4,094</td>
<td>7,287</td>
<td>13,681</td>
<td>9.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Värmdö</td>
<td>2,205</td>
<td>4,043</td>
<td>9,823</td>
<td>6.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gustavberg</td>
<td>5,780</td>
<td>9,616</td>
<td>10,795</td>
<td>6.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Västerhaninge</td>
<td>8,884</td>
<td>11,112</td>
<td>18,870</td>
<td>5.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grödinge</td>
<td>2,142</td>
<td>5,400</td>
<td>11,918</td>
<td>10.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salem</td>
<td>2,618</td>
<td>4,557</td>
<td>8,883</td>
<td>6.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekerö</td>
<td>4,194</td>
<td>9,121</td>
<td>5,457</td>
<td>5.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Färingsö</td>
<td>3,214</td>
<td>8,620</td>
<td>8,629</td>
<td>7.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,209,411</td>
<td>1,768,050</td>
<td>5,633,190</td>
<td>11.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obviously the resources of the libraries are closely connected with the size of municipal and state grants. In Sweden, the state contribution to each public library is limited to 10,000 Sw. crowns. Thus the state grant is of vital importance only for the small libraries. The medium-sized and large libraries have to rely on local grants for the
major part of their budget. On the average the public libraries within Greater Stockholm receive annually about 11.95 Sw. crowns per capita. A particularly high municipal grant was given in 1964 to the Solna Public Library, where a new main library is being constructed. For the same reason, the Sundbyberg Public Library has received a higher grant than normally. Regularly the small rural municipalities give low grants per capita to their libraries. As far as the municipal grant to the Stockholm Public Library is concerned, it should be kept in mind that the city of Stockholm supports a great many other cultural activities to a higher degree than the smaller municipalities.

Residents of Greater Stockholm borrow on an average nearly five volumes annually per capita from public libraries. The highest figures are to be found in rapidly expanding cities and communities near Stockholm, for instance Solna (5.55), Lidingö (5.25), Järfälla (5.24), and Täby (5.20). In the purely rural districts there are great differences; usually the libraries of these municipalities are run by part-time librarians with little library education. As mentioned earlier, the smallest municipalities will be united into larger units within the next few years. The small public libraries will then be replaced by larger, more efficient libraries, well-equipped and run by fully trained personnel.

In every Swedish county, one large library has to assist the small libraries within the county by supplying them with books which they do not have and by providing technical advice. The Lidingö Public Library functions in this way as the "central library" for Stockholm County. For this purpose, it maintains a collection of about 28,200 volumes not included in the 57,986 book stock as reported for 1963. About 45,000 volumes are lent annually to libraries and borrowers in other municipalities. The central library organizes bookmobile services in the rural districts and carries on a library boat service to the islands of the Stockholm archipelago. The Lidingö Library receives a special annual state grant for these services.

The largest public library, however, within Greater Stockholm is the Stockholm Public Library. Its main library contains a book stock of 333,000 volumes and in 1963 had a circulation of 650,000 volumes. About half of the users at the main library are university and secondary school students. There are thirty branches for adult borrowers and thirty-eight for children and young people throughout the Stockholm city area both in downtown and suburban districts. Bookmobile service is organized for districts with a scattered population. The Library has
Public Libraries in Greater Stockholm

fifteen branches in hospitals, and organizes deposits in about two hundred homes for aged people and in other institutions. A special shut-in service is provided old and sick persons who live in their own homes. About 20 per cent of the urban population are registered as active borrowers at the Stockholm Public Library.

All service from the Stockholm Public Library is free to the residents of the city of Stockholm and for all students and pupils at educational institutions in Stockholm. Other residents in the municipalities outside Stockholm have to pay a fee of 3 Sw. crowns a year for loans from the Stockholm Public Library. About 3,000 persons are at present paying that fee. The Library does not, however, participate in intermunicipal library cooperation arrangements, and residents outside Stockholm must borrow their books directly from the Stockholm Public Library.

It has been a source of regret for some time that the municipal libraries within Greater Stockholm are not able to borrow from the Stockholm Public Library. A committee has been appointed, headed by the chief librarian of the Stockholm Public Library, to make proposals concerning increased intermunicipal library cooperation within Greater Stockholm. At present, the committee has to rely on voluntary cooperation. It is possible, however, that an entirely new organization of Stockholm County will be agreed upon within a few years. Such a municipal reform will produce a new framework for library cooperation in the county. It has also been proposed that the Stockholm Public Library should function as the central public library for all of Middle Sweden and receive a special state grant for that purpose. In that case, the question of library cooperation within Greater Stockholm would be solved automatically.

General References


[53]
Public Libraries in the Brussels Metropolitan Area

GEORGES VAN BELLAIENGH

The Brussels metropolitan area is composed of nineteen communes which are absolutely independent of each other, except for some points on which negotiated agreements have been reached. As with all the great cities of western Europe, the population of the Brussels metropolitan area has increased considerably since the beginning of the twentieth century, as shown in Table 1. For certain communes (notably Brussels, Molenbeek, Saint-Gilles, and Schaerbeek), the population figures have been going down; for the commune of Saint-Josse-ten-Noode, the decrease has been continuous since 1900. All these communes are suffering from the exodus of the population towards the periphery.

Local government is exercised in each Belgian commune by a communal body composed of councillors, a burgomaster, and aldermen. The councillors are elected directly by the residents of the commune who have reached the age of twenty-one. The King names the burgomaster, who is chosen from among the councillors; however, the King may in certain cases name a burgomaster from outside the council, e.g., from among the electors of the commune who are more than twenty-five years old. The aldermen are elected by the communal council from among its members. The number of communal councillors and the number of aldermen vary according to the population of the different communes (from seven to forty-five councillors, and from two to nine aldermen).

All Belgian communes enjoy a great degree of autonomy, the inheritance of an historic past, and sometimes a past of high prestige. The communes cling jealously to this autonomy (which is fully recognized in the Belgian Constitution), and they defend it energetically against all the encroachments of superior authority. The central gov-

Mr. Van Bellaiengh is Inspector of Public Libraries, Brussels.

[54]
TABLE 1
Comparative Population of Communes in the Brussels Metropolitan Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commune</th>
<th>1900</th>
<th>1920</th>
<th>1947</th>
<th>1962</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anderlecht</td>
<td>47,929</td>
<td>67,038</td>
<td>86,412</td>
<td>96,454</td>
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<tr>
<td>Auderghem</td>
<td>4,685</td>
<td>9,108</td>
<td>18,640</td>
<td>28,935</td>
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<tr>
<td>Berchem-St-Agathe</td>
<td>1,845</td>
<td>3,851</td>
<td>11,180</td>
<td>16,182</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brussels</td>
<td>183,886</td>
<td>154,801</td>
<td>184,838</td>
<td>169,211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etterbeek</td>
<td>20,838</td>
<td>39,813</td>
<td>50,040</td>
<td>53,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evere</td>
<td>3,892</td>
<td>7,192</td>
<td>15,277</td>
<td>22,754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest</td>
<td>9,509</td>
<td>31,152</td>
<td>47,370</td>
<td>51,856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ganshoren</td>
<td>2,891</td>
<td>4,451</td>
<td>9,092</td>
<td>15,942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ixelles</td>
<td>58,615</td>
<td>81,245</td>
<td>90,711</td>
<td>94,135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jette</td>
<td>10,053</td>
<td>16,109</td>
<td>29,484</td>
<td>35,381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koekelberg</td>
<td>10,650</td>
<td>12,502</td>
<td>15,103</td>
<td>16,481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laeken (a)</td>
<td>30,438</td>
<td>40,681</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molenbeek-St-Jean</td>
<td>58,445</td>
<td>71,225</td>
<td>63,922</td>
<td>63,488</td>
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<tr>
<td>Saint-Gilles</td>
<td>51,763</td>
<td>64,814</td>
<td>61,396</td>
<td>55,409</td>
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<tr>
<td>Saint-Josse-t-N.</td>
<td>32,140</td>
<td>31,843</td>
<td>28,155</td>
<td>23,998</td>
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<tr>
<td>Schaerbeek</td>
<td>63,508</td>
<td>101,526</td>
<td>123,671</td>
<td>116,984</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uccle</td>
<td>18,034</td>
<td>32,056</td>
<td>55,655</td>
<td>71,725</td>
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<tr>
<td>Watermael-Boitsf.</td>
<td>6,520</td>
<td>10,096</td>
<td>19,683</td>
<td>23,581</td>
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<tr>
<td>Woluwé-St-Lambert</td>
<td>3,468</td>
<td>11,300</td>
<td>26,344</td>
<td>38,960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woluwé-St-Pierre</td>
<td>2,650</td>
<td>8,072</td>
<td>18,455</td>
<td>33,682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>621,559</strong></td>
<td><strong>798,875</strong></td>
<td><strong>955,428</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,028,249</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Annexed to Brussels by the law of April 20, 1925.

Governments are enabled to intervene in the management of the communes, by virtue of certain provisions of the Constitution. Everything which is of communal interest rests with the communal councils, without prejudice of the approval of their acts, in those cases and following that method which the law determines. This leads the central government and the provincial power to intervene and approve or disapprove certain decisions of the communes. Since the laws passed by Parliament are ever more numerous, the control of the State and of the provinces is more and more frequently felt, thus repeatedly awakening the discontent of the communes when approval of certain decisions is not granted. Most of the cases in which the State or the provinces veto the wishes of the communes are concerned with finance, or more precisely with expenditures. Certain Belgian communes are in a difficult financial situation, e.g., those at the center of large metropolitan
areas, the population of which has a marked tendency to emigrate
towards the periphery. This tendency, however, does nothing to reduce
the expenses of these communes, but rather increases budget deficits
from year to year. The governing powers do not always permit these
cities and communes to invest the capital required for the proper or-
organization and functioning of public services, and especially of public
library services. Buildings, equipment, book collections, and staff suffer
enormously from these hindrances.

Because certain communes suffering from a deficit (including some
with particularly heavy indebtedness) do not make use of the material
assistance which the State could give them, the financial handicap is
increased further. Is it that claiming these grants is repugnant to them,
since in the minds of the persons in posts of responsibility this would
be the same as begging and entreating for the money, when these
communes are so proud of their past glories? Is it that they are afraid
of further incursions by the central power into municipal affairs? Is
it confusion on the part of certain communal functionaries who are
lost among the multiple laws, decrees, and other instructions, and
who neglect to make use of all the possibilities of grants? Is it lack of
interest in everything that has to do with reading? It is not easy to
determine. One thing is certain, however; although the communes
lament their hard times, they do nothing to go against the current or
to attract the support and assistance which are needed.

There are projects in existence which aim at a regrouping of differ-
ent communes, and especially of those which make up the large urban
areas. The authors of these projects claim that the merging of several
adjacent communes would reduce expenses which are currently met
on an individual basis. By centralizing certain procedures, sums could
be made available for other purposes. Will these projects come to any-
thing? All the previous attempts in this direction have failed. Each
party is so attached to his own small area that it is difficult to bring
about the abandonment of any single prerogative, however trifling it
may be. Thus in spite of the wishes of certain municipalities to im-
prove their services to readers, the public libraries suffer from this
situation.

But how is public library service actually organized in the Brussels
metropolitan area? In order to grasp all the aspects of the problem, one
must know that Belgian public libraries are governed by a law which
goes back to 1921. This law envisaged the existence of three types of
public libraries: the communal libraries, established and administered
Public Libraries in the Brussels Metropolitan Area

by the communes; the free libraries, established and administered by private persons; and adopted libraries, former free libraries which are "adopted by the communes" and receive an annual grant from them.

In terms of the law of 1921, all public libraries may receive assistance from the State if a certain number of conditions are fulfilled. But only the communal libraries and the adopted libraries are entitled to financial assistance from the communes. Furthermore, it is on this precise point of grants from the communes that the single modification of the law of 1921 was made in 1947; briefly, from the sum of 0.25 franc in the original text, the financial participation of the communes was increased to a minimum of 1.50 francs for each inhabitant. Since the control exercised by the superior governments over the communes is designed to eliminate from the budgets of those with deficits every item not strictly required by law, in many cases only the minimum of 1.50 francs per inhabitant is allowed. And when the communes are grudgingly permitted to go beyond the legal minimum, it is only to a pitifully small extent (with rare exceptions), quite incompatible with the needs of modern public libraries. Except for a limited number of special cases, then, the communal libraries and the adopted libraries do not enjoy a much happier lot, so far as the cost of running them is concerned, than the free libraries which can count only on their own resources.

This, then, is the dramatic problem: the inability, under the present law, of most public libraries to meet even the obligations of today, much less those of tomorrow. And it is no disparagement to state that the very great majority of Belgian public libraries (and the libraries of the Brussels area specifically) cannot bear comparison with the great achievements abroad. Some isolated efforts show the way that must be followed, e.g., in the region of Brussels, the achievements of the communes of Anderlecht and Ixelles, even of Koekelberg (tomorrow of Jette), and of the independent enterprises like the library located in Woluwé-St-Lambert or the improvements undertaken by the library of the parish of Rosaire, in Uccle.

Another point worth mentioning is the confusion which still persists in the minds of many people who have not made the distinction between the old popular libraries and the true and authentic modern public libraries. Some people think and say "public libraries," meaning the libraries of districts, communes, or parishes, which are intended for relaxation and recreation. The same people say and think "public libraries" when they mean libraries with a definite bias and commit-
ment, whether political, philosophical, or religious. Certainly, such latter libraries are "accessible to every one," everybody "may" use them, but will every reader feel at ease there, and will he find there the book or document or information that he wants?

It is quite evident that these two forms or concepts of libraries both have their raison d'être, and that it would be absurd to forbid either. What is regrettable is the attempt to include both under the same term "public libraries." That leads inevitably to misunderstandings, as has happened with the libraries of the Brussels metropolitan area. There is of course still another and more modern concept of "public libraries," meaning those institutions where one can find the whole gamut of opinions—political, religious, philosophical, economic, etc.—all made available in a spirit of absolute impartiality to meet the needs of the population which those libraries serve.

Finally, it must be noted that the founding of public libraries has occurred without any rule. The greatest whimsicality—one would be tempted to say "the greatest anarchy"—has presided over the physical location of libraries, whether public, communal, adopted, or free. The result is that some libraries are hampered or interfere with each other, because they are not far enough apart. But elsewhere, whole districts are completely empty of any institution providing reading matter to the public. In spite of all the obstacles, numerous libraries, communal as well as free, have managed to improve their premises and their collections, proof of the wish of librarians to increase the sphere of influence of the institutions which they hold in trust.

Taking into consideration all that has already been said, Table 2 shows the situation as it now exists. All the libraries mentioned in Table 2 are generally bilingual, i.e., in addition to works in French, they possess books in Flemish, because the Belgian population consists chiefly of these two large linguistic groups, and it is normal for libraries established on the territory of the communes surrounding the capital of the kingdom to reflect this duality. Of the total number of libraries appearing in Table 2, 116 are predominantly French and twenty-five are predominantly Flemish.

If one considers future prospects, the entire system of Belgian public libraries will have to be modernized and organized more logically. Those libraries which serve the Brussels metropolitan area must of course follow this movement. The needs of the present are dictated notably by the demands of the increasing democratization of education, which is bringing more and more young people to institutions of
Public Libraries in the Brussels Metropolitan Area

TABLE 2
The Public Libraries of the Brussels Metropolitan Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commune</th>
<th>Permanent com free</th>
<th>Ordinary com. ad. free</th>
<th>For Youth com. free</th>
<th>Special</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Anderlecht</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auderghem</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Ganshoren</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>Ixelles</td>
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<td>Jette</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Koekelberg</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Molenbeek-St-Jean</td>
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<tr>
<td>St-Gilles</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>Woluwé-St-Lambert</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>141</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Learning, whether intermediate, technical, professional, or universities. A greater number of permanent libraries must be established, if the young people are to be furnished with the irreplaceable intellectual tools which books provide. A program of establishing these institutions is under study. Several communes have already begun to transform it into reality, wishing to prove that there is nothing fantastic about these projects. They are, moreover, included in the plans for economic expansion in the next few years, for Brussels is aware, as is the whole of Belgium, that the entire democratic life of the nation depends on this. However, the first step will be to revise the laws to adapt them to the needs of the time. That task can no longer wait.
Public Libraries of the Liverpool Metropolitan Area

GEORGE CHANDLER

LIVERPOOL WAS founded in 1207 by King John as a free borough on the sea, to provide a base for his attempted conquest of Ireland. Because of its position midway between the kingdoms of Wales to the south, Scotland to the north, and Ireland to the west, Liverpool has attracted large numbers of immigrants from these countries. Its dialect is different from the dialects of other Lancashire towns like Manchester. Its general air of liveliness has recently achieved an international reputation through the Beatles, a singing group. As a world port Liverpool has attracted a large immigrant cosmopolitan population. It is the headquarters of internationally renowned shipping lines serving North America (Cunard Steam Ship Co.), South America (Pacific Steam Navigation Co.), Africa (Elder Dempster Lines), the Far East (Blue Funnel Line), and other parts of the world.

In the seventeenth century, Liverpool began to spill over its boundaries on both sides of the Mersey River and created problems of regional government, but it was not until 1835 that Liverpool first extended its boundaries. In 1895 the size of Liverpool was almost trebled, and further additions were made in 1902, 1904, 1913, 1928, and 1932. All of these boundary extensions were on the Lancashire side of the river Mersey. Important towns on the Cheshire side lie very near to the heart of Liverpool. In spite of the extension of Liverpool's boundaries, the regional problems of government have become ever more pressing. In order to rehouse its population, Liverpool has built new towns outside its extended boundaries at Huyton and Kirkby, while the national government is building new towns at Skelmersdale.

The author is City Librarian, Liverpool Public Libraries, and Director, Liverpool and District Scientific, Industrial and Research Library Advisory Council (LAD-SIRLAC).

[60]
Public Libraries of the Liverpool Metropolitan Area

and Runcorn to assist the rehousing of Liverpool. All these new towns are on the Lancashire side of the Mersey.

A Commission has reviewed the problems of the Merseyside City Region based on Liverpool, and its report is awaited. It is concerned with both the Cheshire and Lancashire sides of the Mersey. The Merseyside City Region is much smaller than the areas covered by some regional organizations with their headquarters in Liverpool. The members of the Liverpool Consular Corps, which is one of the largest provincial corps in the world, serve an area based either on the Merseyside City Region or on the North Western Region including Manchester, or on the whole of the North of England, including Leeds, Sheffield, and Newcastle, and in some cases, even parts of the Midlands, North Wales, Northern Ireland, and Scotland. The Mersey Docks and Harbour Board serves a similar area. The Merseyside and North Wales Electricity Board covers the whole of North Wales and a considerably larger area in Lancashire and Cheshire than the Merseyside City Region. The delivery area of Liverpool's shops and the circulation area of the Liverpool Echo also include North Wales and larger areas of Lancashire and Cheshire than are included in the Merseyside City Region. The Mersey Tunnel Joint Committee is responsible for the existing tunnel, the largest underwater tunnel in the world, which is used by traffic coming from a much wider area than the Merseyside City Region.

The Liverpool and District Library Area is also larger than the Merseyside City Region and might be considered to cover the whole area between the regions served by the nearest large reference libraries in Glasgow in the north, Manchester in the east, Birmingham in the south, and the Welsh National Library at Aberystwyth. For the purposes of this article, the Liverpool and District Library Area is defined as the area which appears to be effectively served by Liverpool's reference and special libraries. This area includes the whole of the Merseyside City Region plus Wigan and Warrington, which are nearer Liverpool than Manchester, but excludes Preston, which is slightly nearer Liverpool than Manchester, and also excludes North Wales, although many Welsh individuals and firms are much nearer to Liverpool than to the Welsh National Library.

An analysis of the library resources of the authorities in the Liverpool and District Library Area (see Table 1) indicates why Liverpool alone is large enough and has sufficient resources in books and staff to provide intensive reference and special libraries. All the figures
quote, except those for the county regions, are taken from the *Libraries, Museums and Art Galleries Year Book 1964,* but they are not always strictly comparable as there are many local circumstances which affect them. Nevertheless, the broad pattern of the figures is fairly reliable. The general services of the library authorities in the Liverpool district are mostly of a high calibre and are comparable to those offered by the best of the suburban libraries in the Liverpool city area. Nevertheless the ordinary and specialist readers need access from time to time to large reference and special libraries.

The Liverpool Public Libraries, like other large British city libraries, provide some national and regional services, although the bulk of their resources are devoted to purely local services. They are recognized as a depository for UNO, UNESCO, and Atomic Energy Commission publications, and for patents and similar publications. These libraries cooperate in national schemes for the acquisition of early published books, and they purchase some of the books which are beyond the resources of the smaller libraries in the regional and national schemes of subject specialization. They have entered into exchange relations with leading libraries in many parts of the world, and they maintain a most comprehensive range of public special libraries or subject departments, e.g., religion and philosophy, commerce and social sciences, science and technology, art, British Commonwealth, American Library, and International Library.

As part of the Liverpool City Council policy to attract new industry to Merseyside, the Liverpool and District Scientific, Industrial and Research Library Advisory Council (LADSIRLAC) was founded. LADSIRLAC, a department of the Liverpool Public Libraries, was sponsored on the advice of the Liverpool Technical Information Conference of 1955, which was convened by the Libraries, Museums, and Arts Committee, and was supported by many firms in Liverpool and by various scientific and business organizations. LADSIRLAC's primary function is to provide special services to industry, education, and research over and above those normally available in public, technical, and other libraries. The special libraries on which they are based are staffed and maintained wholly by the Liverpool City Council as part of its policy of encouraging industrial and commercial development and efficiency. The Liverpool City Council also meets about three-quarters of the cost of LADSIRLAC's services, the remainder being met by membership subscriptions based on the volume of use. LADSIRLAC's activities comprise literature searches, special postal bor-
Public Libraries of the Liverpool Metropolitan Area

rowing, and translation advisory services, as well as the organization of technical information lectures and exhibitions. One of its most valuable functions is to act as the medium for mutual help for local organizations by answering production and other industrial inquiries.

TABLE 1

Resources of Libraries in the Liverpool and District Library Area: 1963–1964

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library Authority</th>
<th>Population Served</th>
<th>Total Stock</th>
<th>Full-Time Staff</th>
<th>Prof.</th>
<th>Total Expen.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bebington</td>
<td>52,980</td>
<td>64,000</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>£28,312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birkenhead</td>
<td>141,750</td>
<td>161,928</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>66,368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bootle</td>
<td>83,220</td>
<td>111,001</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42,219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheshire County Areas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chester</td>
<td>112,194</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crosby</td>
<td>59,490</td>
<td>72,347</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>29,593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellesmere Pt.</td>
<td>40,120</td>
<td>66,515</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32,161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huyton County Reg.</td>
<td>100,192</td>
<td>101,197</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kirkby County Reg.</td>
<td>56,550</td>
<td>100,621</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litherland County Reg.</td>
<td>47,549</td>
<td>61,406</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neston</td>
<td>12,760</td>
<td>15,203</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>5,040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ormskirk County Reg.</td>
<td>80,160</td>
<td>122,352</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orrell County Reg.</td>
<td>24,300</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prescot County Reg.</td>
<td>39,900</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Runcorn</td>
<td>26,640</td>
<td>37,261</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9,925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Helens</td>
<td>108,480</td>
<td>189,183</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>45,598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southport</td>
<td>80,730</td>
<td>137,576</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>57,650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wallasey</td>
<td>76,200</td>
<td>111,000</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33,610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrington</td>
<td>53,300</td>
<td>86,950</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widnes</td>
<td>97,050</td>
<td>175,785</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>46,274</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>1,462,165</td>
<td>1,748,487+</td>
<td>414+</td>
<td>88+</td>
<td>508,365+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liverpool:</td>
<td>745,230</td>
<td>1,769,434+</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>543,728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total:</td>
<td>2,207,395</td>
<td>3,510,921+</td>
<td>690+</td>
<td>188+</td>
<td>1,052,093+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 14,000 production inquiries received in the libraries during 1963/64, 731 were investigated in depth. The remarkable extent to
which the firms on Merseyside have been ready to pool their industrial
know-how and research material is revealed by the fact that more
than half of the 731 inquiries searched in depth were answered with
the assistance of local sources. All the inquiries explored in depth re-
quired literature searches in the Liverpool Public Libraries and one-
sixth were answered by literature searches alone. Of a total of 1,737
consultations in connection with the remaining inquiries, over one-
third were with the Liverpool Technical, Patents, Science, Commercial,
or International Libraries; over one-fifth with industrial members of
LADSIRLAC; over one-twentieth with Liverpool Corporation Depart-
ments, the University, or technical colleges; nearly one-quarter with
industrial firms and private industrial associations who were not mem-
bers of LADSIRLAC; and one-seventh with Stations and grant-aided
research associations of the Department of Scientific and Industrial
Research. “The Department of Scientific and Industrial Research Act,
1956, placed the Department under the charge of the Council for Sci-
entific and Industrial Research, and redefined the Department’s func-
tions and the purposes for which it may make grants.”

Membership of LADSIRLAC as a right is restricted to Liverpool
organizations which have established a satisfactory internal channel
for industrial information, but membership is extended on request to
other organizations, in and outside the Liverpool metropolitan area,
whose activities are likely to benefit Liverpool. Membership reached
248 in 1963/64, and included industrial firms, local public libraries,
public utilities, technical colleges, and similar organizations; 47 per
cent were in the Liverpool city area, 45 per cent in 21 other communi-
ties in the Liverpool District Library Area, and 8 per cent outside that
area. The idea of basing some services for special groups in large pub-
lic libraries is obviously economical. The Library of Congress has
recently become the headquarters of the National Referral Center for
Science and Technology and for space documentation research. The
John Crerar Library in Chicago is not only a public science library
but also a center of special services to industry and the Illinois Insti-
tute of Technology. Similar arrangements exist in Switzerland, the
U.S.S.R., and other countries.

The development of science and technology and the breaking down
of the barriers between the nations by television and the aeroplane
have led to unprecedented demands for information of all kinds. All
public library authorities must, therefore, increasingly look to cooper-
ation to cover the needs of their residents. In Great Britain the govern-
Public Libraries of the Liverpool Metropolitan Area

ment has rather belatedly created the first national lending library—the National Lending Library for Science and Technology, at Boston Spa in Yorkshire, on which the larger public libraries may draw for specialized material. It is hoped that the government will also establish a national lending library for the humanities in order to provide direct loans through local libraries. These national lending libraries will not, however, be able to meet all the needs of the nation and must depend on the larger public libraries to undertake some regional functions. The large British city libraries, as has Liverpool's library, will increasingly become regional centers. In order to meet the increasing demands on them, they will require additional financial resources either from the local authorities which maintain them or from other authorities or from the government.

The future administration of these large city libraries will depend on national decisions. Creation of a democratically elected regional council which would be responsible for all local government services in the area of the Merseyside City Region appears to be out of the question. The practical alternatives under consideration are two. One would be the creation of a Merseyside County Council with responsibilities for planning, transport, and similar matters on the pattern of the newly established London County Council. If such a Merseyside County Council were created, it is unlikely that it would be responsible for libraries. These would remain the responsibility of the existing authorities. The other possibility is amalgamation of a number of the existing local authorities to form more effective units. In this eventuality, certain powers might be invested in ad hoc authorities, similar to the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board, established in 1857, and the Mersey Tunnel Joint Committee, established in 1931. It is not likely that an ad hoc authority would be created for libraries, although the Committee of the Royal Liverpool Philharmonic Orchestra is virtually an ad hoc authority. It attracts financial support from the state through the Arts Council and from a number of local authorities, although the majority of its governing committees are councillors of the city of Liverpool.

The services of large city libraries like Liverpool are of great national importance and cannot be extended indiscriminately to neighboring authorities unless some financial contribution is made towards them. The most satisfactory solution would be for the central government to make a grant under the Public Libraries and Museums Bill of 1964, but the government has stated that is not its intention at present.
It is rather extraordinary that the central government is prepared to take over all the cost of certain services, such as the colleges of advanced technology, and is willing to give substantial grants in aid for symphony orchestras through the Arts Council, and yet is not prepared to assist large city libraries, as has been urged by the Library Association. In the absence of special grants for special services, it is likely that the future development of metropolitan reference and special library services on Merseyside will be through LADSIRLAC. In that case, the services could not be made available as a right to all who wished to use them, but only to those contributors approved by the Liverpool City Council.

The case for national grants for the regional and national services provided by large city libraries was set out in a memorandum submitted by the libraries of the largest cities to the Roberts Committee on Public Libraries for England and Wales, whose recommendations formed the basis of the Public Libraries and Museums Act of 1964. The memorandum included the following passages:

The reference libraries of the large provincial centres have attempted to provide facilities which in London are shared amongst the state supported libraries (British Museum, Science Library, Patent Office Library and the Art Library of the Victoria and Albert Museum), the libraries of learned and scientific societies and the municipal libraries. It is not, of course, claimed that our resources are in any individual case as extensive as state and special libraries; we do claim, however, that within the limits of our regions we have sustained a like purpose, except that now the university libraries take responsibility for their own staff and students. Nevertheless, the use made of public reference libraries by members of universities and undergraduates continues to be high and it would be false to suggest that the universities are meeting the whole of their needs. . . .

Since 1916 there has been a continuous growth in the provision in the larger cities of libraries of commerce and technology, staffed by librarians expert in the range of subjects covered. . . .

The national scheme for the interlending of books through the National Central Library and the Regional Library Bureaux rests substantially on the large city libraries. Not only do they lend many more books than they borrow, but they also provide premises and much of the staff for the Regional Library Bureaux, and quixotically and paradoxically, pay substantially for the privilege of doing so. Moreover, they operate schemes either formal or informal, for the interloan of books amongst the non-public libraries in their own areas. To the ex-
Public Libraries of the Liverpool Metropolitan Area

tent that there is a national library service in this country we claim that it is based on the readiness of the larger cities to recognise and meet needs beyond their local obligations.

Not only are some local authorities underwriting the Regional Library Systems but they are also obliged to contribute substantially to the cost of the National Central Library; indeed the Treasury grant to this institution is given conditionally on funds being raised from other sources, chief among them the local authorities. To us City Librarians it appears iniquitous and we would strongly urge the Committee to give serious consideration to the whole question of national co-operation amongst libraries, establishing (1) what part, if any, the British Museum and other copyright libraries might play, (2) whether a distinctive regional role with a national purpose might not be assigned to the large city libraries and (3) whether the cost of this together with the whole cost of the National Central Library might not be met from national funds, without any restriction of local autonomy.

Neither the Roberts Committee nor the Working Parties appointed by the Minister of Education really considered these vitally important questions. It is hoped that the Advisory Councils, to be set up under the Libraries and Museums Act of 1964, will give serious attention to this memorandum and will urge the government to provide financial assistance to the large city libraries. Certainly, the Roberts Committee, the Working Parties appointed by the Minister of Education, and the Public Libraries and Museums Act of 1964 have failed to recognize adequately the national and regional role of the libraries of large cities, and the need to encourage them to extend their services.

References
Problems of the Public Libraries in Metropolitan Tokyo

NAGAO NAGAI

In Tokyo-to, the metropolis of Tokyo, with a population of 10,220,000, there are four metropolitan libraries which serve the entire population, thirty-nine ward libraries with twelve branches, and seven city and town libraries including three on the islands off the main shore. Of these sixty-two libraries, the twelve branch libraries and three libraries on the islands are so poor from the point of view of premises and book collections that they cannot really be called "public libraries."

The area of the capital region in 1959 was defined by taking Tokyo Station as the center and using 100 kilometers as the radius, which includes the whole of Tokyo, Kanagawa, Chiba, Saitama prefectures and parts of Gunma, Tochigi, Ibaragi, and Yamanashi prefectures. However, in this article only the administrative district of metropolitan Tokyo is discussed. This does not include Yokohama or Kanagawa prefectures. The cities, towns, and villages constituting this area are listed in Appendix 1 at the end of the article, and the size of the population and the areas served by the public libraries in Tokyo-to is shown in Table 1. Population estimate used is for 1963.

**TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Library</th>
<th>Population Served</th>
<th>Area Served (in square kilometers)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39 libraries in 23 Tokyo wards</td>
<td>8,630,000</td>
<td>570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 libraries in 3 cities out of 11</td>
<td>1,100,000</td>
<td>526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 library in 1 county out of 5</td>
<td>450,000</td>
<td>630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 island libraries</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total for 46 libraries</td>
<td>10,220,000</td>
<td>2,023</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mr. Nagai is Director of the Tokyo Metropolitan Hibiya Library.
Problems of the Public Libraries in Metropolitan Tokyo

Ten cities, eighteen towns, and ten villages in metropolitan Tokyo, with a total population of 1,260,000 and covering an area of 1,113 square kilometers, are not provided with their own libraries.

With regard to the forty-six public libraries in the wards, cities, and counties, those in Tokyo wards serve an average population of 221,000 people and an average area of 15 square kilometers, while those in cities and counties serve an average of 227,000 persons and 209 square kilometers.

The statistics on book holdings, annual expenditures, and service activities for 1963 are shown in Table 2. It should be pointed out that circulation of books is not shown since that practice is not widely adopted. As can be readily seen from the figures in Table 2, it is impossible for such a small number of public libraries to meet all the needs of ten million people for books and other materials for information, education, and recreation. To make the situation worse, each of the libraries is independent, and no scheme of library cooperation exists.

Immediately after the Meiji Restoration of 1868 the prefecture of Tokyo was created, taking over the administrative area of the Tokugawa Shogunate. In 1889 the city of Tokyo with fifteen wards in the prefecture was established. The city, however, was not given independent rule and the appointee-governor of the prefecture of Tokyo had responsibility for the mayor's duties. It was not until 1898 that the city of Tokyo was given autonomous power and had its own mayor, who, however, was not elected by the citizens but was chosen by the City Council. The city was under double rule, supervised directly by the governor on the one hand, and indirectly by the home minister on the other. In 1943, at the height of World War II, the prefecture of Tokyo and the city of Tokyo were consolidated into the metropolis of Tokyo. Its chief administrator was an appointee-governor charged with the twin duties of municipal administration for the thirty-five wards and of prefectural administration for the counties and the islands.

After the war, the system of local government was reformed in line with the principles of democratic election, and the governorship became elective. The number of wards was reduced from thirty-five to twenty-three. Each ward was given strong self-governing powers equal to those of an ordinary city, and it kept this power until its independence was reduced when the Local Autonomy Law was revised in 1951. Under this new arrangement, the wards became self-governing bodies with limited powers. The ward officials managed many civic functions
TABLE 2

Characteristics of Service, by Type of Public Library in Tokyo-to: 1963

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>23 Wards</th>
<th>3 Cities &amp; 1 Town</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Metropolitan Libraries</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Area</strong> (sq. km)</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>2,023</td>
<td>2,023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Population</strong></td>
<td>8,630,000</td>
<td>330,000</td>
<td>8,960,000</td>
<td>10,220,000</td>
<td>10,222,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No. of households</strong></td>
<td>2,400,000</td>
<td>90,000</td>
<td>2,490,000</td>
<td>2,800,000</td>
<td>2,800,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Libraries</strong></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Area served</strong></td>
<td>15 sq. km</td>
<td>85 sq. km</td>
<td>21 sq. km</td>
<td>505 sq. km</td>
<td>43 sq. km</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Population served</strong></td>
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<td>80,000</td>
<td>208,372</td>
<td>2,550,000</td>
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<td><strong>Number of users served</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>For consultation</td>
<td>3,660,000</td>
<td>210,000</td>
<td>3,870,000</td>
<td>820,000</td>
<td>4,690,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>For borrowing</td>
<td>520,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>570,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>620,000</td>
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<td>In groups</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>72,000</td>
<td>150,000</td>
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<td>By bookmobiles</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>170,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,250,000</td>
<td>262,000</td>
<td>4,512,000</td>
<td>1,190,000</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Number of books</strong></td>
<td>970,000</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>1,030,000</td>
<td>560,000</td>
<td>1,590,000</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Operating expenditures</strong> (In Japanese Yen)</td>
<td>493,090,000</td>
<td>17,440,000</td>
<td>510,530,000</td>
<td>152,900,000</td>
<td>663,430,000</td>
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</table>

and carried on their work close to the everyday life of their constituents. The central government of Tokyo retains the power of coordination as well as control over some civic activities, so that it maintains administrative supervision over the whole area.

The government of the metropolis of Tokyo is a local public authority, but it differs from any other prefecture or city in Japan in that it enforces, on the one hand, prefectural administration over its cities, towns, and villages, all of which are ordinary local public bodies, and, on the other hand, municipal administration over its wards which are
Problems of the Public Libraries in Metropolitan Tokyo

special public bodies. Moreover, it has the distinctive features of being both the capital of Japan and a big cosmopolitan city. Hence, the administrative arrangements of Tokyo-to are extensive and complicated.

After the establishment of the Tokyo Municipal Hibiya Library in 1908, public libraries were set up one after another in the city, and by about 1913 there were nineteen of them. In those days, however, they were parts of a single system of which the center was the Hibiya Library. In 1945, toward the end of the war, the Hibiya Library was completely destroyed. Eleven out of twenty-eight library agencies in Tokyo disappeared and more than 400,000 books which had been accumulated from 1908 were reduced to ashes.

After the war, as part of the provision of the new Constitution, the Local Autonomy Law which had as a main objective the decentralizing of government was put in force. As a result of this, the administration and operation of all the public libraries in the wards except the Hibiya Library were entrusted to the boards of education of the wards where they were situated. Only the Hibiya Library and three other libraries remained under the control of the Metropolitan Board of Education. Reconstruction of the libraries damaged by the war was very slow. Local government authorities gave first priority to the construction and reconstruction of school facilities urgently needed as a result of the reformed school education system. It was only in 1957 that the Hibiya Library was rebuilt and began to give the services of a modern public library according to the methods of American librarianship. Since then, the ward and city authorities have begun to pay some attention to the establishment of their community libraries, and there are now sixty-two library agencies in Tokyo-to, although this is still far too small a number for the population to be served.

In addition, it can be seen that poor book supply, poor services, and inadequate facilities are notable features of the public libraries in metropolitan Tokyo. There is as yet no interlibrary cooperative scheme to cover these deficiencies, and many difficulties will have to be overcome before there will be much improvement. The Public Library Law of Japan provides that a metropolitan or prefectural library shall be established as a public library on the same basis as any ward, city, town, or village library and that it give the same kind of services. In addition, there is no way by which to secure cooperation between these two types of libraries. Furthermore, it is very difficult to get sufficient funds for metropolitan-wide service. The idea that public services which are closely connected with the citizens' everyday life
are a proper responsibility of local government has only recently been accepted. The ward and city authorities have no intention of making their new community libraries part of an over-all library system, even if they were to become more useful because of larger book stock and staff. They regard such a step as going against the current of the times; they are very much afraid of central control.

However, librarians as well as users of the public libraries in Tokyo-to know very well that little or no improvement in services can be expected without the cooperation of all the public libraries in the Tokyo area, and ways and means of improving the present situation have been discussed at the meetings of librarians and of the Advisory Council. Some suggestions for better services have been developed and made public. As a first step, the program requires that more libraries be established and that libraries acquire more books. At present the public libraries in Tokyo-to have a book collection of about 1,590,000 volumes, of which 455,000 books are in the Hibiya Library. Each ward library averages about 25,000 volumes while the city and town libraries average 15,000 volumes. The expenditure for materials is very small: 145,000,000 yen for the Hibiya Library, 2,000,000 yen on the average for each of the ward libraries, and 90,000 yen for the city or town libraries. Of these expenditures, 86 per cent goes to the purchase of books and the remaining 14 per cent for periodicals.

The annual publication of new books for general sale in Japan is about 13,000 titles, and the average price of a book is 700 yen. Accordingly, the annual increase of books in each ward library is about 2,700 volumes, which represents only a fifth of all new publications. In the city or town libraries, the annual acquisition is only 1,300 volumes or 10 per cent of the available publications. The Hibiya Library purchases 13,000 titles, with a few duplicates for use on the premises and 8,000 volumes for circulation to groups of young adults working in small industries. Of the other three metropolitan libraries, each buys only 2,000 volumes annually. The budget for reading materials is so small that the book collection is naturally poor, and this puts a brake on circulation.

Although Japan is a country which has a very high level of literacy, the period of schooling is not as long as that in Western countries. According to the Statistical Division of the Tokyo Metropolitan Government, 60 per cent of Tokyo people have had more than eleven years of school. After the war, compulsory education was extended from six to nine years. In 1963, the percentage of boys and girls who
Problems of the Public Libraries in Metropolitan Tokyo

gave to high school in Tokyo after finishing compulsory education was 80 per cent, and 27 per cent of the high school graduates went to universities or colleges. It is no exaggeration to say that the public libraries in Tokyo are almost entirely occupied by students, both high school and college. These come to the library to use its physical facilities more than its books. The severe competitive examination for entrance to high schools and to leading universities, the acute housing shortage, and the inadequacy of school libraries are the main reasons for this. Consequently, the public libraries are always crowded by students, and other people who want to use them often have to wait in line outside for someone to come out. This situation has created a false image of the public library—as a library for students—and adults have given up the idea of using it for their own purposes. This image must be changed.

It can be seen that the public libraries in Tokyo are far behind those in Western cities. Tokyo residents do not have easy access to the reading materials they need. Lack of understanding on the part of the government, which has control over public finances, is partly responsible for this. The indifference of the people who have never experienced good library services must be changed by the efforts of librarians. Without the support of the people, the public library will never develop. No one questions the fact that sixty-two small public libraries for more than ten million people are inadequate. The minimum standards for establishing public libraries in Tokyo have been recommended by the Advisory Council as follows:

1. Each library should serve a population of fifty thousand to one hundred thousand persons.
2. Floor space should be 7,200 to 10,800 square feet.
3. There should be an initial collection of 30,000 to 50,000 books plus periodicals.
4. The budget should provide for 5,000 to 7,000 new books a year.
5. Staff should consist of fifteen to twenty trained persons.

Furthermore, it is recommended that such a community library have several branches and sub-branches throughout the territory it serves.

The Metropolitan Hibiya Library is now expected not only to function on a large scale as an ordinary public library but also to expand and to become a library for general reference and to serve as the central library for all the public libraries in the metropolis of Tokyo. The new program holds the Hibiya Library responsible for: (1) en-
NAGAO NAGAI

riching its book collection to supplement the collections of the community libraries, (2) improving its reference services, (3) acquiring specialized materials, (4) directing the joint preservation of less-used materials, (5) handling the centralized processing of materials, (6) compiling the necessary union catalogs, and (7) carrying out the in-service training of staff members.

Librarians are now determined to persuade the authorities concerned to carry out this program. The national government of Japan is advocating a policy of "high-degree economic growth" or "income-doubling," and of training the youth of Japan in the ways that will best fit them to contribute to national prosperity. Because of the national government's emphasis on measures to combat juvenile delinquency and because of the national social security program for the older generation, non-school education is becoming the object of public attention. This is the opportunity for the public libraries to appeal to the national government to provide better library facilities in order to assist the government in achieving its objectives. The contribution of the public library as an educational institution for all ages is of the utmost importance if the educational, economic, and social level of the nation is to be raised. The public libraries will certainly make every effort to realize this plan in the years ahead.

References

### Problems of the Public Libraries in Metropolitan Tokyo

#### Appendix 1

**The Administrative District of Metropolitan Tokyo**

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<th>Wards</th>
<th>Cities</th>
<th>Counties</th>
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Metropolitan Areas Growing and Under Stress: 
The Situation of the Detroit Public Library

RALPH A. ULVELING

In a "new world" sense Detroit, Michigan, is a very old city, practically the oldest in the Midwest, and one of a limited few in the United States which can lay claim to nearly three centuries of continuous existence. The heart of the city dates back to the very beginning of the eighteenth century, 1701. For six decades thereafter it was a center of French domination for the vast empire we now know as the upper Great Lakes region—the area adjacent to Lakes Huron, Michigan, and Superior. Then followed nearly four decades of English rule with Detroit again a key point from which to control this vast area. Thus from its earliest times Detroit was not the usual frontier post made up of backwoodsmen, but was a center of influence made up of leaders who brought to the city a broad cultural base which had a marked effect on the development of the community and its institutions through succeeding years.

It is a matter of record, now preserved in the archives at Lansing, Michigan, that one of the very earliest known references to a public library that can be found anywhere is the written plea of October 18, 1808, from Detroit's pioneer priest, Father Gabriel Richard, addressed to the Legislature of the Michigan territorial government asking for the "framing of a Beginning of [a] public library" in Detroit. That was nearly half a century before the date used by C. B. Joeckel in the following statement from his monumental book on library government: "Even before 1850 a few isolated examples of town libraries supported in one way or another by public funds were to be found in New England."

The same caliber of advanced thinking regarding libraries was shown in 1835 when Article X of Michigan's first state constitution made provision for a library in every township. Still later, in 1863, Mr. Ulveling is Director, Detroit Public Library, Detroit, Mich.

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when there were still only a few public libraries in this country, the aims and purposes of the Detroit Public Library then about to be established were defined. That statement has stood the test of time and can scarcely be improved on today despite a century of refinements by the American Library Association and the library profession.

It is little wonder that the Detroit Public Library, which is the product of a long heritage of library pioneering, should itself have a most anomalous legal position. Surprising though it will be to many, the library is not a part of the Detroit city government but instead is a separate "local government" created by the State. This fact, which has been of great help to the library many times in the past, may now realize its greatest potential. Because the Detroit Library Commission holds title to property in its own name, and because it can contract in its own right, its unusual legal position may facilitate the development of metropolitan area support for the library.

Since 1945 the Detroit Public Library has been organized and operated as two separate but coordinated libraries, each with its own objectives: (1) the Home Reading Services, made up of all those services which are responsible for the wide dissemination of existing knowledge, namely, the branch libraries, the Extension Department, the Schools Department, the Foreign Language Collection, and in the Main Library building, the Browsing Library, the Children's Library, and the Educational Film Department; and (2) the Reference Services made up of ten very large specialized departments such as Technology and Science, Sociology and Economics, Fine Arts, Language and Literature, Music and the Performing Arts, Business and Finance, etc. The reference departments have responsibility for developing their subjects in depth. Most of their materials are permitted to circulate, but the departments have no responsibility for the mass circulation of books. To safeguard against the departments becoming unwittingly involved in mass distribution, a limit of three copies of any one title has been established for them. If public demand requires a larger stock, the problem is referred to the Home Reading Services for handling.

The responsibilities of the two major services of this library have been delineated so that there may be no uncertainty regarding what is intended when it is pointed out that the current objective is to develop area-wide support for the in-depth collections of the Main Library. Perhaps some day it may be well to have interchangeable use of library facilities between libraries at the popular level but that is
not being considered now. It is felt that at this time we can fully and
ably justify common support by many communities of a unique service
which most of them could not afford to maintain alone and which need
not be duplicated in the metropolitan area if all residents of the area
have the opportunity to use it when they wish to do so. This proposal
would give practical implementation to the state plan of Michigan
(and of other states) which recognizes the need for maintaining dif-
ferent levels of library service to provide adequately for the reading
needs of people.

There is an urgency for this type of joint support to be developed
and developed soon. As the curtain now rises for the beginning of the
second century of the Detroit Public Library's service, the background
scene of the community has changed. The great industrial expansion
in Detroit and the population explosion that came with it are phe-
nomena of the early twentieth century. Detroit truly exemplifies what
might be termed the urban revolution of our time, that is, the bur-
geoning of the core city with the influx of new residents followed by
the flight to the suburbs by both residents and business. The city's
peak population, nearly two million persons, was reached in the 1950
census. Then in the decade of the 1950's, like almost all the major cities
in the United States, Detroit's population declined although the pop-
ulation of the metropolitan area continued to soar. It was during that
period that the gross population of the suburbs first exceeded the pop-
ulation of the city. Predictions, as will be seen from Table 1, now

<table>
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<th>Year</th>
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<tr>
<td>1980</td>
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<td>27%</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Source: [Reference 4]

indicate that the city proper will continue to decline even while the
Standard Metropolitan Area will continue to expand. By 1980 it is
anticipated that the core city will constitute only slightly more than
one-fourth of the entire region. Obviously so small a part of the total
population as one-fourth should not be expected, nor would it be able,
to maintain a large, expensive library service for the entire district to use. However, before the big reference-research collections of the Detroit Main Library begin to weaken from malnutrition, steps must be taken to continue their development and their general effectiveness.

Earlier reference was made to the flight of great industrial corporations to the suburbs where more land was available for new, more efficient factory plants. This change created a tax imbalance. The very substantial taxes of a great part of the industry are now being paid to one or another of the satellite cities while the costly, specialized library services required by the industry are being provided by an entirely different taxing area, that of the core city. Almost daily throughout the year, trucks come to the Detroit Main Library to pick up materials needed in the research or other departments of various companies. From the city of Warren in Macomb County come General Motors trucks. From Dearborn in western Wayne County come Ford Motor Company trucks. From Ferndale in Oakland County come Ethyl Corporation trucks. So continuous is this corporate call that special "company cards" have been issued, a special book-charging arrangement made to facilitate picking up material by the corporation messengers, and a special parking area has been assigned for company use near the Library's shipping dock. The Detroit Public Library has cooperated fully and generously in providing this out-of-the-city service because the economic health of the total metropolitan community is served in this way.

To appreciate more fully the importance of this highly developed library service to the three-county complex which contains 138 cities and townships in the metropolitan area, brief reference is made to an uncompleted report which will be published shortly before this article appears in print. The study in question is investigating the potential for industrial growth in the Detroit area, and has examined first the potential for diversity in industry in Detroit. Of the twenty major types of industries in this country, all are represented with major developments in Detroit except two—tobacco and leather goods. Having established this fact, the study then investigated the research resources here that would be available to any industry coming to the area. Three institutions will be designated as having real importance for such work. Two are universities—Wayne State University and the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor (the latter because of its proximity although it is not within the three-county area). Both of these great universities with their distinguished scholars and other facilities have a
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very great and direct contribution to make to the area development. The third institution, and the only other one to be cited, is the Detroit Public Library because of its reference-research book collections. This study, to be published by the Area Redevelopment Administration of the U.S. Department of Commerce, will probably be known as the Detroit Research Complex Study. Nothing could more effectively state the case for area-wide support or even partial state support of the Detroit Main Library than this study by outsiders for the purpose of producing an objective appraisal of the area’s strengths and aids for industry.

Highly important as a big library is to industrial research workers, one nevertheless must not overlook the importance that an in-depth library has for educated people generally. From unpublished data collected by the Detroit Public Library, it is known that the greatest number of individual non-Detroiters using the Main Library come from the “privileged” suburban communities, most of which have no industry but do have residents with a very high average educational level. Grosse Pointe, Oak Park, and Birmingham held three of the top four places in the study. Dearborn, which includes some fine residential areas as well as the Ford Motor Company, was the fourth city heading the study list. This tends to underscore the fact that not only is Detroit the center of the area economically but that it is the hub educationally, socially, and culturally as well.

One of the great deterrents to the starting of any large cooperative venture involving two or more governments is the financing of the necessary capital expenditures. In the case of the Detroit area library service, this problem has been eliminated entirely. The big, extensive, and expensive background book collections are already available. What is often an even greater stumbling block—providing the needed building facilities—likewise has already been provided. Nearing completion is a new eleven million dollar addition to a previously fine Main Library structure. The floor space has thus been increased from 180,000 square feet to 420,000 square feet, ample for the enlarged role should the library be regionalized. Both of these major assets, the book collection and the housing, have been provided by the Detroit residents. The non-Detroiters are merely being asked to share in the continuing development and operation of the library which they will share in using.

It is believed that the Detroit approach in seeking a solution for the metropolitan area problem will avoid one of the great human resist-
Metropolitan Areas Growing and Under Stress: Detroit Situation

ances to any joint effort involving core city and suburbs. No library, regardless of how small it may be, will be required to surrender any of its present prerogatives or any part of its independence. Each will continue to select its books for general reading as well as for local reference just as it always has in the past.

Financing the project likewise will not disturb present operations for any of the participating libraries. Instead of trying to get each library to contribute from its own operating funds, new funds will be sought. As a first step, funds from a foundation are being enlisted for a three-year experiment in having the Detroit Main Library serve as the common in-depth library center for the entire metropolitan district. It is hoped too that federal funds may be obtained to study the project in the hope that some sound, equitable basis may be developed for spreading the operating costs among the various beneficiaries. Once a proper formula for assessing costs has been developed, the three counties concerned will be asked to make direct appropriations to continue the service after foundation funds are withdrawn. Last, it is likely that an appeal will be made for a direct grant from the state government to compensate the Detroit Public Library for the out-city services it renders to other communities.

There was a time when cooperative arrangements of the type here discussed might have seemed unrealistic and visionary. This is no longer true. Today they are considered to be advantageous and economical. On the front page of the Wall Street Journal of November 19, 1964, the following headline expressed the new thinking: “More Suburbs Buy Municipal Services from Big Neighbors . . . New State Laws Expedite the Trend.”

The problem of the relationship of core city and suburbs in providing a total library service is not something unique to Detroit. It is national in scope. There are variations from city to city as to the need and the nature of the problem. Some cities, for example, are basically made up of factory branches and distribution offices of the great corporations. Seldom are these areas involved in the need for highly developed library research facilities. Detroit, on the other hand, is a city where great corporations have their central planning and research organizations. Of the twelve largest corporations in the country, from the standpoint of value of sales, three are based in Detroit. Similarly, Detroit is the headquarters for six international trade unions. These too are involved in a great deal of research efforts. At one time, before

[81]
he assumed his present office, Governor George Romney predicted that the next big industry to develop in Detroit would be "research."

The developments of the Detroit Public Library over the past twenty years—(a) establishing a new internal plan of organization, (b) defining the level of expansion to which each subject area should be carried, and (c) carrying out a very large Main Library construction program—have all helped in preparing the Library to assume an important place in a new complex society of municipalities. To what extent other large public libraries may have followed parallel courses is unknown to this writer, but within the next twenty-five years other great municipal public libraries will undoubtedly have to move in this direction, or total library service will not become a reality for many thousands or millions of people in the burgeoning metropolitan areas of our nation.

References

Southern California, which Helen Hunt Jackson called "... a sort of island on the land,"¹ is a broad arc stretching along the Pacific more than 200 miles from Santa Barbara southward to the Mexican border and eastward to the mountains that shut it off from the desert beyond. Its off-center hub is the Los Angeles metropolitan area, where live over seven million people. Answering the question, "What kinds of people?" Leo Grebler has refuted the clichés of "... retired Iowa farmers, movie and television stars, senior citizens seeking sunshine, engineers, oil diggers, and so forth. One can indeed find all of these ... but the fact is that modern Los Angeles, like most of the large metropolitan areas of the Western World, is inhabited by all kinds of people."²

Although Southern California has recently pioneered in distinctive retirement communities, the 1960 census showed that 36.6 per cent of the population of Los Angeles County was under twenty years of age.³ Occupationally, "professional, technical & kindred" workers made up 15 per cent of the employed persons in Los Angeles County, only 11.8 per cent in the United States as a whole.⁴

There are two conspicuous minority groups, Negroes and Mexican-Americans. Negroes make up 79 per cent of the non-white population, the rest are persons of Japanese, Chinese, or other descent. Hundreds of thousands of Negroes have moved into the Los Angeles area, particularly into the larger cities, during and following World War II, but have not been totally assimilated into the population. They now represent 7.6 per cent of the people of Los Angeles County, as compared with 9.5 per cent of the total who bear Spanish surnames. Both of these groups more than doubled in number between 1950 and 1960, the Negroes increasing by 112 per cent.⁵ The 1960 census figures on

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housing patterns, educational attainments, and economic status for both these groups reflect varying degrees of discrimination, although less in general, and in employment considerably less, than in most other metropolitan areas.

More Japanese live in and around Los Angeles than anywhere else outside Japan itself. The Jewish population is second only to that of the New York area. As Grebler points out: "Los Angeles emerges as a metropolis with a highly cosmopolitan population mix... The 617,000 foreign born persons counted in 1960 exceed the total population of the City of Pittsburgh, and an additional 1,173,000 were of ‘foreign or mixed’ parentage." 4

Spectacular growth sets the population of Los Angeles off most distinctly from other large cities. Nothing short of a major earthquake or some other incalculable disaster seems destined to stop it. The population of the metropolitan area increased 54.4 per cent between 1950 and 1960.5 The city of Los Angeles alone went from 1,970,358 in 1950 to over 2,700,000 in 1965. Of the five American cities of over one million population, it was the only one to show a gain in the 1960 census. Most of this growth occurred in the San Fernando Valley, the city's own built-in suburb. The rest of the city had an increase of less than 4 per cent.6

Southern California's balmy climate (in spite of smog) and its widely-publicized pattern of informal and easy living have been important factors in attracting people. The emphasis which the state has placed upon public higher education has brought in others. Lucrative federal contracts for missile development and space exploration have made it necessary to recruit from other areas tens of thousands of highly trained engineers and technicians.

In Westward Tilt, Neil Morgan presents an enthusiastic view of the cultural patterns of the American West today. Los Angeles he calls:

... the center of gravity in the westward tilt. It is highly urbanized, seething with change, surging with strength. It also is capable of being utterly ridiculous—but it is steadily becoming less so. Its leaders are a responsible and mature breed these days. Its current wave of newcomers is the most urbane and discriminating which has ever come to the city. Los Angeles is underrated. It has come alive with vitality.

Right or wrong, a great deal of the nation's thinking is being done today in Los Angeles, and inevitably a larger share of it will be done there. In science, education, business and industry, and in the art of
living, patterns are being set in Los Angeles which are being followed elsewhere. It will be fortunate for all the nation if the new personality of Los Angeles now emerging proves to be a brilliant one.6

 Meanwhile, rapid population growth in Los Angeles has been accompanied by urban sprawl. To describe "the exploding metropolis," William H. Whyte, Jr., used this city as an illustration. "Los Angeles, which has sometimes been called 100 suburbs in search of a city, shows the pattern at its most extreme; there is hardly any center at all, and what center there is seems useful to most citizens chiefly as a way to get from one freeway to another."7

 Los Angeles still has a distinct downtown section, and there is a certain amount of skyscraper building taking place in it. But actually millions of the residents of metropolitan Los Angeles are scarcely aware of "downtown." Decentralization of all the facilities and services required for their needs is so complete that they seldom, if ever, find it necessary to enter the downtown area. The neighborhood shopping developments contain facilities which compete with and sometimes outweigh the services offered downtown. All the major department stores have built substantial and even massive branches, ten to forty miles from the downtown area. The sales volume of some of these branches exceeds that of the parent store.

 Office buildings, hotels, and apartments are being built from twenty to fifty stories high. The day of the single-family home and small garden-type apartment "court" seems to be in severe decline. As land costs continue to soar in many parts of town, the height of buildings and population densities follow. Still the general appearance of the whole area is much flatter and less crowded than that of other metropolitan areas.

 If the growth of the population has been phenomenal, so has its mode of transportation. In 1960 there were 435 passenger cars per 1,000 persons.8 Eighty-three per cent of Los Angeles families own one or more cars. This is the way almost everyone is accustomed to travel—to work, to school, to church, to the market, to parks, to the beach, to the mountains—and to the library. There are no subways, interurban trains, or other means of rapid mass transit. A few bus lines operate on limited schedules, but relatively few people find it convenient to use them. Only 8 per cent of workers travel to and from their jobs in this way.8

 For many years multitudinous studies and endless debate have been bestowed on the subject of creating a truly effective rapid transit sys-
tem, but present prospects for financing any of the proposals seem dim. Meanwhile, thanks to the most highly developed freeway system in the world, the population moves about in a relatively easy manner (with twice-daily exceptions—the morning and evening rush hours, when the freeways can produce horrendous traffic jams). It is not at all uncommon for southern Californians to drive from thirty to eighty miles a day to get to their jobs and home again.

Probably with no real relation to their automobile habit, much of the population is "mobile" in another sense. They move around a great deal, from one home or apartment to another. They are also inclined to move from job to job to gain economic advantage. Because the metropolitan area is a crazy quilt of governmental units, hundreds of thousands of people in the Los Angeles area seem completely unaware of governmental boundaries and relationships. Many literally do not know in what city they live. Moreover, their favorite shopping center, church, and school may be in different communities, and so they simply go where they find it most convenient or most agreeable to go.

Southern California has succeeded in achieving a highly diversified economy, much better balanced than in the past, when agriculture, tourists, and motion pictures were the major source of income. In 1960, employment in manufacture in Los Angeles accounted for nearly 31 per cent of total employment, a figure considerably lower than that for other major metropolitan areas in the country, but high in comparison with California as a whole. Median family income in Los Angeles County in 1959 was $7,046, compared with a national average of $5,657 for the entire United States.

In spite of affluence in Los Angeles County, there are many people suffering from poverty and neglect. Although the 5.8 per cent unemployment rate for Los Angeles is lower than the national rate of 6.6 per cent, unemployment is increasingly a serious problem among the unskilled, many of whom are Negroes or Mexican-Americans. With the rest of the country, Los Angeles worries about the long-range effect of technological change and automation upon the labor force. Moreover, the permanent air of boom town optimism is heavily dependent upon defense and aerospace industries. Feelings of insecurity are heightened by the realization that if federal contracts should be substantially cut back or eliminated, much of the prosperity would swiftly vanish. In recognition of this, industrial leaders of the area have been urging still further diversification of the economy.
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The high level of educational attainment in Los Angeles is particularly worthy of note. In 1960, census figures showed the median years of school completed by adults who were 25 years of age and over to be 12.1, a level one and one-half years higher than the national average of 10.6 years. The proportion of college graduates was 9.8 per cent, as compared with the national proportion of 7.7 per cent. At the other end of the scale, Los Angeles County had 168,000 functional illiterates (less than five years of schooling), 4.7 per cent of the total population 25 years of age or over. The chances are good that the educational level of the Los Angeles area will continue to rise as California’s far-reaching master plan for higher education is put into effect. College and university enrollments are going up at a spectacular rate, limited only by the strained ability of present facilities to absorb the students. In some parts of Los Angeles, over 90 per cent of high school graduates expect to go to college.

The region’s natural advantages of climate and topography present many opportunities for recreation and amusement. Reading as a pastime faces impressive competition. Beaches, mountains, and deserts attract people from their homes into the outdoors on all but a very few days of the year. Both participative and spectator sports abound, and local enthusiasts call Los Angeles “the sports capital of the world.” The major metropolitan newspaper carries a daily sports section running from eight to twelve pages. Cultural attractions, too, have seen a boom in recent years. Impressive theaters, art galleries, and musical groups have sprung up throughout the metropolitan area. Much of this activity is taking place in the suburbs rather than downtown. Newspaper listings indicate that the Los Angeles area probably surpasses every other area except New York in the number and quality of cultural events.

Understanding the problems of library service in the Los Angeles metropolitan area is contingent upon some understanding of the dimensions and patterns of government. The patchy topography of mountain and flatland has not lent itself to orderly and neat arrangement of government services. From the point of view of many critics, local autonomy has gone mad in creating a hopeless jungle of governments characterized by gerrymandered boundaries and special-purpose cities. In Los Angeles County alone, the number of cities has gone from 45 to 76 in twelve years. Stanley Scott thus describes the situation that has resulted from California’s faulty incorporation legislation:

[87]
Many incorporation and annexation proposals appear to be decided by the lowest-common-denominator of criteria, i.e., "will our property taxes be any higher?" Often the more important criteria—the long-term quality of the community as a place to live, work and bring up children, and the stabilization or enhancement of property values—are largely ignored.

The conventional conception of a city as a balanced community, governed and served by a municipal corporation, has been modified considerably by areas attempting to cope with special problems and by interest groups trying to gain special advantage. Cities have been incorporated which have more cows than people, and for the purpose of protecting dairy farms against subdivision and higher levels of municipal taxation. One city's thoroughfares are privately owned, access to which is under guard. Another city consists primarily of cemeteries, has fewer than 300 (living) inhabitants, and derives most of its local revenue from burial fees.

Some cities are enclaves of extremely valuable industrial property, whose chief function is the avoidance of taxation and other public responsibilities. [Vernon and Industry are examples.] Other cities are enclaves of poverty, some having as little as one-third the state-wide average per capita assessed valuation of municipalities. One city has been described as being little more than "a strip of undeveloped land on either side of a railroad track.

A number of cities have chosen to maintain no governmental staff to speak of, but instead contract with the county for almost all municipal services [the Lakewood Plan].

The shape of the city of Los Angeles, core city of the metropolis, almost defies description. It is, very roughly-speaking, somewhat like a funnel whose one side has been mashed toward the left. It is spread out over 458 square miles, 217 of which (an area larger than the entire city of Chicago) are located in the San Fernando Valley, separated by mountains from the older, downtown, central part of the city. The Valley includes also the city of Burbank, the western part of the city of Glendale, and the city of San Fernando, a 2.3 square mile "island" entirely surrounded by the city of Los Angeles. Los Angeles also surrounds numerous other islands, including the city of Beverly Hills, unincorporated Universal City, federal territory, and a quantity of scraps, pieces, and strips of unincorporated urban areas of Los Angeles County. Los Angeles achieved its legally-required contiguous links to its harbor and airport only by annexing long strips of "Polish corridors." In some places these are only one block in width. The strip to the harbor is ten miles long. Attempting to create for this geographic
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absurdity a rational and economic pattern of public library service offers some special problems.

A considerable paradox exists in the attitude of the people of the Los Angeles metropolitan area toward their proliferating governments. While they seem to disregard boundaries in their daily lives, many are stridently insistent upon upholding the virtues of local autonomy. They are increasingly bitter about the rising property tax, and at the same time resistant toward consolidation, whether functional or complete, toward borough systems, toward “metro” government, and even toward library cooperation.

Nevertheless, students of government see some hope. Winston Crouch predicts “the gradual approach” toward some degree of coordination and integration:

1. Municipalities in the Los Angeles area will undoubtedly continue to annex, so long as adjacent, unincorporated areas are available. However, incorporation of cities is also likely to continue as urban communities develop.

2. Functional consolidation will continue to be used, especially when a city can free substantial portions of its budget for other assignment by transferring a function to the county.

3. Cities will make extensive use of intergovernmental contracts, but may be expected to choose from among an increasing number of contractors, including the county, larger cities, and private enterprises.

The metropolitan Los Angeles area is remarkably clean and free from graft, even from power politics. So far as efficiency is concerned, it is difficult to venture a value judgment. Over-heed to local autonomy is bound to take its toll in high taxes. The people of the area seem reasonably willing to lay out substantial amounts to assure the best governmental services and school systems they feel they can afford. Selection of civil servants is generally on the basis of ability and training rather than political considerations. California’s several excellent schools of public administration have produced a high caliber of professionally-trained practitioners of that difficult art.

It should not be a surprise to find that the public libraries which serve this complex array of local jurisdictions are equally uncoordinated. Despite California’s long-standing reputation for county-wide library service, nowhere in Southern California does any county have a county-wide library system to the exclusion of independent city li-
braries. Within recent years in fact, several cities have pulled out of existing county library systems to create their own libraries.

On the whole, most of the thirty-one libraries in Los Angeles County are well-supported and well-run. The competence, training, and experience of their administrators and staffs is generally of a high order. Although there may be no virtue in size alone, it is true that, as elsewhere in the country and as pointed out in the national standards, people living in the larger communities tend to have access to more specialized collections and services than those in the smaller communities. On the other hand, many of the smaller libraries, with budgets ranging from $5 to $10 or more per capita, do a really distinguished job in providing basic services and duplication of general materials, much better than the larger systems can do in view of their obligation to provide expensive, more specialized reference services.

For over thirty years the Public Library Executives Association has met to discuss professional and administrative matters of common interest. From this group have developed such cooperative activities as do exist. Possibly the most valuable product has been the establishment of a series of reciprocal library service agreements, whereby residents of one jurisdiction may use the libraries of adjoining areas without payment of fees by either individuals or governments. Among the thirty-one libraries in Los Angeles County, however, reciprocity is more conspicuous by its absence than its presence, and it would simply not be true to say that any really substantial inroads have been made on the problem of supplying a complete range of library services to all the people of the Los Angeles metropolitan area. Nonresident fees range from none to $10 annually. It is likely that complete removal of the present barriers will not take place until either state or federal funds compensate for the differences in levels of service and local financial support.

The Public Library of the city of Los Angeles is, relatively speaking, not as well supported as many of its smaller suburban neighbors, having a budget of only about $3 per capita. It is, nevertheless, one of the country's most complex and resourceful library systems. Its central library is large, long-established, and completely departmentalized by subject. Over half of its sixty-one branches have been built within the last twelve years. Since 1950 it has been developing a branch system on a regional pattern. Now seven regional libraries, housing from 60,000 to 90,000 volumes each, back up the book resources of their satellite community branches. The Library's total book collection is
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over 3,100,000 volumes, annual circulation exceeds 14,000,000, and information questions reach nearly 9,000,000 a year. The total budget is more than $8,000,000, and the staff numbers about 1,100.

The Los Angeles County Library is also one of the country’s giants. It does not maintain a central library, but gives service exclusively through a system of ninety-one branches, including eight regional libraries, plus eight bookmobiles. In the fifty communities which it serves, it circulates more than 10,000,000 books annually. Book stock is over 2,225,000 volumes, and the operating budget exceeds $6,100,000; staff numbers about 650. The other public libraries of the county range in size from Long Beach, with almost a half-million volumes, down to Vernon with 1,500.

There are many colleges and universities in the area. Massive increases in enrollments have brought these institutions many problems, not least of which is the provision of library service. The most impressive collections are in the two large universities. The University of Southern California, a privately supported institution with more than 15,000 students, has a long-established library of over a million volumes. The University of California at Los Angeles, with over 20,000 students, has recently opened a new graduate library building. Its total library holdings are now over two million volumes, and its goal is three million by 1970. This substantial collection has been built up within a relatively few years and reflects the determination of the Regents that UCLA should achieve the size and richness of the libraries on the Berkeley campus, and other giants in the east.

The state colleges in the area have a long way to go to achieve adequacy. One, with almost 20,000 students, has a library still under 200,000 volumes. None of the private colleges exceed 200,000 volumes, with the exception of the libraries of the Associated Colleges at Claremont which have more than 400,000. The service loads and demands placed upon the libraries of the universities and colleges of the Los Angeles metropolis call for dramatic upbuilding of their collections.

The librarians of UCLA, feeling a special obligation because they are a state-supported institution, have long attempted to make their distinctive collections available on as generous a basis as possible. However, as library problems have been compounded by the sheer number of students, the University has been reluctantly obliged to place some restrictions on the free use of the library by other than its own student body. The University of Southern California, too, must restrict borrowing privileges to those with proper credentials. Both of
these major universities will continue to face increasing problems of larger enrollments and the mighty task of trying to keep up with the product of the knowledge explosion.

As elsewhere throughout the country, public libraries in the Los Angeles area have been struggling to solve the problems raised by the veritable revolution in education which has brought the student out of the classroom and into the library—any library he can get to. High school libraries in the area are largely inadequate to meet the situation; most junior college libraries are even worse off; and elementary school libraries are almost non-existent except in Long Beach, which has a well-developed system. There is no point in laboring the subject further here; most school libraries are below current standards.

The area now has a substantial number of special libraries, many developed during the past twenty years. Some are quite limited, but others have many thousands of volumes and highly qualified staffs. Access to the area’s two major scholarly libraries, the Henry E. Huntington Library & Art Gallery in San Marino and the William Andrews Clark Memorial Library at the University of California at Los Angeles, is limited to qualified researchers, as would be expected.

The 1950’s were a period of great soul-searching on the part of California librarians, to develop standards for public library service, to formulate plans for cooperation among libraries, and to seek ways of improving their financing through participation in the state’s broader tax resources. Co-leaders in this effort were the California Library Association and the California State Library. Among the publications emerging from these activities were: (1) Public Library Service Standards for California in 1953, (2) the report on an over all survey of California public libraries financed by state funds in 1958, and (3) Master Plan for Public Libraries in California in 1962. In 1963, following two unsuccessful attempts, the California Library Association succeeded in getting a state aid bill, the Public Library Development Act, (Stats. 1963, Chapter 1802, p. 3630, §1) through the Legislature. Although the amount of funds made available for the program’s first year of operation was only $850,000, the priority given to planning grants has resulted in a healthy ferment of cooperative study among librarians in many parts of the state.

In Southern California, as soon as state aid became a reality, the Public Library Executives Association explored ways to achieve a cooperative approach toward an over all pattern for metropolitan library improvement. A quick survey was made as a guide to the logical group-
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ing of libraries for grants, and applications were made accordingly. A total of seven state-supported planning grants were awarded to libraries in the Greater Los Angeles area. The largest of these, $40,000, was made to the Los Angeles Public Library on behalf of itself and nineteen other libraries for a survey completed in June 1965 (but not yet published). Directed by Martha Boaz, Lowell Martin, and Henry Reining, the survey explored the feasibility of establishing a cooperative library system or systems which would include the public libraries and other libraries of Los Angeles, Orange, Riverside, and San Bernardino Counties. It recommended the organization and services which will make modern library resources fully available to all the citizens of the area. Its recommendations relate the regional program to state-wide plans.

Southern California library hopes are high that from this survey and the more localized planning studies now in progress, as well as from Lowell Martin's current state-wide survey (federally financed), will emerge a complete and sensible program for library service to its vast metropolitan area. The goal is to provide a network that will give every citizen convenient access to the fullest possible range of book resources. Few librarians have any idea that such a goal can be reached without extensive reliance upon state and federal funds to subsidize services which have more than local use, particularly those levels which have wide-regional application. To fill the most highly specialized needs of all, public librarians look forward to the day when the holdings of the area's great university libraries will provide research facilities really equal to those of other major universities.

Another area of library interest only beginning to be explored may also prove to have far-reaching implications for library development in metropolitan Los Angeles. This is the application of automatic data processing to library operations. At the present time the Los Angeles Public Library has under way an extensive study of an integrated systems design for automation of many of its technical services, including book ordering, maintenance of serial files, registration and circulation procedures, and some aspects of catalog processing which could involve such work as establishing a Branch Union List, central and branch inventory data processing, in-process location and control, book check and book pocket preparation, and label preparation and spine marking.

Whatever may happen in library development in the Greater Los Angeles area, the situation is not likely to stagnate.
HAROLD L. HAMILL

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ADDITIONAL REFERENCES


Public Libraries in the New York Metropolitan Area

JEAN O. GODFREY

New York is unique among American cities in that the five boroughs which comprise the city proper are served by three distinct and separate library systems: the Brooklyn Public Library, The New York Public Library (serving the boroughs of Manhattan, the Bronx, and Richmond), and the Queens Borough Public Library. Furthermore, these libraries are not an integral part of the city government organizational structure, but rather are quasi-public institutions which provide library service by contract. All three library systems were founded in their present corporate form by special acts of the New York State Legislature between 1895 and 1907, and each operates under its own charter, its own board of trustees, and its own director. To complicate the picture further, the New York Public Library is subdivided into two parts and of these only the Circulation Department, or branch library system, is supported by public funds. The Reference Department, dedicated to scholarly research and located in the 5th Avenue and 42nd Street building behind the famous lions, is supported almost wholly by private funds derived from endowments and gifts to the New York Public Library, Astor, Tilden, and Lenox Foundations. The Brooklyn Public Library, the Queens Borough Public Library, and the Circulation Department of the New York Public Library are dependent on city tax levy funds and certain funds from the state of New York to finance their operating expenses. They depend on capital budget funds from the city to maintain their building programs.

The organizational distinctions between the three library systems are little known or understood by the public they serve, for the libraries follow similar service patterns, have shared aims, and mutual problems. Their staffs work under a common classification scheme and a

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common salary plan. Together they have 2,226,687 registered borrowers, and circulate 32,085,084 volumes annually from a total of 7,786,505 volumes in 187 branches and nine bookmobiles.\(^1\) In 1963/64 they received a total of $22,492,038 in public funds, $18,756,579 from the city, and $3,735,459 from the state of New York.\(^2\) In this same fiscal period, the Reference Department of the New York Public Library operated on a private funds budget of $4,995,292 supplemented by a special grant of $671,588 from the state, and by a contribution from the city of $396,855 towards the maintenance of the central building.

In 1898 an Act of Consolidation united the city of Brooklyn, the city of New York including Bronx County, Long Island City and parts of Nassau County, and the county of Richmond, and thus established the limits of the 319.8 square miles which constitute New York City as it is today. The population of the city more than doubled from 1900 to 1930, and in 1950 reached a peak close to eight million people. Much of this growth was attributable in the early years to transatlantic migration. In 1910, 80 per cent of the city's population was foreign born or of foreign parentage\(^3\) and was concentrated in Manhattan and Brooklyn. With growing financial prosperity and a continuing process of Americanization, families over a period of years moved outward from the heart of the city in ever widening circles, seeking less crowded housing and the general amenities which come with more living space. Gradually, the other three boroughs were filled, and in the period immediately following World War II, the rural counties beyond the city limits mushroomed into suburbs of relatively high population density.

Between 1950 and 1960 this pace quickened, and 900,000 of the predominantly white middle class left the city for the suburbs and were replaced by 800,000 underprivileged newcomers, primarily Negroes from the southern states and Puerto Ricans.\(^4\) Like earlier immigrants they settled for the most part in Brooklyn and Manhattan, and are beginning now to fan outward as they gain an economic and social foothold in the life of the area. In marked contrast to their predecessors, the new group were United States citizens when they arrived in New York, although many speak no English, and others are illiterate or nearly so. These families are largely in the low income group and have had problems of ill health, poor housing, and unemployment. They are unaccustomed to seek either help or recreation in the resources of the public library. On the other hand, the exurbanites they replaced have carried with them to the suburbs the ingrained reading and study habits which they developed in the relatively well-
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stocked and professionally-staffed metropolitan libraries. They expect and demand similar services in the new community.

To meet these demands for library service, individual local libraries in the suburban counties have joined together into voluntary "systems." Under this plan it has been possible for each local library to retain its autonomy and yet benefit from the economies of centralized acquisition and technical processing. In addition, the libraries are able to draw upon the professional guidance of specialists attached to the system's headquarter staff and to augment local book stocks with loans from a strong central book reserve.

The inevitable changes which came with shifting populations have brought financial problems to the city and to the suburbs alike. Within the city, the proportion of children under working age and of old people is on the increase with a smaller wage earning group to support them. In the suburbs young families predominate, and these areas find it difficult to increase local tax rates sufficiently to keep abreast of the ever-growing demands for more schools, increased library facilities, and other public services.

Each year it becomes more difficult to draw sharp lines of demarcation between the city and the surrounding suburban and rural areas. Exact geographical boundaries and areas of governmental jurisdiction are well-established, but growing federal and state financial aid and a population which becomes increasingly mobile make boundaries no longer as sharply defined nor as mutually exclusive as they once were. Furthermore, the social, cultural, and economic life of the city and that of its surrounding suburbs are so interrelated and so interdependent that it is hard to say where one area starts and another stops, or who is a New Yorker and who is not. In this continuing pattern of migration and change lie many of the problems which libraries of both the city and the suburbs must face and solve. No discussion of current library trends in the New York area can minimize the importance of these three predominant factors: migration, changes within the population, and the problems of increased need for financial support.

Librarians in the New York area recognize that they must adjust their sights to meet a span of public use that no longer has a great middle block of average readers. They must attract, serve, and encourage the very limited reader as well as the reader in need of increasingly complex reference and research materials. They have become painfully aware of the illiteracy in their midst, of the school drop outs, and of technological advances which continue to eliminate the
need for unskilled labor and conversely increase the need for the skilled worker. Schools within the last few years are placing increased emphasis on reading, and are making "independent research" a teaching tool used from the lowest elementary grades through college. Librarians and teachers recognize their professional obligation to encourage the skill of reading. They realize that they cannot subscribe to the American complacency that everyone today in the northeast, at least, is literate.

The traditional book collection is no longer adequate but must be extended. At one end of the scale its reference tools must be strengthened and increased, while circulating materials in the non-fiction categories, especially in the sciences, must be greatly broadened, increased, and kept current. At the other extreme, materials for readers with limited skill must be supplied. Such materials for adults and young adults alike have been extremely difficult to find and only in the past year have begun to be available to any satisfactory degree. These books must have a mature, practical approach in terms of the user's cultural understanding and scale of values. They must not only match the attractive packaging and merchandising of competitive wares but also hold out the promise of economic and social betterment to those who make the effort to conquer the skill of reading.

The New York City Board of Education has recognized its long-standing need for curriculum-oriented libraries in elementary schools and has pressed its cause for budget increases to make these facilities available. In the last three years, under this accelerated program, it has added 525 librarian positions to its elementary school staff. In spite of this, public libraries with their longer hours of service continue to be crowded with students preparing school assignments. Representatives of the school libraries and of the public libraries have held joint meetings to discuss their relationship to each other and to review the responsibilities of each to the student. They recognize that in the competition for public funds each type of library has a reason for being, but each must justify the careful expenditure of its budget and its energies.

As a balance for the increased number of the functionally illiterate is the tremendous increase in the number of students attending colleges and universities. In New York City alone, an estimated 245,545 students attend thirty-three public and private institutions of higher learning. Many of these students attend classes on a part-time basis earning their education in and around the hours devoted to earning a
living. They commute with frantic earnestness from home, to job, to class. The leisurely academic tempo within hallowed ivy-covered halls is not for them. They have no long hours to spend in the college library, even if it were large enough to accommodate them all. They pressure public libraries near their home or job, just as do their younger brothers and sisters, to supply the books and the bibliographical tools they require; and students today require a great deal more and in greater depth than did their counterparts of twenty-five years ago.

Several comprehensive studies within the last few years have been devoted to an assessment of this ever-growing need for increased reference collections and service on the college level. Most notable are two by the Nelson Associates, Prospects for Library Cooperation in New York City7 and Brooklyn, a Center of Learning,8 and Rice Estes' survey of Brooklyn libraries, A Study of Seven Academic Libraries and their Cooperative Potential.9 It is disappointing that recommendations and proposals to aid and increase library resources and information services of an advanced nature have not been successful in passing the state legislature. However, the need is great and continuing public interest encourages optimism for the future of this cause.

The New York Public Library, alarmed at the inroads made by students at the expense of all other users on the tremendous and irreplaceable collections of its Reference Department, has found it necessary to discourage undergraduate student use of its research facilities. In 1961 it purchased, with private funds, a large commercial building across from its central building on Fifth Avenue, and plans to open within the next two years a subject library of both reference and circulating materials. The collection will have approximately 500,000 volumes selected particularly with the needs of the undergraduate student in mind. The city of New York has agreed to support the operating costs of this unique branch library. This venture represents one library's constructive effort to meet student pressure by a cooperative plan of private and public financing.

Libraries, whether in the suburbs or in the city, have increased tremendously the dollar total of their budgets in order to meet the rising costs of books, services, and maintenance. Library endowments, where they exist, and local tax monies are no longer sufficient to meet pyramidizing costs. More and more frequently, harassed officials look toward state and federal sources for financial relief. For the past twenty years in New York State, there has been concerted effort by librarians, trustees, and government and education officials to establish some in-
increased form of financial help to libraries in order that the people of this state may have access to more and better library services. It was a difficult uphill effort, but in 1958 the Education Law was amended to provide a greatly increased base for state aid to libraries. Sufficient funds were not immediately provided under the revised law, but in 1960 the legislature voted the necessary appropriation which made full implementation a reality.

The most important concepts of the 1958 act (Laws of New York, 1958, pp. 2074-2084) are: reaffirmation of the systems concept of library cooperation, a commitment to the multi-county concept where populations are limited, the obligation of local initiative and responsibility, a recognition of the important value of strong central libraries, the encouragement and practice of interlibrary loans, and a liberalized state aid formula providing an annual grant of a 30¢ per capita minimum increasing to a maximum of 50¢, and matching to that level expenditures by system libraries for library materials.

It goes without saying that the impact of increased state aid was almost beyond belief. In the New York City area alone, public response was overwhelming. The Nassau, Suffolk, Westchester, and Ramapo Catskill Library Systems were established and the operating budgets of the three public library systems within New York City were increased appreciably. Interest continues in seeking ways to improve on the gains achieved under state aid. A study of the library systems in New York State is being conducted by the Research Division of the State Education Department in order to determine what achievements public libraries have made since 1958 and what factors were vital to, or served to deter, this progress.

Passage of the Amendment in 1964 to the Federal Library Services and Construction Act of 1962 (P.L. 88-269, USC Title 20 §§ 351-358) offered further proof of public interest in libraries and of continuing recognition by the government of the value of library services to the general welfare. This act has broader implications for libraries in the New York urban area than did earlier federal aid legislation which was intended primarily to extend library service to hitherto unserved rural areas. With financial grants under the terms of this act, libraries in and around New York City expect to concentrate studies and programs on various types of service to the disadvantaged citizen; to carry forward present interest in the application of data processing equipment to library procedures in order to save staff, to effect economies, and to give quicker, more accurate service; to continue to study
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the relation of school libraries and public libraries; and to be compensated in part for the construction of some new buildings.

Library systems in the New York metropolitan area have high hopes for the years ahead. They do not profess to have all the answers to the problems they face, but they have reassessed their goals and are moving toward them in a cooperative effort with more united interest and with the expectation of broader financial support than was possible in the past. It is a period of birth and rebirth, of critical self-study, and of analysis of their standards, techniques, and procedures. No one has any doubt that the public libraries of 1975 will be very different from those of today, but it is expected that they will combine the advantages of new methods and new materials with the traditional ideals of public service.

References

Public Libraries of Greater London

FRANK M. GARDNER

AND

WILLIAM A. TAYLOR

To most citizens, any city means a place or a unit which is distinguished from other cities and from its surrounding area by a name. To one associated with city government, the city is often not a unit at all, but a cluster of units which are haphazardly assembled and associated mainly by contiguity and the exigencies of transport and distinguished from its surrounding area only by a gradual shading downwards of population density. The larger the city, the more likely this is to be true. The point is well expressed by Harold Hamill:

Let us imagine that we are high in a jet plane flying over any one of our metropolitan areas . . . below us . . . lies a vast and beautiful city. . . . At least it seems to be one vast city. . . . We know the spectacular falseness of this picture of unity. We know that we are looking down not on one, or even only five or ten governmental units, but many scores.¹

It is natural, if annoying, that this should be so. The city is not a cell growing outwards; it is an accretion of cells, each of them growing around a nucleus. As the city grows, it engulfs already existing communities, which in their turn tend to grow outward, and at the same time try to retain their identity as units. It has never proved possible to forecast a city’s rate of growth or its eventual boundaries. Even the “planned” cities of the twentieth century have shown this. Delhi, for example, trebled its population from 600,000 to nearly two million in less than ten years after 1945.

Alongside this constant and chaotic growth, there is a struggle by

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government agencies to control, integrate, and reorganize. Hamill again well summarized the situation:

Citizen commissions, university bureaus of government, research organizations, regional planners—all have been hard at work to devise new patterns of organization which may begin to control the monster we know as the metropolis. But these efforts continue to meet frustration as average citizens, and all too often their officials, go about their day-to-day business, bitterly complaining about high taxes with inadequate public service, doggedly clinging to a blind trust in the glories of local government, unaware and unwilling to be told that there is a logical and direct relationship between governmental organization and governmental achievement.2

The public library services are small in the general context of local government, but being peculiarly local, they probably suffer as much or more than other services, particularly in a country where there is a central government with overriding powers over local government. In Great Britain, for instance, the central government has clearly defined powers in respect to education, public health, police, fire services, public utilities, and transport. It has used those powers very effectively in imposing standards and reducing the number of authorities with responsibility for them. Electricity and gas supply have been reorganized on a national basis, many authorities have lost their educational and public health responsibilities, and only the larger authorities are now responsible for police and fire prevention.

In fact, a quiet but none the less effective revolution has been going on in local government in Great Britain since 1945, and it is only now beginning to be possible to judge it in perspective, and realize how ruthlessly it has been carried out. In such a situation, public libraries have a low priority. But unexpectedly, reform has begun, and London, in particular, is affected by two important pieces of legislation.

In April 1965, the new Public Libraries Act came into operation and placed public libraries under the general control of the Ministry of Education and Science.3 The Act gave that Ministry sweeping powers to impose standards. It gave the Ministry the power to abolish library authorities below 40,000 population, and it states for the first time, in the 110 years of public library service in Great Britain, that local authorities have a statutory duty to provide an efficient library service. At the same time, the new London Government Act has come into full operation.4 This cuts completely through the accretion of local government areas, and creates a new Greater London.
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These two Acts of Parliament, one specifically relating to public libraries, the other radically changing the local government of one of the world's largest metropolitan areas, completely change the picture of the public library services of London. Taken together, they may well constitute a revolution. Nor is that the whole story. Among the powers given to the Ministry of Education and Science under the new Public Libraries Act, is the power to create Regional Councils, composed of representatives of local authorities, for cooperation between libraries—cooperation which, under the terms of the Act, need not be confined to public libraries.

Historical Developments

Before examining the nature and possibilities of these radical changes in local government structure and public library responsibilities, it is necessary to look closely at the past, and at the complex nature of local government in London, which has greatly affected the development of its public libraries. The pattern of public library provision in many conurbations is that of a very large public library system at the center of the original or enlarged city, surrounded by a number of smaller systems, serving urban populations, and finally semi-rural systems. This is not, and never has been, the situation in London.

When the first Public Libraries Act was passed in 1850, metropolitan London was divided into sixty-seven parishes, each of which could adopt the Act and start a public library service. Very few did so. The first was a parish in Westminster in 1856, and it was twenty-five years before any other parish followed this example. London was behind the rest of the country. One can only conjecture that the parishes were too small to think of themselves as effective library units, and this view is reinforced by the fact that when London government was reformed in 1900, amalgamating the sixty-seven parishes into twenty-nine areas, of which twenty-eight were called metropolitan boroughs and one was the city of London, adoption was rapid, and by 1920 all the metropolitan boroughs had public libraries. The city of London was unique in that it provided only a reference library.

From 1900 to 1965, therefore, these twenty-eight boroughs and the city of London have been the basis for public library service in central London. No one could say that they are ideal areas either for library or any other local government purposes. They varied greatly in size, population, and taxable value. Some of the poorer East End boroughs, such as Stepney, Poplar, and Bethnal Green, had populations of under...
Public Libraries of Greater London

100,000; others in the central area had even smaller resident populations but were very wealthy indeed. The city of London, probably one of the richest square miles in the world, had a resident population of less than 5,000, while Holborn, another immensely wealthy borough, had a resident population of only 21,000. Outside the central area were the favored residential districts of Hampstead and Chelsea, and the semi-suburban boroughs such as Wandsworth and Hammersmith. Wandsworth, the largest of the metropolitan boroughs at the time of the London Government Act, had a population of nearly 350,000.

It did not necessarily follow, however, that the boroughs best financially able to provide public library service were the most eager to do so. The East End boroughs made great efforts to provide public libraries for their working-class populations, while the wealthier Central and West End boroughs neglected their opportunities. Possibly the central areas took the view that their resident populations were small, and their daytime populations could use the facilities in their home suburbs. The boroughs in the West End, such as Marylebone (the last of the London boroughs to adopt the Libraries Acts), probably assumed that the majority of their residents preferred to use other facilities, such as subscription libraries, for their reading.

In view of the enormous differences in political control, financial viability, and population, and lacking any central direction, the surprising thing is that from about 1930 onwards there was a gradual leveling of the standard of service provided, so much so that in 1949, J. D. Stewart could say: “The position, therefore, is that while London lacks the superlative central municipal library service given in a few comparable areas, the level of the service given over the whole area, and especially in those parts at a distance from the centre, is very much higher in London than it is anywhere else.”

Stewart gave some figures of the position as it then was. The population of metropolitan London was about 3,200,000. There were 124 public library buildings with a stock of about 4,000,000 volumes. Total issue of books was about 25 million annually, with a total expenditure of £672,416.

Stewart’s words may be taken as a piece of special pleading, since it is obvious that the fragmentation of central London into a number of independent authorities was not the perfect method of providing a public library service. But it is nevertheless true, and most public librarians in England would agree, that in the last thirty years, enormous progress has been made in London, and the London bor-
oughs have led the country in expenditure per head of population, in experiments with new techniques and elimination of routines, and in close and fruitful cooperation with each other to eliminate the problems of local government boundaries.

Steps in Library Cooperation

This has been achieved by using statutory opportunities to the full, and by sinking local prejudices for the benefit of the whole. The history of cooperation between the London boroughs shows how an unpromising situation can be transformed with a sensible approach. In 1929, the London Union Catalogue was started, with the assistance of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust (CUKT). This was a union catalog of the holdings of all the metropolitan libraries, freely available for loan or consultation. In 1934, the CUKT withdrew, and it became necessary to transfer the financial responsibility to the constituent libraries. The obvious body to take general control was an organization known as the Standing Joint Committee of Metropolitan Boroughs, which had a semi-statutory function. To take over the responsibility the Standing Joint Committee created a Libraries Committee and an Advisory Body of Librarians, and this in turn was elected by another informal organization, the Association of Metropolitan Chief Librarians, from its own members. The Advisory Body, existing between the Association and the Standing Joint Committee, and with the specific job of maintaining the London Union Catalogue, found itself in a strong position to make suitable recommendations for further cooperation, and it has taken full advantage of this.

The first step was inter-availability of tickets, whereby any library user in the metropolitan area could use any library in the system. Over half-a-million people now avail themselves of this. The growing use of interlibrary loans through the London Union Catalogue drew attention to the problem of retention of older books and the need for insuring that at least one copy of every new book was purchased. The first step was the creation of a joint fiction reserve, to insure that somewhere in the metropolitan area copies of all fiction likely to be required by the student of literature would always be available. The next move was the introduction of subject specialization. Under this, each authority agreed to make additional financial provision for special collections, and to maintain them. The whole field of knowledge is now covered in this way, although only British books are at present required pur-
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chases. Other matters, such as uniformity of opening hours, and standardization of rules and regulations, have also been established.

The special collections now number nearly 400,000 books; the fiction reserve has 85,000. A playset collection has been jointly built up comprising nearly 3,000 sets. Another cooperative scheme has developed collections of fiction in most foreign languages, available to the polyglot population of London. Nearly 30,000 books are loaned through the London Union Catalogue.

Although the libraries of metropolitan London are far from being an integrated service, it will be seen that a good deal has been achieved. It must be emphasized that the avenue for cooperation that has been used was the only one available. The combination of voluntary effort supported by a semi-statutory body with no powers beyond those of persuasion is unusual. It is also a fact that the Advisory Body of Librarians, created almost by chance through the needs of the London Union Catalogue, has had a unique opportunity. Not all local government officers have such an organization and similar access to the Standing Committee. It is true that there is an over-all statutory organization for the area in the London County Council, but this has no function for libraries. As the Educational Authority for London, however, it has provided school libraries. The service provided in schools has been good, but it is unfortunate that there has been no avenue of cooperation except at a very local level.

All the metropolitan boroughs provide reference libraries according to the needs of their areas. The central areas (Holborn, Westminster, and the city of London) provide services for their daytime populations, both in commercial, technical, and general collections. But singly, they do not have the resources one expects in a metropolis. It is true that there are a great many non-public libraries in central London which to some extent make up the deficiency. Some of these, such as the British Museum Library, the Science Library in South Kensington, and the Patent Office Library, are world famous, but access to these libraries is usually limited to the advanced scholar or research worker, and opening hours are restricted. There is a need for larger reference libraries than can at present be provided by boroughs individually, and a plan has been drawn for the provision of seven large reference libraries situated at suitable points. So far, no progress has been made on this plan, except that, by agreement, some of the libraries concerned have begun to build their collections.
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Libraries Outside Metropolitan London

So much for the metropolitan area. But this is an area containing only about three and a half million people, out of the nine million comprising what is loosely known as Greater London. Greater London is usually defined as the area within fifteen miles' radius of Charing Cross, and from a local government point of view it was chaotic, containing parts of six counties, over forty boroughs or county boroughs, and twenty-three urban districts. Not all of these are library authorities, since under the Act of 1919, county councils assumed library powers for those areas within their boundaries not already library authorities. Many urban areas have developed since then, but have been content to leave library provision to the counties. This has resulted in some odd situations, but has enabled library development to be planned more effectively than would have been the case if all independent authorities had started their own library services. The county of Middlesex, for instance, has become almost entirely urban, and has built a public library service for over 600,000 people, nearly three-quarters of the population of the county.

Cooperation between libraries in such a situation has been extremely difficult. There is no general common agency, however limited in powers, such as there is in central London. In fact, for purposes of cooperation, the area has been from the 1920's part of the South Eastern Regional Library Bureau. This system covers some ninety library authorities of southeastern England, and its interlending system facilitates the loan of nearly 100,000 volumes a year. It has developed along similar lines to the London Union Catalogue, with a subject specialization scheme which insures that at least one copy of every book published in Great Britain is purchased and retained.

Although the two systems are separate—they have their headquarters in the National Central Library—the two catalogs are side by side, and naturally there is very close cooperation between them and with the National Central Library. For various reasons, however, the two systems have not yet been integrated. The overriding reason is that the London Union Catalogue and the special collections schemes of the metropolitan boroughs are available to any reader for the cost of a bus fare. It is possible for the user of one library to inspect personally the special collection in which he is interested at another library; it is not so possible, for instance, for a reader at Brighton to see a special collection at Luton. The South-Eastern System therefore has to depend entirely on postal loan. Another reason is that the Advisory Body has
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a semi-statutory standing, and a unity which, however precarious, is not easily sacrificed. The Executive Committee of the South-Eastern Region has not. It is a voluntary organization raising its funds by levy on the constituent authorities, but it has no powers beyond those of cooperative access to bookstocks. It cannot, for instance, advise on, much less enforce, any proposals for the inter-availability of tickets.

The picture, then, of the London public libraries up to the present time is one of a great number of rather small library authorities, spending on their libraries at a rather higher level than the country as a whole, but very uneven in population and financial power. A dual pattern of cooperation has been superimposed, largely on a voluntary basis. A great deal has been achieved by this, but the inherent defects of such a conglomeration of authorities cannot be eliminated in this way. Some of the more urgent problems are caused by what might be called accidental defects. Since the Central London boroughs are not educational authorities, there is a divorce from formal education, and since the cooperative organization for both central London and the South-East Region is entirely a public library organization, there is a divorce from the academic libraries, and no common ground for discussion of joint problems.

Changes in Education in England

This has caused increasing difficulties in view of the recent changes in the kind of demand the public libraries are experiencing. One of the most important phenomena in the field of English education in recent years has been the tremendous increase in the number of young people proceeding from grammar, or secondary schools, to various forms of higher education: universities, technical colleges, and teachers' training colleges. It is a development which is continuing, even accelerating, and London libraries are feeling the impact of it on stock and on accommodation.

The effect on book stocks makes itself felt in the tremendous growth in the demand for standard university textbooks. University libraries are quite unable to meet the simultaneous demand from large numbers of students for books recommended by tutors, and this demand is therefore transferred to public libraries. The normal loan period is insufficient for the student who wants to keep the book for a whole term, or longer. With other students clamoring for all available copies, the public library cannot allow repeated renewals; and the inevitable result is that many textbooks are "borrowed" from the library without
the formality of the charging process. Some of these books reappear on the shelves after lengthy absences, but many do not, and the continual replacement of missing textbooks is becoming a problem.

One London library, Finsbury, has attempted to meet this demand for textbooks in a systematic manner. Recommended textbooks are duplicated heavily and issued to local students for indefinite periods. If a request from a student cannot be met, another copy of the book is specially purchased. But other London librarians feel that the supply of textbooks, on this scale, is primarily the responsibility of the universities, and that it should not properly be considered a charge upon the local ratepayer who finances the public library. There is also a widespread feeling that students do not buy as many books as they should and that they rely too much on borrowing from libraries. Nevertheless, what is popularly called the education "explosion" could become a damp squib if students are unable to get access to the books which are essential, and London librarians, both public and university, will have to come to grips with this problem.

The other factor associated with the increase in the student population is the overwhelming pressure on accommodation in public reference libraries. Once again, the university libraries are unable to meet the demand for working space for thousands of students, who therefore overflow into the public libraries. Thus it is customary for London's public reference libraries to be filled to capacity all day by students, many of whom are not using the books in the reference library but are merely using the accommodation for studying. Public librarians in London are concerned that the ordinary users of the reference library, those who wish to consult yearbooks, directories, encyclopedias, etc., are unable to find seats, and that the reference library is thereby unable to fulfil its primary function. Here again, it is felt by many librarians that the problem of working space for students is principally one for the universities, and that the difficulties are exacerbated by the fact that many academic libraries are closed in the evening and for long vacation periods. It is a problem which is growing larger and one which can only be solved by joint action.

Lower in the educational scale similar improvements are being made in the realms of secondary education. London is developing a new type of "comprehensive" school, in which the three distinct types of secondary education—grammar, technical, and general—are grouped under one roof instead of being in separate schools as formerly. These trends in secondary education result in more young people remaining
in school beyond the minimum school leaving age of fifteen years and taking the General Certificate of Education. Librarians, of course, welcome this trend which brings about an increase in purposive reading. These new schools, and some of the older ones, are expanding and improving their school libraries and employing qualified librarians, on a full or part-time basis. Public librarians do not regard this development as a form of competition, since they believe that children in their formative years cannot have too many books around them. But librarians in London, where at the moment the boroughs are not responsible for schools, also realize that much closer cooperation between school libraries and public libraries will be essential if duplication of effort is to be avoided.

At this level of education, also, there is a growing demand for accommodation in the public libraries for study purposes. Modern houses and flats usually have but one general living room; and if this is dominated, as is often the case, by television, then a child who has studying to do is forced to look outside the home for the necessary peace and quiet. Perceptive librarians are encouraging these students to turn to the public library for the solution to their difficulty, and newly built children's libraries are being equipped with reference rooms where children can do their homework, with immediate access to a good collection of reference books. This may appear to be inconsistent with the attitude adopted towards university students, but in the case of the younger children the numbers are of manageable proportions and the time they spend in the library is usually very much less. Furthermore, this is all part of the fundamental process of fostering in children the habit of using books, and an awareness of their value.

Closely allied to the question of education is the problem of the increasing leisure which derives from the development of automation and the consequent reduction of the working week. Librarians will have to give a great deal of thought in the near future to the ways in which public libraries can encourage people to make intelligent use of their leisure hours. There is talk of using television to create a "university of the air," and although very few libraries at present make any use of television programs they will obviously need to cooperate with any development of this kind.

It is, of course, generally true that it is educated people who tend to make heavy use of public libraries, and this was underlined in a recent survey of seven typical London libraries. The survey showed, by sampling methods, that 54 per cent of the people were or had been
public library members (i.e., registered borrowers), and 30 per cent were still members. These figures agree very closely with those of other surveys. The figure of 30 per cent membership is further increased by an estimate arrived at in the course of the survey, that some 15 per cent of the public are reading library books borrowed by other members of the family or by friends. This total figure of about 45 per cent of the population of central London using public libraries, without all of them appearing in registration figures, is much higher than the usual estimates of public library usage for Great Britain. As is shown in the details of the survey, library membership can be correlated strikingly with length of education. For instance, 35 per cent of members had formal education up to age 17 or over, as against only 14 per cent of the non-members. It is, of course, as the report observes, "the minorities, the exceptional people, who are challenging, the well-educated person who never sets foot in a library, the poorly educated one who is a regular reader."9 But generally, one may expect that as educational facilities improve, so will use of public libraries increase.

Creation of Greater London

Will the public libraries of one of the world's largest conurbations be equipped in the future to meet these demands likely to be made on them? The signs are that they will, that the radical reforms needed are on the way. In 1960, the Royal Commission on Local Government in Greater London reported, after collecting evidence from many organizations, among them the Library Association.10 The memorandum submitted by the Association bears some evidence of divided opinions, but its most important recommendations were that Library Authorities should be encouraged to develop collectively the system of special collections and extended reference services, and that if amalgamation of authorities was decided on, a convenient size for such amalgamations from a library point of view would be areas containing a population of around 250,000.

It is interesting to note that under the resulting London Government Act, which came into force in April 1965, the new Greater London area consists of thirty-two "all purpose" authorities, with populations from 200,000 to over 350,000. The changes were indeed radical. The difference between Inner and Outer London was eliminated. The London County Council disappeared, to be replaced by a Greater London Council for the whole area. The county of Middlesex also disappeared, and such ancient boroughs as Chelsea, St. Marylebone, and
Hampstead lost their identity. As must happen in any radical reform, there has been some bitterness and not a little confusion, as senior officials have been demoted, and long cherished plans have been scrapped. But it cannot be denied that this is a sensible and reasonable plan for local government. It may have been long overdue, but nevertheless it took courage for the Government of the day to push it through in the face of outraged local pride.

From a library point of view, not only is it a matter of some gratification that the proposal of the Library Association should have come to pass, but there are other advantages apart from the new cohesion of Greater London. The new authorities are all-purpose authorities, which will make cooperation with education easier, and it is expected that will continue the Advisory Body of Librarians for the much larger area.

The implementation of the new Public Libraries Act will also have effects apart from improving the general standards of service. It has been indicated that the London Union Catalogue and the South-Eastern Regional Bureau should amalgamate, and discussions have already started between the two organizations with this end in view. Under the Act, there is provision also for the inclusion of non-public libraries.

For the London public libraries, then, a new era is about to begin. They have been reorganized into financially viable, large population, all-purpose authority groups; there will be a single cooperative Bureau for the whole of the South-East England, and there will be a new coordinating authority for London in the Greater London Council. By their own efforts, the London boroughs have already overcome many of their difficulties, and the administrative foundations which have been laid down can now be built on.

The library requirements of the future which are already apparent should not be too difficult to solve. Central London is already self-supporting in British books, and the twenty-eight special collections are a major contribution to London’s bibliographical resources. A start has been made on increasing the representation of foreign books, and an extension of cooperative acquisition here should not be too difficult. With the very much larger area in one cooperative scheme, there will be increased anxiety about the speed of obtaining a book through the use of the union catalog. Experiments have been made in the use of Teletype, and it will also be necessary to examine possible mechanical alternatives to enlarge the union catalog. A preliminary study on computerization has already been made.
There are also obvious possibilities of an early solution of the major deficiency of the London public library system—the need for three or four major public reference libraries, open six or seven days a week for twelve hours a day. The new borough of Camden, for example, comprising St. Pancras, Holborn, and Hampstead, has two new central libraries in existence and one in the planning stage. One of these could will become the major reference library for north London. The new city of Westminster, including Westminster, Paddington, and St. Marylebone, has the potential for developing another major reference library.

The general reader in London is already well-served; he will have better service in the future. Bookstocks can be expected to improve and service points to increase in number and convenience. The specialist user may have to travel a little further than his nearest service point, but there is no reason why, in the near future, he should not be able to get a service as good as that provided in the great central libraries of the provincial cities. It is particularly fortunate that the vital legislation has come about at one time. If either the Public Libraries Act or the London Government Act had been deferred or dropped, the result would have been confusion. As it is the two pieces of legislation neatly dovetail together, and forward planning can be undertaken with confidence.

References

2. Ibid., p. 17.
6. Ibid., p. 197.
8. South-Eastern Regional Library Bureau. Annual Reports.
Public Libraries of Greater London

Appendix 1

The London Boroughs
Established by the London Government Act 1963

On April 1, 1965, the local authorities which governed the area known as Greater London disappeared under the London Government Act of 1963, and were replaced by thirty-two London Boroughs, which have populations varying between about 200,000 to over 300,000. Chief Librarians for the new authorities have now been appointed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of new authority</th>
<th>Former administrative areas</th>
<th>Chief librarian</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barking</td>
<td>Parts of Barking and Dagenham</td>
<td>W. G. Fairchild</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnet</td>
<td>Hendon, Finchley, Barnet, East Barnet and Friern Barnet</td>
<td>S. J. Butcher</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bexley</td>
<td>Bexley, Erith, Crayford, and parts of Chislehurst and Sidcup</td>
<td>P. E. Morris</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brent</td>
<td>Willesden and Wembley</td>
<td>J. T. Gillett</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bromley</td>
<td>Beckenham, Bromley, Orpington, Penge and parts of Chislehurst and Sidcup</td>
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<tr>
<td>Camden</td>
<td>Hampstead, Holborn and St. Pancras</td>
<td>A. H. Watkins</td>
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<tr>
<td>Croydon</td>
<td>Croydon, Coulsdon and Purley</td>
<td>W. R. Maidment</td>
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<td>Ealing</td>
<td>Acton, Ealing and Southall</td>
<td>T. E. Callander</td>
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<td>A. E. Brown</td>
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<td>Merton</td>
<td>Mitcham, Wimbledon, Merton and Morden</td>
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### Public Libraries of Greater London

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<td>Newham</td>
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Library Trends

Forthcoming numbers are as follows:

October, 1965, Junior College Libraries. Editor: Charles L. Trinkner, Chairman, Library Services Division, Pensacola Junior College.

January, 1966, Library Service to Industry. Co-Editors: Katherine G. Harris, Reference Services Director, Detroit Public Library, and Eugene B. Jackson, Director of Information Retrieval and Library Services IBM Corporation, Armonk, N.Y.
