PRODUCTION NOTE

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Library
Library Trends
A Publication of the University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science

Managing Editor
HERBERT GOLDHOR

Assistant to Editor
JEAN SOMERS

Publications Board
ROBERT B. DOWNS
HERBERT GOLDHOR
FRANCES E. JENKINS
ALICE LOHRER
ROLLAND E. STEVENS
ARNOLD H. TROTIER
LUCIEN W. WHITE

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.

Published four times a year, in July, October, January, and April. Office of Publication: University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, Urbana, Illinois. Entered as second-class matter June 25, 1952, at the Post Office at Urbana, Illinois, under the act of August 24, 1912. Copyright 1966 by the University of Illinois Board of Trustees. All rights reserved.

Subscription price is $8.00 a year. Individual issues are priced at $2.00. Address orders to Subscription Department, University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Illinois. Editorial correspondence should be sent to Library Trends, University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, Urbana, Illinois. Indexed in Library Literature, Library Science Abstracts, and PAIS.
Current Trends in Branch Libraries

ANDREW GEDDES
Issue Editor

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

ANDREW GEDDES
Introduction

MILTON S. BYAM
History of Branch Libraries

JOHN T. EASTLICK AND HENRY G. SHEARouse, JR.
Organization of a Branch System

JOHN M. CARROLL
Establishing Branch Libraries

WYMAN H. JONES
The Role of the Branch Library in the Program of Metropolitan Library Service

HAROLD L. HAMILL
Selection, Training, and Staffing for Branch Libraries

MEREDITH BLOSS
The Branch Collection

LEARNED T. BULMAN
Young Adult Work in Branch Libraries

WALTER H. KAISER
Libraries in Non-Consolidated Systems

EMERSON GREENAWAY
New Trends in Branch Public Library Service
This Page Intentionally Left Blank
Introduction

ANDREW GEDDES

For almost one hundred years the means of extending library service in metropolitan areas has been through the development of branch outlets. In general these units have been considered as miniature main libraries conveniently located for easy access by all residents of the neighborhood and offering a varied range of services. Because of this structure, a substantial portion of the budget of any consolidated system is allocated to branch library operations for staff, for library materials and for building maintenance. It is also safe to assume that a great deal of administrative time as well is devoted to the many aspects of this phase of the library program.

Despite the acknowledged growth and importance of the branch library structure, it is equally clear that professional literature dealing with branch administration is almost totally lacking. Lowell Martin in 1940 published his paper on “The Purpose and Administrative Organization of Branch Systems in Large Urban Libraries,”¹ but this article is almost the only one devoted solely to branch organization. Wheeler and Goldhor in Practical Administration of Public Libraries² include one chapter and some additional pages on various topics connected with branch library work. Roberta Bowler, who edited Local Public Library Administration,³ gives the subject little more space. It is only through examining the Library Literature Index⁴ that one finds any substantial number of references to branch library operations. These articles, however, only treat small segments of the entire range of subject matter. In short, there seems to be a decided lack of careful analysis of branch libraries, their scope and function.

In an effort to present a reasonably comprehensive examination of the development of branch libraries and their current status, the Publication Board of Library Trends has authorized this issue on Current Trends in Branch Libraries. This publication should prove of consider-

Director, Nassau Library System, Hempstead, N.Y.
ANDREW GEDDES

able value to library school students, to administrators of public libraries, to persons newly-charged with responsibility for branch administration, and to governmental officials and community groups who need to know the role of the branch library in the metropolitan complex of services.

In the opening paragraph of his article tracing the branch library movement through its various developmental stages, Milton Byam confirms the lack of recognition which has become apparent to the editor of this issue of *Library Trends*, by saying: "The history of branch libraries must be distilled from the history of the public library. . . ." Building on this historical presentation, Eastlick and Shearrouse present some over-all policies and philosophy to serve as guidelines for administrators in their decisions affecting programs of branch service. The organization of the branch department, its relationship to other central library departments, the role of age level coordinators, and staff/line relationships are also explored.

Carroll discusses the problems of site selection and the appropriate sizes of buildings for different communities. Community surveys and standards for space allocation are also reviewed. Jones shifts the scene to the branch building itself, discussing the objectives of branch library service against a backdrop of the multiple functions, services and special programming activities assumed by branch libraries for all age levels. The problems of evaluating the effectiveness of a branch service program are discussed.

The problems involved in selecting and training staff for branch library work are reviewed by Hamill, who suggests some considerations helpful in determining staffing patterns. Staff development through in-service training programs and other methods is detailed. The foundation upon which the service program rests—the book collection—is thoroughly described by Bloss in terms of its purpose, its size, and the available budget appropriation.

An examination of a segment of the branch service program—work with young adults, as revealed in the findings of a questionnaire prepared by Bulman—demonstrates the specialized services now expected from the local library outlet.

The new types of cooperative systems which are evolving to meet the needs of communities adjoining major metropolitan areas are discussed in considerable depth by Kaiser. Finally, Greenaway examines today's programs of branch library service in the light of tomorrow's patterns and promises.
Introduction

New federal legislation, new state aid programs, and increased local support are bringing large amounts of money into the library scene. The effectiveness with which the library profession uses these funds will depend upon a thorough knowledge of the service functions which need to be strengthened, overhauled, expanded, and initiated. It is hoped that by focusing attention on the branch aspect of public library administration, a clearer picture will emerge of the role of the branch library in a comprehensive program of library service in the years ahead.

References

History of Branch Libraries

MILTON S. BYAM

The history of branch libraries must be distilled from the history of the public library, of which branches are but appendages. These appendages are discernible only through the interstices of the broader development of library history.

Public libraries in the United States have both an aristocratic and a humanitarian heritage. In the earliest days of this nation, libraries were established for the purpose of sharing scarce materials, by sharing their cost, in what have been called social libraries. These were voluntary associations of individuals who contributed money toward a common fund to be used for the purchase of books. Ben Franklin's Library Company of Philadelphia is an example of this type of library, as are the Society Library organized in 1754 in New York City, and the Charleston Library Society founded in 1748. The Mercantile Libraries of the 1820's continued this trend. Coexistent with the social library and part of the same tradition was the circulating library, which had long been a feature of the English book scene. This library might be considered similar to today's rental libraries, which involve the payment of a fee for book-borrowing privileges.

The humanitarian heritage may be typified as also upper class, in that it was carried out by wealthy men with a desire to make service available to the common people. It was out of such concern that the Astor Library was founded in 1849, and later became—with the Lenox and Tilden Libraries—the New York Public Library. The Astor gift of $400,000 was made to New York City for the establishment and maintenance of a public library free to all who might wish to use it. It is, however, a reference library. Such concern also motivated William Wood, who established a free library for “Mechanic and other Apprentices” in Boston in 1820, and Timothy Claxton, who promoted the establishment of the Boston Mechanics' Institute and its library in 1826.

Deputy Director, Brooklyn Public Library.
History of Branch Libraries

By 1850, some 250 New England towns are said to have had more than one library. Most of these were social or circulating libraries, dependent on voluntary support or fees of some kind. The uncertainty of this type of support led to the disappearance of many of these libraries and to requests for the public support of them.

The first local legislation to permit the establishment and maintenance of a library from public funds, and meant to be free to all, was that of Peterborough, New Hampshire, in 1833, although New Hampshire did not pass enabling legislation until 1849. However, it was the establishment of the Boston Public Library in 1850 which became the model for other communities. It is interesting to note that the enabling legislation, passed in 1851 by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, permitted the establishment of libraries "with or without branches," which presupposes some previous experience with branch libraries.

One is not to suppose that all was now settled with public library development and that therefore the growth of branches from this point on was assured. Indeed, the social library and philanthropy continued to exercise a weakening hold on the library movement. The Boston Public Library established its first branch in 1871 while the Manchester (England) Public Library, also established in 1851, had acquired five branches within fifteen years. But during the same period, the Newberry Library was established in Chicago as the bequest of Walter Newberry and was incorporated as a free public reference library in 1892. The John Crerar Library was established in 1895 (the bequest of a Chicago businessman), as a public reference library in the sciences and social sciences. Indeed, the public library movement did not seem committed to public support, but was composed of philanthropic, social, circulating and public libraries together.

All of these types had branch libraries. For example, the New York Free Circulating Library, established in 1878 as a philanthropic social library free to the poor, operated eleven branches up to its incorporation into the New York Public Library in 1901. In Chicago, the West Side Library, a circulating library, was opened in 1869, and "soon established several branches, one for the South Side and others in different sections of the city." The period was noted for the increase in circulating libraries in Chicago and elsewhere, and these too had branches.

The social library, philanthropy and willingness of patrons to tax themselves also served in other ways in the development of public library branches. The social library formed the nucleus of the original
circulating branches of many libraries. The absorption by the New York Public Library of the New York Free Circulating Library and of the Aguilar Free Library among others, resulted in the formation of the circulation department of the New York Public Library.\textsuperscript{14} The New York Free Circulating Library was begun as a result of charitable work conducted by a sewing class of Grace Church, while the Aguilar Free Library Society was established by and for the Jewish population of New York City. Existing social libraries also formed the basis of branch systems in other cities. Boston absorbed the Sumner Library Association of East Boston in establishing its first branch library.\textsuperscript{18} The Chicago Public Library took over the existing Hyde Park Lyceum as a branch in 1891.\textsuperscript{16} This library had been established in 1867. The Cincinnati\textsuperscript{17} and Providence Public Libraries\textsuperscript{18} took over existing community private libraries to establish branches.

Philanthropy was more direct. The first circulating branch of the Chicago Public Library was the gift in 1901 of a Mrs. Blackstone who wanted to memorialize her husband.\textsuperscript{19} In these early days, Boston also profited from direct philanthropy which benefited its branch system.\textsuperscript{20}

But the greatest philanthropy and the one that fixed for many years the pattern of library service and branches in the United States was that of Andrew Carnegie. Carnegie had decided to promote libraries as a result of his admiration for Colonel James Anderson, who had given a library to Allegheny County in 1850, as well as for Enoch Pratt, who gave not only money for libraries but his own continued interest.\textsuperscript{21}

Carnegie gave approximately 1,900 library buildings to the United States and Canada alone between 1897 and 1917. These included many branches. For example, he offered sixty-five branches to New York City at a cost of $5,200,000, thirty to Philadelphia, three to East Orange, eight to Pittsburgh, and ten to Cleveland among others.

Even more significant than the gift itself, however, was the stimulation it provided toward public support of libraries due to Carnegie's insistence that any community receiving a building must not only furnish a site but must also agree to provide an annual maintenance fund of at least 10% of the amount of the gift.\textsuperscript{22}

In the contract signed between the Carnegie Corporation and the interested municipality, minimum support to be given was indicated. They also suggested minimum standards. The best library opinion was garnered in devising these guidelines, and architects vied with each other in designing suitable library buildings. The result was a regularization or standardization of the pattern of branch and library serv-
History of Branch Libraries

ice with regard to hours, privileges, etc., which nothing else could have accomplished. A typical specification may be seen in the following quotation from a Carnegie contract with the New York Public Library: 23

It is further agreed that the said several branch libraries which may be constructed pursuant to the provisions of said act, and each of them, shall be accessible at all reasonable hours and times, free of expense, to the persons resorting thereto, subject only to such reasonable control and regulation as the party of the second part, its successor or successors, from time to time may exercise and establish for general convenience; provided, further, that the lending, delivery and one or more reading rooms in each of said library buildings shall be open and accessible to the public upon every day of the week except Sunday, but including all legal holidays, from at least nine o'clock A.M. to at least nine o'clock P.M., under such rules and regulations as the said party of the second part shall prescribe from time to time, and on Sundays such parts of any of such libraries may be opened in such manner and during such hours as may be from time to time agreed upon between the said Board of Estimate and Apportionment and said The New York Public Library, Astor, Lenox and Tilden Foundations.

Though absorption of social libraries and the influence of philanthropy were notable trends, communities were also establishing branches on their own initiative with startling rapidity. Oakland had established its first branch in 1878; 24 Boston had fifteen branches by 1901; Buffalo established its first circulating branch in rented quarters in 1901. Cleveland opened its first branch in 1892, and Providence in 1906.25 Yet these bald statements do not tell the whole story, for in practice there were other kinds of branches and means of extension of library service. These included deposit stations, locations to which books were brought and deposited for use by the community; delivery stations, locations at which requests for books were accepted for later delivery; branch reading rooms, i.e. branches without circulation services; and even horse-and-wagon mobile units. In the literature of the field, deposit stations and branch reading rooms were often confused with circulating branches. For example, at least two of the "branch libraries" which Buffalo had established by 1900 would be called deposit stations today.25 Chicago had only reading rooms and delivery stations in 1901—not circulating branches.26

Branch library service since the early 1900's has expanded to the point where today there are now 3,376 branch libraries of city, county
and regional systems, and 666 systems with branches. This expansion has resulted in many innovations to improve branch library service. Regional libraries, developed notably in Chicago, each supervise a group of satellite branches. District libraries have been developed in Brooklyn to permit the expansion of libraries into unserved areas by establishing satellites manned by non-professionals while expanding professional service at the district libraries. Library systems, notably in New York State, gather together on a county or population basis a number of independent libraries in a cooperative pattern of shared centralized services much like those available to branch libraries.

With the concept of the branch library fixed firmly in the tradition of the United States, the questions which remain to be answered are not those of the value of branches, or of the propriety of the expenditure of public monies for their establishment. Today's questions are those concerned with the refinement of service such as location, architecture, hours, distance between branches, book collections, staffing and accessibility, all of which involve local considerations.

References

2. Ibid., p. 127.
3. Ibid., p. 178.
6. Ibid., p. 163.
7. Ibid., Table 19, facing p. 192.
12. Ibid., p. 405.
15. Wadlin, op. cit., p. 108.
History of Branch Libraries

22. Ibid., p. 11.
23. Ibid., pp. 28-29.
26. Joeckel and Carnovsky, op. cit., p. 34.
Organization of a Branch System

JOHN T. EASTLICK
AND
HENRY G. SHEARouse, JR.

There are certain basic judgments to be made and questions to be answered by any library board and library administrator whose library has reached the point at which a branch library system must be considered. By the time a city has reached the population of approximately 100,000, the library will have already begun to provide some extension services. These will probably be in the nature of a bookmobile or deposit stations, serving outlying areas of the city. By this time, also, the central library will have reached a point at which either some services to the public must be moved to other areas of the city, or a major expansion of the central building must be undertaken.

At this point in the growth of the city and in the development of the library, the board and the administration must determine the pattern of service which it will follow. They should consider all factors involved and not start a haphazard growth in response to pressures from a particular group or area of the city. It is much better to develop in a clearly established pattern than to attempt subsequently to patch an illogical system.

There are four major factors to consider in determining the organization of a system of branch libraries. These factors pertain equally to a city, a county or a regional system. The four factors are: (1) the goals of the library, (2) movement of population, (3) physical barriers to movement within the area, and (4) socio-economic factors in a particular community.

Within the past two decades, this country has experienced a great growth of suburbs of cities. From 1950 to 1960, the central cities in the

John T. Eastlick, Librarian, Denver Public Library.
Henry G. Shearouse, Jr., Assistant Librarian and Director of Public Services, Denver Public Library.

[374]
Organization of a Branch System

United States grew 9 percent; the suburbs grew 48 percent. Philip Ennis states: "This high-speed suburban development presents an enormous challenge to the public library." He indicates that these challenges will be in three areas: (1) the library will try to follow its audience, (2) the ethnic minority will be left in the center of the city, and (3) the fragmentation of outlying suburbs will create real difficulties in establishing units of library service. He goes on to say that "The librarian must make a crucial decision: should he develop his central library's collection and services or should he try to expand outward to meet the needs of a physically dispersed and dispersing clientele?"  

If the library has determined that its purpose is to provide reading material to every citizen of the community on an equal basis, then the library will develop a pattern of closely spaced outlets. However, if the goals of the library are to provide library service of a high professional character, then the development will be toward fewer large branches, employing specialists in professional library skills. All branches cannot expect to attain the status of full-fledged reference and research centers if for no other reason than financial limitations. Nor should each branch expect to be a small imitation of the central library. The general purpose of the branch is to provide greater access to materials through a collection and services specifically adapted to the needs of the particular community in which it is located. Ulveling conceives of this service as primarily popular education in nature located within easy reach of the patron's home.  

The second factor to be considered in the establishment of a branch system is the movement of population. The consensus of professional literature seems to be that a branch must serve at least 35,000 to 50,000 population in order to be effective. Recent studies have raised this figure to 70,000 or more. In any case, a branch must serve an area large enough to provide a circulation of 100,000 to 200,000 in order to justify the expenditure necessary to maintain special professional services.  

Another consideration is the distance a patron must travel. The consensus seems to be that the branch serves an area of from one and one-half miles to two miles radius from the library. This distance seems to be expanding with the increase in ownership of automobiles and the general mobility of the population. The Pennsylvania plan proposes to provide local service within fifteen to twenty minutes of each citizen of the state and major reference service within one day.  

Other considerations will be the density of population and the type of housing being developed. The movement of the population within
the city will determine the need for branches according to the development of suburban areas and annexations to the city. In the suburban areas single family houses and small apartment buildings predominate, while in the core city high-rise apartments or apartment complexes are the prominent trends. The administration must work closely with city or county planning boards on long-range population forecasts in order to determine the trend of these developments.

The third factor to consider in the overall pattern is that of physical barriers. Within recent years, the limited access highways which cut through a city have isolated certain sections. Rivers, also, tend to isolate segments of the population. Large parks act as major barriers to the movement of the population within a city. If two of these barriers cross the city and, therefore, cut the city into quadrants, then it may be necessary to establish four branches, one in each of these areas. Depending on the way in which barriers lie, more or fewer branches may be required.

In a growing county or regional system, the trading areas of the county must be considered. The presence and location of shopping centers also will influence the normal pattern of movement of people within a city or county, and should be considered in planning an extension system. In some cases, a bookmobile will provide adequate basic service. For larger concentrations of population, some other type of extension outlet must be considered.

The fourth major consideration will be those socio-economic factors which are present in the particular community. Library services and the book collection must be adjusted to the needs of the community in which the branch is located. Ethnic background plus the economic and educational status of the population of the area will determine not only what is offered but what is used, and the necessary amount of effort on the part of the staff to encourage such use. Because of the reluctance of residents of the city to travel outside their own geographical area, it may be wise—or even essential—to place a branch in such an area even though cost per circulation may be high. Constant community analysis must be a part of the library staff’s work because of the rapid changes within a given area.

In the development of library service, public libraries have passed through three general areas of development. Before 1930, most patterns for the organization of branch systems were concerned with the development of many small branches. Each of these branches attempted to provide a complete library program, and with limited resources and
Organization of a Branch System

staff, it proved to be almost impossible to develop this type of service. There are arguments in favor of many small, closely-spaced library service agencies. The advantages of such a service have been set out thus:

"1. Easy public relations. Public is not aware of shortcomings of small branch.
2. Lower immediate capital investment.
3. Readers would be closer to a fixed library service."

The disadvantages are:

"1. Mounting maintenance, payroll and operational costs.
2. Inadequate book collections; higher book costs.
3. Little opportunity for staff to do promotional work.
4. Readers would have to go further to use a good branch library.
5. Extension service would still look dowdy, especially in certain areas.
6. Long-term capital investment higher, because of number of units in system and obsolescence of buildings.
7. Some of the branches are hidden and therefore less effective.
8. It is hard to deny claims of any neighborhood area for a fixed agency." 

In the late 1930's and 1940's, opinions began to change and the provision of quality professional services came to be the primary factor in considering the establishment of a branch. At this point, libraries began to develop fewer branches. In these branches they began to concentrate the book stock and the professional staff so that better services could be rendered. A large branch has more advantages than a smaller agency. These advantages are:

"1. Everyone would be within reasonable distance of a good branch library.
2. Staff would be better concentrated, able to do promotional work, especially with children in schools, and able to absorb emergencies without substitutes.
4. Book fund would go further.
5. The extension service would have a new modern look; parking would be available. . .
6. Long-term safety for central since strong branches would make it less necessary to go to central.
7. Branches would all be busy and therefore return the value of the investment."
JOHN T. EASTLICK AND HENRY G. SHEAROUSE, JR.

The disadvantages are:

"1. Public relations job would be difficult in the beginning, but as new-type branches appear in various sections of the city, the pressure would be for acceleration of the program rather than resistance to it.

2. Some readers would have to go farther to use a library agency. Some bookmobile time would need to be available for some areas."

In the late 1930's, Chicago began an experiment which led the way to a third philosophy which gained in popularity during the 1950's and 1960's and is now perhaps the main philosophy guiding the organization of a system of branch libraries, especially in the larger cities. Chicago began to develop regional libraries, each of which was considerably larger than the usual branch and provided more equitable and efficient distribution of library facilities. These regional libraries were also developed to ease the administrative functioning of the entire system. This has led to the development of graded levels of extension service. These levels are usually the regional branch, the community branch, the sub-branch and the bookmobile. The graded levels of service seem to have the virtue of combining the advantages of the small, closely-spaced agency, and of the large branch. Philadelphia is now developing this type of graded level of service with its plan which envisages regional libraries of 200,000 volumes or more Los Angeles, which started with small regional libraries, recently has constructed regional libraries similar to those of Philadelphia.

In the graded levels of service pattern, library agencies would be defined as follows:

Regional branch—[A] large comprehensive service branch . . . used . . . to provide unusual strength and [which includes] in its staff administrative responsibility for smaller nearby extension agencies. Individual services include many aspects of those at the main library.

Community branch—. . . a major library unit containing an adequate, well-organized collection of books, 48 to 66 hours of service a week, and professional and clerical staff.

Sub-Branch—. . . a smaller circulating agency with a minimum book collection with emphasis on popular reading. It should be open some part of five days a week, the hours and days to be selected upon a basis of maximum potential use.

Bookmobile—A library on wheels that services a scattered population and districts remote from schools. Visits may be infrequent but
Organization of a Branch System

should be regular and well timed in order to offer service that will approach, as nearly as possible, that of a small branch. Bookmobiles are often used to determine locations for future branches.9

The San Francisco pattern defines these levels of service somewhat differently, as follows:

Major branch: serves a population of at least 50,000 in a radius of one and one-half miles; an annual circulation of at least 200,000.

Neighborhood branch: serves a population of 35,000 in a one-mile radius; provides a broad general adult collection, basic reference services and a children's specialist; open for service 48 hours per week; has an annual circulation of at least 100,000.

Stations: serves a population of at least 10,000 not within the service area of an existing branch; provides basic children's and current adult collections.10

The San Francisco definition of "stations" corresponds to the previous definition of sub-branch and does not mean a deposit station. A deposit station may be defined as a limited collection of books placed in a business office, community center, or hospital, and operated by persons not members of the library staff. Deposit stations are expensive to operate in terms of books and the salaries of staff to select the collection, in view of the limited circulation achieved. There is also a complete lack of any library services. The authors do not recommend the establishment of such deposit stations. This is one of the many cases where no service is preferable to inadequate service.

In 1962, Toronto established a new branch especially for children and indications are that this is the first of several. The library's justification for this action is that it sees a trend toward large regional libraries for adults. In such a development it has become "increasingly important to establish special children's branches which can be easily reached on foot." 11 The addition of children's specialists to Brooklyn's Reading Centers may be in response to similar pressures.

A small library system will begin with a central library. The organization will typically contain four divisions (reference, circulation, children's services, and catalog), each being directly responsible to the head of the library. As branches develop, typically we find each branch treated as an individual unit and also responsible to the head of the library, as in Figure 1.

In a medium-size system, the library begins to add departments in the main building in order to serve the expanding needs of its patrons.
JOHN T. EASTLICK AND HENRY G. SHEARouse, JR.

These departments will differ from library to library depending on the particular community, although the usual ones will be business and fine arts. By this time, more branches have developed. Since the

![Organization Chart of a Typical Small Public Library System](image1)

**Figure 1. Organization Chart of a Typical Small Public Library System**

span of control has become too large for one person to handle, an extension department is usually added between the librarian and the heads of the branches with a supervisor in charge of the branch system (see Figure 2).

![Organization Chart of a Typical Medium-Sized Public Library System](image2)

**Figure 2. Organization Chart of a Typical Medium-Sized Public Library System**

As the city continues to develop in area and in the complexity of its needs, additional branches are added. Demands on the main library grow and it is necessary to reduce some of the uses of this building. At this time, usually, regional libraries will develop which will function as supervisory agencies, as well as carrying to various areas of the city more of the specialized services normally found only in the main library. The Denver Public Library development has been typical of this type of decentralization of functions. Denver has developed "neighborhood libraries" or book circulation agencies and is now in the process of changing from an extension department to the broader scope of regional libraries. The Denver Public Library is organized as shown in Figure 3.

As the regional libraries begin to develop and the decentralization
of functions proceeds, it is well to determine what functions can and cannot be centralized. Activities can be centralized in order to take advantage of economy and efficiency in handling quantities of materials: "In general whatever can be done as well or better and in less time at a central location should be so handled, in order to release the branch personnel to serve patrons." However, centralization of functions should not mold each library into a uniform pattern. Each branch should be allowed and encouraged to develop those particular services which can best serve its own patrons. Such decentralization will result in a better program of services for the citizens of the community. Some of the items which can and should be centralized, and some which can and should be decentralized, are as follows:

**Centralized**
- Policy and final decisions
- Public relations
- Catalog services
- Book ordering
- Personnel policies and employment
- Purchasing of equipment and supplies
- Circulation rules

**Decentralized**
- Advice on policy, carrying out and explanation of policy
- Community involvement
- Book selection
- Reader services
- Scheduling of personnel
- Supervision of personnel
In the medium-size library, the head of the extension department is a line officer and carries the responsibility for supervision of the agencies reporting to the department. As the library develops in complexity of services and agencies, the administration of the library tries to coordinate activities and thus provide a more workable relationship between them. Administrators have turned to a new type of job, and the term "coordinator" has been used for this activity. The tendency has been to overuse the term and to have it denote any type of responsibility which the administration sees fit to assign it. In its true library sense, the term "coordinator" applies to the age level groups of children's, young adult and adult services, and designates an advisory officer to all agencies of the library system. A coordinator should be that person who is in charge of maintaining standards of service throughout all agencies of the entire library system. A staff officer, the coordinator should provide advisory or consultant services to the personnel who actually operate the branch library.

In its description of the work of the Coordinator of Children's Services, the Akron, Ohio, Public Library explains this relationship in explicit terms: "In the Children's Department, the Coordinator of Work with Children has, as her primary responsibility, the integration of children's work throughout the system. She has a line responsibility toward the Main Children's Room but a staff or functional relationship to the children's rooms in branches. In general, she is charged with the maintenance of high standards of children's work; the juvenile book budget, the book collection, staff performance, program and public relations. In obtaining her objective through the agency of the Main Children's Room, she exercises direct control; regarding the work in branches, her influence is indirect, advisory." 18

There are variations in patterns of the coordinator roles. In some cases, the coordinator exercises a supervisory function over all persons in the library system working with a particular age group. This becomes difficult, for then the children's librarian, for example, is responsible to the branch librarian for certain activities and to the Coordinator of Children's Work for others. In order for a coordinator to be most effective, there needs to be clear delineation of duty and responsibility for the coordinator and the members of the line staff. There must be a close working relationship between the coordinator, the branch librarian and the children's librarian. The success of such a plan depends on the sympathetic understanding of problems encountered in each of the areas.

[382]
Organization of a Branch System

The central library subject departments generally have little responsibility for branch activities. However, every branch librarian needs access to the technical skills of the subject departments, and the department heads usually act in an advisory capacity. This advisory work will normally concern the selection of subject materials to be added to the collections and the follow-up of difficult requests from patrons. There is much need for coordination with the branch services. Common meetings with subject department heads and branches on a regularly scheduled basis, for discussion of mutual problems, will do much to develop harmonious personal and professional relationships.

In developing an organizational pattern for extension services, it is necessary to look at the organization of the total library. In many cases it is possible to adapt and expand certain elements of the existing organization. However, it may also be necessary to look for new concepts. Within the past several years, we in Denver have found that the concept of the public services as one integrated unit of the organization works to our advantage. The professional staff is freed from many of the burdensome details of everyday operation and can devote its time to reader services. The rapport between the main building and the extension units has increased. The coordinator positions have improved the quality of services offered and the book collections. The flexibility of the staff has increased because of the training programs it has been possible to develop.

Only by a complete new look at organization has it been possible to accomplish these things in Denver. The organization is constantly changing and adapting to new circumstances. With the future development of a metropolitan-wide library system, other changes undoubtedly will take place. However, the present indications are that such an organizational change can be effected relatively easily within the present framework.

References

4. Ulveling, Ralph A. “Administration of Branch Systems.” In Carleton B.
JOHN T. EASTLICK AND HENRY G. SHEARouse, JR.


7. Ibid., pp. 442-443.


Establishing Branch Libraries

JOHN M. CARROLL

The development of the American public library dates from 1852. The development of branch libraries in America dates from 1872. The background of the decision to establish the first formal branch library is certainly interesting. At its opening, the origin of the East Boston branch of the Boston Public Library was described thus: "Encouraged by the marked success of the branch libraries in Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and other English cities, the Trustees of this [Boston Public] Library, as a first step to ascertain the relative uses of the main Library in the city proper and its remoter districts, caused an analysis to be made of the names registered as applicants, in order to learn the proportions resident in these different sections of the town. From this investigation it appeared, that, while in Boston proper one in eight of the population was registered, one in fourteen in Roxbury, one in sixteen in South Boston, only one in twenty-six was enrolled from East Boston. As there was no reason to suppose that the taste or desire for books was in reality any less in this portion of the inhabitants of the city, than in those residing elsewhere, it was apparent that inconvenience of access to the Central Library deprived the people of East Boston of their natural use of that great collection. Upon these grounds, the Trustees decided, the City Council consenting, to make the first essay of the hitherto untried experiment in this country of a Branch Library at East Boston." Rooms on the second floor of a building formerly used as a public school were secured as quarters. A collection of 5,700 books "useful to the largest number of readers" was placed on the shelves and it was hoped that this would prove "the nucleus of a larger collection of books of a permanent and substantial though less popular value." The branch opened in November, 1872, as an "increment" of the Central Library and was a success straight-away.

Chief Librarian, Division of Home Reading and Community Services, Boston Public Library.
Since then, services offered within the walls of a branch library and the community relationships established beyond its walls have not followed a simple, uniform, straight-line evolution. In turn, ideas about branch buildings have changed, along with concepts of the needs of the college, the reference, and the special library building. Jesse Cunningham expressed the opinion in 1931 in an article in the A.L.A. Bulletin that each generation would need a different type of library building. He argued against trying to build a building that would last forever. W. N. Randall, in an article written in 1946, remarked that "the more carefully and efficiently [the library building] was planned to fulfil the needs of yesteryear, the less well suited it is to fulfil the newer needs of today and tomorrow." However, certain basic norms and standards do seem to have persisted.

When the first branch library was founded, its parent city, Boston, had a population of 380,000. Today, a branch building may be planned to serve as large a population as the total 1872 population of the city of Boston. Can a contemporary metropolitan city or a regional system of two or three or four million people offer one "central" library plus branches in the pattern of 1870? Since the 1940's, especially since the appearance of A National Plan for Public Library Service, recognition of the need for a level of service between the main library and the neighborhood or community library has been part of the thinking and of the development of many urban and regional library programs. A library system may on the one hand find itself providing inviting, quickly accessible, informal library service to meet the needs of those who are at the threshold of learning how to use books, libraries, and public service institutions. Simultaneously the library may be called on to provide "branch" service comparable to the level formerly met only by a "central library" due to exploding populations and new educational methods.

Preliminary Planning

The determination of the building needs for a particular branch can only be arrived at judiciously and efficiently when the branch program is related to a plan of service for the city or town or region as a whole. A program of service should be explored for each branch, before a branch is established; as in the case of the master plan, the branch program should be flexible and responsive to local changes and needs. With such a service program, service levels can be projected and service accomplishment checked; personnel, budget needs, community ac-
Establishing Branch Libraries

tivities can be spelled out and additional support, if needed, can be stated more effectively.

The decision to open a branch or to build a branch library building can have long-range, expensive implications. Once committed to a branch, a library administration may find it faces a succession of major public relations situations, sometimes with severe political implications, from the time it begins to look for a site to the time when it may wish to close out the unit. If it later becomes a matter of upgrading the service by moving to improved quarters or to a new location that is generally popular, the library administration is indeed fortunate. If, through change in the community or by development of other necessary service outlets, a branch becomes obsolete or under-used, efforts to correct the situation may be a time-consuming, unhappy, frustrating undertaking. The library administration should be prepared to use time, staff, and money to become as fully informed as possible about the commitment it is to make before going forward with a building project, in order to minimize the possibilities of such future problems.

The library administration should see to it that it has the benefit of any information which its local planning board, urban renewal administration, or any other city or town department can give on trends, projected population changes, plans for land use, road construction, etc. The library should look to its Chamber of Commerce, its School Department, and any other agency with particular knowledge about the community at large, or the particular neighborhood in question, for information that might be pertinent. The state library extension agency should be consulted, especially for information about regional plans that might have a direct bearing on the level of service for which to build. Alternates to building should be considered, such as contracting for service with a neighboring community or of developing a joint community service, if the law so permits. The state agency would also be able to advise the library administration as to what federal or state building assistance might be available.

In assembling information about the neighborhood for which it plans to build a branch, the library staff should not be surprised if the trail often leads back to its own files and collections. In certain areas, the library staff may have to devise its own techniques of measuring or analyzing information that would be helpful in arriving at the decision to build or not to build. But the staff should initially be sure to use all existing reservoirs of information in the community.

By a judicious use of census tract information, the library staff can
determine such factors, within the boundaries of the area to be served, as the distribution of the population by age, language background, educational achievement, occupation and income. The library staff may have to assemble other types of information by observation, questionnaires, interviews with community leaders, etc. What groups meet in the region? Could they use library guidance in programming? Would they “support” library activities? What firms or industries are located in the neighborhood? Could the firms or their employees fit into a service pattern of the projected branch? Are school libraries well established, weak, or non-existent? What is the reading level of the students in school? What are the available recreational and educational resources of the area? The report on Demand for Public Library Service in Oakland County, Michigan, 4 or such books as those by Mial, 5 Warren, 6 or Young 7 on community surveys suggest how and what elements of the community life should be surveyed—before, not after, setting up a branch.

The level of response or need that justifies the outlay for staff, building and book collections will have to be finally determined by the philosophy, financial support, and manpower available in the particular institution facing the problem. Among the measurable factors generally considered are such items as areas in city or town regions not reached by library service, number of residents unreached by library service, and potential use of the projected unit. Once these questions are thoughtfully explored, a library administrator can proceed to the practical steps of seeking a site, planning a building, committing the financing, etc.

The experience of other libraries and the existence of certain norms or standards can be helpful. Such information can be a source of strength in resisting pressure from groups or individuals who may be campaigning for a branch in a particular area solely because of local pride or for unjustified convenience. Publications of the Library Buildings and Equipment Institutes of the American Library Association and the annual architectural issue of the Library Journal are valuable sources of information on actual building solutions and provide case studies on buildings large and small.

Wheeler and Githens, in their classic 1941 study The American Public Library Building, quoted this conclusion which was already forty years old: “In general it may be said that the city which provides branch libraries not more than a mile apart is not in danger of overdoing its library facilities; while in the densely populated parts of large

[388]
Establishing Branch Libraries
cities two or three times as many branches may be needed." In 1940, Lowell Martin concluded that his investigations of branch systems supported the acceptance of one mile as the range of effectiveness for urban branches. The American Library Association's 1956 publication on standards for public libraries carried the statement, "Community libraries and bookmobile stops should be provided at intervals so that every school-age child is able to reach a library outlet alone." In Practical Administration of Public Libraries by Joseph L. Wheeler and Herbert Goldhor, it is suggested that a branch should be three or four miles away from any other library service agency. In selecting this larger distance, the authors point out that such a unit may have to be supplemented by additional service points within the district (deposits or bookmobile visits) for reader convenience. The travel-distance determination of accessibility can be established only by knowledge of the area being surveyed. Factors such as traffic arteries, geographical features, and intervening land use such as cemeteries or freight yards, may effectively bar easy access to a library, although in miles the distance may be slight as the crow flies. Psychological factors or use patterns must be recognized. If the area is well defined but contains people whose travel habits take them away from the branch, use of the building could only be disappointing.
The determination whether the area to be served by a contemplated branch building justifies the outlay would be answered in large part by the overall plan of service. If it is intended to offer only circulation service, for children or adults, within a half mile of each resident, the evaluation of factors would be quite different than if the library system wanted to strengthen service by strong, supporting "branches" offering a range and depth of service comparable to a main library in a city or town with the same population or area as the projected branch. This latter type of branch building receives increasing justification from two considerations. First, by their growth in size and complexity, central libraries increasingly fulfill the research function more effectively and serve the general reader or student less easily. Secondly, increased demands on library facilities through population growth and through changes in the type of use may justify efficient duplication of materials and services at several more readily-accessible points rather than duplication within an expanded Central Library building only. The role assigned the branch library will help define the area. And reciprocally, the area demanding service or being measured for service will suggest the level and type of service justified. But such factors
as the area to be served and population involved are generally continuing factors. Overlapping service areas or a dubious need can be identified fairly objectively. Increased mobility of library users, however, cancels the precision once associated with use of a local library by local residents only.

The Survey of Libraries in the United States established that, in half of the cities reporting, in the 1920's, a second outlet was developed in communities when population and book collection was less than 50,000.\(^\text{11}\) Wheeler and Githens, in The American Public Library Building, cite a 1911 "working estimate" of "one branch to every 25,000 to 40,000 of the population."\(^\text{12}\) In the 1962 study Practical Administration of Public Libraries by Wheeler and Goldhor, a population base of 30,000 is suggested for each branch.\(^\text{13}\) It is pointed out that in a community of 100,000 the main library may need to be supplemented by one, or even two "service" branches, plus minor distribution agencies. The tendency, based upon experience, to minimize deposit stations and reading rooms, and to consolidate into a more inclusive service level of branch coverage, has been established over the years.

While rising costs and limited trained personnel encourage consolidation into stronger, better used library units, it is recognized that smaller population groups should not be left without library service. UNESCO offers guidance on establishing branch libraries for groups of 1,000 or 2,000 population.\(^\text{14}\) In England, there is recognition of the need of support of library branch service for groups under 10,000.\(^\text{15}\) In 1960 in the United States, out of a total of 8,190 public libraries, there were 4,712 libraries serving fewer than 5,000 people.\(^\text{16}\) There are sharp limitations on what may be accomplished through such sized units, and the need of supplementing such small units by centralized or regional services in larger buildings is obvious.

Choice of site

Once such factors as travel distance, population density, community resources, have been explored academically, a library may wish to assay the situation more pragmatically. It is possible to measure potential reception of a projected branch by first establishing bookmobile stops within an area over a period of time. The type of reading, the age level of the patrons, and the increase, decline, or sustained use of the bookmobile service through a long period can be relevant to the decision to be made as to whether any further coverage is needed. A more thorough evaluation of the potentials of use can be arrived at
Establishing Branch Libraries

by an investment in rented quarters. Such preliminary exploration can be of substantial value in guidance on a lasting decision. Rented quarters may provide the long-range solution too.

After the initial costs of alterations and renovations in rented quarters have been met, the landlord-tenant relationship for a branch library has some advantages. If the landlord maintains the property, and a satisfactory lease is signed, the rented quarters may prove adequate and create the fewest problems if a later move is desired. Rent increases and the likelihood of limited maintenance are two drawbacks to consider. An alternative, that of entering into an arrangement of a long-term lease on a building built with private funds according to the needs of the branch library, has been used where capital funds for a library building program were not available.

The architect can be helpful in advising on a site, and of course he cannot proceed to design the building before the site is designated. Selection of an architect for a branch library building by invitation is generally recommended. The type of architect desired might not find it worth while to participate in a competition. Use of juries in selecting an individual firm will not only be time-consuming but also may result in a decision not fully responsive to library needs. The library administration should familiarize itself with actual work done by a number of architects, and select accordingly.

Financing must include site costs, so again site selection is a basic step. If the budget is fixed, the relation between outlay on site and building may be a difficult one to resolve. In general, a site should be selected with good exposure (north or east) and with no obvious, expensive land features to overcome (ledges, dampness, grade). Zoning regulations should be checked. From the point of view of accessibility, the site should be on a main street, in the middle of business activity. Studies suggest that in relation to a service area as a whole, the branch unit can afford to be closer to the inner boundary than to the outer boundary of its area. In a study entitled *The Effective Location of Public Library Buildings* by Joseph L. Wheeler, the author found that “ninety per cent of the librarians polled believe (and a multitude of cases indicate) that every new public library, central or branch, should be strategically located in the center of the major pedestrian shopping and office area, where busy stores would flourish.”

The rapid transition of the typical American family from a no-car family of the 1920’s to the two or three car family of the 1970’s requires that the effect of such increased mobility be examined, and that the
relation of a site to motor flow as well as pedestrian traffic be considered. This leads to the question of parking facilities. Wheeler's study indicates "Several conclusions seem clearly warranted. For one thing, the parking problem is not peculiarly a library problem, as it is of supermarkets, but is a community problem and the library will suffer if it is not solved satisfactorily and will gain if it is. . . .

“In short, the main lesson to be learned appears to be that for every block a main or branch library is removed from the downtown or neighborhood pedestrian crowd center, the less it is used." 18

In selecting a site for serving a dispersed population, location in or near a commuting shoppers' center could be well defended and might be the proper selection. In The Medium-sized Public Library: Its Status and Future, Ralph Ulveling comments on this problem: "I am not saying that the library must be located remote from the downtown area. I am merely decrying acceptance of the slick, easily mouthed formula of earlier years that the main intersection downtown is the ideal site for a main library. Each city must be analyzed as a separate problem. The close proximity of large municipal parking lots may be far more important in choosing a library site than other factors." 19

Locations in civic centers, parks, or school buildings are generally not recommended on the basis of librarians' opinions, experience, and logic.

Galvin and Van Buren state in The Small Public Library Building, "Selection of a site purely on a basis of economy is a mistake. To secure a successful site, it is often necessary to pay a third to a half as much for the land as for the construction of the library building. But, getting a good site should be the first thought since it will cost almost as much to operate a rarely used library as one used by most of the local population." 20 They also summarize much discussion and thinking on the subject in their comment, "The site location should . . . be accessible by means of public and private transportation and conveniently near transfer points or intersections." 21

Working with the architect: the problem of size.

Essential to determining the size of the site needed, the financing needed, and the detail of the architect's plan, is a projection of the services to be offered within the contemplated building. While the architect will work up final specifications, consulting local building codes, the library administration will need guidelines for its own thinking and for preliminary discussion of whether $200,000 or $400,000 will
more closely approximate the bond issue or revenue raising involved.

The role and burdens of the new unit can be varied and still belong within a branch building program. A system may be building "an auxiliary library, complete in itself, having its own permanent collection of books . . . and administered as an integral part of the library system, i.e., by a paid staff. To rank as a branch the hours of opening should approximate those of the central library"; so said the Survey of Libraries in the United States. Thirty-six years later, Wheeler and Goldhor, in their Practical Administration of Public Libraries offer essentially the same definition, i.e.: "A branch public library is usually defined as an agency in its own building or rooms, with a substantial and permanent book stock, with paid staff members, and open to the public on a regular schedule of hours." This source offers the following minimum standards for a branch: (a) in its own building, (b) 8,000 sq. ft., (c) seating for 75 adults and young adults and for 50 children, (d) 25,000 book stock, with an annual accession of 1,500, (e) open eight hours a day, five days a week, and (f) five or six full-time employees, including two or three professionals. Such a branch would expect to circulate 75,000-100,000 books a year and answer 10,000 adult information questions a year. Perhaps 33% of existing branches achieve these goals.

A system may face a building program such as that in Los Angeles with its seven regionals housing 60,000 to 90,000 volumes each and fifty-four community, satellite branches. Or a system may be contemplating a building program such as Philadelphia's, with its concept of four regional libraries serving from 300,000 to 600,000 people each with collections of 200,000 to 300,000 books, supplemented by thirty-eight community libraries with typical book collections in the 200,000's. In any case, the branch is not an attempt to duplicate the main library inadequately. The particular branch library building has a definite, unique role in the educational, recreational, and cultural program of the library system.

The library staff may find it will have not only to educate the architect in the programs and spirit of the 20th century dynamic branch, but also to provide certain factual data to guide him and to serve as a double check on the adequacy of the architectural solutions.

Galvin and Van Buren in their The Small Public Library Building offer the following figures: Book stock: 1½ to 3 books per capita with provision for 20 years' growth Area per reader in a reading room: 25-30 square feet
Area per reader in an auditorium: 7 square feet
Area per employee: 100 square feet
Volumes per feet on wall shelving: 50 books per linear foot of stackwall
Volumes per square foot in a stack: 15 books per square foot
Volumes per cubic foot in a stack: 2 books per cubic foot
Staff quarters, corridors and other: 40% of building.

Such figures would be adapted according to the extent to which a branch could depend on the main library or the rest of a system to relieve it of the need of collections in depth or of growth.

In *The American Public Library Building*, Wheeler and Githens developed a "V.S.C. formula" for estimating desirable size of a library building for population projected for twenty years. It was based upon analyses of buildings of the 1920 to 1940 period and its application may result in areas more generous than needed today. For instance, longer loan periods and more liberal lending quotas mean more books will be off the shelf at one time, requiring less live shelving normally. Conversion of heating systems to gas or oil lessens need for space in the custodian's domain.

The V.S.C. formula reads:

\[(\text{Volumes} \div 10) + (\text{Seats} \times 40) + (\text{Circulation} \div 40) = \text{Combined area in square feet.}\]

The authors felt that these three elements (volumes, seats, circulation) gauge the size of a library, whether central or branch, and "its requisite area is in direct relation to them." ²⁵

In general, these authors came up with the following tabulations of seat and area requirements: ²⁶

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population size</th>
<th>Number of seats per thousand of population</th>
<th>Square feet per capita</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 10,000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.7 - .8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-35,000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.6 -.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-100,000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.5 - .6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-200,000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.4 - .5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200-500,000</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.35 - .4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500,000 +</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wheeler and Goldhor make the observation that there are few units of measurement that are sufficiently accurate for early preliminary plans, but they do mention these: ²⁷

Area per reader in a reading room 25 sq. ft.
Area per employee (in a catalog room) 100 sq. ft.
Area per employee in all other workrooms 75 sq. ft.
Establishing Branch Libraries

Volumes per foot on open shelf 7 vol/ft.
Volumes per foot of shelf in a stack 6 vol/ft.
Volumes per sq. ft. in each stack tier 15/sq. ft.
Reading room area in a branch 60%
(24% adult, 12% intermediate, and 24% children)
Circulation area 12%
Offices, workroom 10%
Stack 8%
Other (stairs, vestibule, etc.) 10%

In general, space should be provided for one staff worker per 20,000 anticipated circulation plus staff and work space for part-time help for additional assistance in peak hours for shelving, book charging, etc. With an idea of book stock, seating capacity, and work quarters to be provided for, preliminary planning and estimating should be safely undertaken.

In working up the final statement of need for the architect, attention should then be given to making sure that the architect is advised of all elements of the branch library’s program and sustaining services. Some library systems such as Baltimore and Los Angeles have faced heavy branch library building programs and have drawn up generalized building standards for new library branches. These are valuable in reminding other library systems of elements to be included, and offer solutions to such problems as heights of book shelving, width of aisles, workroom areas, etc., that may or may not be compatible with the needs of a local situation. The Los Angeles statement, “Building Standards for New Branches”, gives specifications for branches providing 4,000, 5,000, and 6,000 square feet of space. In the preface to this publication, the City Librarian, Harold L. Hamill, points out, “This January 1960 edition of the Standards represents our current thinking on how we can build the best branch libraries possible for the money available. . . . A question to be decided by each library is how much seating capacity can be planned to serve the increasing number of students of all ages. Local philosophy of service and level of support are determining factors everywhere.”

Special architectural problems of libraries: interior and exterior planning.

The architect should be provided with information as to the service program to adults, young adults, and children, e.g., the need for a meeting area, provision for audio-visual equipment and programs, and
the extent of behind-the-scenes supporting services to be carried on within the projected building. Any additional activity assigned to the building should have been agreed upon at this point, so the architect can be prepared in his planning and estimating. Is there need for a bookmobile bay or book stack? Will this building provide book stock for any activity beyond its own service area? Should there be provision for future expansion horizontally or vertically?

It is generally agreed that the building should have character and individuality, but that functionalism and economy need not be sacrificed for appearance's sake alone. The building should be clearly identified, with markings visible to both vehicular and pedestrian traffic. The use of exterior glass should be considered carefully. While a view into a building may be its best advertisement on one hand, the effect of glass exterior walls on book storage capacity and on heating and air conditioning arrangements cannot be overlooked. Landscaping should be kept at a minimum, to reduce long term maintenance and to increase the flexibility of land use. Parking for library vehicles and library staff must be considered, especially if otherwise there would be a loss of efficiency or convenience in delivering library materials, parking cars of guests, etc. A standard of 200 square feet for each car parked is suggested by Galvin and Van Buren, although commercial lots provide 400 square feet per car.21

The building should be as close to the sidewalk as practical, with an avoidance of exterior or interior steps in public areas especially. Attention should be given to the need, type, and location of such items as flagpole, bicycle rack, book return bin or drop, exterior lighting (especially if parking is involved), gates and fences, incinerator, and exhibit or bulletin board facilities. Some of these items may not fit into a particular program. Other local needs may define themselves later in the program. Conscientious advance canvassing of certain possibilities can minimize omissions that may cost extra later in the program.

Within the building, the architect should be advised as to areas to plan for: vestibule, checkroom, public telephone facilities, charging-registration area, adult, young adult, children's rooms or areas, staff room, librarian's office, custodian's quarters, storage areas, meeting area or areas, work area, record listening area, public lavatories, and exits. Specifics should be worked out on the book allocation for each area and the equipment to be housed in each room: tables, chairs, informal furniture, catalog cases, shelf lists, atlas stands, dictionary
Establishing Branch Libraries

stands, periodical and newspaper display and storage, vertical files, display facilities, staff desks and chairs, typewriter stands, film readers, copying equipment, staff lockers, storage cupboards, staff lounge equipment, and book trucks. Areas should be flexible, using book shelving as defining lines when possible.

Reading rooms and public service areas should be planned on one floor level, with the charging desk so located as to permit easy visual supervision of the reading areas during quiet periods of the day. If workroom and librarian's office can be related to the charging area efficiently, this will allow quick interchange of staff and quick response to emergency situations requiring supplemental assistance or the intervention of the branch librarian in a situation arising unexpectedly. The charging desk should be near the entrance but protected from drafts. Traffic through reading areas should be minimized.

The decision on lighting (30 to 100 foot candle power for readers) should be made with technical advice. Fluorescent installations may represent a heavier financial outlay compared with incandescent lights, but they are superior for coolness, lower cost for electricity, and general diffusion of light. Floor covering should be determined early, with attention to comfort, maintenance, and noiselessness as well as initial outlay. The increasing use of carpeting in tax-supported institutions (schools and libraries) as well as in theatres, stores, hotels, etc., suggests that carpeting should be considered along with vinyl, rubber, or asphalt tile or linoleum. The wiring of the building should be carefully studied so that outlets for clocks, polishing machines, audio-visual equipment, and intercom system are properly and adequately supplied.

The library staff should be ready to indicate shelving heights (6'7" in adult wall and stack area, 5' in certain reading room areas, 42" in islands), depths (8", 10", or 12" according to type of books), aisle widths, and table and chair heights needed in each room according to age group. It should be noted that a minimum of 15" juvenile chairs and 25" tables seems to be justified.

The heating system should be simple to operate, with the maximum dependence on automatic controls. The same should be true of an air-conditioning installation, which is becoming more and more common in public libraries and schools. If air-conditioning is not provided for initially, space and venting for future installation should be considered.

Ample attention should be given to such seemingly minor points as the location and type of public drinking fountain, if any. In many instances it is felt that this should be omitted. Where policy demands its
installation, future aggravation can sometimes be minimized by careful placement and by seeing a proposed installation in actual operation elsewhere. Public lavatories, with their problems of policing and maintenance, likewise require careful placement, if local usage or ordinances require their installation. Security provision, either through building design or through provision of burglar alarm systems, should be given increased attention, as the type of equipment housed in the typical branch library building becomes more expensive to replace, if stolen or damaged.

Such rooms as the meeting area (with space dividers, hospitality facilities, stage, chair storage, wall storage for books, discussion equipment, separate exterior exit, adequate wiring for projector, slide projector, table for projector, coat hangers, stage furnishings, and flag) and the custodial quarters (with space for floor cleaner, snow removal equipment, cleaning supplies, locker, handbowl, and slop sink) may seem lesser concerns than planning for good reading room service, but omissions or skimpy provisions in these areas may be especially difficult to remedy later.

In determining colors, style of furniture, drapes, and placement of furniture, the services of a consultant in interior decoration should be considered, if within the budget. Sometimes, the architect is in a position to offer such advice, either within the original contract or on a supplemental basis. The library administrator should not abdicate in this area but he can afford to lean heavily on expert advice in a field where both practical knowledge of fabrics, coverings, color values, furniture company lines and a cultivated knowledge of aesthetics are of inestimable value.

In all of the excitement and burdens of executing a building program, the library administration should involve as many of the staff, and of the community too for that matter, as it can in pooling information and experience on the ongoing project.

In the State of the Library Arts. Volume III appears the statement, "Since men seem to develop their ideas of what libraries should be and do out of their judgment, experience and imagination, they seldom bother to state the nature of the evidence they use in making up their minds." While this statement may be largely true as far as written and published data are concerned, any librarian facing a building problem or program will find he will be welcome as he visits new buildings and will find his written inquiries to other institutions quickly answered. He will later find himself a constant host and letter answerer,
Establishing Branch Libraries

after his splendid new building opens its doors, thus adding his bit to
the judgment, experience, and imagination from which so many branch
library buildings have been built successfully.

References

1. Greenough, William W. Addresses Delivered at the Dedication of the East
Boston Branch of the Public Library, Boston, Mudge and Son, 1872, pp. 5-6.
3. Randall, William N. “Some Principles for Library Planning,” College and
4. McKinley, Alice Elizabeth. Demand for Public Library Service in Oakland
Foundation, 1955.
7. Young, Pauline V. Scientific Social Surveys and Research. 2d ed. New York,
8. Eastman, L. A. “Branch Libraries and other distributing agencies,” Ameri-
can Library Association, Manual of Library Economy, ch. 15. Quoted in Wheeler,
New York, Charles Scribner’s Sons, 1941, p. 47.
Systems in Large Urban Libraries.” A paper submitted to the Faculty of the Grad-
uate Library School, Chicago, 1940, p. 34. (Mimeographed.)
10. Wheeler, Joseph L., and Goldhor, Herbert. Practical Administration of
pp. 33-40.
Serving Populations of 35,000 to 49,999: Fiscal Year 1960. Washington, D.C.,
p. 19.
17. Wheeler, Joseph L. The Effective Location of Public Library Buildings.
(University of Illinois Library School Occasional Papers, No. 52). Urbana, Uni-
versity of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, 1958, p. 2.
18. Ibid., p. 30.
19. Ulveling, Ralph A. “Problems of Library Construction.” In Leon Carnov-
sky and Howard W. Winger, eds., The Medium-sized Public Library: Its Status
JOHN M. CARROLL


[ 400 ]
The Role of the Branch Library in the Program of Metropolitan Library Service

WYMAN H. JONES

Exerted in coalition, a series of broad changes have sharply affected the role of the branch library in the program of metropolitan library service. Once upon a time, when the 1900's came rolling in, there was only a scattering of library branches around the United States. They were probably looked upon by their system's central library as small and poorly-stocked stepchildren. Today a network of branches serves every city of size, and branch development programs usually stand at the top of administrative planning priorities.

The branch libraries we are building today are predicated on decades of painful growth and experimentation. At one time, when urban people lived pretty well within small and defined neighborhoods, municipal library systems sought to reach out with a scattering of branches supported by a broad base of delivery stations and sub-branches. Chicago and Jersey City, for example, had numerous delivery stations, Chicago's service being especially famous; Boston and Pittsburgh offered a combination of branches and delivery stations.\(^1\) The delivery station and the sub-branch honored that majority of American city dwellers whose lives were geographically defined.

Field experience dramatized to earlier librarians the superiority of the branch library over other types of stationary extension agencies. People responded to the wider collections, the longer service hours and the professional service offered by a branch. As the first decade of the century ended, working professionals had come rather solidly to regard the branch as the preferred mode of extension.\(^1\)

Branch-type operations were conducted at one time or another in different cities in fire stations, civic centers, converted residences, and abandoned business buildings; interestingly enough, St. Louis even

---

Director, Fort Worth Public Library, Fort Worth, Texas.
operated a branch for more than a quarter of a century in a downtown department store.\textsuperscript{2}

This era of colorful locational innovation has more or less declined except for an occasional outcropping, such as the "booketeria" of the 1950's.\textsuperscript{8} Most contemporary public library administrations are dedicated to the notion that a branch should operate in a facility located and built for the purpose. Here and there, branches operate from leased quarters. There is nothing intrinsically wrong with this type of operation. It offers the advantages of geographic flexibility and, as such agencies are usually part of a shopping center, the closeness to pedestrian traffic which so heavily conditions the quantitative response to a given branch. The idea of the branch in rented quarters has gained only limited acceptance, however, probably in part because it does not offer the sense of stability and ownership that is likely to be sought by institutions, and in part because boards and city councils do not often approve of them.

Metropolitan branches have achieved considerable status and are acquiring even more as a result of the forceful changes in population, education, transportation, municipal retailing patterns, and library building planning. Like algebra and romance, the educational explosion is something more often referred to than understood. There is a fairly general knowledge of the widespread and dramatic increase in student enrollment at all levels. There is not so general an understanding of the equally if not more dramatic change in the level of public education. In the past, cities and whole nations underwent decades during which the public education, if any, remained stable. Yet, in the United States between the years 1940 and 1960, the educational level—the number of years of formal schooling of the average adult—rose more than two years.\textsuperscript{4} Our knowledge of the relationship between educational background and reading habits gives us insight into the groundswell of usage and support being experienced by branches today, particularly when we observe that the more highly-educated outer core of the cities is served almost solely by branches.

The character of public education has altered too. Educators are more and more leading the student away from the confinement of the text and toward corollary and enrichment reading. As a matter of training and assignment, the student finds himself directed to the library.

Prior to the phenomenon of modern transportation, the typical city dweller lived in a small neighborhood, maintained face-to-face relationships, and was confined geographically. The coming of the family
Role of Branch Library in Metropolitan Library Service

automobile and the development of networks of freeways have created a new way of life for the citizen. The automobile and the freeway have made obsolescent those smaller service units such as the delivery station and the sub-branch which were predicated on the neighborhood way of life.

The changes wrought by these forces were distinctly catalyzed and focused into library potential by the reshaping of the urban retailing structure. Before World War II the downtown business district enjoyed an easy dominance; since then, the new outlying shopping centers, offering convenience and free parking and a wide selection of merchandise and services, have made gains of such an order that they have captured a healthy percentage, at a rapidly increasing rate, of the market. And the shopping center expansion continues energetically: the number of shopping centers had grown from 1,000 in 1955 to a planned 8,600 at the close of 1965.

Taken together, these conditions produced a climate conducive to the establishment of a series of large and successful branch libraries. Today's branches are usually built close to shopping centers in the interest of accessibility and a favorable parking situation. And they are being planned to be much larger than before. Branches were formerly on the order of 2,000 to 6,000 square feet; to judge by the new buildings reported in the 1961-1964 architectural issues of the Library Journal, branches now appear to be averaging 12,000 square feet.

Branch libraries began to appear in this country during the latter part of the nineteenth century, but it was not until the 1930's that the elbowing-out population and the depression-prompted high readership forced public librarians generally to begin planning in terms of systems of branch libraries. Thus really began the era of the surveyor and outside expert.

The branch in its new image—larger, better-located and architecturally distinct—is doing well indeed. Most cities of large size now have at least several branches in this category, each recording an annual book circulation of 200,000 to 600,000. Service statistics from annual reports of the larger public libraries show that branches are responsible for as much as 85 to 90 percent of the system's total book loans. There are, in fact, a number of cities, Corpus Christi and Dallas, for instance, that have individual branches registering more book loans than the central library.

The central library still represents the administrative nexus, but in some cases it is losing its ascendancy as a service unit. Although diffi-
WYMAN H. JONES

cult to prove, because of the absence of broad-spectrum historical statistics, it is common knowledge among field librarians that branches have broadened their reference and periodicals collections to help meet increased demands. It is not uncommon to find reference collections numbering three or four hundred titles in branch agencies. Branch collections are growing in general, to keep up with their patronage. The writer recently collected data from 427 branches in cities having a service population of 300,000 to 900,000, and found that the average branch in the sample held 22,300 volumes.

As urbanization persists, the time is not too far away when the bulk of public library book loans will be issued from branches. According to the 1964 American Library Directory, 666 public library systems already maintain a total of 3,376 branches, or an average of five branches per system. The 1960 United States Census showed that 63 percent of the population resided in the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas. Estimating that two-thirds of the library patrons in these areas went to branches—probably a conservative estimate—it appears to be a fairly valid proposition that a minimum of 42 percent of the public library usage is accounted for by branches.

The general lack of controversial publications concerning the scope of branch library service indicates consensus. The widening scope of branch collections suggests that a serious attempt is being made to offer fairly full services to adults and students. Researchers are, of course, still referred to the central building, but most reference and school-oriented questions are handled at the branch.

Metropolitan branches today characteristically contain an adult department, children's department, young adult department or section, basic reference and periodical collections, and a limited vertical file. Larger branches in a few cities offer a collection of circulating phonograph records, but this service is not yet typical.

The meeting rooms included in many of the branches constructed during the last two decades permit a wider variety of programs and services. To the traditional children's story hour have been added book discussion groups, book reviews, panel programs, cinema (the films are usually borrowed from the central building's film collection), guest speakers, art and hobby displays, and an occasional fillip in the form of a magician or puppet show. These programs are most often planned by the branch librarian with the collaboration of the appropriate administrative office. In the larger systems, a coordinator may assist by planning and scheduling programs for a series of branches.

[404]
Role of Branch Library in Metropolitan Library Service

Branch libraries tend to be individual if not autonomous in the sense that the responsibility for book selection, and preparation of programs resides normally in the branch head or staff. Even in those systems where branch book selection is conducted by a committee or coordinator, or limited to items appearing on a prepared list, the branch head is almost always afforded procedural redress on the decision concerning a particular title.

Service to young adults has become one of the newer aspects of branch work. Branches often have a section of reading materials for young teens, and give consideration to the selection of materials for this age group. Some cities—Baltimore, Boston, and Dallas, for example—have in larger branches a young adult librarian who visits schools, offers book talks and book fairs, and, like the children's librarian, essays programs for a defined patronage.

The growth and specialization of branch library collections appears likely to continue. For many years branches have offered foreign language books for patrons. The recent establishment of programs for adult literacy has prompted branches here and there to carry a shelf of titles for beginning readers. As the number of educated senior citizens spirals upward, it seems certain that branches will respond with at least small collections for the visually handicapped.

Evaluating the effectiveness of a branch presents real and theoretical difficulties. Wheeler and Goldhor developed the "Arbitrary Service-Unit-Cost" formula which obtains the unit cost per book circulation by dividing circulation into operating costs. The formula is useful in that it affords insight into the efficiency of an operation, but efficiency is only one aspect of effectiveness. A branch is effective in the degree to which it reaches the potential library users in the service area. A better measure is provided through the computation of readership per capita for the service area population. But a basic problem here arises from the difficulty of defining the service area and its population; our theoretical descriptions of a branch service area are not consistent with the conditions of reality. City-wide circulation per capita is rather easily determined, as the information necessary for that determination is available. But branch circulation per capita is statistically as weak as the population estimate of the real service area, which is at best of a general nature. An additional weakness of the circulation-per-capita approach lies in its inability to show us the pattern of penetration in the community's neighborhoods. The pattern of penetration can be gained through the preparation of a map of patrons' residences. Requir-
ing time and tedious effort to draft, even when based on a minimal sample, the map of patrons' residences shows clearly where the branch is extending service and where it is not. These present objective modes of evaluating branch effectiveness share the weakness of being essentially quantitative. For qualitative assessment, we must make judgments based on the experience, intelligence and service attitudes of the librarians staffing the branch and shaping its collections.

Even as the branch library has gained in scope and independence, so has its responsibility for publicity and public relations taken on a broader base. The branch librarian is expected to be knowledgeable about the community served by his agency, to remain in contact with its leading organizations, to be available for speeches to local clubs, and to work with suburban newspapers in publicizing the branch.

Responding to the energies and outcroppings of an abundant and diverse society, the branch library has gained a maturity and a steadiness that will ready it for its future as the principal popular institution among American public libraries.

References

Selection, Training, and Staffing for Branch Libraries

HAROLD L. HAMILL

A search of library literature on the various aspects of personnel practices in branch libraries produces a great many items of helpful information, but in scattered sources rather than in systematic form. It is true, of course, that most general treatments of recruitment, selection, induction, and development of library personnel are applicable to the branch staff. The two most recent general texts on library administration, Practical Administration of Public Libraries, by Wheeler and Goldhor,1 and Local Public Library Administration, edited by Roberta Bowler,2 include useful material in their chapters on personnel and on branch management.

Considerable information on branch staffing patterns has been assembled in a variety of forms, usually ephemeral, and for a variety of reasons, sometimes by individual libraries when required to justify staff needs to budget authorities. Unfortunately, statistical formulas based on numerical analyses of existing practice can be completely unrealistic, even dangerous, when transferred to theoretically comparable situations. Therefore, better counsel can often be found in surveys of some of our larger cities, made by experts, wherein service objectives are presented as the rationale for the staffing pattern recommended. An excellent example of such a survey is Lowell Martin’s Branch Library Service for Dallas.3

Bound to color any current discussion of library personnel in any of its aspects is the long-standing nation-wide shortage of professional librarians which has handicapped library growth and development and, in some cases, forced unwelcome compromises with desired standards.

City Librarian, City of Los Angeles.
Selection of Branch Staff

Textbooks on personnel administration in libraries (and civil service examination announcements) are prone to describe desirable qualifications for librarians in terms that only paragons could possess in full. Although realism requires selection from what is available, certain definite qualities should still be sought in the staff assigned to branch positions.

The term "skilled generalist" probably best describes the professional background most useful in branch service to adults. Successful branch work has special requirements of its own. In a large city, the community branch is "the library" to many thousands, perhaps hundreds of thousands of people. In addition to general intelligence and adequate professional training, tact, patience, and genuine interest in people are highly desirable qualities for branch service.

Clerical or other nonprofessional positions in branches equally require dependable, friendly, out-going people. In many libraries, positions in these classifications can be filled by part-time employees. Sometimes housewives living in the neighborhood can acquire sufficient typing ability or can brush up pre-marital office skills to qualify as clerks or clerk-typists. Some housewives even find it convenient to work as pages for a few hours a week. College and high school students, too, often prefer to work in part-time positions at branches near their homes. Thus many branches enjoy a labor market advantage over the central library, which is usually located in the congested downtown area.

The degree of authority and responsibility delegated to the branch librarian will be largely dependent upon the organization of the library system and the extent to which branch management practices have been standardized. Many large city and county libraries have regionalized their branch service. When this has been done, branch librarians usually have fairly quick and direct access to their regional supervisor for aid in decision-making when problems arise. Likewise, they will have received guidance through instruction and written directives on branch operations, often in very detailed form. In a more loosely-organized system, where a fairly large number of branches are under the supervision of a higher-ranking library official, one who perhaps also has other responsibilities, the branch librarian may have considerably more autonomy, and may even, within limits of overall policy, be somewhat free to develop procedures.

Leaving aside conflicting theories of branch organization, let us only
Selection, Training, and Staffing for Branch Libraries

point out here that the personality, practical experience and skill of the branch librarian are highly important to the smoothness of the branch's operation. The branch librarian must be a successful combination of administrator, supervisor, and bookman. He must also be the library's representative in the community, the first link between the people his branch serves and the often little-understood government agency of which it is a part. This is true of the branch librarian even in a regional system, where the regional supervisor sometimes acts as the delegate of the chief librarian or library board in planning service for the region and in dealing with its broad-scale problems.

A word should be said about the several types of nonprofessional supervisory positions which have been developed within the past few years in libraries, particularly about their special usefulness in branches. The importance of separating professional duties from clerical and having each performed by the proper classification of personnel does not need laboring here. However, even when libraries have sincerely tried to honor this principle in the observance rather than in the breach, it has often been necessary for librarians to learn clerical procedures in order to train and supervise clerks. This has been particularly true in branches, where clerical processes concerned with circulation occupy such a large proportion of the total operations. The emergence of a skilled, intermediate, subprofessional class (variously termed library assistant, library technician, or library aide) has provided a highly satisfactory solution to this problem. In some branches workload and staff are too small to permit this degree of specialization. In Los Angeles, twenty-eight library assistants now supervise all clerical operations in the twenty-one largest branches. A strong advantage of this classification is that it offers incentive and promotional opportunity to those who follow a career in the library but are without professional training and background.

There is some debate as to whether preparation for such subprofessional positions can best be made with the aid of courses in junior colleges or trade schools. Unfortunately, such courses are not very satisfactory or complete. Moreover, clerical procedures in libraries differ sufficiently to limit the value of this kind of formal training.

Induction and Development of Branch Staff

The training of staff, both professional and nonprofessional, is a continuing process. There has been a growing and regrettable trend in recent years to criticize library schools for not producing graduates
### TABLE 1

**Training of Branch Library Staff**

*Los Angeles Public Library*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisor or Training Agency</th>
<th>Professional Staff</th>
<th>Nonprofessional Staff (Subprofessional and Clerical)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civil Service Department</td>
<td>Explains library personnel regulations to employee entering library service.</td>
<td>City-wide personnel policies and benefits, personal appearance and courtesy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gives ½ day orientation session at City Hall on city government.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Office</td>
<td>Organizes 8 week (½ to full day weekly) orientation course in organization and services of Library with visits to Central Library Subject Departments and Technical Services, typical branches and Maintenance Department. Administrative officers and specialists, department heads, and branch librarians conduct the individual sessions. Conducts ½ day supervision workshop for new supervisors. Gives information on evaluation, rating and discipline of employees. Conducts special training sessions in telephone use and courtesy, etc.</td>
<td>Conducts 1 day orientation in organization and services of Library emphasizing clerical work; e.g., circulation of books, overdues, typewriter care and public relations. Various library officers present brief talks. Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Branches</td>
<td>Instructs on library policy and procedures through bi-weekly Branch Order Meetings, weekly Regional Librarians Meetings, individual contacts and weekly visits to branches. Conducts workshops, institutes, etc. for supervisors; e.g., on scheduling and work assignments. Supervises preparation and up-dating of branch management and procedure manuals.</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Division Librarian)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinators of Children’s</td>
<td>Assist in training of Children’s Librarians and Young Adult Librarians through regularly scheduled meetings and individual contacts. Conduct workshops, institutes, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services and Young Adult</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services (Principal Librarians)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Responsibilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Librarian (Principal Librarian)</td>
<td>Instructs in library policy and procedures through regional staff meetings, individual contacts and branch visits. Assumes training of sub-branch staff as necessary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch Librarian (Senior Librarian)</td>
<td>Trains new personnel through orientation program and individual instruction. Gives in-service training through individual and group instruction. Works out written procedure for individual assignments. Reviews procedure with each change in personnel policy. Holds regular staff meetings at least every two weeks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Children's Librarian (Coordinating position)</td>
<td>Inducts new Children’s Librarians and interprets library policy. Advises on children’s room activities and plans for schoolwork. Assists in planning community work. Conducts workshops in region as needed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Assistant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Same in very small branch)</td>
<td>(Same)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trains clerical staff in branch with no Library Assistant.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trains new clerical staff through orientation program and individual instruction. Gives in-service training of clerical staff. Individual instruction: Uses branch manuals and branch procedure workbooks. Reviews procedure with each change in personnel or policy. Conducts regular staff meetings. Plans agenda and schedules meetings of clerical staff. Encourage staff participation and follows through on decisions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
equipped with a "practical background" of library processes and routines. Actually, it should be expecting enough to have the fledgling librarian arrive with a broad grasp of the objectives of library service, the basic principles of library administration, and a good knowledge of bibliography and its organization. The last is the most important. Thus prepared, the new librarian is ready for the months, even years, of training he will require before he is really master of his art. Throughout the never-ending job of staff development to be done within the library three elements must always be present: communication, comprehension, and application.

Most libraries large enough to have branch systems have definite programs of induction and orientation, some fairly elaborate. A few have budgets and work programs flexible enough to permit actual rotation of new professional staff members among various kinds of work situations to give them a fair sampling of the library's total service program. Whether or not this is an ideal situation, the fact remains that not many libraries can afford the luxury of it, and must be content with more concentrated methods.

The Los Angeles training pattern may be fairly typical of the large-system approach, as shown briefly in Table 1. For librarians, the formal orientation course is deliberately delayed until the new employee has been on the job for six months or more. Experience over a number of years has shown that the brand-new librarian is not yet ready to absorb the full benefit of the course, and can profit by actually working within a unit and becoming familiar with its procedures and problems before attempting to understand its (and his) place in the total organization.

For new librarians in branches, one of the most important aspects of the orientation course is the opportunity to learn about the complex resources and services of the Central Library and the workings of the departments which function for the entire system in the purchasing, cataloging, processing, binding, and shipping of books and periodicals. Although unable to rotate its new staff, Los Angeles does send a new branch employee to the regional library in his area for one week to acquire general background in library policy and practical working procedures before beginning his specific assignment.

Training is a two-way street, because it requires continuous communication between supervisors and learners. It should not be forgotten that administrators and supervisors are continuous learners, too,
Selection, Training, and Staffing for Branch Libraries

gaining in strength and effectiveness through contacts with their staff. Ideally, in democratic administration, the entire staff can eventually participate in the development of policy if full channels of communication are kept open. As new staff members grasp the scope and complexity of the library’s objectives and work processes, they become in effect self-trainers. It is the library’s duty to create a climate which is favorable to self-development.

In branch libraries, the supervisors at various levels will be the key to staff development, and much will depend on their individual skills. Nevertheless, the library administration should provide the program within which they can operate and the tools which they can use. Table 1 mentions some of the tools which have been developed for training branch staff. It might be useful to describe a little more fully those which are most helpful in continued self-training and development.

After all due credit has been given to face-to-face communication, through individual and group instruction, staff meetings and conferences, the fact remains that in any institution of reasonable size and complexity it is essential to put into written and easily available form, in full detail for study and continuous reference, the policies, procedures and routines by which the library’s operations are carried out, and to keep this material up-to-date by swift communication of changes in written form. The Los Angeles Public Library, through the years, has developed a series of manuals to form the backbone of training and continuing self-training throughout the system. These manuals are particularly useful in branches, where procedures can be standardized to a much greater degree than in Central Library subject departments, which are in many ways quasi-special libraries.

A multi-volumed General Manual covering the policies, rules and procedures which two or more of the Library’s major divisions have in common is distributed to all units, both departments and branches. There are chapters on history and organization, general personnel information and rules, and business management (budget preparation, control and reporting, cash transactions, transportation, delivery service, mail, supplies, buildings and equipment). Remaining to be put into final form are the chapters on objectives and book selection policy, acquisition, cataloging, and physical preparation of materials, reference and advisory services, circulation services, and maintenance of the collection.

Three existing branch manuals have been in use for up to a decade or more. They are loose-leaf volumes giving detailed descriptions of
procedures in various aspects of the Library's technical services as they affect branches. They cover registration, circulation, ordering, cataloging, and binding, all from the point of view of the branch staff. These are veritable bibles in branch operation, and are constantly referred to by both supervisors and staff.

Not issued yet in its completed form, but sent out to all branches in parts, is a branch management manual, which includes the following sections:

- Supervisor's guide for inducting and training new employees
- Duties and responsibilities statements (covering all classifications found in branches)
- Statements on service to children and young adults (including line and staff relationships)
- Scheduling in branches
- Assignment of duties in branches
- Branch management checklist (guide for Branch and Regional Librarians to achieve uniformity of practice and good staff performance)
- Checklist of duties for use with new staff members
- Branch records, orders and shipments.

In Los Angeles, several devices are employed to make sure that the information in the manuals is kept current. If possible, important and far-reaching changes in policy or procedures are always scheduled to go into effect only after the new pages for the manuals have been sent out, and after there has been an opportunity to explain the changes and answer questions in staff meetings. If an unavoidable time lag occurs in codifying and distributing amendments or supplements to the manuals, temporary directives are sent out to cover the gap. If necessary these can be included in the Administrative Bulletin, which is issued very frequently, usually daily, or in the bi-weekly Branch Librarians' Conference Bulletin. Explanations of the reasons for broad policy decisions or the texts of important policies adopted by the Board of Library Commissioners are included in Operation LAPL, issued irregularly as an administrative newsletter.

Replies to a questionnaire on communication circulated by Harold Hacker in 1964 indicate that the Los Angeles pattern of manuals may be fairly common. Of the twenty-one large libraries questioned, seventeen said they maintained coded manuals of policy statements and procedures. Fifteen used written bulletins or circulars to announce a new policy, while twelve held administrative staff meetings for this
Selection, Training, and Staffing for Branch Libraries

purpose. Sixteen issued an information publication to employees on a regular basis.

Various other aspects of the total branch program play a part in the continuous training process, including some which do not have training or staff development as their specific objective. Here may be mentioned service ratings, which annually provide the supervisor an opportunity to discuss short-comings with his staff, to give encouragement, and to stimulate new directions for self-development. Staff participation in conferences called to discuss branch needs in books, personnel, and equipment or to find a solution for problems which have arisen, can serve as a spur to further thinking and reading on the subject, both forms of self-training. Committee work, whether on book selection and evaluation or on administrative problems, is another way by which branch staff can take part in the process of developing the services of their branch and of the library as a whole. Community contacts should not be overlooked for their training value. While the branch librarian and the children's librarian are most likely to encounter occasions to work with community groups, the entire professional staff should be given as much time and opportunity as possible, particularly as they show ability and liking for it, to take part in cultural, educational, and civic activities which have implications for library service. Libraries with active adult education programs offer additional training ground for staff development in working with the public.

Staffing Patterns in Branch Libraries

The number and classification of staff required to carry out the work program of a branch library will be highly dependent upon the service objectives of the library system of which it is a part. Thus, as indicated in the introduction to this article, over-reliance upon numerical staffing patterns developed for branches in other areas can be a dangerous practice. In order to accumulate some current information about the factors employed by other libraries in establishing the number and classification of branch staff, a questionnaire was sent to a number of other large library systems. Eight replies were received. Some of the data assembled thereby are set forth in Table 2. Other comments offered by the respondent librarians will also be drawn upon as they are appropriate.

A figure frequently quoted as a rule of thumb estimate, but never quite pinned down to its original authority, is "one full-time staff mem-
## TABLE 2  Branch Library Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Population 1960</th>
<th>Number of Branches</th>
<th>Other Extension Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Regional</td>
<td>Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicago Public Library</td>
<td>3,550,404</td>
<td>A  3</td>
<td>B  36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York Public Library</td>
<td>3,345,087</td>
<td>A  3</td>
<td>B  78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library (3 boroughs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brooklyn Public Library</td>
<td>2,627,319</td>
<td>A  7</td>
<td>B  31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Los Angeles Public Library</td>
<td>2,479,015</td>
<td>A  7</td>
<td>B  47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Library of Philadelphia</td>
<td>2,002,512</td>
<td>A  1</td>
<td>B  28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queens Borough Public Library</td>
<td>1,809,578</td>
<td>A  4</td>
<td>B  48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detroit Public Library</td>
<td>1,670,144</td>
<td>A  1</td>
<td>B  27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore</td>
<td>939,024</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B  15(b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Louis Public Library</td>
<td>750,026</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B  19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>2,130,345</td>
<td>A  3</td>
<td>B  37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Exclusive of schools, hospitals, and business houses.
(b) Includes Donnell Library Center, Municipal Reference, Municipal Archives, Lincoln Center, and Picture Collection.
(i) Reading Centers and a Business Library.
(k) Reading Centers.
(b) Borough Hall Library.
(i) Includes 6 hospital collections and 1 firehouse collection.
(j) Stations are located in prisons, hospitals and homes for the aged.
(k) 10 “major,” 5 “neighborhood.”
(l) School deposit, classroom libraries.

Examination of the total staff reported in Table 2 indicates that this “standard” is too low to be currently useful.

The ratio of professional to clerical staff in these nine branch systems shows an interesting range, from a high of 55 percent professional staff to a low of 26 percent. The average percentage can be placed against the statement in Public Library Service that, “Existing studies of the nature of library tasks indicate that the professional staff
### Selection, Training, and Staffing for Branch Libraries

**For Nine Large Public Libraries: 1965**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Annual Branch Circulation</th>
<th>Total Staff (exclusive of custodial)</th>
<th>Professional</th>
<th>Clerical and Subprofessional</th>
<th>Annual Circulation per Staff Member (exclusive of custodial)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Branch</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percent of Total</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9,047,561</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13,396,473</td>
<td>1102</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9,155,493</td>
<td>644</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12,390,010</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,502,461</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7,737,246</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,296,859</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,956,232</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not supplied</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8,185,292</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>43.0(m)</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

(b) Includes Donnell Library Center, Municipal Reference, Municipal Archives, Lincoln Center, and Picture Collection.

(c) Includes 22 paid from private funds.

(d) Includes 12 paid from private funds.

(e) Includes 10 paid from private funds.

(m) All percentages have been taken to the nearest whole number.

in a library system should be approximately one-third of the total personnel, and the nonprofessional staff (excluding maintenance personnel) approximately two-thirds.\(^7\) (Note that this statement is made with relation to a total system, not branches alone.)

As in any well-run library situation, staff in branches should be sufficiently varied in classification to provide the specialized skills required for efficient pursuit of the branch's total service program. Usually these should include librarians assigned to adult reference, young adult work, and children's services. Work assignments should be clearly defined, understood, and posted for the information of the entire staff. Employees who are not sure just what their job is sup-

[417]
posed to be are bound to wander about in a maze of inefficiency. A now classic story in California tells of the management analyst who asked a library staff member to describe exactly and in detail just what her duties were. Her report read, "I do whatever needs to be done."

In addition to the library’s total service program, various quite specific factors must be considered in developing staffing patterns for a branch system. The questionnaire circulated to the libraries listed in Table 2 stated that certain of these factors were assumed to be operative, for example, amount and type of circulation and reference work, hours open to the public, size of buildings, and the presence or absence of adult education activities. The replies brought forth several other factors, one of which was “number of floors and the degree of effective control which can be maintained over all reading areas” (Free Library of Philadelphia). From Enoch Pratt Free Library came this comment:

Factors in social structure of the branch community as 1) heavy concentration of racial or national groups; 2) a rapidly growing community or a rapidly changing community creating unusual problems; 3) presence of natural or artificial barriers which distort the service area; 4) institutions, industries or commercial centers which bring people, not necessarily residents, to the area; 5) a low reading potential demanding unusual stimulation or a high reading potential creating unusual demands.

The questionnaire also asked for comment on any new service concepts which might affect branch staffing. Philadelphia sent a description of its huge new Northeast Regional Library, which requires a staff of eighty, including twenty-six professional librarians, some of them subject specialists with advanced college degrees in their fields. At the other end of the scale in Philadelphia are reading centers, described as “essentially self-service agencies stocked with books that patrons can use with little or no guidance. . . . Limited reference and information service is maintained by one full time and one part time library technician.” Brooklyn also described its reading centers, which are book dispensing units manned by clerks and supervised by nearby District Libraries. New York mentioned its Trainee Program in which an average of sixty library school students are employed at all times. Approximately 50 percent of these work with the library full time. They are assigned to limited professional work which increases in scope and responsibility as they get nearer to their degree. St. Louis
Selection, Training, and Staffing for Branch Libraries

stated that the Human Development Program, supported by the Federal Government in its war on poverty, will probably affect several branches. Necessary additions to staff "will depend on how their program develops but chiefly on availability of funds to the library."

Queens Borough also cited the war on poverty: "With the designation of 10 branches as Operation Head Start agencies, a shift in usual staffing was necessitated. In some instances an experienced children's specialist has been designated as branch librarian in these agencies. Special part time personnel with suitable background and education have been hired with Federal funds granted for this project to present special programs following a training course."

Enoch Pratt Free Library mentioned two trends:

The elimination of registration files in branches, and the centralization of all overdues in Circulation Control Department has resulted in using one less clerical staff in some branches. Some of the responsibilities formerly assigned to professional staff have been shifted to the clericals.

Metropolitan Maryland Library Service: an experimental program which provides the registered borrowers of 8 metropolitan public library systems with free borrowing privileges in all outlets of the participating libraries. This may result in heavier use by county residents of those Pratt branches which are readily accessible to their homes or traffic patterns.

Doubtless many other factors could be cited. The student "invasion" of public libraries must surely have a serious effect on changing branch services and resultant staffing. In New York it is producing a new kind of agency—one designed solely for student use. Branches with especially difficult discipline problems have always had to be given special consideration in staffing. What of the new classification now appearing on staff rosters, "Proctor" or "Monitor"? The persistent shortage of professional librarians has strongly affected staffing patterns, leading in Brooklyn to an entirely new kind of library unit. Automation of library processes is only beginning to make itself felt as a force in altering traditional staffing patterns, but it may, perhaps, eventually become the most powerful force of all.

Meanwhile, budget restrictions continue to inhibit the development of "ideal" staffing patterns, or, where they are developed, they are likely to remain an ideal rather than a reality. One item in the questionnaire asked, "Do you have any formulas, standards, or manning
HAROLD L. HAMILL

tables which indicate how much staff in each category is assigned to a given type of branch?" Here is how Queens Borough answered:

Our manning table establishes one full time clerk for each 37,500 volumes circulated and one full time professional librarian for each 20 hours of service per reference point as required. As the ... manning table will show, these requirements do not match our allocated positions. Staffing follows rather closely the "present pattern" section of the manning table in most instances. However, the "present pattern" section equals actual allocated positions for the various agencies which, in some instances, is unrealistic. Actual staffing is based on a combination of factors which point up need and not any simple formula that could be universally applied. If our total staffing ever equalled the required staffing we could probably adhere to a formula method very closely.

A number of libraries besides Queens supplied formulas, manning tables or other standards of staff allocation for branch libraries. These included Chicago, Brooklyn, and New York. Chicago uses six formulas depending upon grading of the branches as regional, branches in separate buildings, store branches, and subbranches in three circulation-size groups. New York's manning tables assume that within a forty-hour work week the average professional spends twenty-five hours in public service, ten hours in collection building, programs, etc., and five hours for ill time, vacations, and in-service training. Los Angeles standards also provide in general that professional staff may be scheduled for twenty-five hours of the forty-hour working week for work with the public. Enoch Pratt is now studying its professional staffing pattern, but currently the major branches have a minimum of five professionals and three clericals, and the neighborhood branches have a minimum of four professionals and three clericals.

If any conclusions can be drawn on the subject, it might be said with safety that libraries may continue to find the exchange of information on staffing patterns interesting, and possibly even useful. But it must not be forgotten that local concepts of branch services vary greatly, both among cities and within library systems. Although a certain degree of standardization may be desirable, as much flexibility as is necessary to meet a wide variety of special factors must be maintained.

[ 420 ]
Selection, Training, and Staffing for Branch Libraries

References


The Branch Collection

MEREDITH BLOSS

This chapter deals with the purpose of a branch collection, its size, balance, relationship to the central library, and policies and methods of selection. The objectives of the collection would, obviously, be identical with those of the branch library and as the 1956 ALA Standards put it, the community library (including the branch) is "the unit in the library system closest to the reader." It stocks the most frequently used materials or those "used regularly" and should "be able to draw upon larger collections, to meet the needs of readers with specialized interests." ¹

This clear-cut theory of the branch library is also expressed by Wheeler and Goldhor, "The mission of a branch library is to give as much and as good service to as many citizens in its area as possible." Service is defined in small branches as "mainly . . . lending books [with] a high proportion of fiction, with some elementary reference work and reading guidance." The larger branch would lend a larger proportion of adult non-fiction and other special materials. The branch resembles the main library in scope if not in scale of function. The job is to "relate books . . . to the life interests of people." But they also note that: "Two main theories of branch library function have competed with each other. One envisions a branch library as a smaller-scale public library, offering reference and other special services as does the central library. The other assumes that branch libraries should be mainly agencies for the circulation of popular books at the neighborhood level. Both theories are valid, since they apply to different types of agencies . . . we need to distinguish between a book distributing branch and a library service branch." ²

Sealock has also a considered summary of branch collection theory, touching a number of significant points, and concluding that the prac-
The Branch Collection

tice has been to provide a general collection of books, without ma-
terial in depth, but with a rather wide range of fiction and general
non-fiction, with more books for children than for adults. The distin-
guishing characteristic of the branch collection, compared with other
book distribution centers such as drugstores, stationery stores, and
even groceries with book shelves, is that it is a balanced collection
served by a professional staff. Even the smallest branch can make a
contribution to popular, informal education with a carefully chosen
collection. The branch collection will have many calls for materials
related to formal education and for general information, and a more
mobile population will require branch libraries to render a more com-
prehensive service. The branch collection has long had an important
recreational function that can be met with excellent fiction, authentic
biography, and readable books on current affairs.  

A different view of branch library purpose which, if followed ex-
clusively, would have a considerable impact on the collection, was that
stated by Ulveling in 1938: “the major part of a public library’s op-
portunity to conduct a general educational service rests on its system
of branch libraries.” He added, “Branch libraries are not service satel-
lites of a main library, but, in their own right, they have a definite
educational responsibility . . . which is one of providing for the edu-
cational self-improvement of individuals.”  

Being closest to the reader, the branch collection is also seen as the
product of community needs. “The selection of books for the branch
will be governed by the nature of the community each branch serves
. . . . Thus there will be a variety of types of collections in the various
branches.”  

Baltimore has the same point of view in its book selection policy,
specifying that “It is around these community functions that the av-
average branch builds its permanent collection,” although a sentence or
two later this is modified by the statement that “each branch main-
tains a basic collection of standard works in the major fields of knowl-
edge.”  

The conflict in purpose that faces branch selectors takes other forms
as well. Carnovsky saw the choice as between selection “according to
. . . a set of literary . . . values,” or “according to . . . public demand,”
and he sees value as the only defensible policy.  

Lacy says that there are two major kinds of library use: “pastime
use and purposeful use. . . . By pastime use I mean that use for recre-
atational reading that responds to a generalized desire to be entertained,
a desire that might be satisfied more or less indifferently by one book or another within the range of the user’s taste or by another form of recreation entirely. By purposive use I mean not only use in seeking information but also use for a particular and discriminated cultural experience which . . . cannot be readily replaced by a different experience.”

Professor Herbert J. Gans told a symposium on library functions in 1963 that there is a conflict between two conceptions of the community library. The “supplier-oriented” idea argues that the library is an institution which ought to achieve the educational and cultural goals of the librarian. The “user-oriented” conception argues that the library ought to cater to the needs and demands of its users. Gans charges that the usual solution of the library has been to “uphold the supplier-oriented concept in the professional literature, but to accept the user-oriented concept in actual practice, if only to get its budget approved . . .” He was critical of arbitrary standards of size and program.

Library surveys provide some information about what librarians consider to be the purpose of the collection, although, curiously, not as much as might be expected. In most cases, surveys tend to deal much more extensively and specifically with such matters as site, location, size of building and of collection, number of branches, and circulation, than with the purpose of the collection. One notes that branch libraries have “a clear-cut function, the supplying of materials in the whole range of everyday, down-to-earth interests . . .” and that “Branch collections are working collections of frequently-used items.” Essentially, the branch purpose “is to serve the wide reading interests of the modern, active American community.” It is also recommended that the collection should contain both educational and recreational materials, and that the standard of quality should be high. “The public library . . . should stand for good reading.” A survey by a management firm sees the branches as the primary home-reading agency of the public library, to provide both for the general and the more specialized needs of the population. Home-reading is here distinguished from reference needs and uses. In another survey, branch libraries are defined as a means only of extending certain services of the central library and not of increasing the level of the service available, of providing greater access to materials but not increasing the scope of the resources available. Surveys also refer to the branch collection as actively changing, useful, containing fewer expensive books than central, with a higher proportion of rec-
reational reading, with emphasis upon current reading resources and materials used by students and children.

Some questions remain with respect to the purpose of a branch collection. Is it recreational or educational, or some of each? What value if any do these slippery labels have in practice? Is there a difference between demand and need? What segment of the demand, or need, will the library consider relevant? Whose value judgment will prevail? Is there a difference between need, as expressed by the individual library user, and need as expressed (or more likely unexpressed) by the corporate community?

The second point to be looked at is the optimum size of the branch collection. The answer was thought to lie, perhaps, in the literature (books, articles, surveys) and in a brief look at practice. Textbooks and surveys, at least the dozen or so examined, seem to agree on 25 to 35 thousand volumes, although Minneapolis recommends 45,000 volumes for a branch serving 25 to 35 thousand people. The Madison, Wisconsin, study is also based on population: “minimum of 1 per capita in service area or 10,000, whichever is larger [with] growth beyond the minimum where demands justify larger stocks.” 14 The per capita approach was also used in the 1943 Post-War Standards which recommended ¼ to ½ volume per capita but noted that this was valid only if a substantial portion was of currently useful books, and also proposed a minimum of 6,000 volumes.15 Cory in his New Orleans survey recommended 25,000 as a “minimum necessary number of book titles” (my italics) for a regional branch,16 and 15,000 titles for a neighborhood library,17 with the total number based on a formula of one volume for each six annual loans. Martin in the Dallas survey recommended “close to 30,000 volumes,” for the large branch, divided into 8,000 for children, 3,000 for young adults and nearly 20,000 for adults.18 Greenaway in the New Haven survey recommended for the children’s collection 3,500 to 5,000 titles, and 10,000 to 15,000 volumes; for adults, 8,500 to 10,000 titles and 12,000 to 20,000 volumes, and about 900 young adult titles, and 1,500 volumes, or a total of 22,500 to 36,500 volumes.19 Circulation is the basis for the size standard proposed by Wheeler and Goldhor: “A branch circulating 100,000 or more books a year should have . . . a book stock of 25,000.” 20

Another way of finding out how big a branch collection should be in the opinion of librarians, is to look at the shelving capacity being provided in new buildings. For example, four Dallas branches opened
MEREDITH BLOSS

in 1964 provided for 45,000, 50,000, 61,000 and 64,000 volumes. Two Milwaukee branches opened in 1964 provided for collections of 60,000 volumes each, to serve populations of 60,000. Three in Tulsa were much smaller, one providing space for 12,250 volumes and two at 17,000.\(^{21}\)

Apart from the question of how big branch libraries should be, how big are they in reality? Wheeler and Goldhor quote a 1960 report based on a sample of 162 branches in 61 library systems which found that the median size group was 5,001-6,000 and the modal size group was 10,001 to 20,000.\(^{22}\) For the present article, a sample was taken of 371 branches in 40 cities in 17 states as reported in the 1964 revision of *American Library Directory*. The sample included only cities of more than 100,000 population, and county or regional systems were not counted. One hundred twenty-one branches or about 33% had fewer than 15,000 volumes; 147 or about 40% had 15,000 to 25,000 volumes; and 103 listed 26,000 or more, with 13 of these listing 50,000 or more books.

Comparative data about size are not useful in point of fact, since they do not take into account a whole host of variables, such as the relative adequacy of school libraries, the number of branch libraries in the total area or the population per branch, population density of the area served, and most important of all, the aims and purposes or mission of the branch collection.

It is significant and has bearing upon the purpose of a branch collection that judgments as to size appear to be based on population served, or on circulation, on a combination of these, or on some other unspecified factors. One does not find in the literature or records of performance any indication that a branch collection would have to be of a certain size in order to achieve adequate representation of the basic and necessary books in the various fields of knowledge and interest. The way in which size is determined appears to indicate that, regardless of the fact that the branch is spoken of as an agency of informal education, and despite the fact that it is doubtless used in that way by a number of people in every community, the actual practice, administratively, is to regard it as an agency for the distribution of books for casual reading.

There is no evidence, for example, that the standards of size were arrived at by controlled experiment. What size branch collection would be needed if, say, one put into practice Dan Lacy's concept of purposeful use,\(^{23}\) plus an aggressive and planned exploitation by staff
The Branch Collection

with leadership quality, plus convenient and attractive quarters and accessibility? Would it be worth investing a sum in such an experiment to determine how big a branch collection should be? To choose one small area of reader interest—for example, consumer education; one might hazard a guess that the typical branch library might have at best ten books in the catalog and perhaps one or two of current vintage on the shelves at any given moment. A branch collection with that level of stock is not apt to be able to create demand in that particular area of informal education.

"The public library, as a social instrument in a democratic state, has the responsibility of providing the books which will contribute to an enlightened citizenry. The translation of this responsibility into action constitutes perhaps the most difficult task of librarianship—book selection." 24 How are books chosen for branch collections? Practically no articles were found in the literature of the past thirty years on this question, so it was necessary to poll the field. Thirty librarians in various parts of the country, in large cities and medium-sized ones, were asked to write a paragraph or two about policy and procedure. The sixteen who responded were very generous and thoughtful and their assistance is much appreciated.

Several practices appear to be more or less common, judging from this very limited sampling, and are presented here first in summary form and then in detail. Initial choices are usually made by main library personnel, either in committee or as subject selectors. Sometimes there is branch representation on the committee, especially if it is a rotating one. Some responses indicated that branch librarians were "encouraged" to recommend titles, though one noted that they were more apt to have subject than title requests. The committee’s choices for addition to the Main Library are then usually listed, weekly or bi-weekly, sometimes by subject, sometimes with annotations. Books are made available for examination, sometimes after or in connection with verbal reviews by those who selected them. Practically all libraries agree that, for practical reasons, no branch library should stock a book that is not in the main library. About half the libraries prepare a list "for branches only," and some break this down into books for larger, medium, smaller and so on. The practice seems to be equally common of opening up all system selections to branches. Various degrees of review and supervision are involved, although the consensus seems to be that the branch librarian knows best what his branch library should have.
"Each branch librarian decides what to buy on the basis of reviews, inspection, budget, discards and the existing book stock and demand."

"The branch librarians are responsible for choosing the items the money is to be spent for." "Each branch librarian examines the titles and review information . . . and indicates those she wishes to order for her specific community." "The branch librarian decides . . . . She brings her own selections to the meeting . . . considers the titles that others have brought, and makes her own selections from what the committee has approved." "Branch librarian looks at books approved for branch purchase and selects within an assigned budget."

Acquisitions regardless of method rely heavily on advance publication or approval plans. As high as 50% of titles are purchased in this manner after the book has been examined. In substantiating the value of particular titles or reinforcing a staff member's review, a definite core of reviewing media is widely used. These media invariably include *Library Journal, Booklist, Virginia Kirkus, New York Times Book Review, New York Herald Tribune Book Week, the Saturday Review,* and in addition local media when available.

What proportion of the library's weekly or annual accessions is selected for branch collections? As an example, Toledo reported that 91 non-fiction and 15 fiction titles were chosen by one or more of eleven branches from one weekly list of 191 non-fiction and 18 fiction titles. No other data on this question were discovered. Toledo, by the way, has begun preparing a bi-weekly list of branch orders, so that Main department heads "can have a more informed idea of what the branches decide to get."

The general conclusions are now examined in more detail. Initial book selection is handled in one of three ways: by a committee, by division or department heads, and by subject specialists. The usual method of selection is by a committee or the division heads. An adult book selection committee varies in composition but is usually composed of administrators, such as the chief librarian and his assistant, the librarian in charge of branches, and the librarian in charge of readers' services. In addition to administrators, there are rotating committee members, who include at least one branch librarian. In only a few instances were all branch librarians members of the committee. The committee meets and agrees upon specific titles on the basis of commercial reviewing media and staff reviews. The results of the meeting are then communicated to various agencies in the form of acquisition lists or slips. The selection committees for children's liter-
The Branch Collection

ature work the same way, except that the authority to purchase titles is more frequently centralized in the children's supervisor.

In libraries where division or department heads make the initial purchases, these heads are individually responsible and there is less apt to be a meeting. The acquisitions of the various heads are then co-ordinated on a requisition list. In the subject specialist method, each professional librarian is responsible for a specific area of knowledge, and he presents his acquisitions at regular meetings, which generally include the entire staff. The subject specialist would be responsible for reviewing media pertaining to his field, and for screening approval books in his field. Regardless of the system of selection, the initial selection results in a pool of acquisitions for the main library. The next step is to decide which are appropriate for the branches.

In many cases the committee or department heads have left the branches a free choice of any title that has been ordered for the main library. Highly specialized items, however, are frequently noted as such, and therefore not likely for branch acquisition. Frequently when the acquisition list is open, a supervisor is then responsible for reviewing branch decisions.

Almost as many libraries have placed controls on the acquisition list. Usually, the individual selector or the committee as a group will decide which titles are appropriate for the main library only, and which titles can be duplicated in the branches. Some systems differentiate between which titles are appropriate for only the larger branches, and those which are appropriate for all branches. Usually the designations for the titles are not iron-clad. For special community needs there is recourse to the branch supervisor. Under the subject selector system the selector decides which titles are branch material, and in which branches to place them.

The branch librarian makes his choices from an acquisitions list or from acquisition slips which are issued on a regular basis. The books appearing on the list frequently are available in a reviewing room so that the branch librarians may examine them. Adult selections by the branch librarians generally are not closely supervised. Children's selections are usually made with the co-operation of the children's supervisor. Thus, without the aid of a comprehensive guide, the branch librarian must know the needs of his community and how to meet these needs through currently available literature.

In many systems there are automatic additions to branch collections that do not require the individual approval of the branch librarian.
These additions, including reference works purchased by the Reference Department, are system-wide, such as a schedule purchase of encyclopedias. Some additions are temporary in nature, such as fiction or mystery collections that travel from branch to branch. Several systems reported using rental collections of current fiction in branches.

The branch librarian is also largely responsible for maintaining the condition and appropriateness of the branch collections, except in subject selector systems where collection maintenance (i.e., replacement, duplication, and weeding) is carried out by the subject selector. Usually the branch librarian enjoys considerable latitude in collection maintenance. However in some systems, replacements must be approved by the book selection committee, or by the branch supervisor. Frequently system-wide replacements are effected in specific areas through subject replacement lists issued by committees formed to investigate adequacy of specific subject areas in all the branches.

How are budgets allocated for branch collections? What criteria or standards are used? A study made in 1954 was based on practice in 32 cities of over 300,000 population. Respondents cited a total of 20 different criteria, with use or circulation cited 24 times, special needs cited 8 times and the following, one or more times: registration, state of book collection, area served, population served, hard wear, future potentialities, type of reader, nature of neighborhood, reference use, size of building or space available, what is requested by patrons, work load, number of readers, age of branch, turnover, previous expenditure, and what each branch librarian requests. Some cities listed as many as four or five criteria for allocation; where only one was cited, it was usually circulation or usage. It would seem in general that about two-thirds of the budget goes for adult books and one-third for juvenile books. In the few cases where there was a budget for young adult books, it came out of the adult share. Not all libraries specified a percentage; some cited dollar figures for the current year.

Book funds are allocated by the chief librarian or by one or more division or department heads, sometimes with committee consultation and sometimes not. Indianapolis uses a detailed and comprehensive budget worksheet, which lists staff data including salaries, estimated service (reference questions), budget request (for each branch and department), book stock, turnover, the past year's circulation and the estimate for next year. These figures are compiled separately for adult and juvenile loans. Other factors, such as wear-and-tear in a poor neighborhood, are taken into account.
The Branch Collection

As to balance in the branch collection, the 1943 Post-War Standards recommended that children's books comprise 20-25 percent and that non-fiction comprise 60 percent of the adult collection, with the "non-fiction ratio increasing with the population of the area served." Put another way, if the total collection had 25% children’s books, the proportion of adult non-fiction would be 45% and fiction 30%. No guidelines were discovered as to proportion of older, standard stock and of current, changing titles; and the present inquiry has not turned up anything on a theory of duplication beyond the rule of thumb that one more copy of a popular title may be added for each specified number of reserves, such as five or ten.

Relationship to the central library is implied in much that has been brought out under purpose of the collection and method of selection, although one could observe diversity on this score as well as on many others. It is clear that the branch collection is intended to be basically a duplicate of whatever part of the central library collection is thought to be most frequently or regularly used by the patrons of a particular branch service area. One might have thought that every branch library's collection would be simply a duplicate of the most frequently used 10 per cent of the central collection, but this appears not to be the case.

In conclusion, this inquiry seems to have more questions than answers, questions which seem deserving of attention, but which the present inquirer lacks the information or wisdom to answer. It may be observed, for example, that in both purpose and selection policy, the branch collection is seen as needing to be responsive to its community needs and it is clearly regarded as the responsibility of the branch librarian to "know" those needs. One may wonder whether this is a realistic expectation, in terms both of time available and of perceptive skills. What techniques or practices are there for discovering felt needs, and how does the harassed branch librarian protect himself against translating demand as need? What built-in method, other than circulation, is there for discovering how well the community needs have been met? Again, what is the responsibility of the branch librarian, as the community book person, to lead, guide, direct, stimulate and instruct the reading interests of the users? Is this a reasonable community expectation, and is this concept implied in the "responsiveness to local needs" concept of branch selection? The hypothesis that each branch collection is or should be unique, reflecting and responsive to the needs of its community, ought perhaps to be
tested by more research than appears in the literature. It might also be worth asking how the "smorgasbord" theory of branch book selection, with a little of everything, works out. What kind of branch collection results? Finally, what is the significance of the taste of the individual branch librarian? And are not his taste and judgment apt to have at least as much weight as the "needs of the community"?

References

11. Ibid., p. 73.
12. Ibid., p. 74.
13. Ibid., p. 75.
17. Ibid., p. 15.
The Branch Collection


Young Adult Work in Branch Libraries

LEARNED T. BULMAN

Although a good deal has been written about youth work per se, a careful search of Library Literature and similar sources indicates that very little has been written on youth work in branches. One very obvious reason for this is that, basically, work with youth is the same whether in a branch or in a central building. Therefore, to gather material for this article, a questionnaire was sent to a sample of libraries throughout the country having one or more branches.*

The results, as those experienced in youth work would expect, show that there is no fixed pattern. There are still mixed feelings about how teen-agers should be treated which may be reflected in the fact that most libraries refer to these patrons as young people or young adults rather than as teen-agers.

Unadorned statistics would suggest that most young adult service starts at the ninth grade, particularly in large systems. The seventh grade is frequently the starting point where the school system is on a 6-3-3 grade plan. There are, of course, those which start at the eighth grade. College students are more prone to use the central building or a regional branch because of their larger resources and reference centers. Some systems have tried to extend their young adult program to include the early college age, but this is the exception, unless special interest collections (i.e. career materials) are part of the young adult collection. As a by-product of including the upper age levels, most libraries claim to have no restrictions on young adult use of adult materials, particularly in branches. Where any restriction has been indicated, it is usually for a few risqué titles, or certain medical books. It is also apparent that, although this age group is often the greatest user of branch library adult departments (including YA area),

Co-ordinator of Youth Services, East Orange (N.J.) Public Library.

* The questionnaire containing twenty-six questions (some of the yes/no/check type) was sent to over thirty libraries; twenty-two replied.

[434]
Young Adult Work in Branch Libraries

it too often has the least planned for it.

When asked about the young adult's attitudes in his use of the library, except for the few socializers and date-makers, words like "respectful," "relaxed," "cooperative," "self-sufficient," "earnest," "studious," and "appreciative" were used by the respondents to the questionnaire.

Although many of the larger systems have full scale young adult departments, a few still do not. Fully two-thirds of the libraries answering the questionnaire do not have youth-trained personnel in their branches. Dallas, which started its young adult department only ten years ago, now has young adult librarians in most of its branches. This was no doubt encouraged by the 1958 Martin report Branch Library Service for Dallas, which specifically recommended young adult librarians and enlarged young adult collections in all branches. Oakland, California, after ten years of young adult work in the Main Library only, hoped to have young adult personnel and a core young adult collection in its six regional branches by September 1965.

The librarian of a mid-west community of nearly 150,000 stated that economics was one reason for not having branch YA staff, but "more importantly, we find the requests of young adults are virtually indistinguishable from those of adults. So why separate them in the branches? We do it at Central principally to relieve the pressure in the Adult Information Department." When he came to the question —What changes would you like to see in branch Youth Work?—his answer was, "Eventually a full-time Young Adult librarian in every major branch library."

The location, size and importance of the young adult collection in the branch has resulted in a variety of physical arrangements. There are some branches with Youth Rooms, a number with separate areas or alcoves, and a great many which have only a section of shelves and add to them each day from the adult collection. To some librarians, there would seem to be a stigma attached to the idea of separate quarters, while a few note that their young adult collection is from one-third to one-half of the size of the adult collections. Most systems have a combination of several of these arrangements dependent upon where the branch is situated and how recently it has been built. Here again, several libraries suggested that, should they get the new and larger branches which they need, they would have separate young adult areas.
Reader interest arrangements seem to be reserved for central or special young adult buildings, with only a few systems having the same reader interest classification in most of their buildings.

Over half of the responding libraries went out of their way to stress the fact that the young adult collection is recreationally oriented, and that the adult collection is drawn upon for school assignment needs. On the other hand, many said that they need or are buying more adult fiction and non-fiction to supplement their young adult holdings. The writer suspects that more of this material than librarians care to admit is actually assignment-oriented. Many of those who answered stated unequivocally that they are buying more and more material suitable for school-connected use. One librarian said, "We realize that recreational reading, although still of primary importance, is not enough to satisfy the young adult. We must have special librarians to help them with their school assignments and reference work. The collections must be selected for these two purposes."

Another factor which must be acknowledged is the increasing number of poor readers in this age group. Librarians may say what they want about not buying teen-age novels, but if we want to keep these young people in the library, we cannot expect them to go to the Children's Room for material on their reading level. Boston Public Library noted that it is including high interest-low vocabulary books (like Doubleday's Signal series) in its young adult collections.

No specific note was made of the ability of the young adult to find what he wants, but several communities mentioned a lowering of reading skills and a lack of awareness of how to use library tools. To counteract this, in East Orange, New Jersey, where there are libraries and librarians in most of the public elementary schools, a majority of the seventh and eighth grade classes come to one of the public library buildings six to seven times a year for lessons in using the card catalog, the Reader's Guide, and many other reference materials. The parochial school classes also have these lessons.

Answers to the query about the proximity of the branch reference collection to the young adult collection, give one the impression that, where possible, they are adjacent to each other. In fact, in one system with four branches, two of the branches have found it advisable to incorporate the reference materials into the youth area. Inasmuch as the greatest users of reference materials are students, this would seem to be a highly commendable idea. Adults do not mind using the materials wherever they are, and find that the rest of the building is frequently quieter when the reference materials are so placed.
Young Adult Work in Branch Libraries

No. 1 of the Deiches Fund Studies of Public Library Service, by Lowell A. Martin,² states that: "Just over one-half of the individuals using the Enoch Pratt Free Library [of Baltimore] are students engaged in school-related reading." It is evident from everything one reads about teen-age use of the library that the percentage will probably increase and that it is already greater in some communities. The Deiches report goes on to state, "Even with better school libraries, branch units will continue to be heavily used by students."³ It suggests larger regional units of major branches geared to relieve the main or central branch of part of the research load.

In 1959, the Los Angeles Public Library made a one-month survey of student use of the library⁴ and noted that 75.8% of the students from junior high through college indicated that they had not used their school library. Reasons offered included “need to take school bus immediately after classes, school activities, part-time jobs, no opportunity to use library during open hours, public library closer to home, public library a good place to go in the evening.” This is evidently true for many communities—even those with extremely fine school libraries.

Although a number of libraries, in discussing their school-public library relationships, used words like “friendly,” “cordial,” “pleasant,” “close,” “good,” and even “excellent,” too many also deplored the lack of real contact and rapport with heads of English and Social Studies departments and with teachers who give assignments with no thought as to whether the material is available to the student. It would seem advisable for the branch librarian, if there is no young adult staff member, to become acquainted with the principals, school librarians, department heads, and teachers at neighboring schools. Lunching at the school cafeteria is one way; advising these people of new books and services which may be of interest to them is another. In fairness, many librarians have tried such an approach only to be rebuffed or ignored by both the school administration, and, unfortunately, the school librarian.

Several libraries noted that they are attempting to work with the socially disadvantaged. Some are admittedly still groping; others are setting up branch reading centers for near-illiterates of all ages. Boston has offered branch library space for tutoring, has made deposit collections available to organizations such as the YMCA which are conducting tutoring programs in disadvantaged sections of the city, has provided review copies of new books to these groups to keep or give
LEARNED T. BULMAN

away, as they choose, and has maintained staff membership and attendance in neighborhood agencies serving disadvantaged youth. Other libraries under the various anti-poverty programs have carried on activities using films and reading matter. Several have purchased special materials for young people entering the Job Corps. One rather discouraging answer to the question of what was being done to help the disadvantaged said, "Nothing, unfortunately. Now, we do less than we once did because they steal our auto repair, TV and radio books and magazines, and other 600 books as fast as we supply them. Yet this is subject matter they are interested in apart from school assignments."

Vocational guidance is an area which, though presumably school oriented, demands public library funds and effort. There are not, and probably never will be, sufficient guidance personnel in our schools. Parents frequently want to work with this material. Assignments in this area are commonplace. And then there is always the young person who doesn't seem to know how to find help at school. He is the one the school has pegged as non-academic, a "no-talent" boy, who just has never bothered to mention that he is a woods-lore enthusiast. But, through library books and "bull sessions" with the Youth Librarian, he finds himself and ends up majoring successfully in conservation.

Only one library is known to have special career centers in all of its branches, with factual and fictional career materials, college catalogs, pamphlets, and even guidance-trained people available at its main building. Most of the responding libraries have some of this material and a few even have it gathered together in at least one branch.

Programs for young adults range from Detroit's radio and TV book discussions led by a different young adult branch librarian each week to occasional summer discussion groups, film programs, Great Books discussions, etc. Time is often the deciding factor, with a frequent desire upon the librarian's part to do something, but an inability to schedule anything. With the exception of the larger libraries, most teen-age activities are sporadic affairs with librarians more inclined to devote the time normally consumed in planning and running such events to giving more attention to the individual borrower. Frequently, one was given the impression that a number of those answering the questionnaire were saying what they wish were true rather than what is actually happening.

If one were to attempt to summarize the changes most librarians would like to see in branch library youth work, the list would include

[438]
Young Adult Work in Branch Libraries

more book funds, larger branches with specific youth areas, more youth-centered activities, and better relations with neighboring schools. The largest area of agreement was on the need for more professionals genuinely interested in and capable of working with patrons of junior and senior high school age, plus more time to devote to individual guidance of the young patron.

One librarian went so far as to suggest that every professional assigned to a branch should have had some training in work with young adults. To carry this to its ultimate, a valid suggestion might be that every library school student planning to do general adult service work in public libraries should take a course that examines the teenager as an individual and emphasizes how to translate his often garbled, inarticulate requests into his actual needs.

References


3. Ibid., p. 54.

Libraries in Non-Consolidated Systems

WALTER H. KAIser

The member libraries of non-consolidated systems are properly considered as branches in the context of this issue of Library Trends, possessing, as they do, many of the characteristics of branches in a unified city system. Such libraries are here defined as libraries serving approximately the same population as branches in a city system—25,000 to 50,000 and up—and are members of a system serving some 250,000 persons or more. While this arbitrary limitation is deemed necessary to permit meaningful comments about the autonomous and semi-autonomous libraries in non-consolidated systems in relation to the branch libraries of city systems, much of what is stated here applies to libraries in non-consolidated systems serving smaller populations.

Within the strict definitions set for this paper, not many libraries or systems are involved. In New York State the four non-consolidated systems include thirty-three such libraries as members. Wayne County, Michigan, has fourteen libraries serving more than 25,000 population. The total number of libraries, without regard to population served, within these five systems is impressive, one hundred seventy-five, including the thirty-two branch libraries of Buffalo and Rochester. In New York State alone, several hundred public libraries within non-consolidated systems may be counted if the population limitations of library and system size previously noted are disregarded. The chances for widespread future extension of the non-consolidated system are excellent. It is only in recent years that non-consolidated systems have come onto the library scene, and it is appropriate to note the reasons for their sudden appearance and growth: (1) The rapid increase in incorporated municipalities brought about by the movement of population to the fringe cities and particularly to the open land adjacent to the central city. The fact that much

County Librarian, Wayne County Library, Wayne, Michigan.
Libraries in Non-Consolidated Systems

of the population had previous experience with good public library service in the central city generated the demand for the same service in their new environment. (2) The development and acceptance by the profession of the systems concept as exemplified by its endorsement in *Public Library Service*, 1956. The systems or cooperative approach to library service was, of course, strengthened by similar movements in the fields of public health, education, water supply and sanitation. (3) The successful demonstration of the systems approach as a means of solving many of the problems of the smaller library. (4) Perhaps most importantly, the success of the cooperative systems movement in New York State where adequately financed, far-reaching plans and strong professional and lay leadership produced new, exciting, and successful developments.

The consolidated system may be defined as a system where a single library board or other agency or official has responsibility for the total library program, including books, buildings, personnel and finance. In the non-consolidated system, the local library board is responsible for and controls the operations of its library, including selection of personnel, books, building maintenance, hours, program, and its budget. If the non-consolidated system is a federated system, the library is established and its board is appointed by the sponsoring governmental unit such as a county board of supervisors. If it is a non-consolidated, cooperative system, the system is formed and its board of trustees elected by a vote of the trustees of the member libraries. Finally, it is important to note that membership in the non-consolidated system is voluntary and that fundamental autonomy is retained by the member library.

There are numerous examples of cooperative arrangements of an informal nature and of contracts of a limited nature, but these relationships are not considered to constitute a system in the meaning here intended. A system, as understood here, should provide a wide range of services from a central source to affect significantly the quality of service rendered at the agency level. Actually a contractual agreement between a member library and the central agency may be broad enough to make the contracting library a system member within the foregoing definition.

Now that the organizational structure of the non-consolidated type of system has been developed successfully and is proving to be the long-sought device for bringing the generally strong, often excellent medium-sized libraries into larger units of library service, (in 1963
thirty-two of thirty-eight medium-sized public libraries in New York State were in a non-consolidated system\(^4\), an examination of a few of the advantages of the non-consolidated system is in order.

1. It is a practical library governmental structure. While the political scientist may prefer unification by consolidation, the people and their elected representatives have shown little enthusiasm for the method. The basic fact is that the formation of a non-consolidated system is practical.

2. Even if the consolidation of all public library agencies in the large metropolitan areas were possible, the resulting monolithic library organization would not likely be conducive to the provision of the best library service, because there is the danger of a large organization, particularly a public agency free of competition, becoming a cumbersome, inefficient bureaucracy. In the larger metropolitan areas with populations running into millions and with scores of local governmental units, several library systems are justifiable. In non-consolidated systems, identities are preserved and friendly rivalries as well as cooperative programs among the system's members will provide an environment favorable to stimulation, achievement, and recognition, both institutional and personal. Ralph Shaw found in his Toronto survey that merging libraries would not improve service to nearby neighbors. He concluded that "holdings of the libraries, the variety of staff available, the services rendered, are all higher in the main libraries of most of the municipalities than they are in the branches of the Toronto Public Library."\(^5\) Shaw found also in his study of the Brooklyn, Queens and New York public libraries that "it becomes less economical to increase the size of the units than it does to decentralize administrative responsibility, just as it does in factories."\(^5\) Harold Hamill also believes that the independent libraries around Los Angeles provide "basic services and duplication of general materials, much better than the larger systems can do."\(^6\)

A recent study of branch service in a city of 500,000 revealed that (1) only the central library provided adequate library service to all age groups although the library had twenty-six branches and three bookmobiles, (2) the median independent library was open twenty-three percent more hours than the median city branch; provided thirty-three percent more reader seats; had over three times as many books; five times the number of periodicals; and circulated twice as many books per capita, and (3) the cost per circulation of operating the median independent library (forty cents) was thirty-three percent
Libraries in Non-Consolidated Systems

less than that of the median branch (sixty cents).\(^7\) There are several reasons for this condition. (a) There is a tendency to centralize at the main library reference materials and equipment to a greater extent than is desirable. (b) The fringe city libraries often are much better supported than the central city library and thus have funds to develop adequate collections and employ competent personnel necessary for quality library service.\(^8\) (c) The outer area cities, being too small to support the research library concept, have been able to concentrate their funds on providing the services and materials most directly needed by their users. (d) Large cities with shrinking or stabilized tax resources find the expense of the research library a sizeable drain on the tax funds available, leaving proportionately less than desired for branch development. (e) The traditional pattern of branch service is inadequate for today's needs.\(^9\)

(3) Another advantage of the non-consolidated system is the large number of library trustees involved in its operation. This involvement increases the number of community leaders who have concern for the system and its fortune. Broad representation of community interests among many boards brings added strength to a system. In Wayne County, for example, the Detroit Public Library, serving 1,600,000 people, has seven library trustees. The remaining libraries in the county serving 1,000,000 people have a total of eighty-three trustees among those libraries having library boards, and many more public officials are involved where no boards exist. Broad community representation discourages system stagnation and promotes flexibility and innovation. Ralph Shaw has noted that "local participation and responsibility for the development of library services is one of the keystones in developing effective library service. The loss of local interest and initiative and participation would result inevitably in lower quality of library service."\(^10\)

(4) A further advantage of the non-consolidated system is that it fosters organizational tensions which are healthful and which can improve staff and institutional performance. One such tension is the ever present possibility of withdrawals from the system. Even if it rarely happens, this has become an institutional concern of the non-consolidated system, ineluctably pervading decisions and encouraging a judicious and thorough approach to institutional services and problems. The independence of the community librarian is recognized by the systems director. Deference to authority as such is at a minimum in federations and cooperatives. Under such conditions, problems are
sooner and more freely discussed. Another desirable tension is that the local library board has its own librarian in whom it has confidence. Therefore, his reactions to the system and its services are likely to be respected by his trustees and communicated to the system's board. Thus, non-consolidated systems have numerous checks and balances. Power is dispersed, and democratic patterns of behavior are encouraged. The systems' antennae are raised high for receiving signals and acting on them with promptness.

The advantages of decentralization, dispersal of authority, shared responsibilities, and the involvement of large numbers of officials, boards, and citizen groups which are found in the non-consolidated system have been noted. It is necessary to point out that these strengths also have potential seeds of weakness. On balance, the advantages of the non-consolidated system outweigh the disadvantages. These weaknesses are:

1. A unified administrative authority is lacking. Some recommendations of the system may be ignored, having only the authority of persuasion. Of course, in a cooperative system, the members can and do impose policies and procedures on themselves, but the very flexibility of the cooperative system may, if over-indulged, imperil its effectiveness and existence. Self-discipline, while the best discipline, cannot always be relied on. The highly centralized authority of the consolidated system is looked upon with envy by the director of a cooperative in his moments of impatience and occasional harassment. However, the administration of member libraries of a non-consolidated system may be delegated to the central agency, as is often the case in the Wayne County (Michigan) Public Library. This pattern appears to be the exception rather than the rule but may be increasingly acceptable in the future.

2. Power is dispersed among many librarians, trustees, and other city officials. The larger the measure of freedom the greater the incidence of controversy, often over quite minor matters. This is not to say that the consolidated system has eliminated this type of staff problem but possibly keeps it under better control with fewer persons who feel entitled to be fractious.

3. The non-consolidated system does not have the simplicity of organization of the consolidated system. Policies and procedures may be developed, adopted, and implemented more speedily in a consolidated system than in a non-consolidated system. In addition to the
Libraries in Non-Consolidated Systems

usual internal organizational hierarchy, the libraries in a non-consolidated system have library boards, occasionally friends of library groups, legislative bodies, or city managers, any of whom may ruffle the administrative waters. The number of check points before action is taken is larger in the non-consolidated system. However, simplicity of the structure in a consolidated system does not necessarily mean that it is used, only that the potentiality is present.

Not related to the possible structural deficiencies but a serious disadvantage would be the lack of a large reference collection. The non-consolidated system aiming at full library service requires access to the specialized personnel and extensive collections of a reference center. In some non-consolidated systems (e.g., Nassau County, New York), where there is no central library, several libraries have been assigned certain subject areas which are developed in depth with the assistance of generous state grants. In Wayne County the book collections of many of the system's libraries are approaching 40,000 to 50,000 volumes. Even with the depth exhibited by some of the member libraries' collections, access to a large central library rich in resources is a requirement for a total library service program. A network of reference centers must be created by more formal contracts than now exist for the non-consolidated system to attain bibliographical adequacy or to insure the continuance of services now rendered without cost by the central library.

Another weakness will exist if reciprocal borrowing privileges do not prevail in the non-consolidated system. Both in the New York State and in the Michigan laws, free and equal access is provided to all borrowers at all libraries in the system.

The financing of non-consolidated systems varies. Most often local funds are the chief source of revenue but with increasingly large grants coming from the state. In 1964 the Library Services and Construction Act provided federal funds for non-rural libraries, raising hopes that a much-needed new, reliable and growing source of funds has been found. In the federated system, funds are appropriated for the system as a whole which then provides for all operating expenses of the member libraries except capital expenditures for buildings. In the cooperative system, the service center may be supported entirely by state funds, as in New York, or, as proposed in Michigan, by a combination of state and local contributions. The heart of systems formation, particularly of systems involving the numerous and inde-
pendent medium-sized libraries found in metropolitan areas, lies in the method of financing the service center. The financial incentive in many cases is the catalytic agent in precipitating the decision to join a system. When local funds are not drained off for the central service costs and when a wide range of new services is provided at little or no cost to member libraries, the combination proves irresistible. The revenues of the non-consolidated system are, thus, a combination of federal, state, and local funds. For example, in 1965, the Nassau Library System served 51 libraries and received $564,549 in state aid. Thus, each library of the system was subsidized on an average by $11,-
069 in state funds, expended for services provided by the service center.

In Wayne County, Michigan, if fully implemented by future appropriations, the new law would bring a state grant of 30 cents per capita to the system's headquarters, while requiring each member to contribute at least 10 cents per capita. Funds received in 1965 were 68.79 percent local, 21.94 percent county, 5.36 percent state, and 3.91 percent federal. Estimates for 1966 show the following distribution: local 79.08 percent, county 8.63 percent, state 8.92 percent, and federal 3.37 percent. The pioneer Library System (Rochester, New York) in 1962 revealed this distribution: local taxes 67.1 percent, state aid 21.5 percent, other income (including endowments, fines and fees) 11.4 percent. Trends in public finance indicate that increased aid from state and federal sources may reasonably be anticipated. The national plan for public library service sponsored by the American Library Association suggested that the proportion of financing be 60% local, 25% state, and 15% federal. In the still more distant future, federal and state grants may likely be increased and local funds reduced until approximately one-third comes from each level of government.

The range of services of the library in a non-consolidated system is similar to that provided by a branch in a consolidated system and hardly requires elaboration. These services include the basic printed and audio-visual material collections; rotating collections; inter-library loan; staffs with specialization in adult, youth and children's services; reference; special programs for children and adult groups; printing and public relations; and services to schools, including school visits and loan of books. In the larger and better libraries one often finds a surprising depth in the book and reference collections. In the Westchester and Nassau County Library Systems there are member libraries with collections of 100,000 to 200,000 volumes and large holdings of
Libraries in Non-Consolidated Systems

periodicals, both in bound and microfilm form. The buildings of these libraries also tend to be larger than those of branches of consolidated systems.

Access to the extensive resources of a central library is necessary if a full complement of services is to be provided by a system of non-consolidated libraries. The New York plan has recognized this by subsidizing the building of a central collection of a minimum of 100,000 adult non-fiction titles to be acquired over a ten-year period. The desirable size of the intermediate type collection of a central library in a non-consolidated system, somewhat removed from the largest resource center, has not been determined in practice, but an adult book collection of some 250,000 volumes would serve most patrons except those with specialized or esoteric needs. Since knowledge and the instruments of knowledge are expanding at accelerating rates, the difficulty of estimating a collection size for the future is obvious. The new technology may decrease the need for duplication of expensive and little used materials if facsimile transmission and closed circuit television become economically as well as technologically feasible. The New York Public Library plans to open a student reference and circulation center which will have 500,000 volumes. Not to be overlooked are the possible relationships of libraries to the rapidly expanding library programs of the academic world, particularly the libraries of community colleges and universities. These libraries are growing both in number and quality. The strongest libraries of the future, if not already of the present, will be those of the public universities, and systems should consider them as part of the library network in filling the needs of their readers. Hopefully, the university libraries will accept this assignment, perhaps encouraged by state or federal aid.

It should be recognized that the big city libraries have need of financial assistance in the maintenance and expansion of their unique and regional research collections. While it is not likely that substantial aid will be forthcoming from the local unit, efforts to secure state and federal assistance should be supported heartily by libraries in the non-consolidated systems. With access to a strong central library, which in turn may call on additional resources within state, regional, or national levels, the several links in the chain of service will have been joined.

In examining the implications of the non-consolidated systems development, note that until recent years the library consolidation which
did occur involved small, usually rural libraries. There were relatively few instances of libraries in urban areas, that is, the medium-sized libraries, willingly joining a consolidated system. The literature on metropolitan government is voluminous but few students are expecting consolidation to be the method used to govern the metropolitan community. The big break-through came in New York State after 1958 where liberal financial and service rewards were provided to libraries joining a system. This trend toward affiliation with a non-consolidated system is a strong one and should grow if financial and service incentives continue. The increasing and expanding enticement of state and federal aid, possibly unobtainable except by libraries agreeing to join systems, will speed the trend to membership wherever offered. As has been noted earlier, the medium-sized library has discovered a comfortable place in the non-consolidated system which permits the retention of fundamental autonomy, is voluntary, and drains off no local funds. While the financial reward of membership was the dominant reason for initial membership, once within a cooperative system, acceptance and approval have been generally enthusiastic. Everyone believes library systems are here to stay. Once in the system, fears are allayed and withdrawals from such a cooperative are rare, if any; in New York State, in 1964 90 percent or 645 of 713 chartered public libraries were members of library systems and no record has been found of any withdrawals from a system.

In California, where the county library has been predominant for many years, a county library cooperative system has been established which shows great promise as a device for joining county library systems into a non-consolidated system. Michigan, with its new state aid law, not yet fully implemented by appropriation, is establishing a pattern basically similar to the voluntary systems approach in New York State.

Looking to the future, the pattern of organization developed in the Wayne County (Michigan) Library holds possibilities for increasing the unification of the typical non-consolidated system without decreasing local autonomy. In the Wayne County System, with but few exceptions, the local library is administered by the County Library, including appointment of personnel. However, the local library board may select the community librarian within the rules of the civil service commission. All other appointments are made jointly by the local librarian and the central staff. Having jurisdiction over the employees of the system makes the organization more responsive to administra-
Libraries in Non-Consolidated Systems

tive control. The local board is responsible for the appropriation and control of funds, for the provision and maintenance of quarters, for representation of community library needs, and for review and evaluation of the service. In practice there has been no significant conflict between the local boards and the system's board. There have been no withdrawals from the system since its establishment in 1920. With the passage of time, such systems as that of Nassau County may be requested to assume the administration of an existing member library for such reasons as (1) local inability to recruit personnel, (2) dissatisfaction with the local library administration, or (3) the decision of the local library board that the system is better qualified to operate the library. Once the local authority recognizes that it still has all the vital controls over its library, it will be in a mood to relinquish many of its routine administrative headaches and gain still greater efficiency and improved service. For a board, it is not a long step from delegating administration to an individual (the community librarian) to delegating it to an organization—a system. Increasing state and federal aid throughout the various states will make possible another giant step in public library service. A non-consolidated system provides the structure by which the many excellent, independent libraries scattered throughout the country may do collectively, as members of a library service network, what each alone could not do.

References

10. Shaw, op. cit., p. 95.
New Trends in Branch Public Library Service

EMERSON GREENAWAY

Great changes are sure to come in the extension of public library service through branch libraries. Neighborhoods within metropolitan cities are going to change and rapidly at that. "Megalopolis" is no longer a new term used by city planners. Cities in densely populated areas are physically merging one into the other so far as homes and business are concerned. Such changes or trends are bound to affect branch library service.

Immediate factors influencing changes in branch patterns of service and organization include the following: the shortage of professional librarians; momentous developments in our educational program; population shifts, accompanied by the problems of resettlement and redevelopment; new traffic patterns; and the trend toward planning for total library service. Whatever other factors may exist at this writing, it seems safe to predict that in the foreseeable future branch libraries will continue as an integral part of the public library structure.

The foregoing articles have already noted that branch libraries are not new, that some systems opened with a central library and branches as well, and that other systems had branches before they had a central library. Although branch libraries and the services they give have been discussed, a set of standards has not been developed which evokes a clear image when reference is made to a branch library. Take the three following definitions from the American Library Association's *Glossary of Library Terms*:

1) "Branch Library. An auxiliary library with separate quarters, ... a permanent staff, and a regular schedule." ¹

2) "Regional Branch. A larger branch library which acts as a reference and administrative center for a group of smaller branches in a public library system." ²

Director, Free Library of Philadelphia.
3) “Subbranch. A small branch open fewer hours than the central library and the regular branches and giving only partial branch service.”

To these three types of branches has been added a fourth, the Reading Center, for which no formalized definition has yet been developed. Nowhere is there an accepted set of standards for the various types of branches which spells out the areas to be served in terms of geography and population, or which describes the size of building, scope of book collection, and number of staff required. Nor has the relationship of the branch service and its staff to the central library been fully explored and determined. The definitions are not satisfactory.

In reading about a sub-branch, one might wonder what it was that made the service only “partial.” Would it be fewer hours, services only to children and not adults, limited reference services or no community group activities? Nothing is said about the staff (non- or sub-professional, perhaps) let alone the real purpose of such a facility. Ever since the first branch library was opened for service, the library profession has floundered and drifted, meeting current emergencies, but failing to develop nationally an acceptable set of definitions and standards for service given beyond that in the central library. It is high time that this be done. It is a challenge to the Public Library Association to draft a project and to a foundation to provide ample funds to study the needs of the country in the way of branch library service. This, it seems to me, is the first step that must be taken if the developing trends are to be organized usefully and purposefully.

With the burgeoning of metropolitan areas, greater emphasis than ever before will be placed on extension services. The political boundary lines of yesterday are going to be meaningless tomorrow. We are told that by 1980 over 80% of this country’s population will be living in some 212 Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, as they are called by the U.S. Census Bureau. This, without a doubt, calls not only for more intensive library service, but for a better organization of the services to be rendered to the people living in these areas.

The various “explosions” the library world has experienced are already making themselves felt. Librarians shun branch and village libraries. They seem to gravitate to those libraries having large collections, a sizable staff, and sufficient patron use in a given building to make their professional lives exciting and challenging. Most administrators look upon the central library as the main reservoir of the
New Trends in Branch Public Library Service

system, so its needs are usually taken care of first. Indeed there is good reason for this, for although in some cities three-fourths or more of the book circulation is handled in the extension system, centralized processing and reference work in depth, as well as research, occur in the central library.

Most vacancies and the strengthening of services are taken care of for the central library before filing branch needs. This is inevitable, but as the professional shortage worsens and as new trends in branch library organization manifest themselves, some solutions not used previously may prove acceptable and even desirable. A number of library systems have already experimented with the staffing of certain branch agencies with non-professional personnel. A plan of supervision by professional staff is usually provided. These plans have one thing in common—no professionally trained staff in the extension agency. The staff may be entirely clerical, or there may be a sub-professional staff composed of college graduates. Emphasis, of course, is placed on a referral system to a professional source for service requests requiring such aid.

The present trend is toward large regional or area libraries with either reference or a combination of reference and circulation services. With such a development it is entirely possible to organize good branch library services using a non-professional staff in satellite branches. This will require not only special training for the staff, but also a re-examination of the resources and the services offered in the satellite libraries.

The clerical staff need be no different from the clerical staff in any other agency doing similar work, if the plan to use sub-professional librarians in agencies with limited resources and services is adopted. There would still be professional supervision from a larger agency. This plan would provide facilities for neighborhood outlets and at the same time allow for a concentration of professional staff at larger units. The sub-professional staff, the educational requirements for whom would include college graduation, would take as extensive an in-service training program as possible. They should essentially be persons who like people and have a love for books and reading. They must have administrative aptitude and know how to work with both staff and the public. It is likely they will be fairly mature people, and this is advantageous.

Such a plan throws considerable work back on the concentration of professional supervisors. Practically all aspects of branch activity
EMERSON GREENAWAY

should be supervised—book selection, housekeeping routines, public relations and above all, making certain that readers who need access to service in depth from larger collections are sent on to the agency with the greater resources and services.

The publication explosion will also have an impact on branch library service and organization. In the 1920's the publication of new titles amounted to about 6,000 annually; in 1956 this figure had risen to approximately 12,000. But in 1964, the number of new titles or new editions published exceeded 28,000. Obviously a neighborhood branch library, a sub-branch or reading center cannot begin to cope with an output of this magnitude. Nor can a central library, though considered a “reservoir,” cope with heavy demands from branch readers in a large metropolitan system with many relatively small branches. A re-evaluation of the book stock required in branch libraries will have to be worked out in new terms of collections, services and organization of library services.

One of the results of the re-evaluation will be a restudy of the traditional purposes and objectives of branch library service. The revolution in the field of education has already caused many libraries to revise their ideas of what should be included in a branch library collection. A more active cooperation than ever before between school, academic and public libraries is being called for. We are going to be forced into the operation of a program for total library service whether some like it or not. The challenge of service to students caught some public libraries before they were aware of the opportunities that lay before them.

Lack of resources, insufficient staff, unrealistic hours of opening and lack of study space sent thousands of students to their public libraries where they experienced many, if not all, of the frustrations from which they had fled. Time can alleviate some of these frustrations, but new buildings, increased resources and the training of additional librarians do not occur overnight. Thanks to new standards, new legislation and increased funds, progress is being made. As we move forward, however, we must not be blind to new service and organizational opportunities.

The development of metropolitan areas already alluded to as Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas will also affect future branch services. Political boundary lines will become unimportant for library service. Like a water or sewer system, library service in a systemized form is ideal for development on a metropolitan basis. The small sub-
New Trends in Branch Public Library Service

urban communities cannot build extensive water reservoirs and great sewage disposal plants. The capital expense is greater than a small community can afford, let alone the cost of operation. The same is true of the building of the great and varied resources of a metropolitan central library. They cannot be duplicated in either the town or school library. Any librarian in a metropolitan library can testify to the use of the reference and non-fiction collections by suburbanites and students. The metropolitan libraries become focal points for use by persons who do not directly contribute to the fiscal support of such institutions.

The metropolitan library faces not only the pressures from without, but also changes from within. Shifts in population will radically alter the use patterns of branch libraries. Probably the administrator of every major city library can tell with some feeling how branch libraries started out as deposit stations, became sub-branches and finally large branch libraries. Likewise he can relate, again with feeling, how the reverse has happened as older areas of a city either became industrialized or just decayed. In some cities, with redevelopment, there has been the full cycle and outmoded Carnegie branches have given way to new modern branches in housing centers. New traffic patterns, the advent of high rise apartments or the industrialization of older residential areas have a telling effect on branch library service.

With the advent of federal funds to combat poverty, librarians have the means to bring a new and totally different program to persons not accustomed to library service or who have not availed themselves of the traditional type of public library service. Public libraries cannot divest themselves of past or present responsibilities to recognized patrons, but with added monies, they can offer new programs to a large segment of the population with a real need for services developed especially for them.

What, then, can we expect in the immediate years ahead? I would hope that we could develop a concept of total library service whereby all the library resources are brought to bear on service to library users. This service would be developed on three levels: first, the neighborhood and the school library; second, the regional and academic library; and third, the research library. A discussion of these three levels is in order.

There should be branch (neighborhood) and school libraries, adequately housed, staffed and stocked to take care of those educational and recreational needs most frequently evinced. These libraries should
be easily accessible to patrons lacking transportation. These individ-
uals would most likely be children, housewives and senior citizens. 
The non-public school children must also be provided with service. 
The selection, acquisition and processing of the materials for these 
libraries should be handled centrally. A book catalog, preferably in-
cluding materials housed in agencies at both this level and the second 
level, should be in each library agency. Inter-library loans should be 
relied upon heavily. The neighborhood branches can be designed for 
people who are now using the traditional branch and they may be 
adapted to a wider patron use when new methods of transmitting in-
formation from a central research library become feasible. School li-
braries would have the same opportunity of availing themselves of 
resources at a higher level.

Each one of the three levels of service would buy according to its 
needs as developed cooperatively, to prevent unnecessary duplication. 
The collections and services of each would reflect the greatest fre-
quency of use whether it be for formal or informal education. The 
staff members of many of these libraries will be college educated, but 
not library school graduates.

The second level of service would reflect a more intensive use of 
library materials, larger collections (probably exceeding 100,000 vol-
umes, but not more than 500,000 volumes), and the application of new 
arrestural and organizational concepts. These libraries would be 
designed for use by high school and college students, businessmen, 
industrialists, professional persons and other adults who want more 
than is available in a branch, but less than can be found in a large 
research library. These libraries, whether college or public, would be 
open to all members of the community from high school age on, for 
both borrowing and reference. There should be adequate reader space 
and sufficient book resources to take care of the needs of both groups. 
A common book catalog would make for a full use of these collections.

The second level libraries should be located in relation to the third 
level libraries and without regard to political boundaries. They would 
serve as regional libraries and as such would act as the administrative 
centers to the first level libraries. Appropriate coordinators would 
work with the special and appropriate type of library. There should 
be a minimum of overlapping, a maximum of cooperation and a con-
centration of services that can be performed centrally either at the 
regional library or at the central library. Such an organization would 
have the effect of bringing the materials and services most heavily
New Trends in Branch Public Library Service

used nearer the reader. It would release the central libraries from service burdens now carried inadequately and permit them to become scholarly research libraries in the best sense of the word.

The third level, the central or research library, should be the capstone to the library's branch or extension system. Neither can do without the other.

As we move toward the end of the twentieth century we will see changes in the organizational and service patterns of public library branch systems. These changes will result, I believe, in a better library program more fully utilizing a limited supply of professional librarians, plus a more closely knit organization bringing into greater cooperation various types of existing libraries. The result should be better library service for all people.

References

This Page Intentionally Left Blank
This Page Intentionally Left Blank
Library Trends

Index to Volume 14

PREPARED BY JOSEPH N. CARMAN

Abridged Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, 163.
Abstracts of English Studies, 164.
Accountants' Index, 164.
Acquisition, Cooperative, 248; see also Book selection and acquisition.
Adams, Harlan M., 149, 152.
Aerospace Medicine and Biology, 335.
Aguilar Free Library, 370.
Akron, O. Public Library, 382.
Almy, Patty. "Background and development of the junior college library," 123-129.
American Association of Junior Colleges, 129, 220.
American Chemical Society, 285; Chemical Abstracts, 164, 245, 284.
American Society of Mechanical Engineers. Applied Mechanics Reviews, 284.
American Standards Association, 284.
Applied Science and Technology Index, 163.
Architectural Index, 164.
Art Index, 163.
Aslib, 321, 327.
Associated Science Libraries of San Diego, 271.
Association of Research Libraries, 269.
Austrian Educational Advisory Board, 46.
Austrian Public Library Association, 43.

[461]
## INDEX

### Background and development of the junior college library.

**B**

- "Background and development of the junior college library." Patty Almy, 123-129.

- Ball, Miriam O. Subject Headings For the Information File, 171.

- Baptist Institute, 204.

- Battelle Memorial Institute, 347-352.

- Bellaiengh, Georges Van, "Public libraries in the Brussels Metropolitan Area," 54-59.

- Benson, Charles J., 163.

- Berliner Stadtbibliothek, 21, 23, 24.


- Der Bibliothekar, 24.

- Biography Index, 163.

- Biological Abstracts, 164.

- Biological and Agricultural Index, 163.


- Bloss, Meredith, "The branch collection," 422-433.

- Boeing Aircraft Co., Seattle, 249.

- Book collections: in branch libraries, 427-430; in junior college libraries, 156-165.

- Book Review Digest, 161, 163.

- Book selection and acquisition: in branch libraries, 427-430; in junior college libraries, 156-165.


- Books In Print, 161.

- Boston Mechanics' Institute, 368.

- Boston. Public Library, 369, 385, 496.

- Bowler, Roberta, ed. Local Public Library Administration, 365, 407.


- "Branch libraries and the student," Learned T. Bulman, 434-439.

- Branscomb, B. Harvie, 160.


- Brick, Michael. Forum and Focus for the Junior College Movement, 125.

- Brigham, Herbert O., 295.


- Brooklyn. Public Library, 96, 418, 420.


- Brown, Helen M., 192.

- Brown, Jack E., 256.

- Brussels, Belgium: communes, 54; government, 54; linguistic groups, 58; public libraries, 54-59.


### C

- Cabrillo College, 209.

- California Institute of Technology, 266, 271.


- Campbell, H. C. Editor of issue on "Metropolitan public library problems around the world," 3-116.

- Canadian Patent Office Record, 246.

- Carnegie, Andrew, 237, 370.


Library Trends

Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, 106.
Carnovsky, Leon, 423.
Carroll, John M. “Establishing branch libraries,” 385-400.
Carson, Rachel. The Sea Around Us, 158.
Case Institute of Technology, 248.
Cataloging in junior college libraries, 166-173.
Catholic Periodicals Index, 163.
Centenary College for Women. Library, 177, 192, 196-207.
Chaffey College. Library, 207.
Charleston Library Society, 368.
Chemists Club Library, 280.
Chicago. University, 124, 125.
Choice, 160, 197.
Christian Science Monitor Index, 164.
Cincinnati and Hamilton County. Public Library, 236, 237, 240.
Claxton, Timothy, 368.
Clay, Mary, 149.
Cleveland. Public Library, 237, 238, 239, 248, 252, 255.
Cohen, Jackson B., joint author. “Service to industry by public libraries,” 236-251.
Colby Junior College. Library, 196.
Colleges, junior: aims of, 126; characteristics, 216-217; contrasted with senior colleges, 156; definition of, 125; enrollment, 156; finances of, 157; origin of the idea of, 123; philosophy of, 128; standards, 145-146; student body, 157-158, 184-185.
Columbia University, 296.
Committee on Scientific and Technical Information, 376.
Community colleges, see Junior colleges.
Community Research Conference of Northern Ohio, 254.
Compton (Calif.) College, 120.
Cooperative Industrial Commercial Reference and Information Service, 316-317.
Cory, John Mackenzie, 425.
Craver, Harrison W., 237.
Crerar, John, 288.
Crerar Library, see John Crerar Library.
Cumulative Index Medicus, 333.
Cumulative Index to Nursing Literature, 163.
Cunningham, Jesse, 368.
Cushing, Charles, 6.
Cutter numbers, 117.
Czerwijowski, Faustyn, 15.

D
Delhi, India: population, 102; Public Library, 5.
Deiches Fund Studies of Public Library Service, 497.
Deuever. Public Library, 239, 380.
Detroit. Public Library, 76-82, 237, 239, 240, 251, 361, 443; building, 80; cooperation with surrounding communities, 80-82; history, 76-77; organization, 77; service to industry, 79-80.
Dewey decimal classification, 171, 172.
Dokumentationsring der Chemisch-Pharmazeutischen, 303.
Doubleday Signal series, 436.
Drexel Institute of Technology. Graduate School of Library Science, 120, 178, 193.

E
East Berlin, Germany: area of, 21-22; Library School, 21; public libraries, 21-26; University Library, 21.
INDEX

East Los Angeles College. Library, 209.
Education Index, 163.
Eells, Walter Crosby, 129, 145.
Eggleston, Kathleen, 237.
Electronic data processing, 226.
Engineer Index, 164, 286.
Engineers Joint Council. Thesaurus of Engineering Terms, 284.
England, see Great Britain.
Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, 237, 418, 437.
“Establishing branch libraries,” John M. Carroll, 385-400.
Europe, library service to industry in, 306-329.

F
Fields, Ralph R. The Community College Movement, 193.
Five Years Work in Librarianship, 1951-55, 325.
Fletcher, Homer, 248.
Flint Junior College. Library, 205.
Foothill Junior College. Library, 205, 210, 213.
Fry, Edith, 249.

G
Galvin, Hoyt R. and Van Buren, Martin. The Small Public Library, 392, 393.
Gans, Herbert J., 424.
General Motors Corp., 353-361.
Gennung, Harriet, 205.
German Democratic Republic, 21-23.
Government-Wide Index to Federal Research and Development Reports, 336.
Gray, Dwight E. and Johnson, J. Burlin. “Services to industry by libraries of the federal government,” 332-346.
Great Britain: education in, 109-112, library services to industry in, 306-331.
Great Illustrated Classics, 158.
Gwynedd-Mercy Junior College. Library, 205.
Gwynn, Stanley, 179.

H
Hacker, Harold, 414.
Hamburg, Germany: City Authority for Education, 33; City Authority for Cultural Affairs, 33; government, 33; public libraries, 32-39; State and University Library, 33-34.
Hammett, Louis, 285.
Harris, Katherine G., 361.
Harris, Katherine G. and Jackson, Eugene B. Editors of issue on “Library service to industry,” 223-362.
Harris, Marion, 177.
Library Trends

Harvey Mudd College. Library, 270-271, 303.
Henkle, Herman, 252.
Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, 92.
Henry Ford Community College. Library, 175, 192, 207.
Historical Abstracts, 1775-1945, 164.
“History of branch libraries,” Milton S. Byam, 368-373.
Hodges, N.D.C., 256.
Hoffman, Hester. Reader’s Adviser, 161.
Huddersfield and District Information Scheme, 317.
Hull Technical Interloan Scheme, 317.
I
Independence Junior College. Library, 204.
Independent research libraries, service to industry by, 288-294.
Index Medicus, 333.
Index to Dental Literature in the English Language, 163-164.
Index to South African Publications, 9.
Indexes, periodical: in junior college libraries, 163-164, 176.
Industry, library service to, 223-362.
Information centers, functions contrasted with those of libraries, 347-352.
International Aerospace Abstracts, 335.
International Business Machines, use of in library circulation control, 206, 211, 212.
International Federation of Library Associations, 43.
International Index to Periodicals, 163.
Iron and Steel Institute, 247.

J
Japan, education in, 72-73.
John Crerar Library, 64, 241, 252, 257, 270, 275, 369; service to industry, 288-294.
Johnson, B. Lamar, 148, 195; The Librarian and the Teacher in General Education, 176.
Joliet Junior College, 125; Library, 192.
Joliet Junior College, 213.
Jones, Wyman H. “The Role of the branch library in the program of metropolitan library service,” 401-406.
Jordan, Robert T., 195.
Journal of Pharmacology, 229.
Journals and periodicals: in junior college libraries, 133, 150, 159-164, 198; regional union lists, 263; routing in special libraries, 231.
Junior College Journal, 148, 150.
Junior College Libraries Round Table, 146, 148, 195.
Junior college libraries, see Libraries, junior college.
Junior colleges, see Colleges, junior.

K
Kennedy, R. F., 7.
Kent, Allen, 253.
Killian, James, 256.
Koos, Leonard, 145.
INDEX

Kruzas, Anthony, 227; Directory of Libraries and Information Centers, 298.
Kuhlman, A. F. Data Needed To Plan A New College Library, 203.

L
Lacy, Dan, 426.
Lake, Albert, 158.
Lamont Library, 171.
Lee, George W., 295.
Librarians junior college: cooperation among, 189; demands for faculty status, 151; demands of faculty upon, 181; division of duties, 177; philosophy of, 120, 128; professional training and experience of, 148-150; role of, 147-148; service to readers, 174-175, 199-200.
Libraries, college and university, service to industry by, 262-272.
Libraries, junior college: acquisitions in, 199-220; audio-visual facilities in, 141, 205-206, 211, 213; book collections in, 156-165, 167-168, 196-198; book selection in, 156, 159-164; budgeting and allocation of funds in, 133, 135, 137-138; buildings, 119, 120, 121; card catalogs in, 172; cataloging in, 170-172; comparison of current policies of, 217; controversial material in, 161; documents in, 162; enrollment served by, 133; equipment, 203-215; evaluation of, 191-201; faculty committees, 135-136, 155-156; furniture, 206; journals and periodicals in, 133, 135, 159-164, 198; organization of, 132-143; paperback books in, 156, 162-163; personnel of, 136, 140, 142, 145-153, 157, 194-195; policy of, 134-136; philosophy of, 123; reference collections in, 162; relation to college and academic community, 183-187; reserve books, 174, 180; seating capacity of, 198-199, 217; sharing of facilities, 141; size and scope of, 166; standards, 120, 127, 143, 146, 147, 158, 191-201; textbooks in, 162; technical processes in, 166-173.
Libraries, Public. See Public libraries.
Libraries, Scientific and technical, see Libraries, special.
Libraries, Special: collections, 227-231; cooperation for service to industry, 295-305; establishment by industry, 227; scientific and technical services to industry in Great Britain and Europe by, 306-331; services to industry by special libraries of the federal government, 332-346; support of by industry, 227.
Library Association, (Gt. Brit.) 321-322; Five Years Work in Librarianship, 1951-1955, 325; Record, 310, 315, 323-324.
Library classification schemes, 170-171.
Library Literature, 163, 209, 434.
Library of Congress, see U.S. Library of Congress.
"Library service to industry," 223-362.
Library Technology Project, see American Library Association.
"The Library's place in the junior college." W. Wiley Scott, 183-190.
Literature searching, 239; at John Crerar Library, 292.
Liverpool: City Council, 62; population, 60; public libraries, 60-67.
Liverpool and District Scientific, Industrial, and Research Library Advisory Council, 62, 64, 311, 317-319; 322.
Liverpool District Library Area, 61, 64.
Liverpool Echo, 61.
Liverpool Technical Information Conference, 62.
Lloyd Library, 288-289, 291.
Loans, Interlibrary, see Interlibrary loans.
London: government, 104-105; Government Act, 103, 105, 112; Library Association, 112-113; population, 105, 112; public libraries, 102-116;
Library Trends

Long Beach City College. Library, 209.
Los Angeles: area, 81; education in, 87; ethnic and minority groups in, 83-84; government, 89; library problems of Metropolitan Area, 83-94.
Los Angeles City College. Library, 175-177.
Los Angeles. Public Library, 91-92, 239, 413, 414, 437.
Los Angeles Pierce College, 212, 213.
Los Angeles Valley College. Library, 207, 213.
Lund. University, 48.
Lutheran Church of Sweden, 48.
Lyle, Guy R., 134.

M
McClendon, E. H., 250, 252.
McKinley, Alice Elizabeth. Demand for Public Library Service in Oakland County, Michigan, 388.
Manchester Guardian, 163.
Marston, R. E., 256.
Martin, Elizabeth, 211.
Mason, Harold J., 269.
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 267-268, 353.
Master Plan for Public Libraries in California, 92.
Medical Library Center of New York, 303.
Medical Literature Analysis and Retrieval System, 234.
Medsker, Leland L. The Junior College: Progress and Prospect, 193.
"Metropolitan areas growing and under stress: the situation of the Detroit Public Library," Ralph A. Ulveling, 76-82.
"Metropolitan library problems of the Los Angeles Area," Harold L. Hamill, 83-94.
"Metropolitan public library problems around the world," 3-118.
Michigan. University, 79.
Microfiche, 164.
Microfilm, 16.
Midwest Research Institute, 293.
Minneapolis. Public Library, 237.
Mohawk Valley Technical Institute, 204.
Molhrhardt, Charles, 252.
Morgan, J. P., 268.
Morgan, Neil. Westward Tilt, 84.
Mount San Antonio Junior College. Library, 205, 206, 210, 211, 213.
Munich, Ger., population of, 33.
Munn, Ralph, 295, 296.

N
Nash, William, 134.
National Central Library (Gt. Brit.) 108, 310.
National Federation of Lecturing Associations (Sweden) 50.
Nationalbibliothek, Vienna, 43.
Nature, 220.
Neal, Elizabeth, 149.
"The needs of industry for library services beyond that expected of their own special libraries and resources available to them," Winifred Sewell, 226-235.
New Serial Titles, 289.
New York (City): area, 96; Board of Education, 98; population, 96-97;
public libraries in Metropolitan Area, 95-101; students in institutions of higher learning, 98-99.
*New York Herald Tribune Book Week,* 161, 428.
New York Public Library, 95-101, 368, 370, 371, 447; Circulation Department, 95; demands upon by undergraduates, 99; Reference Department, 95, 96, 99; service to industry by Science and Technology Division, 238, 241, 244-246, 248.
New York (State) Library, 239.
*New York Times,* 164.
*New York Times Index,* 163.
Newark. Public Library, 237.
Newberry Library, 289, 290, 369.
Newberry, Walter, 369.
Nicholson, Natalie N. "Service to industry and research parks by college and university libraries," 262-272.
Nishifugi, Kantaro, 4.
North German Union Catalog, 34.
*Nuclear Science Abstracts,* 334.

O
Order of the Good Templars (Sweden), 50.
"Organization and administration of the junior college library," Alice B. Griffith, 132-143.

P
Pacific Aerospace Library, 303.
Park Forest College, 164.
Patent collections, 246, 256.
Pennsylvania University Library, 264, 265.
Pensacola Junior College, 177.
*Pesticides Documentation Bulletin,* 333.
Photocopying service, 240-241.

Phelps, Ralph H., "Service to industry by professional and trade association libraries," 273-287.
Pierson, Robert, 178.
Poland, libraries in, 14-20.
Pooler, Jack, 267.
Poteat, Dorothy Mae, 163.
"Problems of the public libraries of Vienna," Rudolf Müller, 40-46.
Providence (R. I.) Public Library, 236, 237.
Prussian State Library, 21.
Przelaskowski, R., 16.
*Psychological Abstracts,* 164.
*Public Affairs Information Service,* 163.
Public libraries: in Detroit, 76-82; in East Berlin, 21-28; in Greater London, 102-114; in Greater Stockholm, 47-53; in Johannesburg, 7-13; in non-consolidated systems, 440-450; in the Brussels Metropolitan Area, 54-59; in the Hamburg Metropolitan Area, 32-39; in the Liverpool Metropolitan Area, 60-67; in the Los Angeles Area, 83-94; in the Metropolitan Tokyo Area, 68-75; in the New York Metropolitan Area, 95-101; in Vienna, 41-46; in Warsaw, Poland, 14-20; in West Berlin, 27-31; literature searchings in, 239; photocopying services in, 240-241; problems around the world, 3-116; science and technology collections, 230-261; service to industry, 230-261; see also, Branch Libraries.
"Public libraries in Greater Stockholm," Gert Hornwall, 47-53.
"Public libraries in the Brussels Metropolitan Area," Georges van Bellangen, 54-59.
Library Trends


Public Library Executives Association, Los Angeles, 90.

Q
Queens Borough. Public Library, 95, 419-420.

R
Ratcliffe, E. B., 127.
Rates, Roy D., 249.
Regional and national coordinating and library planning for service to industry," Bill M. Woods, 295-305.
Reliability Abstracts and Technical Reviews, 335.
Roberts Committee on Public Libraries for England and Wales, 66.
Rod, Donald O., 192.
"The role of the branch library in the program of metropolitan library service," Wymon H. Jones, 401-407.
Rowland, Ray, 166, 173, 203.
Royal Commission on Local Government in Greater London, 112.
Runser, Robert E., 253, 361.

S
St. Andrew Presbyterian College Library, 213.
St. Louis. Public Library, 237.
San Antonio College. Library, 177, 207.
San Diego. Public Library, 237.
San Jose College. Library, 207.
San Mateo College, Library, 206, 210-213.
Sass, Samuel, 296.
Scarborough, Ruth E., 177, 192.

Schweikher, Paul, 213.
Scientific and Technical Aerospace Reports, 334-335.
Scientific Information Notes, 337.
Sears, Minnie E., Sears' List of Subject Headings, 171.
Seattle. Public Library, 249.
Select Committee on Public Libraries (Gt. Brit.), 307.
Selective dissemination of information, 231.
Serial publications, 243-245; see also Journals and periodicals.
"Service to industry and research parks by college and university libraries," Natalie N. Nicholson, 262-272.
"Service to industry by independent research libraries," William S. Budington, 288-294.
"Service to industry by professional and trade association libraries," Phelps, Ralph H., 273-287.
"Service to industry by public libraries." Daniel R. Pfoutz and Jackson B. Cohen, 236-261.
Sewell, Winifred. "The needs of industry for library services beyond that expected of their own special libraries and resources available to them," 226-235.
Sheehan, Helen, 209.
Sheffield Interchange Organization, 310, 315, 328.
Skidmore, Lottie M., 192.
Smithsonian Institution, Science Information on Exchange, 338.

[469]
INDEX

South-Eastern Regional Library Bureau, 108-109.
Southern Methodist University, Library, 266.
Subject authority files, 171.
Subject Category List, 336.
Subject Guide to Books in Print, 161.
Subject Headings, 171.
Subject Headings for Catholic Libraries, 171.
Sweden: education in, 48-50; state grants to public libraries, 51.

T
Tanis, Norman E., 157, 175, 199.
Tauber, Maurice, 145.
Taylor, Jean, 247, 253-254, 256.
Technical Translations, 336.
Tokyo, Japan: area 68, 69; government of, 69-71; population of Metropolitan Area, 68, 69; public libraries, 68-75.
Tocqueville, Alexis de. The Old Regime and the French Revolution, 3.
Trinkner, Charles L. Editor of issue on "Junior college libraries," 119-220.
Trinkner, Charles L., 161, 177, 196, 212.
Tulane University. Libraries, 266.

U
United Engineering Trustees, Inc., 280.
U. S. Department of Defense, 354.
U. S. Government Research and Development Reports, 335.
U. S. National Aeronautics and Space Administration, 334.
Library Trends

U. S. National Science Foundation, 337.
Universitätbibliothek, Vienna, 43.

V
Vainstein, Rose, 256.
Verband Österreichischer Volksbüchereien, 43, 46.
Vertical File Index, 162.
Vickery, B. C., 229.
Vienna, Austria. Public Libraries, 40-46.
Vinicia Kirkus, 428.
Vosper, Robert, 223.

W
Wall Street Journal, 81.
Wallace, J. O., 176, 177.
Warsaw, Poland: libraries, 14-20; population, 15-16; plan of development, 17.
Warsaw, Poland. Public Library, 14-20; administration, 15; comparative data, 17; history, 14-15; municipal support of, 15; organization, 16, 18; service to young people, 19; since World War II, 16-17.
Wayne County (Mich.) Library, 448.
Weinberg report, 253.

Welch, Helen, 192.
Welsh National Library, 61.
Weltwirtschaftsarchiv, 33, 34.
West Berlin, Germany, public libraries in, 27-31.
West Side Library, 370.
Western Reserve University. Library, 248, 285.
Wilson, Louis, 145.
Winsor, Justin, 295, 297.
Woods, Bill M. "Regional and national coordinating and planning for library service to industry," 295-305.
Works Libraries Loan Scheme, 317.

X
Xerox, 265, 268.

Y
Yale University. Library, 265.
This Page Intentionally Left Blank
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Editor</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in College and University Libraries</td>
<td>R. B. Downs</td>
<td>July 1952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in School Libraries</td>
<td>Alice Lobeth</td>
<td>Jan. 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Public Libraries</td>
<td>Herbert Goldhor</td>
<td>April 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Cataloging and Classification</td>
<td>Scott Adams</td>
<td>July 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific Management in Libraries</td>
<td>Maurice F. Tauber</td>
<td>Oct. 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of Library Research Materials</td>
<td>Ralph R. Shaw</td>
<td>Jan. 1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Acquisitions Trends in American Libraries</td>
<td>Dorothy M. Croland</td>
<td>Apr. 1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services to Readers</td>
<td>Bernard Van Horne</td>
<td>July 1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Materials and Services</td>
<td>Robert Vosper</td>
<td>Apr. 1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation of Library Materials</td>
<td>David C. Means</td>
<td>July 1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State and Provincial Libraries in the United States and Canada</td>
<td>Andrew H. Horn</td>
<td>Oct. 1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Books Abroad</td>
<td>Maurice F. Tauber</td>
<td>Jan. 1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanisation in Libraries</td>
<td>Paxton P. Price</td>
<td>Apr. 1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manuscripts and Archives</td>
<td>Dan Lacy</td>
<td>July 1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rare Book Libraries and Collections</td>
<td>Charles Rolte</td>
<td>Oct. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in Librarianship</td>
<td>Peter S. Jenson</td>
<td>Jul. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in Librarianship</td>
<td>Arnold H. Troller</td>
<td>Apr. 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in Librarianship</td>
<td>W. G. Weil</td>
<td>Jan. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in Librarianship</td>
<td>Howard H. Peckham</td>
<td>July 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Circulation Services</td>
<td>Mary T. Ensmie</td>
<td>July 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Circulation Services</td>
<td>A. L. S. Committee</td>
<td>Oct. 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building Library Resources Through Cooperation</td>
<td>Ralph T. Esenquest</td>
<td>Jan. 1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Aspects of Library Administration</td>
<td>John B. Kaiser</td>
<td>Apr. 1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Library Administration</td>
<td>Ernest J. Reese</td>
<td>Jan. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Bibliography</td>
<td>Roy B. Stokes</td>
<td>Apr. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Adult Education</td>
<td>C. Walter Stone</td>
<td>July 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Newly Developing Countries</td>
<td>Willfred J. Plumb</td>
<td>Oct. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Collections of Library Materials</td>
<td>James E. Skipper</td>
<td>Jan. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musical Libraries and Librarianship</td>
<td>Vincent Dukels</td>
<td>Apr. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Aid to Public Libraries</td>
<td>S. Janiec Kee</td>
<td>July 1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Trends in Antiquarian Books</td>
<td>Hellmut Lehmann.</td>
<td>April 1966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future of Library Services: Demographic Aspects and Implications, Part I</td>
<td>Frank L. Schick</td>
<td>July 1961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future of Library Services: Demographic Aspects and Implications, Part II</td>
<td>Frank L. Schick</td>
<td>Oct. 1961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban University Libraries</td>
<td>Maurice F. Tauber</td>
<td>Apr. 1962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Boards</td>
<td>J. Archer Eggen</td>
<td>July 1962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law Libraries</td>
<td>Bernita J. Davis</td>
<td>Jan. 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Administration of Libraries</td>
<td>Ralph H. Parker</td>
<td>Apr. 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Library Service to Children</td>
<td>Paxton P. Price</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education for Librarianship Abroad in Selected Countries</td>
<td>Winifred C. Ladley</td>
<td>Jul. 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Methods in Librarianship</td>
<td>Harold Laneour</td>
<td>Oct. 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in Reference Services</td>
<td>J. Clement Harrison</td>
<td>Jan. 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European University Libraries: Current Status and Development</td>
<td>Margaret Knox Goggin</td>
<td>Apr. 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in Reference Services</td>
<td>Robert Vosper</td>
<td>Apr. 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State and Local History in Libraries</td>
<td>Guy Garrison</td>
<td>July 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Public Library Systems</td>
<td>Clydse Walton</td>
<td>Oct. 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Furniture and Furnishings</td>
<td>Hannn-Smith</td>
<td>Jan. 1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan Library Problems Around the World</td>
<td>Fraser G. Poole</td>
<td>Apr. 1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior College Libraries</td>
<td>H. C. Campbell</td>
<td>July 1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Service to Industry</td>
<td>Charles L. Trinkner</td>
<td>Oct. 1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katharine G. Harris</td>
<td>Eugene B. Jackson</td>
<td>Jan. 1966</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Library Trends

Forthcoming numbers are as follows:


