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Problems of Acquisition for Research Libraries

ROLLAND E. STEVENS
Issue Editor

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Library Trends

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Problems of Acquisition for Research Libraries

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Introduction

ROLLAND E. STEVENS

Robert Herrick once wrote: “Attempt the end, and never stand to doubt. Nothing’s so hard but search will find it out.” He may not have been thinking of library acquisitions, but the research librarian might well adopt this couplet as his motto. There are, of course, a variety of ways of obtaining needed items for the research collection. An old joke begins a recipe for a Rumanian omelet by advising, “First steal two eggs.” While no writer is going to advocate theft as a method of acquisition, except as a last resort, the research librarian must employ many ingenious and unorthodox schemes in order to obtain the publications needed by his institution.

The literature of librarianship includes an occasional paper on acquisition, but it would be an exaggeration to say that the subject has been overworked. Nevertheless, the appearance of another issue of Library Trends on the subject—the issue of April, 1955, under the editorship of Robert Vosper, was centered on acquisition trends—and especially one following so closely on the preconference institute, “New Dimensions in Acquisitions,” sponsored jointly in June 1969 by the American Library Association and the American Book Publishers Council, seems to call for some justification. We do not attempt merely to bring up-to-date the various aspects of acquisitions covered in the Vosper issue nor to cover again or add to the topics discussed in the institute. Instead, we consider acquisitions from a special point of view: problems faced by research libraries and solutions used to overcome them. Compared with most other types of libraries, the research library adds to its collections, not only a much greater quantity of books and journals but also a much greater variety of subjects, formats, languages, and types of printed material and a much larger percent of non-current publications. One-fifth or more of the books acquired in a given year by the research library are likely to be books

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that were out-of-print at the time of acquisition, a proportion much higher than would be found in the average college, public, school, or special library. The same thing would be found for items published abroad (one-half or more), for those in languages other than English (one-third or more), or for non-trade publications (a tenth or more).\(^1\) In addition, support for one or more area programs is increasingly required from the research library, with a consequent need to acquire publications from countries having no organized book trade. Acquisition of publications from foreign countries, in unusual format, and issued outside normal book channels, not needed (or needed only in very small numbers) by the average college, public or school library, requires complex and often ingenious methods. The use of such techniques is not limited, of course, to the research library, but since necessity does beget invention, it is in the research library that they have been developed.

Besides focusing on the research library, this issue further limits its scope to the procurement function of the library. It does not concern itself with forms, files, organization, administration, or work flow in the acquisitions department. The division of topics selected has been by problem area. Some of these are formats of publications: books, serials, documents, and microforms. Others are related to methods of procurement: blanket orders, acquisitions of special collections, and out-of-print titles.

Lawrence Thompson, speaking from many years' experience in building research collections, opens the issue with a discussion of acquiring the most difficult types of books and pamphlets. He makes a strong point of the importance to the acquisition librarian of knowledge in at least the following areas: languages, history of the book trade, history of scholarship, and outstanding special collections throughout the learned world. Among the problem areas in the acquisition of books and pamphlets, he stresses quasi-official and obscure government publications, limited editions, pamphlets, and ephemera outside the regular book channels. The importance of selecting capable domestic and foreign jobbers and of maintaining mutually beneficial relations with them cannot be over-emphasized, and several of the contributors to this issue, as well as Thompson, have made a special point of this. Gift and exchange as a method of procurement cannot be neglected since many ephemera and obscure publications can be obtained in no other way.

The acquisition of serials presents possibly even more problems than searching out monographs. William Huff, looking at these prob-
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lems, was one of several contributors who polled research librarians for their practices and opinions. His report of their policies and methods in acquiring serials is considerably enriched, however, from his own knowledge and experience. The problems brought in by the accelerated growth in the number of serials published and by the increasing dependence on them in research are offset in part by the appearance of improved bibliographies. Despite minor differences among libraries, the general pattern of serials acquisition in research libraries seems to include, among others, the following trends: 1) the number of current subscriptions is increasing rapidly, as are costs per title, especially for scientific titles, 2) for foreign subscriptions, agents in the country from which the material is desired are being used increasingly instead of agents in the United States, 3) area programs are greatly increasing the need for serials from these developing countries, and 4) reprints are sought increasingly for obtaining back files. Huff calls attention to the problems of paying large service charges to agents for expensive subscriptions, of obtaining serials by means of blanket orders, and of relying too much on gifts and exchanges in the acquisition of serials.

The increasing use of blanket orders for currently published monographs led us to include this method among the problems to be discussed. Most research libraries have one or more blanket orders, usually for monographs in the social sciences and humanities rather than in science, according to Norman Dudley, who explored the matter by means of questionnaire. The advantages reported most frequently were the prompt receipt of titles after publication date and the even coverage of all subjects, in contrast to the spotty coverage resulting from faculty selection; the main disadvantage reported was the uncertainty as to a specific title being received automatically or not.

One of the most difficult of acquisition problems, however, is locating out-of-print books. Felix Reichmann, a well-known bookdealer in Europe before he became head of Cornell University Library's technical processes, has investigated this area thoroughly, again aided in part by a questionnaire which he sent to research librarians and dealers. Drawing on his own considerable experience, as well as that supplied by respondents, he emphasizes the need for good relations and understanding between librarian and bookseller. Sending want lists to trusted dealers is widely practiced; advertising, auction buying, and book buying trips are less commonly used.

The acquisition of entire private collections, of great importance
in the research library, usually requires special attention and procedures. H. Richard Archer applies his considerable experience in the rare book field to advising about the several phases of this kind of acquisition: learning about the availability of such a collection, making the decision to acquire, negotiating for it, observing precautions in accepting gift collections, and appraising large gifts as tax deductions.

Government documents and other non-commercial publications were mentioned by Thompson as being among the most troublesome monographs to get. Peter Paulson examines this problem more intently. Chief among the difficulties are the lack of adequate bibliographies of these non-trade publications, the small editions in which many of them are issued, and the inability to find a dealer who will procure them for the library. Exchange, gift solicitation, and the use of the Documents Expediting Project are among the best ways to obtain them. Collections of documents in microform enable the library to acquire many that are not available in original format.

Microform, although often difficult to learn about and to obtain, is another form of library material that cannot be ignored by the research library. Unlike the college, public, or school library, the research library seeks microform more frequently as a means of acquiring unique and rare titles that cannot be found in original form than as space- or cost-savers. Roma Gregory outlines the advantages and disadvantages of purchasing material in microform and appends very valuable lists of non-commercial microform suppliers in Europe and the United States and of bibliographies and aids useful in procurement of microforms.

The popularity of area programs during the past decade has set many problems for the acquisition librarian. The main difficulties are the complete lack of an organized booktrade in many of the developing countries and the dearth of librarians in this country who can read and write in the necessary foreign languages. Robert Stevens surveys this development, pointing out the problems and outlining the most successful methods of acquisition from these countries. Orders must be accompanied by explanatory correspondence in the vernacular language, and attention must be given to each order instead of setting up mass order routines. Buying trips to the countries involved are indispensible, and exchanges of publications are frequently the only way to obtain needed titles.

Reference has already been made by several writers in this issue
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to the importance of sound relations between librarian and book-dealer if the acquisition of hard-to-find materials is to be successful. Helen Welch Tuttle expands on this important relation in a separate article. Both in and out of the American Library Association there has been an increasing and healthy cooperation in recent years between the library profession and the book trade. This must continue and grow for the mutual advantage of both groups.

As a final paper in the issue Robert Downs reviews current developments in research library acquisition and points out the direction in which it is headed. The success of recent and current cooperative acquisition programs, the ambition of the National Program of Acquisition and Cataloging, experiments by the Center for Research Libraries and the Hampshire Inter-Library Center, the trend toward centralizing research resources in a state or region in a few strong libraries from which all libraries in the region might draw, and the beneficial effect of new microreproduction and telefacsimile techniques on the sharing of research resources all lead Downs to a justified optimism about the future of research library acquisition.

What imaginative and ingenious librarians have already accomplished in bringing to their collections the elusive and obscure publications from all parts of the world may provide some reason to be satisfied. But the problems of acquisition are by no means solved yet and will probably never be fully answered. Research, as everyone knows, has the characteristic of ever uncovering new, hitherto unthought-of fields to investigate and of requiring graphic data that libraries have not anticipated and have not collected. If some day we do find ways of automatically and easily getting the quasi-official and ephemeral publications of the developing areas, it will be the business archives, the theatre handbills, Sunday school bulletins, and private correspondence of unimportant people that will cause acquisition librarians trouble.

Reference

1. U.S. Library of Congress. Information Systems Office. The MARC Pilot Project: Final Report. Washington, D.C., 1968, pp. 177-78. Only the statistics for Rice University, UCLA, University of Florida, and the other research libraries were noted. The statement on out-of-print publications was estimated from the statistics on orders by date of imprint. No information on fraction of titles that are non-trade publications is given in this table. All of these data are partly or wholly based on the experience of the author and of other acquisitions librarians.
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LAWRENCE S. THOMPSON

The proliferation of publication in virtually all jurisdictions and all subject areas is characteristic of the mid-twentieth century. To select title-by-title from current imprints is all but impossible in any type of library, even the largest.¹ The essential problem is to identify what is needed (not necessarily what is wanted) by readers on all levels and the most expeditious and economical ways of getting it on the shelves, fully identified. The range of readers is from mobs of undergraduates, not always fully qualified for college, in the state-supported higher education institutions to the mature scholar in specialized institutes which nearly all universities and research libraries seem to be determined to develop.

The funds available to research libraries—above all those of universities—are staggering to those of us who grew up in the era of Hoover prosperity. Some of the very significant research collections, both general and specialized, were built by mendicants² over the past century. Every book has its price, but for many the price is the skill and insight of the library’s administration in developing all possible sources of acquisition in the broad fields in which the institution collects.

The complexity of the processes for acquiring current printed works involves many aspects of acquisition work which will be handled in other articles in this issue. To some extent it will be necessary to refer to them, but substantive discussion will be avoided when possible. Thus, a decision must be made between 1) acquiring Latin American documents selectively, 2) acquiring them comprehensively through some device such as the LACAP—Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Program—(often on deteriorating paper), or 3) acquiring them comprehensively through the Erasmus Press’ microform project. Much the same is true of the Erasmus Press’ African document project vis-à-vis selection from original editions.

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Another problem involves material that cannot be bought with hard money. It is quite impossible to secure most current publications from the Mongolian People's Republic except by special arrangement with the National Library in Ulaan Baator. To pick up the typographically handsome and textually significant Scandinavian Christmas and New Year's books is a trick not often within the scope of administering a million-dollar acquisition budget, but judicious use of a few kronor for a box of good cigars might well be the best possible investment of current funds. For all its virtues, the Farmington Plan makes no provision for such operations, and traditional exchange routines simply do not work here.

The prerequisite for any acquisitions routine, and most particularly for purchases of monographs, is the existence of a firm acquisitions policy statement in terms of available staff and funds to implement it. Here is the hallmark of an effective research library. A policy statement is always a useful point of departure; it must, however, be based on sharply defined definitions of types of material to be acquired, specific sources of acquisition, and what is expected of internal and foreign agents.

Acquisitions policies are most easily established in research libraries with well-defined fields of collecting and service (e.g., the Morgan, the Huntington, or the Newberry). Great non-institutional research libraries such as the New York Public Library (reference department) or the Free Library of Philadelphia have specialists on their staffs with carefully defined areas of responsibility. A useful reference work is the Library of Congress administrative order identifying the initials of various employees who approve purchases in various fields, ranging from American history to Bantu linguistics, Burmese literature, and Albanian. Here are the authorities in "exotic" fields. Much the same is true in continental academic libraries (Referent-system). But the hapless American university library, the servant of thousands of specialists from Old Low Aztec to Eskimo studies, each demanding his own special collection, has few alternatives in most situations other than to use blanket orders and similar devices discussed elsewhere in this issue.

Various approaches have been made to establishing acquisition policies, and the complexity of the problem is indicated clearly by a University of Illinois statement. Here some hundreds of fields are listed systematically, with an assignment of numerical value (1, 2, 3, 4) indicating degrees of intensity of collecting (viz., general, in-

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structure, comprehensive research, and exhaustive research, the last being reserved for a field such as Milton studies in which Illinois is pre-eminent). Most important, perhaps, is the final paragraph, providing for an annual review of the statement. Few elements of human culture are changing more rapidly than higher education, research, and media and volume of publication. The reserved modesty of the Illinois statement reflects this situation.

The basic elements of any library are books, people, and buildings, and in precisely that order of importance. The last has no place in this discussion; and, while library personnel is a field within itself, there is no aspect of library work in which certain specific qualifications—not always provided by the library schools—are more important. Here, however, we may comment, and only briefly, on the intellectual equipment needed by the acquisitions librarian to deal effectively with the masses of books and pamphlets being produced today (reference is to research libraries for the most part).

1) He should be able to read catalogs from dealers in new books, current bibliographies, and title pages in any Roman or Cyrillic variety of the alphabet. This seemingly dogmatic statement is not the directive of a linguistic snob. Any intelligent person who can read one foreign language easily (two used to be required for admission to library schools!) can be given a three-hour course in linguistic recognition with special emphasis on the jargon of bibliography, and he can meet this standard.

2) He should know the history of library collections, not simply the broad history of libraries. He should know who built the Thomson Collection in the British Museum, what manner of man he was, what his modus operandi was; who built the Simonsen Collection of Hebraica in the Danish Royal Library; who built the Confederate imprints in the Boston Athenaeum. He should know who the bibliographers of these collections were. And, most important of all for this discussion, how can we apply the methods and theories of these scholarly collectors of materials, current in their day, to build collections pertinent for our time (e.g., use and abuse of nuclear energy, the twilight of colonialism, student unrest and aspirations)?

3) He should know the history of the book trade and the reasons for current trends. It is essential for the acquisitions librarian to understand the professional organization of the English retail book trade and its background, what happened to the retail trade in the Germanies after 1945, the struggles of the book trade in the U.S.S.R. to
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establish a system for adequate distribution of Soviet books, and the rise of the retail trade in the "underdeveloped" countries of Asia, Latin America, the Near East, and Africa. 6

4) He should know the history of scholarship and science in its broad outlines for major fields and correlate past events with present practices. Why is the Yliopiston Kirjasto of Helsinki strong in nineteenth-century Russian publications? What elements gave the Universities of North Carolina and Cincinnati departments of classics and library collections in this field which rank higher nationally than the institutions in general? Why does Illinois give a "4" priority to Milton, H. G. Wells, and Proust in book selection policy, and what scholars' names are associated with these fields? Why is the University of Virginia strong in bibliographical scholarship, and what current checklist reflects this situation? What methods and policies used by acquisitions librarians in developing these collections can be applied to other institutions? The history of science and scholarship in general has had an ancillary role in some library school curricula, but, in general, it is left to subject departments which frighten away outsiders with their stern prerequisites. 7

All the answers to questions of the type raised in the preceding four points would challenge the learning of the most accomplished polyhistor. The library school can only (and should) satisfy Dr. Johnson's dictum that there are two kinds of knowledge, to know a fact, or to know how to find a fact. Today the latter method is the only feasible one.

In this study our problem is to identify ways and means of acquiring foreign and domestic books and lesser publications, commercial, quasi-commercial, and hors du commerce which cannot be picked up through blanket orders, area programs, microform and facsimile projects. Who are the perceptive scholars who know the sources of out-of-the-way things? Where are the gaps? In what fields do we need special competence in acquiring the missing titles within the institutional acquisition policy? What types of professional booksellers can assist?

Some of the gaps likely to occur are the following:

1) Quasi-official publications and those from obscure or ephemeral government agencies may require special acquisitions procedures. Generally, in the broad field of national and regional bibliography, the government document bibliographies, even the marvelous old
Biennial Catalogue of United States documents, are the least satisfactory, especially in our own day with the proliferation of government field agencies and government-subsidized projects. Many of their publications are almost indistinguishable from commercial and private publications and must be considered here. The monumental record of Spanish official publications since 1936 by James B. Childs and issued in a highly limited internal edition by the Library of Congress is an example of what we need in this area, over and above the sources for documents and non-trade publications to be discussed elsewhere. Incidentally, microfacsimile republication is an answer to the acquisition of these Spanish publications, since a large proportion are in the Library of Congress or the Biblioteca Nacional, Madrid. It can be safely stated that they will never be available in the original in the full corpus.

2) “Limited editions” is one of the most treacherous terms in book collection. For example, Mary Louise McVicker, The Writings of J. Frank Dobie: A Bibliography (Lawton, Okla., Museum of the Great Plains, 1968, 258 pp.; $7.95 in a trade edition, $25.00 in a numbered and autographed edition before July 5, 1969), is a significant work that belongs in every basic collection of Americana. A Dobie collector knows that the numbered edition is a “must,” if only for the sake of personal satisfaction. For a library or general collector holding only the standard Dobie titles, this numbered and autographed edition is just another second copy or unwanted duplicate. If the late Nathan van Patten issued a cookbook of his wife’s favorite recipes in ten copies, it should be sought only by collectors of Ward Ritchie (who printed it in 1950), collectors of California cookbooks, or custodians of comprehensive gastronomic collections. It has no place in the rare book room of Miscatonic University Library simply because it appeared in only ten copies. In general, the bona fide “limited edition” is a work whose press run has been restricted by demand, and there is no legitimate home for it simply as a scarce piece. To acquire “limited editions” involves a universe of personal associations and competence in subject fields. This universe ranges from the Scandinavianist who knows the significant secondary school annuals issued north of Slesvik to the Hispanicist who can edge his way into the Asociación de Bibliófilos de Barcelona and the Sociedade do Cem Bibliófilos do Brasil. Due to their very nature, the “limited editions” are problems of gifts and exchanges rather than of purchasing units.

3) Pamphlets and ephemera which do not fit into the traditional
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pattern of publication are perhaps the most complicated and difficult of all library materials in terms of acquisitions. Area programs and blanket order systems rarely pick them up, and they must be hand-selected, hand-purchased or begged. It is easy enough to check the Vertical File Service Catalog, Bulletin of the Public Affairs Information Service, Publishers' Weekly, and similar sources. What is not so easy is to pick up speeches and platform statements of political parties in the miscellaneous new African states without a black Thomason on your side; to acquire a comprehensive collection of reports from the various expeditions to Antarctica during the International Geophysical Year without a prescient Sarton who is also a bibliopole; to develop an adequate collection on modern neo-mysticism without a bibliologist who knows his way through the various tendencies and factions within the Roman church of our time. Yet such sources can be and have been found by the resourceful acquisitions librarian even without specific subject competence. Every library should examine periodically and systematically the sources for non-trade publications which are not swept in by blanket orders and similar devices, but special perceptions are necessary to develop special collections (and they are most effectively developed by current acquisitions). What librarian or teacher will find the local church histories for a state or regional history collection? Who within the American literature group can have the insight and initiative to start collecting the work of a promising local author? (There were only a couple of Thomas Wolfe collectors until just after his death, no serious Jesse Stuart collectors until well over a decade after the Man with the Bull Tongue Plow.) How are the processed and printed ephemera of a local political movement picked up for permanent preservation? No single individual on a library staff can attend to each of these—and some hundred other—problems; but it is the responsibility of the resourceful acquisitions librarian to find on the faculty a dedicated Campbellite layman who is able to find a source for histories of Disciples’ churches, to find the perceptive collector who spots competent new authors and knows who distributes their works, to know the grubby political bookshop which will sell radical political pamphlets for a song (today, at least—tomorrow, available only in costly lots from Parke-Bernet).

It is not difficult to learn the traditional methods outlined by Lyle and by Wilson and Tauber. What is not so easy to find are methods and routines to acquire difficult items, the ones which appear on want
lists barely months after they have appeared. In many instances it is probably just as well to give up on the idea of acquiring originals when they are not likely to have value as bibliographical evidence (e.g., the Falls City Microcards program for putting all documents recorded in the *Legislative Research Checklist*, issued by the Council of State Governments, Lexington, Kentucky, into a microform edition). Such is not the case with the neo-Klan manifestos, the Black Panther inflammables, or the somewhat more dignified statements of the American Independent Party. Watermarks, typewriters used for offset masters, and beat-up fonts of country job printers are of as much interest to the future bibliographer as they are to the F.B.I. laboratory today.

So far this article has emphasized the more difficult problems of acquiring books and pamphlets. The usual methods also need some elaboration, for they are not always as easy to handle as the textbooks might suggest. Possibly up to three-fourths of a library's current acquisitions, based on standard selection procedures, can be pulled in through a jobber. There are perhaps a half dozen major, generally reliable jobbers in the United States, equally as many in Western Europe for European publications in general, often several for publications of a national jurisdiction (e.g., France, Italy, West Germany). Not to use their services for quantity orders (based on established selection procedures and properly searched) would involve time-consuming and expensive staff work. It is assumed, of course, that internal mechanization will be set up to handle these massive orders from one source so that each title will not have to be searched by entry form once an identifying number has been assigned.

Selection of a domestic jobber involves a number of considerations. Above all, the firm should be familiar with the type of material in which the library is especially interested. It would be unwise for a library primarily concerned with science and technology to select a jobber whose experience and contacts are not specifically oriented towards publishers in these areas. The jobber should have on his staff people of substantial bibliographical competence who will sense the proper sources for quasi-official publications, "limited editions," pamphlets and ephemera. The ability to identify these things bibliographically and to find copies is as important for the jobber as for the library. Except in the out-of-print (o.p.) and rare book business the United States has virtually no bibliographically learned booksellers, in large measure due to our total lack of standards for qualifying for
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the trade. Unlike western Europe, we have no professional schools for booksellers, although the library schools could set up special curricula for this purpose.\(^\text{18}\)

It is as important for the jobber to know historic and current interrelationships of libraries as it is for the librarian. Several years ago when the Union Theological Seminary catalog was reproduced as author and shelflist by G. K. Hall, a university library ordered it from a jobber! While the jobber could not handle the order, he went to the trouble of ascertaining from Hall that the shelflist version of the catalog was available in a seminary library a few hundred yards from the university library and so informed the client. Further, the jobber should know what his competitors and other sources can offer directly and be honest with his customers on this point. A university library once ordered a current reprint of a sixteenth-century book from its regular jobber. The latter replied that he could supply the book, but that 1) he could not give the same discount as a U.S. representative of the European reprinter, and 2) that a positive microfilm of the best existing copy of the book was available from a domestic microfilm publisher of early European books at a tenth of the cost of the reprint. The library ordered the microfilm. Bibliographical learning is equally important for the faculty member, the librarian, and the bookseller; but, unfortunately, the two instances cited in this paragraph are exceptions rather than rules.

At this point it cannot be emphasized too strongly that both librarians and dealers should maintain comprehensive files of catalogs of publishers and dealers in current books as well as in auction and antiquarian catalogs. The Grolier Club has contributed incalculable services to private and institutional collecting in America and Europe as well; but none of its achievements have surpassed the work of Ruth Graniss, George Mackay, Alexander Davidson, Terry Bender, and Gabriel Austin (librarians over the last four decades) in preserving dealers’ catalogs of all varieties.\(^\text{14}\) Catalogs of dealers in current books and publishers’ catalogs are invaluable supplements to catalogs of older books in terms of pricing, availability of reprints, and the mutual enlightenment of librarian and jobber.

There are frequently moments of impatience between libraries and jobbers and it cannot be too strongly urged that tolerance and temperance be observed in business relationships. If a dealer falls behind temporarily in promised deliveries, or if he is unable to pick up a few publications of the type that go quickly out of print, there is no
reason to shop around for another jobber at once. The cost of such a change in terms of changing records and routines is much greater than the possible gain. On the other hand, consistent bibliographical and business deficiencies on either side should suggest a conventicle of head librarians and managers of book firms to find out just what type of people they should employ to secure the desired service. It is vastly cheaper to pay five dollars an hour for a searcher with scholarly perception than to hire a bibliographical stumble-bum at half this rate.

The research library depends heavily on non-English-language publications. The present writer has made, over the years, calculation of the time spent in reading various languages in his own field of classical studies, certainly a field as international and as uncommitted to a national interest as any. It runs to about 35 percent in German, about 25 percent in English, about 15 percent in Latin, about 10 percent in French, about 8 percent in Greek (some modern as well as ancient), about 5 percent in Italian, and occasional excursions into Russian (for Byzantine material) and miscellaneous other languages. In other words, somewhat less than half of these references (including classical texts issued in English-speaking countries) are from publishers whose mother tongue is English. We may reasonably take classical philology, on which no country has a monopoly or near-monopoly for national reasons, as the prototype of most fields of the humanities or social studies. The study of the history and literature of modern nations is, of course, a different matter.

Thus no library can afford to depend on domestic dealers alone, unless those dealers have representatives in the various European centers of publication. Using again the present writer's field, the basic current bibliography, L'Année philologique, shows publications ranging from well-known houses such as Beck, Oxford, and Mouton to provincial museums and academies, local printers handling publications of aspiring numismatists, ambitious new universities in remote places, and back around to deceptive new imprints used by established publishing firms. Even the best informed bookman cannot be fully au jour about obscure sources, but he can show common sense in searching for them. Thus an order for a four-page pamphlet on Greek coins found on the shores of the Stettiner Haff, foolishly sent by a U.S. jobber to an address in Stettin, was never answered. The diplomatic West German jobber, to whom the order was referred, swallowed his pride and sent the order to the same address in Szczecin and acquired the study for the American library.
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There are two alternatives for selecting competent jobbers for Western European jurisdictions: 1) agents who can handle all Western European and other jurisdictions intimately associated with the European metropolises, or 2) agents for individual jurisdictions, language areas, or political spheres of influence. There are jobbers in Frankfurt/Main, Wiesbaden, The Hague, Munich, London, and elsewhere who can handle orders from most any source this side of the Elbe. One such dealer could spot the work of a local genealogist in Karlstad, the Christmas book of a prosperous export firm in Ghent, and a play by an aspiring but uninspired dramatist from a local printer in Valencia. Another dealer near Frankfurt had the same bibliographical instincts, but his operation was too small to assure major publishers of immediate coverage of large invoices. In general, it seems to be best to have one or two major jobbers who can cover all western Europe, supplemented by local dealers in national capitals (or centers of publishing and bookselling) who can identify obscure and difficult things. This is particularly true of smaller countries where “minor” languages are spoken (e.g., Portugal, Finland, and Iceland). The present writer, whose teaching responsibilities also extend to Icelandic, has discovered over the years that even the best dealers in Copenhagen must be supplemented by contacts in Reykjavik. The real test of an acquisitions librarian’s ability is whether he can find sources for such items as a handprinted piece done on the press at Skansen (the open-air museum in Stockholm), a memorial of a parliamentary committee issued under a commercial or private imprint, a pamphlet on bookplates printed in Akureyri, or a newspaper in Lapp printed in Oslo or Helsinki.

At another end of the geographical spectrum we have a complicated political, economic and ethnic jurisdiction such as Spain. To pull together all publications in Castilian from the Peninsula, perhaps 90 percent of the current production, is not hard if one uses the services of established jobbers in Barcelona and Madrid. To acquire the brochure on a minor shrine of the Virgin, an explosive clandestine Basque protest against the establishment in Madrid, or the pamphlets containing the bibliographical polemics on El Rezo del Santo Rosario is another problem, one involving major bibliographical skills. At this point it should be noted that the traditional “buying trip” to Europe is usually a shameless excuse for a free vacation. On the other hand, it can be used for establishing personal contacts and friendships which will insure the acquisition of precisely this type of material. In areas such as Greece, Turkey, and the Near East (except Israel, where the
book trade is as well developed as in western Europe—indeed, is western European in all traditions and methods) these associations are especially valuable.

The "developing countries" (including most of Latin America) present a problem not generally recognized in traditional acquisition programs before the mid-1950's. Area programs and blanket orders (when suitable agents can be found) and certain microform programs (e.g., the Erasmus Press' service for current African and Latin American documents) can provide some of the publications from these areas. The widely publicized LACAP program (Library of Congress printed cards note acquisitions from this source) has been successful in furnishing another segment of current trade publications for the Americas south of El Paso and Miami, although the problem here is that a large proportion of the originals are on paper that will not last over a decade or two. These titles should be converted to microform, with negatives which can be enlarged by some process at least as inexpensive as a "copyflo."

Again, using Latin America as an example, a number of North American libraries have had almost a century of experience in acquisition of this material. The Newberry Library, the Bancroft, and the University of Texas have been in this business before some of the teachers' colleges, now "state" universities, were founded. They have established their buying policies and practices over a period of many years, and the aspiring young university library would do well to consult the old hands for access to the arcana of the business. The same applies to almost any other field. Any aspiring collector of Africana should pick the brains of acquisition people at Northwestern or Boston University; in the literature of Marxism, the Hoover Institution; in the history of science, the University of Wisconsin; in gastronomic literature, Michigan State University. Once more, it cannot be too strongly emphasized that to know the history of modern libraries, their past and present policies and the reasons for them, is the key to a vast accumulation of technical wisdom, above all in acquisition procedures. In no areas is this situation more important than in the acquisition of current publications from the "developing" countries.

The problem of acquiring Latin American publications is one which has been attacked most vigorously and constructively in the United States. Transatlantic libraries in centers of Latin American studies such as London, Cambridge, Hamburg, Gothenburg, Stockholm, and
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Berlin have generally followed procedures and policies developed in this country. The vast and rapidly changing jurisdictions of Africa and Asia are another problem. The most satisfactory solution, in general, seems to be to select a European dealer in a country which formerly had colonial interests in the area concerned. Colonial affiliations are not totally uprooted by revolutions and expulsion of Europeans. Thus, the best sources for current Indonesian publications are a couple of major jobbers in the Netherlands, for the Congos a dealer in Brussels (who has the assistance of a bibliologically-minded aviator who quit the Katangans to pick up local publications), for Viet Nam one of several Paris houses specializing in Far Eastern material. Despite national and racial prejudices, current politics, and unpredictable trade barriers, the traditions of three centuries of European (and United States) colonialism endure in international trade. It is still easier to buy a current guide book to Réunion from an established firm in Paris than to shop around for a dealer in Saint-Denis.

One caveat to acquisitions people who are harrassed by masses of material is in order. Many research libraries have given up gift and exchange programs or reduced them substantially on the basis of a careful study of costs. It is probably correct that domestic exchange on the scale and style practiced in the period before the 1950's is more expensive than direct purchase. On the other hand, certain fields simply cannot be developed fully without the careful coordination of purchase and exchange. To build a collection of Uzbek literature is all but impossible without purchasing books through regular sources for current Soviet publications and also establishing direct exchange with libraries in Tashkent. Actually, the latter method is a purchasing routine, for the Tashkent libraries will generally ask for current American books on exchange. And it is just as well to forget any current Mongolian acquisitions without direct cooperation from the State Library in Ulaan Baator. A special problem involves purchase of books from Cuba, the People's Republic of China, and various other pariah countries. Probably any method of acquisition is justifiable—and certainly no jury would convict a conscientious acquisitions librarian for "trading with the enemy"—but it is safest to secure a Federal Reserve Bank license for this purpose. With such a license, the librarian can safely afford to buy in Hong Kong or Tokyo or to enter into direct negotiations with Peking or Havana libraries and give them credit with North American exporters.

Returning to the microcosm, a problem of developing state and
regional collections cannot be ignored here. The primitive character of the book trade in most parts of the American hinterlands qualify us as a "developing country" in this respect. Again, an intimate coordination of purchase, trade, and exchange must be developed, generally by the curator of such a collection. For over two decades the present writer has worked on both the University of Kentucky collection of Kentuckiana and on his own private collection. Jobbers are not available for comprehensively acquiring current publications in this field. For purchasable publications one should generally go directly to the source—a historical society, a local printer, or a women's auxiliary of a local church. On the other hand, there are small dealers, generally making their bread and butter from second-hand paperbacks, who also know where to get these things. These people should be cultivated. Collectors of Appalachian Americana will be well-advised to get acquainted with the hole-in-the-wall coin, stamp, paperback, and antique dealers in Cumberland, Harlan, Pikeville, and similar communities.

The development and maintenance of a research collection is the result of a cooperative effort by the librarian who can sense the appropriate sources and of the subject specialist who haunts them but knows nothing of library routines. The librarian must identify sources of acquisition and know when to buy, when to exchange, when to beg, nay, even when to purloin. The subject specialist must work with the librarian on provincial academy publications, church histories from Appalachia, the most dependable dealer for current Icelandic books, or "limited editions" when really needed. And both must have a cordial working relationship with individual dealers and jobbers. The basic problem is to have this bibliographical troika operate with common sense and mutual understanding for the ultimate goal of developing effective collections for teaching and research.

References


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We have nothing like any of these five works in English, and yet they are among the most urgently needed reference books both by bibliographical specialists and scholars in general.

6. The basic information on these topics can be found in the works mentioned in reference 5.


The Acquisition of Serial Publications

WILLIAM H. HUFF

Concern with the acquisition of serials has become intensified during the past ten years or so largely because of the increasing numbers published, rising subscription costs, and the generally heightened complexities in handling and processing this form of publication. Fifteen years ago Robert W. Orr wrote an article, "A Few Aspects of Acquiring Serials" in which he termed serials as "brash upstarts" in the area of graphic media. If anything, in recent years they have become even more brash, since the need for rapid communication is greater than ever before. Although serials have now passed the three hundredth birthday anticipated by Orr, time has not been a mellowing factor—their growth, form, and costs have not been stabilized. Trends in the acquisition of serials and the consequent problems have undergone some changes in particulars; however, title proliferation and cost factors remain a common theme to both the past and the present.

An examination of library literature provided some information as to patterns being followed in the acquisition of serials. It seemed, however, that the most pragmatic answers to serial acquisition questions could be obtained from librarians involved in the day-to-day solutions of serial problems. Toward this end, a questionnaire was sent to a number of libraries who are members of the Association of Research Libraries. Non-member libraries having serial collections of at least 5,000 titles were also queried in an effort to see if there were any significant differences in approach to problems of serials acquisition. Forty-nine libraries responded to the questionnaire. In addition, I talked with several subscription agents from large firms about some problems they felt existed, particularly those which are the result of library serials acquisition procedures, payment of invoices, service charges, and related matters.

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In an effort to establish a common ground as a point of departure, the questionnaire carried this preface:

The following definition of a serial has been taken from the A.L.A. Glossary of Library Terms: "A publication issued in successive parts, usually at regular intervals, and, as a rule, intended to be continued indefinitely. Serials include periodicals, annuals (reports, yearbooks, etc) and memoirs, proceedings, and transactions of societies." If the definition of a serial in your library differs, please indicate what that difference is.

Note: Numbered monographic series would also be regarded as serial publications and, although cataloged as separates, would still be handled by the serials acquisitions unit on a standing order basis.

The response indicated that 91 percent of the libraries agreed with the definition in the A.L.A. Glossary. Some indicated differences which were subtle variations of the A.L.A. Glossary definition, which, for practical purposes, could be considered the same.

Proliferation of Titles

The number of serials and the complexity of problems involved in serials acquisition work have greatly increased since Orr wrote his article. On the other hand, the number of subscription agents serving libraries has shrunk.

Some idea as to the growth in the number of serial titles can be obtained from a brief review of standard serial statistics during the past decade or so. The 1953 edition of Ulrich's Periodicals Directory listed about 14,000 titles, which was an increase of 4,000 over the 1951 edition. Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory 1967-68 (twelfth edition) listed in Volume I, "Scientific, Technical and Medical Periodicals" over 12,000 titles and in Volume II, "Arts, Humanities, Business, and Social Studies" 18,000 serials, a 50 percent increase over Volume II of the eleventh edition. Granted that part of this increase was due to the inclusion of titles not previously cited, many were the result of the upward spiral in the publication of new serials. These two volumes of the twelfth edition of Ulrich's, along with the three supplements, contain some 35,000 periodical titles; the third supplement (1969) carried about 4,500 titles "new to Ulrich's" of which approximately 1,000 began publication after 1966.

The growth in non-periodical types of serials has been equally accelerated. In 1967 the first edition of Irregular Serials and Annuals:
An International Directory edited by Emery Koltay was published. It contains some 14,500 irregularly published serials.

Other evidence of the phenomenal growth of serials over the years and the resulting acquisition problems is shown by the development of the Union List of Serials. The first edition (1927) contained 75,000 titles; the third edition of ULS published in 1965 contains 156,449. Each month New Serial Titles adds to this figure.

The number of serials appearing on the market reflects both the science and technology explosion and the greater use of serial publications for exchanging information in all fields. The number is also increased by the practice of publishers in all subject areas of placing many monographic titles into series. With the desire that librarians have for complete files, the publisher has an assured market. Libraries, particularly academic libraries, are concerned with the selection process in many disciplines, especially in the area of science and technology. Once they have established that a certain series is producing materials which fall into their sphere of concern, the next step is to see that a standing order is entered to receive everything in the series automatically. A decade ago this monographic series phenomenon was in its infancy; it has attained full-grown status now.

Costs

No figure was uncovered which would reflect the large sums libraries are expending for serial publications alone. However, the American Library Association's Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, 1965-66, Institutional Data\(^2\) shows that U.S. college and university libraries in 1959-60 were receiving in the aggregate 1,271,000 periodicals; by 1964-65 this figure had risen to 1,800,000. In 1966, the figure for serials (it now included periodicals, annuals, proceedings and transactions) had increased to 2,700,000. The figure for expenditures for books and other library materials including serials, rose from a modest $40,760,000 in 1959-60 to $111,000,000 in 1966. Between 30 to 50 percent of this figure, or $30,000,000 to $50,000,000, is an estimate of the expenditure for serials in 1966.

The concern with increased subscription costs in terms of the annual budget has become a basic routine during the past ten years. Not that such concern was not always present, but in these highly inflationary times coupled with the magnitude of subscription price increases, the matter has become one of paramount importance. Nevertheless, only three libraries said they actually examined their...
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serial titles in terms of a per unit cost increase, while the remainder expressed dependence on the cost index figures for periodicals and serial services which appear in the July issue of Library Journal each year and are reprinted in The Bowker Annual. Publishers' Weekly was also a source for gaining some idea of the percentage of increase necessary in the new annual budget in order to stay even with the library's serial acquisitions program.

Some idea of serial cost increases can be seen from the following samples taken from “Index of Periodical Prices by Category . . .” and “Index of Serial Service Prices by Category . . .” which appear regularly in The Bowker Annual: 4

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<td>U. S. Documents</td>
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<td>Soviet Translations</td>
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Organization for Serials Acquisitions

Who is responsible for the acquisition of serials in the library? In 49 percent of the libraries serials acquisitions are administered by a serials department, section or division. In some cases acquisition responsibility of such a department includes both current serials and backfiles; in other instances only current serials or only current periodicals, excluding annuals, transactions, etc. Some serials departments also acquire documents. Ten libraries had serial departments which did not include acquisitions responsibilities. In 1959 a check of six-
teen selected college and university libraries revealed that only one library had an organizational unit doing all serials acquisitions work.\(^5\)

Fifty-three percent of the libraries responding felt their present serials acquisition organization was satisfactory. Dissatisfaction with their present set-up was expressed by about a fourth of those libraries with serials departments and a third of those without serials departments. Some of the suggestions for improvement included: “Centralize selection and ordering of new serial responsibilities with serials librarian,” “Put serials cataloging in with serials records,” “Put ordering into serials section,” “Serials should order backfiles,” and “Make a proper central record.” Many complained of staff shortages. The desire for more centralization of serials activities seems apparent.

While there is no one “best” system for acquiring serials, the increasing importance of serials demands some standardization and specialization. In view of the increasing number of serials published, it would seem that more and more institutions will find it profitable to establish serials departments which would handle the acquisitions of serials. Underlying many of the answers in the returned questionnaires was an acute awareness that the acquisition of a serial title set in motion a chain reaction involving many decisions such as the number of copies, the matter of obtaining retrospective files, should these retrospective files be hard copy or microform, renewals, the maintenance of complete files and the problems of replacements. In addition to these acquisition decisions, one becomes involved with the bibliographical vagaries inherent in serials such as title changes, mergers, splits, frequency changes, as well as with the shepherding of claims for those items ordered.

**Policies**

Serial acquisition policies generally are not formalized. Of the libraries questioned, only 12 percent had a formal policy for serial acquisition. Some libraries included serials in the general acquisition policy, but the majority indicated they had no codified policy. In 1962 only 6 percent of the libraries had written statements of their serials acquisition policy. Those libraries that do not have a written policy, however, do not do their serials acquisition work by ear since unwritten guidelines have been developed over the years based on the curricula of the institution served, traditional areas of strength, new programs, and budgetary capabilities.
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Selection

The selection of serials is becoming increasingly important because of costs, numbers, space, and other housekeeping problems involved. While there are internal pressures in every library from faculty and users to have materials immediately at hand, there are economic and space factors which might make more practical cooperative acquisition of little-used titles.

The responsibility for selection of serials is divided between librarians and faculty; in some instances suggestions from other users or students are considered. Serials in subject areas are selected by the faculty in 45 percent of the libraries, by librarians in 35 percent and by a team effort in the remaining institutions. In only a few instances were general serials selected by the faculty. Seventy percent of the libraries reported selection of general serials was largely the responsibility of librarians.

Weeding is not widely practiced. Twenty-four percent of the libraries regularly review their serial titles to determine if they are still needed—one does so on a monthly basis, six annually, and four review periodically ranging from every few years to "continually by divisions." Several libraries pointed out that, with certain title exceptions, it would cost more to do such an annual review than the amount which might be saved in cancelling a few subscriptions. Several libraries had a policy not to discontinue titles once they were acquired, based on the rationale that the selection process had been properly exercised at the time of acquisition.

When it came to placing orders for added copies of a title, almost half of the libraries did have special rules, usually requiring justification and approval of added copies to prevent unnecessary duplication and often requiring that these added copies be charged to the requestor's funds. Several of the libraries which had no rules indicated that added copies were not permitted or discouraged.

Sharing of library materials through inter-library loan, formation of groups having a regional depository, and informal arrangements are being considered more and more by libraries, especially as it pertains to little-used serials. The cost of serial sets, their increasing numbers, and the space to house them are a major concern. A recent study, Library Cost Models: Owning versus Borrowing Serial Publications, examines the costs incurred by four university research libraries in providing access to serial literature. Mathematical models are de-
veloped regarding use frequency and the economic factors which would make it less expensive to provide a photocopy of an article than to buy, maintain and house the serial. It is concluded that if a subscription costs $20 a year and is not used more than about six times a year, obtaining photocopies of needed articles would be less costly.

Serial Lists in Acquisitions Work

The importance of the Union List of Serials and New Serial Titles to acquisitions work is unquestionable. However, regional union lists, produced in great numbers in recent years, have played a very small role. Over thirty libraries claimed that they made no use of them in serials acquisition work. A few found them of use in deciding whether or not to purchase a title if held in a nearby institution. About half (twenty) of the libraries had compiled and printed lists of their own holdings. Serials acquisition personnel found these useful for finding and filling in gaps, bibliographic searching, evaluation of holdings in a subject area and analyzing duplication. Seven of these libraries, however, did not use them in their serials acquisitions work.

Forms and Equipment

Multiple order forms are used by over 75 percent of the libraries for serial acquisitions. A few libraries are finding that for Latin American materials, well-written Spanish and Portuguese language form letters give the best results. ”Quick” letters (exclusive of claim forms) as a means of curtailing paper work and typing costs are used by less than half of the libraries. The visible file continues to be the most popular in serials acquisition work; it is used by 76 percent of the libraries.

Electronic data equipment has made some inroads into serials acquisition work. At the beginning of this decade, Orr found that out of sixty-six libraries, nine used some electronic data equipment for fiscal control; forty-nine had no data processing equipment. Today almost 40 percent (nineteen) of the libraries returning questionnaires use such equipment in serials work. The largest use, as might be expected, was in the area of accounting. Ten libraries are using such equipment in other phases such as ordering and claiming. Twenty-two libraries indicated plans, some to be implemented immediately and some exploratory, to automate part or all of their operations within five years, while only seven libraries did not plan to use automation equipment.
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Number and Kinds of Serials Received

The number of serials handled on a current basis by the libraries returning questionnaires ranged from around 5,000 to the approximately 200,000 "live" titles received by the Library of Congress. Most of these libraries received between 15,000 and 25,000 current titles.

Many libraries were unable to show what portion of serial orders were in the subject areas of science-technology or in humanities, as they kept no such statistics. Of twenty-seven libraries who did reply, many gave estimates only. These replies indicated that between 40 and 60 percent of serial orders were in the science-technology area, while 11 to 30 percent of purchases were in the field of humanities. It has always been assumed that there was an emphasis on science-technology serials since the largest part of new serial titles appear in these fields and, in addition to being the most numerous, science and technology journals are also the most costly.

Charles M. Gottschalk and Winifred F. Desmond in their "Worldwide Census of Scientific and Technical Serials" estimated that in 1961 there were published about 35,000 scientific and technical periodicals.7 Another idea of what the science-technology market is cluttered with comes from J. R. Porter's article in which he cites the figures of 8,000 technical reports and 9,000 to 11,000 house journals.8

The lack of a comprehensive bibliography permits no on-going analysis of any subject fields for serials. It is hoped general speculation and educated guesses by the subject specialists will eventually be replaced by serial data banks which can produce title citations and other data for subject areas. Eventually, it may be possible to coordinate a general program such as that at the Library of Congress with that of the specialists in isolated areas of industrial research and development. Until such control is developed the question of how comprehensive any serial acquisition program is in any subject field can only be speculated. In the meantime, the serials librarian is thankful for such guides as the Guides to Scientific Periodicals: Annotated Bibliography9 which helps in his effort to stay even with the board while facing the serious influx of serial publications in this area.

Service publications in this area are approaching the 2,000 mark and have received attention in A Guide to the World's Abstracting and Indexing Services in Science and Technology.10

Investment and business services create special serial acquisition...
problems. They appear in many forms—on cards, loose-leaf sheets, and in continually superseding cumulations. During the past ten years the number of these services has grown significantly. W. Hausdorfer cited 776 services in 1956 based upon the definition used by the Special Libraries Association. A supplement to his Handbook of Commercial, Financial and Information Services in 1958 cited forty-nine new ones. The new edition which came out under the title Directory of Business and Financial Services edited by Mary A. McNierney, published in 1963, listed over 1,000 services. Among the largest publishers in the field are Prentice-Hall, Commerce Clearing House and Standard & Poor's. The major categories included in this large and complex network are: advisory and interpretative, factual business information, investment, credit, and management consultation services.

Cost increases in the past ten years have been astronomical in the area of serial services. For example, one of the larger services published by Prentice-Hall has risen from $995 in 1959 to $1,887 for a current subscription in 1969. This can be seen in the table of comparative average prices which appeared earlier in this paper.

The number of new serial titles acquired each year depends on the size of the library’s budget, the size and types of programs which the institution supports, the use of gift and exchange programs in serials acquisition work, and the relationship a library has developed relative to regional serial programs or inter-library loan activities. Over 90 percent of the libraries responded to the question relative to the number of orders placed for serial titles new to their library each year. The average figures ranged between 500 to 1,000; eight libraries placed less than 500 new orders annually.

However, when it came to reporting the number of orders placed for volumes to fill in incomplete sets, 60 percent had no information available. The remaining 40 percent ranged from one library which placed less than 100 such orders to two exceeding 3,000; most fell between 400 and 1,000 volumes.

Back Files and Reprints

Back volumes of serial files are available in several forms. The most popular among the libraries questioned are reprints and microforms. There was a decided preference for hard copy although the cost differential between microforms and reprints is a factor, especially in the case of little-used materials. Search and quote letters for original copies are still sent to dealers by many libraries.

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Reprint serials are a major development in the serials acquisition programs of most libraries. Only a few years ago serials acquisition personnel in large university research libraries, as well as college and public libraries, were compelled to buy partial sets and trust that the dealer would see to “filling in” the gaps on a search-and-quote basis. Sometimes the paper in these originals was badly deteriorated, the bindings less than sound, and the number of missing issues a problem. Ten years ago the filling in of sets of periodicals depended heavily on the educated searching done by out-of-print dealers in this country and abroad. Only a few years ago the daily mail in large research libraries carried offers from dealers for pieces of sets which their records indicated the library needed or ULS showed were lacking. The number of these personalized offers has been scaled down considerably by the wide market in serial reprints since the early 1960’s.

The selection of available serial reprint titles multiplies daily. This is a high-dollar market moving toward a 45 million dollar annual business. An examination of the large reprint catalogs turns up thousands of available titles; this material is now under reasonably good bibliographic control. Although good publishers and high quality reprints are beginning to crowd out the inadequate, some caution in buying must be exercised still. A number of reprint companies are becoming involved in “hard-sell” campaigns. Titles which are so esoteric or of a type that a regional copy should suffice are pushed and advertisements for reprint serials are widely distributed. Faculty recommendations often compel a library to obtain little-used serials at substantial cost. In some instances a title is reprinted by several companies. There are also instances of wide deviations in prices.

The scholarly reprint business has developed rapidly, dominated in the United States and Europe by a very few companies. Reprint companies received enthusiastic cooperation from libraries who, prompted by a concern for scholarship, made their files representing years of collection effort available to the reprinter.

Today a new library with adequate funds can readily acquire a complete file on good paper (some guaranteed for 300 years or more) with a sound binding. It is in most cases an error to purchase a back file of original volumes to fill in broken sets if first one does not take into account the condition of the binding and the paper of the volumes now in the collection. There is little reason to believe that the original volumes being offered will be in any better condition than the ones you have. A check of the various reprint catalogs often shows
that the money differential between the unbound original and the bound reprint is compensated for by not having to be worried about paper preservation and rebinding problems.

**Allocations for Serials Acquisitions**

Slightly over 50 percent of the libraries have a comprehensive serial fund from which all serials are purchased—periodicals, newspapers, proceedings, annuals, etc. The rest use general book funds often divided into subject areas or into departmental allocations. These subject areas, in turn, are sometimes divided into various groups such as new subscriptions, periodicals, continuations, newspapers, etc.

Funds for back files are allocated by slightly more than 35 percent. In the majority of the libraries, general funds or subject area allocations are used for retrospective buying.

Of these libraries, 42 percent allocated money for the annual purchase of serial titles new to their library. This ranged from eight libraries who used from 1 to 5 percent of the book budget to one library which set aside over 40 percent of its budget for new serial titles. The same number, 42 percent, did not earmark part of their budget for the acquisition of new titles. Comments from libraries not having specific allocations for new serials indicated that the purse strings were held by departmental librarians. Thus, building up the library’s general serial collection was controlled by subject area specialists and influenced by their specific needs. As a result, new serial titles frequently must compete with monograph purchases for funds. In these instances continuance or discontinuance of a subscription could be controlled outside the serials department, if there is one.

Although libraries are actively buying back files, if the growth of the serial reprint market is any gauge, less than half are making any specific allocation for such purchases. Allocations from book budgets for the filling in of incomplete sets ranged from fifteen institutions who used from 1 to 15 percent to one institution using between 30 and 40 percent of its book budget.

A centralized control of serial funds is advantageous in developing a balanced serial collection. When the administrative control of funds for serials purchases is placed outside of library channels or even outside of the serials or acquisition department, purchase of peripheral or interdisciplinary titles, the maintenance of subscriptions and the building of the serials collection become complicated.

For the most part, the bid system is unpopular with agents and
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serial librarians alike. However, in a few situations such a procedure is required by law. In the case of academic and research libraries, the annual or biennial bid system for serials has all but disappeared. Of the forty-nine libraries responding, only one sends out lists of current serials for bids and does so because state law requires it.

Agents and Services

In 1955 R. W. Orr observed that:

The services of dealers are employed on the basis of the quality of service rendered and on the discounts offered. The choice of dealers is also influenced by such additional factors as geographical location, specialization in publications of certain categories, or of countries. Some of the large research libraries are showing a tendency to place their orders for foreign serials with dealers located in the countries where the publications originate. In many cases the dealers selected are the ones serving as agents for the Farmington Plan.13

Many of these practices are still in vogue in 1970. However, two things mentioned are changing. First, the subscription discount has all but passed into history; in its place a service charge or operating cost is frequently substituted. Second, is the spreading tendency for libraries to order expensive serials directly from the publisher to avoid the agent’s service charge. This growing practice does not single out foreign sources as referred to in the above quote, but is even more applicable to domestic publishers today. The titles ordered directly usually are in the science-technology field since they generally carry the high price tags, but other fields are also involved.

However, handling a subscription without the middleman can have some drawbacks. Additional work is necessary to process payment for a large number of individual companies as compared with having a central billing source. An agent can sometimes supply missing order information and expedite the placing of an order with an esoteric source, although this service is disappearing. There once was also the comforting feeling that placing orders was the agent’s business, and his experience could reduce the necessity for sending orders to a great many places. Quality service from an agent can provide assistance in riding herd on a great many orders, troublesome details are left in the hands of the expert.

The question now becomes one of expertise and how much one
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is willing to pay for it. Service charges and lack of multiple year rates can be measured in dollars and cents. An across the board service charge of 10 percent on a $5.00 title may not appear significant and even be well worth the cost to have an agent handle the order. Examining this a bit farther, however, the across the board charge for a scientific journal billed at $55.00 becomes a $5.50 service cost, or the price one is paying for the first journal including service costs. If a multiple-year rate is involved, the chances of receiving this rate are remote if it is handled by an agent. This may have meant that the $5.00 journal could have been obtained on a three-year basis for something like $12.00 if dealing direct. Using the agent, thus, could cost the library for these two titles over a period of three years, if the price remained the same, $21.00. The multiple-year rate also carried with it the insurance against subscription price increases for the period. In essence, using a dealer’s service is a matter of buying clerical help out of the book budget, and this is usually necessary in most serial operations.

All libraries use subscription agents; the number of agents used varies. Of the forty-nine libraries involved here, forty-three used more than one agent—twenty of them used two agents, four used more than seven agents. Six libraries used agents for special categories such as science-technology, humanities, medical, Slavic and social sciences.

The number of orders placed direct with the publisher ranged from three libraries who entered 5 percent of their orders in this way to four libraries who give 50 percent of all orders to direct. The median point fell between 20 and 25 percent of serial orders being placed directly. Comments ranged from “We order direct only when agents can’t handle” to “There is a tendency toward more and more direct orders.” This last phrase is an indication of the direction in which one aspect of serials acquisitions work is proceeding.

Standing Orders

Standing orders can be handled in a variety of ways: they can be placed directly with the publisher, through a dealer or a subscription agent and, in turn, these may be on a “till forbid” basis, annual renewal, multiple-year, or, considering the ingenuity and individualism of serials personnel, a number of variations on these approaches.

The use of “till forbid” arrangements have proven by far to be the most popular way of handling subscriptions, as forty-two libraries made clear in the questionnaires. Of course, even while relying heav-
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illy on “till forbid” procedures, there are always certain serials which must be handled directly with the publisher only. In some cases of the “till forbid” arrangement, there are instances when a multiple-year subscription is paid for because of the significant discounts involved. The “till forbid” and the multiple-year subscription do not demand an either/or choice. The two can be, and are, worked in harmony.

“Till forbid” orders represent a definite time-saving factor in the acquisitions work of serials. They are a step toward insurance against missing issues, bibliographical changes which might be overlooked in a dealer-library relationship, unnoticed deaths, mergers and, in the case of multiple-year renewals, price increases. Only 6 percent of the libraries did not use “till forbid” because of institutional or government restriction.

Among the serial acquisition headaches is the publication that cannot be acquired on a standing order basis either by the library directly or through an agent. Only three libraries indicated they could count on agents to perform the renewal function. Over 60 percent of the libraries follow through themselves by using first-of-the-month renewal files, notations on calendars, flags, tickler systems, looseleaf books, notations on cards and a variety of other home remedies. Seventeen libraries passed on this question. It is apparent that here is an area where a subscription agent who is well along in a computer-based system could take over a bothersome area.

Blanket Orders

Over the years there have been a number of special and general blanket order approaches which include serials. However, since there is an article in this issue on “The Blanket Order” only brief reference is given here in terms of the acquisition of both domestic and foreign serials.

In spite of the increased use of blanket orders, serial librarians have considered blanket orders involving serial publications cautiously. A number of reasons may account for this. Blanket orders for serials have not been found as dependable as the straight standing order for a title. The idea is deceptively simple at first glance; however, blanket orders create selection problems, budgeting problems, claiming problems, and most of all, add to a lessening of bibliographical control of serials. The agent many times simply does not recognize monographs in series and gives them the same handling as books which causes internal problems in the individual library.
Exclusive of publications received on institutionally affiliated memberships in societies, associations, etc., twenty-seven libraries said they do not use blanket orders in acquiring serials; eighteen said they did, some of these also included memberships and Latin American Cooperative Acquisition Program (LACAP). Of those using blanket orders, ten libraries used them with commercial presses and thirteen with university presses. Blanket orders, used intelligently and with discretion can be an asset to a serial operation. The phrase "with discretion" needs to be emphasized.

**Gift and Exchange Programs**

Of the methods used for acquiring serials, purchases far outstrip gifts and exchanges. Eighteen libraries had no figures as to the proportion of their acquisitions obtained through purchase, gift or exchange. Out of the thirty-one libraries commenting on gift and exchange receipts, six libraries indicated they receive as much as 40 and 50 percent through such sources which included P.L. 480 receipts.

Ninety-five percent of the libraries have gift and exchange programs in operation. Attitudes toward the programs were, on the whole, ambivalent. Many librarians felt it was useful, especially since it sometimes was the only way to obtain some serials; however, more felt the program did not pay its own way.

The acquisition of serials through gift and exchange produces a special group of problems. It is not conclusive from the opinions expressed whether or not exchange units are really functional today or if they are vestiges of an era when people could devote more time to shepherding gift and exchange relationships, such as actively recruiting exchange partners and maintaining the program. However, the many area programs now established continue to make it necessary to work out some forms of exchange for certain institutional or governmental publications. This may be done through purchases of subscriptions in this country for titles to be sent abroad, or it may remain within the province of the institution using its own publications for barter. The former procedure has gained favor in many libraries having little in the way of institutional publications to offer.

In 1962 Orr reported that 45 percent of the libraries were satisfied with their gifts and exchange programs. Of those who replied to this question in 1969, 34 percent were satisfied. The negative reactions were usually qualified. Typical comments were "Not enough titles
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available to exchange," "Value of material received is uneven, some is not of research value," "Poor service, erratic receipts," "Too big to keep up properly," and "Too much time and too little in return." Almost all institutions felt gift and exchange programs were necessary, and even had great potential. However, the majority felt that they were not adequately staffed and did not have control of a substantial number of publications to offer in exchange which would make such a program profitable.

The United States Book Exchange (USBE) is used in a limited way as a source of back issues of serials by the majority of university libraries. Here, too, it is often found that the staff time required to check USBE periodical lists is disproportionate for the most part when compared to the material acquired. However, smaller libraries having adequate staff can certainly make good use of the extensive resources USBE provides at small cost.

Foreign Serials

The increase in the number of foreign serials acquired by libraries can, in many cases, be attributed to the large number of area study programs which have developed in the past ten years. Programs for Africa, East Europe, Latin America, Asia and other areas are expanding and there is a heightened demand for serials, particularly the government journals, of these areas.

Often the establishment of area study programs calls for "crash buying" of materials with limited personnel. An inquiry into the problem of support of area programs showed that of the thirty responding to this question, twenty-two libraries received special funds for materials while only ten libraries received special funds for staff, and in these cases usually only token amounts. The serials acquisitions work for these programs was absorbed into the daily work load, producing a severe strain on the regular staff.

Sources for obtaining foreign serial publications are constantly being explored and expanded. The Farmington Plan, P.L. 480 and LACAP have brought to United States libraries thousands of foreign serial titles. ARL's Foreign Newspaper Microfilm Program, which now would draw on resources of the Center for Research Libraries, the Library of Congress and other ARL members, will give greater coverage and bibliographic control in this area. Libraries are using increased blanket order coverage through agents, publishers and official government printing offices in the different countries themselves.
Bibliographic identification and supply present difficulties in many cases. Among acquisition problems pointed out by libraries were "Few agents who can handle well," "Direct communication with publishers is difficult," "Little or no feedback on outstanding orders," "Time lag in receipt of invoice and receipt of material," and "Slackness in publishing and distribution arrangements."

The Farmington Plan was originated with the intention of assuring at least one copy of important foreign research materials being acquired by a U.S. research library and is under the guidance of the Association of Research Libraries. Certain libraries have accepted responsibility for acquiring materials in certain subject and/or geographic areas. There are now eight resources committees operating under this plan providing coverage for Africa, Latin America, South Asia, West Europe, Far East, Middle East, Slavic and East Europe.

The Farmington Plan brings to the attention of participating libraries new serial titles. It provides a selection tool by sending an initial issue of a serial to the library covering the particular subject area involved.

Statistics for the Farmington Plan were compiled up to 1965. However, they did not include serials, government publications, newspapers, etc., and numbered monographic series were excluded from the Plan altogether. Thus, no figures of serial growth through this plan are available other than what each library may have compiled itself. The University of Illinois Library has kept statistics of the new continuations publications (titles issued less than three times a year) for a number of years. In 1963/64 Illinois was receiving 563 continuation titles as a result of the Plan. In 1968/69 this had been increased to 1,364 different titles for which standing orders were placed. Multiplying the acquisition potentials the Farmington Plan provides other Association of Research Library libraries, it is quite apparent that this cooperative acquisition approach is bringing to the country many new serial titles. Some of them would very likely have been overlooked without the diligence of the Farmington Plan agent for the particular area involved.

Even though there are bilateral ties with other institutions, libraries continue to make deliberate unilateral decisions regarding acquisition in specialized areas. The result is a heightened competition for publications already in short supply, and increase in costs for serials. Some thought has been expressed to the effect that the Farmington Plan is now outdated. It has been suggested that an acquisition program
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similar to P.L. 480 under Title IIC with a national lending library would be more effective. This central lending source would supplement basic serial publishing and resource materials acquired by the individual library. In the case of serials, this would be particularly helpful since these are not usually available on inter-library loan.¹⁴

The P.L. 480 program continues to be one of the most prolific sources of foreign serial titles from the areas presently covered. Forty U.S. libraries receive complete sets of P.L. 480 materials for one or more areas while 310 libraries receive English language materials.¹⁵

The number of serial titles received from each country has been determined from the latest available P.L. 480 accessions list containing the annual list of serials for that country, with the exception of Yugoslavia, and are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>5,460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.A.R.</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>1,856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia</td>
<td>889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceylon</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was found that forty-seven of the forty-nine libraries returning questionnaires participated in the P.L. 480 program and the breakdown by countries was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.A.R.</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceylon</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Forty libraries stated this program brought in valuable serial publications to the library, while three felt it did not.

Opinion was almost evenly divided on serial acquisition problems created by this program—twenty libraries felt there were problems, while twenty-three did not. There were such problems as slowness in receipts, claiming, duplications, storage, and language difficulties.

Although there are thousands of titles in English and foreign languages being collected by U.S. libraries through the P.L. 480 program, many are of such a nature that they will receive very little use, and it would seem regional cooperation would suffice. In line with this possible approach, the Center for Research Libraries became a full recipient of all P.L. 480 serials effective January, 1969. Thus, member libraries should now find it possible to screen more closely the P.L. 480 serial titles they keep. The acquisition of Farmington serials is
an obligation to the total program, and the library is expected to keep these materials; selection is only within defined limits and the library is invoiced accordingly. The P.L. 480 serials on the other hand are in the nature of gifts and the participating libraries are free to weed out those titles it does not want to keep.

Unlike other cooperative plans such as Farmington and LACAP, where libraries pay as they go, the P.L. 480 program allows serial title commitments without any cash outlay. Some libraries have been looking at this "sleeper" with concern for the future. The titles being received, along with the binding which is now also provided on P.L. 480, could add up to a large funding operation if it became necessary to take over such subscriptions. Six of the libraries responding to the questionnaire shared the concern expressed by one of them, "The problem of picking up subscriptions if P.L. 480 aid is withdrawn could be substantial."

As of June 1, 1967, thirty-eight institutions participated in the Latin American Cooperative Acquisition Program. Acquisition statistics for serial titles sent to this country through LACAP operation could not be estimated. M. J. Savary cited the number of "imprints" received from 1960 through 1965 from the twenty-six countries covered by LACAP but gives no breakdown as to the number of serial titles involved. Stechert-Hafner regularly issues catalogs of publications acquired under the LACAP programs. However, serials are not listed separately.

The libraries participating in the P.L. 480 and Farmington Plan programs belong to a closed shop. However, LACAP does not operate in that way but invites libraries to participate in the program and tailor their blanket order to suit their needs.

Although many libraries feel their needs are adequately met by LACAP, some do not use this service or feel that the plan does not solve their serials acquisition problems in this area. The Latin American serials situation was described as follows: "Service and communication erratic," "Difficulty in finding reliable dealers," "Almost impossible to deal with these publications," "Difficulty in starting subscriptions and maintaining standing orders," and "Claims are seldom filled."

Another area of expansion of serial acquisitions in recent years is Africa and its developing nations. Bibliographical identity of official publications, of which a large number are serials, has been greatly assisted by a number of rather substantial bibliographical guides
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which in addition to standard bibliographic information also cite libraries having the publication. Libraries are having difficulty in locating proper agents. They complain that it is hard to find out what is available, that they have to order official material direct, there is a lack of standing order facilities for many government publications, and that it is hard to get publications of exiled political groups.

Areas which present peculiar acquisition problems include Cuba and China, as a U.S. license to purchase must be obtained and even then procurement and payment problems must be overcome. Obtaining serials from the U.S.S.R. is largely dependent on exchange arrangements and this is not likely to change in the near future. Replacement or back issues of Russian serials often are unavailable because of their limited runs.

On the bright side of the foreign serial acquisitions picture is Japan. Libraries reported very good service with no complaints other than that they themselves did not have much to offer for exchange purposes.

In connection with foreign serials, a question was asked about the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NPAC) and its value to serial acquisition work. The responses, besides showing divided opinions, also revealed an apparent lack of acquaintance with NPAC by a number of libraries. Seventeen libraries felt it benefited them while twelve libraries felt it was of no value for serial acquisition work because of its slowness. Although this program has great potential, the cataloging and availability of cards is still too slow at this time to make it a vital force in serials acquisition work.

Over the years efforts have been made to control serials through union lists, national bibliographies coupled with up-dating services. Although most of these works have proved important and impressive, some markedly so, such as the Union List of Serials, they now must be considered as way stations and not the ultimate goal. The control of serial publications requires an accelerated access to basic bibliographic data which cannot be achieved through present bibliographic citation procedures. The Association of Research Libraries has been concerned with a new approach to the bibliographical control of serials.

In 1966 the ARL established a Serials Inventory Committee at its Board Meeting of July 9. This committee was subsequently attached as a sub-committee to the Joint Committee on the Union List of Serials. In turn, this new Sub-Committee asked the Library of Congress to develop a proposal for a National Serials Data Program. This
eventually resulted in the working paper prepared by Elaine W. Woods, *National Serials Data Program (Phase I); A Working Paper* from which the following information has been taken.

The National Serials Data Program, it is hoped, will lead to the development of a national data bank of machine-readable information on all serial publications. The program will be developed in four phases:

Phase I — Preliminary Design
Phase II — Reduction to Practice
Phase III — Pilot Project and Planning for Large-Scale Conversion
Phase IV — Conversion and Implementation of the Total Program

The first phase of the program has been undertaken as a joint effort of the Library of Congress, the National Agricultural Library and the National Library of Medicine. The Joint Committee on the Union List of Serials, who proposed the program, will serve in an advisory capacity.

The over-all objective of this program is to create a computer-based central store of data relating to the description and location of all known serials, from which many services could be provided, such as:

1. An exhaustive identification of the world’s serial literature.
2. Information on holdings and locations for all serials.
3. Machine-readable data for local serial processing which would eliminate duplicate keypunching.
4. Acquisition and selection tools, such as print-outs of accession lists.
5. A basis for cooperative acquisition programs.
6. A basis for standardization.
7. A method of measuring abstracting and indexing coverage, including an analysis of patterns of overlap or gaps in coverage.
8. A unique registry of serials.
9. A means of publishing and disseminating special union lists by categories, e.g., by region, by discipline (subject), by abstracting and indexing coverage, and for maintaining current published union lists of serials.
10. A serial record maintenance system which would include centralized notification of birth, death, mergers, and changes of title.
11. Aid to cooperative microfilming projects.
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Many of the libraries feel the program holds promise. Some are holding off on automation hoping to have a program compatible with the National Serials Data Program. Most (thirty), however, feel it is too early to know if the program will be useful to them or will affect serials acquisition procedures. Typical comments were: "It will provide standardized bibliographic data," "May make it economically possible to convert present records to computer system," "We may be able to forgo purchasing expensive and obscure items," "If NSDP has all information available (price, classification, etc.) it can speed acquisition and cataloging work, especially if not yet picked up by NST. Even after picked up by NST, it could save time by providing the entry in machine readable form."

It is still a bit early to tell, but when this NSD Program is developed, it could be a distinct help in serials acquisitions work. The most recent development has been the publication in August 1969 of Serials, A MARC Format, which is a working document comprised of seventy-two pages. This "format" was prepared by Elaine W. Woods and Lenore S. Maruyama under the direction of Henriette D. Avram, Assistant Coordinator, Information Systems Office with the assistance of others in the Information Systems Office. The publication presents the MARC format for serials and is an exceedingly important forward step in the development of the National Serials Data Program.18

However, at the present time serial librarians must continue to cope with such problems as the vanishing subscription agent and reduced services, the increasing number of serials and their inherent headaches, and the high costs of current titles and retrospective volumes. Cooperative acquisition programs combined with shared-use plans, particularly for little-used serials, need to be explored in greater depth than has been done to date. Many libraries around the country, public, college and university, have automated their operations to various degrees. The tendency has been toward individual solutions hinging on the needs, staff and funds of a particular library. The automation of serial programs is a difficult problem which calls for action on a national scale. Hopefully, this will be provided with the development of the National Serials Data Program.
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4. Cost Indexes for Periodicals and Serial Services appear each year in The Bookler Annual and the July issue of Library Journal. They are the product of the Library Materials Price Index Committee of the Acquisitions Section of ALA's Resources and Technical Services Division.
15. Ibid., pp. 7, 13.
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The Blanket Order

NORMAN DUDLEY

Librarianship is an exciting, challenging profession, but it does at times seem overlaid with an aura of general agreement which tends to make everything pleasant, hazy, and infernally dull. Of course catalogers disagree with acquisitions people, and public service people do not see why the technical processing people have to take that attitude, but to try to find a really basic area of disagreement among librarians in comparable jobs at different institutions is becoming increasingly difficult.

The concept of dealer selection blanket orders or approval plans has long been a shining exception in this bland but somewhat depressing picture. You could nearly always get a good argument going among a group of librarians by just saying the magic words “blanket order.” Cries of (or at least remarks to the effect that) “You’re abdicating the librarian’s most sacred responsibility” alternated with “It’s the greatest aid to book selection since the invention of bifocals,” and the emotional temperature in the room was certain to rise several degrees.

In order to test the breadth and depth of this disagreement, and to attempt to get some sort of picture of the impact of the phenomenon of the blanket order on research libraries’ acquisition policies and procedures, a questionnaire was sent to the heads of the acquisition departments of the seventy-nine member libraries of the Association of Research Libraries. Replies were received from fifty-two libraries, and they tended to confirm my suspicion that another major bulwark of controversy is crumbling even as we examine it.

The first question asked was: “Do you currently have in effect any sort of blanket order or approval plan which involves dealer selection?” Forty-four of the fifty-two responding libraries indicated that they did have, with most of these indicating this with a simple, un-

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The Blanket Order

qualified "yes." Answers to subsequent questions revealed certain differences in the plans, with some libraries distinguishing carefully between “blanket orders” and “approval plans,” but most of the plans described were ones in which the dealer selects materials according to specific guidelines, with these selections being reviewed by the library, and a small number of titles being returned. The only feature which all the plans described have in common, however, is that they all involve dealer selection in some way.

Of the eight libraries which have no such plans, one indicated it was considering a blanket order arrangement for German language material, and the rest left their “no’s” unqualified (although two did select from cards supplied by dealers).

The replies to the question as to which countries or languages these plans cover, and which dealers are involved, indicate that there is still a wide diversity in the use of the blanket order, if not in the principle. The difference in the number of such plans the various libraries have, in effect, reflects to an extent this diversity. Seven libraries have one plan, eleven have two, four have three, seven have four, four have five, two have seven, and one library each has eight, ten, twelve, fifteen, eighteen, twenty, thirty-two, thirty-five, thirty-eight, and forty plans.

There are great similarities in breadth of subject coverage among many of the libraries, with an “average” profile of all the respondents perhaps reading something like this: “includes the social sciences and humanities; excludes medicine, law, agriculture, and in many cases all science.” There are of course wide variations among individual libraries, reflecting in part the differing scope of the libraries’ collecting responsibilities, as with the John Crerar, which wants only scientific, technical and medical publications, and the National Agriculture Library, which wants only material on agriculture and related subjects, but reflecting also a differing degree of willingness to depend on such a tool. The less committed approach might be exemplified by the University of California, Berkeley, which has blanket orders for books on all subjects published in North Vietnam, for specific subjects published in Iran, Iraq, Latin America, Thailand, and Turkey, and on specific subjects in the fine arts in the United States and Europe. This can be contrasted with the University of Chicago, which has only three plans, United States, German language, and Russian, but whose coverage is “All subjects (Science excluded from Russian order).”

JANUARY, 1970
Another interesting aspect of the blanket order picture is the extent to which a very few dealers seem to dominate it. While not all the respondents to the questionnaire named specific dealers, and while no claim is made as to the representativeness of those who did name them, still the breakdown of dealer distribution is not without interest. Richard Abel & Co. has some sort of blanket order or approval plan with twenty-two of the libraries, as does Otto Harrassowitz. Stechert-Hafner's Latin American Cooperative Acquisition Project (LACAP) program has fifteen customers among the group, Livres Etrangers has eleven, Martinus Nijhoff and the Centro Interamericano de Libros Academicos each have seven, Stevens & Brown and Kubon & Sagner each have five, and C. G. Rosenberg has four plans for art books. Beyond that, four dealers have some sort of plan with three libraries, eighteen have them with two, and fifty-one with one.

The dealer's method of indicating what he has sent or is going to send does not seem to admit of many variations. Twenty libraries replied that the dealer sent a marked copy or a national trade bibliography when one was available. Most of the rest said that the invoice, and in some cases printed slips sent either ahead of or with the shipment, were their only means of knowing what was sent. One library made cryptic mention of "advance notice" being sent of material to be received and one said his dealer "occasionally sends lists," but the mechanics of both of these was unclear.

The variations in method by which the various libraries reviewed the dealer's selections seem to be largely in terms of the designation (and in some cases, of course, the position) of the reviewer. Thus the books are reviewed, we are told, by "bibliographers," "subject librarians," "acquisitions librarians," "reference librarians," "departmental librarians," "all interested librarians," and "library staff and faculty." Other comments include "spot check," "very little screening necessary," "dealer selections are usually satisfactory," "no regular method of review at this time," "we accept nearly everything," and simply "no review," although the majority of libraries did indicate a reviewing procedure by certain specifically designated staff members.

Unfortunately the next question seems to have been stated somewhat ambiguously and thus generated two separate and distinct groups of answers. The question, as stated, was: "If possible, please indicate approximately what percentage of your purchases from blanket order dealers are selected by the dealer?" The question was predicated on the assumption 1) that libraries make selections of cur-
rent books in addition to those sent by the blanket order dealer, and 2) that these additional selections are ordered from the blanket order dealer, and it represented an attempt to determine what percentage of the total books purchased from a country's current output is selected by the dealer (and, of course, what percentage is selected by the library). A number of the libraries seemed to interpret the question as it was intended, and figures like 40 percent from the Library of Congress, 50 percent from Iowa State and UCLA, 55-60 percent from Toronto, and 30-70 percent from the National Library of Medicine were within the realm of logic. However, some were confused, and the nature of the ambiguity of the question was stated clearly by the University of Arizona: "The meaning of the question is obscured because if questions 1-5 related to dealer selected acquisitions, then the answer to this question is 100 percent less items rejected. You may be inquiring as to whether we use blanket dealers for our own selection, e.g., whether we use Abel as a jobber. The answer is 'yes.'" In addition, many of the libraries indicated 100 percent or "approximately 90 percent—by this I mean that we reject about 10 percent of what is sent," or, again, "all are selected by them, we reject about 5-7 percent of their selections." Obviously this question was poorly stated, or else none of the libraries answering in this manner initiate any orders for titles not selected by blanket order dealers. (About this possibility, more later.) At any rate the ambiguity of the question rendered the results somewhat less than useful, since in many instances it was not possible to tell in which way the respondent interpreted the question. (What, for example, does 80 percent from the University of Georgia mean, or 90 percent from the John Crerar Library?)

Summarizing the responses to the question about the major advantages and disadvantages of blanket orders was done in rather Procrustean fashion. In order to increase the usefulness of this article, the 102 advantages listed on the returned questionnaires were grouped into eleven classes and the forty-eight listed disadvantages were put into twelve categories.

Of the advantages mentioned, three are clearly of paramount importance, since they were mentioned by more than half the libraries which have blanket order plans. Twenty-nine libraries mentioned that receiving materials more promptly was a real advantage, while twenty-three mentioned that the assurance of getting broader coverage without being dependent on the "sporadic and unpredictable" selection
of faculty and staff and getting the material before it goes out of print was of real importance (with an additional four commenting on the particular advantages of coverage in areas without adequate bibliographies or where exotic languages present special selection difficulties), and twenty-five libraries expressed approval at not having to prepare individual orders. Eight mentioned the advantage of being able to select with the physical book in hand, rather than from a review or an entry in a national or trade bibliography (and one mentioned the advantage of having the dealer select initially with the book in his hand).

Five libraries indicated that faculty and staff freed from routine ordering of current books could spend more of their time on antiquarian and backfile ordering, and three felt that concentrating the bulk of one's purchasing with one dealer in an area allowed one to ask for special services from that dealer which could not be asked otherwise (although this was felt by some to be a two-edged sword, as we shall see when we look at the disadvantages).

Only three other advantages were mentioned, each by one library. One was the elimination of the necessity for order checking, another was the smaller number of invoices which needed to be handled, and the third was the at least potential advantage of receiving machine-readable cataloging information from Abel.

The disadvantages mentioned were neither as numerous nor as concentrated as the advantages. The largest number of libraries which mentioned any one disadvantage was eleven, and this related to the uncertainty about receiving any particular title, particularly when it had been specially requested. Ten talked about the marginal and ephemeral material which comes into the library as a result of blanket orders (and which is not always returned), and six mentioned higher prices (with five of these mentioning one particular dealer and the sixth indicating simply that "these programs are costly," which may of course refer to the greater number of books received rather than to the prices of individual titles).

Five libraries considered the loss of fiscal control a disadvantage worth mentioning, and five commented on the greater number of duplicates received, as a result of exchanges, standing orders, and simultaneous publication in more than one country, with the same number mentioning poor selection by blanket order dealers (either too few titles or simply the wrong ones).

Perhaps the most interesting thing about the disadvantages listed
by the libraries is that only four of them mentioned the delegation or
elimination of book selection by librarians as a disadvantage, and one
of these qualified his objection so completely he negated it by saying,
"However, by having the opportunity to see material first hand and
return unwanted material, this disadvantage seems to become an
advantage." This small expression against delegating book selection
responsibility would seem to dispose of what some have called "wide-
spread objections to abdicating the librarian's most sacred respon-
sibility," at least among these libraries (and at least for now).

The "two-edged sword" mentioned earlier was touched on by three
libraries which expressed concern over becoming too dependent on
their blanket order dealer. As one library put it, "Necessary concen-
tration of orders with one agent puts one at the mercy of that agent;
if service deteriorates, one's whole acquisitions program suffers."

Two libraries mentioned the difficulties of communicating one's
exact needs to a dealer, both in establishing a blanket order and later
in modifying it, and one said that "a disadvantage is the returns."

The University of Arizona Library touched on an entirely different
aspect of the blanket order program, its effect on publishing, in its
comment that the blanket order, "if accepted by every library, would
tend to erode the quality of creative and scholarly writing, by pro-
viding a 'guaranteed income' to marginal and less successful publish-
ning ventures."

The eighth question was a simple one: "Are you planning to in-
crease the use of dealer selection, decrease it, or maintain it at its
present level?" In many ways this question was also the most im-
portant one in the questionnaire, for it gave us the clearest insight
into just where we are heading in terms of these programs.

Of the forty-four libraries which indicated that they had some sort
of dealer selection program, twenty-three indicated they were plan-
ing to increase these programs when they could. A few had some
reservations about the nature and extent of the increase, such as the
library which mentioned hoping to "confine them to areas where reg-
ular orders are not satisfactory, whether because of lack of prompt
information ... or small editions." Another library mentioned increas-
ing "in special areas, such as atlases," but most of the "increase" an-
wers were unqualified.

Thirteen libraries indicated that they were planning to maintain
their blanket order programs at about the same level, and just one
indicated a decrease, and this was not voluntary. This library said,
"We have had to decrease because of a sizeable budget reduction; otherwise we would have liked to expand the number of orders."

Three libraries said they were undecided, two did not answer the question, one said yes, and one said no.

The conclusion, then, is obvious: those who have blanket order programs like them. With the possible exception of the one "no" answer, none of the libraries with such programs showed any indication of wishing to cut back on them, and the majority (a bare majority, but a majority) indicated that they wanted to increase them.

Additional comments about the blanket order programs were requested, and they ran the gamut from expressions of unqualified praise ("Great! especially for large academic libraries" and "The faculty, library staff, and students are 'sold' on this form of purchasing. I doubt if our faculty would allow us to discontinue the program") to remarks on some of the ramifications of these programs: "It is vital that there be adequate or better than adequate review of dealer selections; "Most important are 1) selection of a good agent, and 2) providing him with a precise profile of your needs;" and "Faculty approval and cooperation are most important in assuring the successful functioning of blanket order plans."

Of the fifty-two libraries which responded to the questionnaire, forty-nine are in the United States and three are in Canada. Forty-one of the forty-nine U.S. libraries reported that they were participants in the P.L. 480 program in some way, the extent of the participation ranging from receiving the English language material from one country to being full participants in all the programs (India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Nepal, Indonesia, Israel, U.A.R., and Yugoslavia).

There was a good deal of agreement as to the advantages to libraries of the P.L. 480 program. Nearly all of the participants mentioned one or more aspects of the following statement: the program allows libraries to get material which would otherwise be difficult or even impossible to get, to get it cheaply, to get it easily, and to get it quickly. In addition, several libraries mentioned the benefits of getting catalog cards with the books, or having them available from LC, and one library pointed out that the accessions lists constitute excellent (and in many cases the only) current national bibliographies for the various P.L. 480 countries.

There was less unanimity on the disadvantages of these programs, but there was no question as to the leading disadvantage: too much unwanted material, and just the sheer volume of the material, good
and bad, creates enormous handling and storage problems. (It is interesting to note that three libraries which are participants only in one or more of the English-language programs complained about receiving too little material; none of the full participants in any of the programs registered this complaint, however.)

Additional disadvantages mentioned included the erratic nature of the shipping and the coverage, with the attendant uncertainty as to whether any specific title will be received. Coupled with this is the difficulty, if not impossibility, of claiming missing issues of periodicals. Stressed by several libraries was the danger of dependence on an artificial financial base, which can mean, among other things, serious gaps in serial runs if subscriptions have been cancelled with regular sources and the P.L. 480 program in a country collapses. One additional disadvantage mentioned was that there were no retrospective publications sent.

The “ayes” definitely outweighed the “nays” in the P.L. 480 Program replies. Only two full participants and two English-language participants indicated disadvantages without any compensating advantages, while ten libraries listed advantages with no offsetting disadvantages. Most important of all, perhaps, no library indicated a desire to terminate or even limit its participation in any P.L. 480 program.

Thirty of the responding libraries indicated that they had collecting responsibilities under the Farmington Plan, twenty-two did not, and in reply to the final question, which was, “In light of the broader acquisitions programs developed since the inception of the Farmington Plan (such as NPAC and P.L. 480), do you feel that the Plan as originally conceived continues to fill a national need?” twenty-two libraries said no, seventeen said yes, one said it did not know, and twelve did not comment. The division of these answers among Farmington participants and non-participants was rather interesting. Among the participants the “no’s” (no, the Farmington Plan does not continue to fill a national need), led the “yes’s” by a score of seventeen to eleven, with two not commenting. Among the non-participants, five said no, six said yes, one did not know, and ten did not comment. Thus half the non-participants had opinions about the need to continue the Farmington Plan, but these were split almost exactly evenly.

While many of the replies were simply unadorned “yes’s” and “no’s,” a number of them included additional comments, particularly the “yes’s,” and the latter nearly all had to do with reservations about the
NORMAN DUDLEY

future of both NPAC and P.L. 480. The John Crerar Library put it this way: "P.L. 480 plans will never be comprehensive. NPAC has yet to prove that it will be a viable, long lived success story." Columbia said that "if we could feel certain that the government sponsored programs would continue and be properly funded so as to do an adequate job, we would give up the Farmington Plan. At this point, that assurance is lacking." Perhaps the most significant comment in this regard was this: "In view of current budgetary situation it seems unwise to discontinue any existing cooperative programs including Farmington." This was signed by Edmond L. Applebaum, Assistant Director for Acquisitions and Overseas Operations at the Library of Congress.

Some of the current trends in blanket orders and their implications for the acquisitions policies and procedures of all academic libraries may be summarized here. First, it seems very clear that dealer selection blanket order and approval plans are with us to stay, or at least as long as there is more money for books than there is for clerical and selection staff, and as long as some countries have such inadequate bibliographic information available to us that we simply cannot depend on it. Blanket orders do work. They do give us broader coverage, they do get books to us faster, they do get them to us with much less work on our part, they do enable us to select with book in hand in many cases, they do offer us the only possible means of getting any sort of coverage in many areas. These are powerful considerations, indeed, they are overriding considerations in many cases, and the proliferation of new plans attests to their effectiveness.

But what are we paying for these advantages? What are we giving up besides a lot of extra work in poring over bibliographies and typing countless individual orders? Perhaps nothing; perhaps the twelve libraries which listed only advantages for the blanket order and no disadvantages are right. But perhaps we are giving up, or are in danger of giving up, a great deal, in some cases even more than we are getting. A blanket order is a powerful tool; like any powerful tool it can be dangerous if it is not handled properly.

If we do not review the blanket order dealers' selections with precisely as much thought, discrimination, and professional expertise as we do the selections we initiate (and it should be much easier with the book in hand); if we accept any book just because it has been sent by the dealer, and not because it conforms to our idea of what should be in our collection; if we fail to maintain as close and regular
The Blanket Order

contact with the bibliographic sources available to us for each area as we did before the blanket order, and if, as a result of this, we come to assume, either consciously or unconsciously, that what books the dealer has sent or what appears on any extra selection aids he supplies, such as printed cards or slips, represent the totality from which selection may be made, and if we stop looking beyond these; if we thus simply stop initiating orders, except for those titles supplied by the dealer (one library reported that "although they review the books coming in, they [the librarians] are told not to initiate orders for current books"); if we thus lose the flexibility to respond to the changing needs of our academic environment; then we have abdicated our responsibility and perhaps then we have paid too high a price for our wonderful, powerful, dangerous tool.

In some cases we have no choice, we must turn over some of our responsibility, but let us at least know we are doing it, know why we are doing it, and know the difference between doing it because we have to and doing it because it is simply a little more convenient.

UCLA has forty blanket order programs, the largest number of any library responding to the questionnaire, and perhaps the largest number in North America. We are deeply committed to this approach, and I for one am convinced that, given our present situation, the advantages decidedly outweigh the disadvantages. However, I hope we never become unaware, or even less aware, of the potential dangers inherent in this invaluable but insidious aid to effective book selection.
Purchase of Out-of-Print Material in American University Libraries

FELIX REICHHMANN

Librarians, book collectors and bookdealers are members of a large brotherhood, and no query on any aspect of book selection and book procurement can be undertaken without the participation of all three groups. I have, therefore, read the literature* and have contacted by questionnaire, personal letter or interview representatives of all three classes in order to clarify in my own mind the problems connected with the out-of-print (o.p.) book.1

"O.P.—that means only promises."2 Such a witty remark will elicit from almost everybody a chuckle or at least a smile, but it does not help us. Neither do we solve the problem by denying its existence. One of our colleagues wrote, "I do not consider o.p. searching as a special project, inviting an elaborate routine and a philosophy of bookhunting."3

There are at least three easily distinguishable types of books which the buyer and selector frequently put in the same pot under the generic heading of an o.p. publication:

1. Texts available as reprints or in microforms: Much important research material is being made available by reprint publishers and much is being offered by publishers of various types of microforms. The librarian attentive to the development of the collection will overlook these sources only at his own peril. The selection and procurement procedures for reprints and microforms, however, do not differ from those connected with the acquisition of current printed publications and, therefore, pose no peculiar problems. (The buyer interested in the original editions only will, of course, disregard this group.)

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* See the ADDITIONAL REFERENCES at the end of this article for a bibliography which includes most of the topics covered in this article.
Purchase of Out-of-Print Material

2. Texts available through dealers' catalogs: Selecting and ordering from dealers' catalogs or similar lists is the most painless, efficient and at times the most thrilling method of buying o.p. books in their original editions. There is no book selector who will not readily subscribe to the confession of Sylvestre Bonnard: "Je ne sais pas de lecture plus facile, plus attrayante, plus douce que celle d'un catalogue." Purchasing from dealers' catalogs differs from the acquisition of present day publishers' output in only one important respect. The utmost speed in placing orders is necessitated because titles are available in one copy only.

3. Specific texts needed: Trying to locate a specific title is at present the most expensive and least effective means of acquisition. Sometimes it is like trying to find a needle in a haystack. Obviously we cannot sift all the haystacks and even the most fervent believer in the limitless application of electronic machines will be chastened by calculating the input costs of the rapidly changing reservoir of o.p. books. We, therefore, must find a powerful magnet to locate the needle and finding such a magnet, or the best substitute for it, is really the crux of the matter.

Since the librarian's main supply of books readily available for purchase is in the hands of the booktrade, I turned first to our business associates to get advice. The bookdealers use more or less the same techniques employed by librarians; in many cases, however, they are more efficient, have better connections, a grasp of the complexity of international trade and a solid knowledge of books in their special field of interest; unfortunately they have not yet found the magnet. They keep want lists, check their holdings and current acquisitions, consult other dealers' catalogs, advertise (they have more advertising media at their disposal than most libraries), employ book scouts—and hope for the best. Libraries are important customers of the booktrade, but by no means the only ones, nor are they always the most consequential patrons. They give excellent financial security, but we librarians can make life miserable for a dealer by cumbersome ordering procedures, complex billing requests and delays in payment. Therefore, it behooves us to treat our business associates with sympathetic understanding.

Searching for a desired book is hardly financially rewarding. Searching cost, staff time, postage and general upkeep quickly diminish any possible profit. Whereas librarians can write off many such outlays as
hidden expenses, the bookdealer has to be realistic; and in charging a realistic price he runs the risk of an indignant outcry from an outraged customer. The number of firms which continue an active search service is, therefore, steadily diminishing; the few faithful ones do it less for commercial reasons than for the "good will" to be gained by accommodating an old customer. All have to cut expenditures and risks. Some accept firm orders only, while others make it quite clear that an efficient search is preconditioned on a carte blanche (a time limit of six to twelve months and a price limit).

Private book collectors face the same problems as librarians. However, they take the trial and tribulations of bookhunting in better stride. They can afford infinite patience as they collect for themselves and not for a large and at times impatient campus community. Some give full discretionary powers to a trusted dealer, but many are avid readers of catalogs and love to browse in bookstores.

Extending my search for the magic magnet, I next turned to my American and Canadian colleagues. Librarians are mainly interested in people who read or who are at least potential readers: they try to give to every patron who enters the library the title he wants or the book in which he can find the answer to the question in which he is interested.

The Literature on O.P. Buying

Fourteen (a little more than 20 percent) of those who responded to my questionnaire have published papers on the acquisitions of O.P. books or formulated procedures as part of a general acquisitions manual. All these papers are descriptive, many are very informative and give excellent advice, but for the most part they are limited to the operation in a single library. The profession as a whole is not overly enthusiastic about this literary output. Only one-third have found the papers helpful and even so there are two negative comments ("with reservation" and "quite limited"). Outstanding contributions which give much pertinent information, however, are widely acclaimed; 50 percent of all who answered my question positively quoted the excellent paper by Eldred Smith. Two-thirds of our colleagues are not impressed by anything they have read on the acquisition of O.P. titles and seemingly do not read the professional literature too carefully. Thus, I received remarks like: "Usually by and for booksellers," or "We rely largely on our own experience." In contrast to this apparent lethargy, 82 percent of the answers were decidedly in
Purchase of Out-of-Print Material

favor of more intensive research; only twelve (18 percent) hardy souls put their thumbs down on any future study, probably because they consider it a waste of time; only one softened his judgment by adding "Not warranted but interesting."

Administration

The administration of searching O.P. material shows interesting variations. About 35 percent of the libraries questioned have a special searching section; the number of such sections seems to be on the increase; some libraries report plans for an antiquarian acquisitions librarian and for a centralized searching unit. In 70 percent of the libraries the acquisitions department has administrative responsibility; at times responsibility is shared with the serials department (8 percent) and with the reference department (2 percent); bibliographers frequently (18 percent) control searching operations. Bibliographers are rapidly acquiring major importance for the over-all development of book collections and will very likely continue to extend their administrative responsibility to certain aspects of the technical services, most likely the searching operation itself and perhaps even ordering.

Desiderata Files

Many libraries (70 percent) maintain a general desiderata file, although most have reluctantly come to the conclusion that a large accumulation of wanted titles is not the magic magnet needed. Ten percent of the libraries ask bibliographers, curators and department librarians to maintain their own files, 2 percent keep serial want lists only. General desiderata files are kept as separate units, but 5 percent of the libraries report interfiling in the in-process file. Electronic machines may change this situation basically and intelligent programming based on a very carefully controlled input may well revitalize this time-honored tool. One institution reported: "The new machine system produces a file but no real use has been made." The size of the files maintained varies between 40,000 and 150 titles. The median is 5,000 or less. Faculty and library staff share equally in supplying the titles for the desiderata file. A few additional titles come from suggestion boxes and interlibrary loan requests. The maintenance of the file leaves much to be desired. Cards stay in the file too long. For 70 percent, the length of time a title remains in the file is almost indefinite; 5 percent of the libraries remove a title after three years, 15 percent after two years and 10 percent after one year. Titles re-
ceived are removed from the file by almost 80 percent, but a continuous careful screening is done only by about half the libraries questioned.

Second-hand Book Catalogs

All libraries pay close attention to second-hand book catalogs as it is realized that these lists provide the most important supply of o.p. books. The careful checking of general desiderata files against catalogs is cumbersome, time-consuming and inefficient, but a perusal of all incoming lists by a qualified selector is a must. In 10 percent of the libraries second-hand catalogs are sent directly to the offices of the top administration; in the remaining 90 percent, the handling of second-hand catalogs is divided three ways, almost equally. In one-third catalogs are received by a mail clerk or student assistant and distributed probably according to some written plan; in one-third they are sent to bibliographers and departmental libraries and in one-third they go to the acquisitions librarian. The various methods of distributing second-hand catalogs most likely fail to give a realistic picture, because the catalogs are probably distributed further by the librarians to whom they are first routed. Moreover, many faculty members and departments receive catalogs directly.

Bibliographers (fifty-two times) and faculty (thirty-seven times) are mentioned most frequently as book selectors from catalogs. These two groups probably work closely together and the importance of faculty selection may actually be larger than indicated by this statistic. Both the rare book librarian and the acquisitions librarian are named twenty-one times, the top administration seventeen times, the reference department fifteen times and the serials division five times. A new position and a new administrative division concerned with book selection have made their appearance, namely the coordinator of acquisitions and the division of collection development.

Over 60 percent of the libraries which found the question on faculty selection applicable (10 percent of the institutions queried had no faculty) credited the teaching staff with major activity in choosing from catalogs. It is generally assumed that faculty participation is on the whole decreasing. The answers I received confirm this hypothesis. One library wrote: “Pressures of teaching and research have limited the [selecting] activity of the faculty markedly.” Many comments run as follows: “The faculty is encouraged but. . . .” “A few
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departments are active, the rest not.” “History and language is very active, otherwise negligible.”

Although we all know that speed is essential in ordering from a second-hand book catalog, only 15 percent of the libraries impose a definite time limit. I would have to stress the meaning of the word definite to the breaking point if I wanted to summarize the answers. Practically, there is not much difference between the libraries which have a time limit and those which do not. We all stress speed and we know that every selector is conscious of this necessity. The majority of the catalogs are returned within two days but one week is by no means rare and delays between two weeks and two months were reported.

Some libraries have given up the struggle: “We have made a basic assumption that policing of requests made from old catalogs is more expensive than processing time used up in ordering sold items. We have attempted to minimize the delay in library processing time in order to partially compensate for ordering from outdated lists.” Another librarian wrote: “No rule can be imposed on the higher eche-lon.” Nobody wants to be a martinet, but neither do librarians want to waste searching time on outdated lists. Thus, many libraries have adopted a common sense way out of this difficulty. If the catalog is older than one week, the dealer is requested to report the titles still available and place them on short reserve; the catalog is then processed rush. This system works well and some libraries are inclined to use it for all catalogs regardless of date. However, if too many libraries adopt this system for all lists, we may very well run into some dealer reluctance to cooperate.

Purchases of $1,000 per title must be approved by the director in many institutions; very expensive acquisitions may have to be communicated to the library board. Most book selectors have an annual budget and can spend their allocation at will. However, regardless of whether they can only recommend or whether they have the final say, somebody must make the decision: “Should we spend so much money for this title?” Here we come to the second tricky problem in the acquisition of o.p. books: What is the right price?

1. There is no such thing as the right price independent of time, space and the need (or the desire) of the prospective buyer. A price rejected by library “A” may be fully justified according to the acquisitions policy of library “B.”
2. Never lose your temper because a price seems too high. Price quotations are not a personal insult nor do they inflict bodily harm.

3. Do not haggle about prices. If correspondence is necessary at all, inform the dealer politely that your need for the title offered is not so great that you feel you can justify its purchase—but thank him for the offer, nevertheless.

4. Bear in mind that the dealer’s price is based on his own purchase price, his over-all expenditures and his expertise. Librarians’ salaries are based on the expertise they bring to the job as are the fees of physicians and lawyers. The second-hand book dealer is a professional in his own right and must charge for his experience.

5. Whenever we judge a price as too high we accept one of the following underlying assumptions:

   a) We can buy the same title in the same condition immediately at a lower price.

   b) We do not need the title so urgently as to pay such a price.

6. Prices are like taxes; they always seem to be too high for those who have to pay and appear fully justified by those who demand them.

In buying current books we accept the publisher’s price; the publisher wants to sell his books to several thousand customers. His prices are carefully calculated, and we feel that we have at least the safety which lies in numbers. Moreover, in general, the price per title is comparatively small and some variation in prices asked (which occurs at times) is not too painful. The o.p. book on the other hand is offered in one copy; the second-hand book dealer’s calculations differ radically from those of the publisher; large differences in prices do occur; some are certainly justified (differences in preservation, binding, provenance, association, etc.) while others are not easily explainable. Prices per title are higher, and a mistake on our part may hurt the institutional pocketbook badly. Thus, librarians dealing with o.p. books may be uneasy, insecure and, therefore, suspicious. At times (I hope it happens very rarely) librarians see a hold-up behind every price quotation; this is not only wrong but also foolish and is likely to impair relations with the dealer. We should never forget that good and, if possible, personal relations with our business associates are the preconditions for any success in the acquisition of o.p. books.

Granting a high degree of arbitrariness (a less offensive term would
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be individual judgment) in price quotations, there are a few guidelines which can be applied with great caution. The pricing of all commodities is to a degree dependent upon supply and demand; the great difficulty in the book market is to ascertain these two elements. We may look in Book-Prices Current or in some similar reference tool only to find a price which is probably obsolete. Likewise the description of the copy is incomplete and misleading. The one thing we can learn is how often the title has been offered in an auction. There are also several handbooks which list prices according to dealers' catalogs. Under present day market conditions all evaluations are quickly outdated. Good bookdealers are in a more advantageous position as they have their own files, many have an enviable memory for prices and because of daily buying and selling they have a flair for the market.

In his "Reflections on Rarity," John Carter gives four methods to calculate rarity and price: 1) position of the book in the history of scholarship or literature; 2) number of copies printed (he adds the word "survived" would be better); 3) occurrence in the market; and 4) public demand. But finally he concludes by quoting a sentence by Richard Curle, "Some books are commoner than might reasonably be expected and some decidedly rarer." 6

Thus, we must have the courage to make a personal decision. The private book collector may ask: "How much joy and satisfaction will the possession of this copy give me?" The librarian's decision will ultimately depend on the question "How important is this book for my institution?"

Some of our highly prized acquisitions will be placed in the custody of the rare book department. Although we realized long ago that a rare book department is not a luxury or an ostentation but a necessity for a scholarly library, we should not forget that the term rare book, if limited to the holdings of one department, is utterly misleading in terms of a research collection. Some large serials are more expensive and rarer than many titles in the rare book department. Moreover, the foremost function of university libraries is to provide material for teaching and research. Rarity is frequently, but by no means always, identical with scholarly importance. For me personally (I am afraid some of my colleagues and bookdealer friends will sharply disagree with me) rarity and the correspondingly high price is an unfortunate accident. Finally, a library should never be tempted to pay a higher price than warranted in order to snatch a rare edi-
tion away from a sister institution. The strength of American librarianship lies in the holdings of all libraries and not in the luster of a single institution.

After a title has been selected, searched and approved for purchase it has to be ordered. All libraries understand that acquisitions procedures have to receive top priority. Unfortunately, there is at times a hiatus between theory and practice. The vast majority of the institutions observe a close time limit between selection (which does not always include searching) and ordering ranging from one to three days; some even try to place orders within a few hours. Other institutions probably less well staffed admit deplorable delays. The semantics of the phrase “great variations” does invite an ominous interpretation. About half a dozen libraries frankly admit a rather lengthy postponement of ordering. For example, some replies reported ten days, two weeks (three institutions), two to four weeks, one month at least, usually longer, and two reported one to three months. Fast communications are used without exceptions. Domestic orders are placed by telephone (25 percent) or by telegram and air mail. For foreign orders use of the telephone was not reported. Cables are mentioned by 40 percent and air mail by the majority; obviously a combination of the two methods frequently occurs.

**Auctions**

Along with dealers’ catalogs, auctions are an important source for the acquisition of wanted titles. General auctions (especially for slaves) were a feature of life in classical antiquity. Suetonius tells of a practical joke with dire consequences which occurred at an auction of art objects owned by Caligula. The Emperor who supervised the auction noticed that one of his courtiers had fallen asleep, and every time the poor man nodded in his sleep Caligula ordered his bid raised. Book auctions are rarely reported but they may well have occurred much more frequently than extant records indicate. Cicero acquired books at auctions and his own library was bought by the bookdealer Doras. We also know of frequent book auctions in the later Middle Ages. I have not been able to discover any sale by auction during the Renaissance. The Dutch book trade is generally credited with having re-introduced this type of book distribution at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Probably Ludwig Elsevier conducted a book auction in Leiden in 1604. Within the next two generations bookdealers all over Europe adopted this method and
Purchase of Out-of-Print Material

advertised their auctions under the slogan "Sale according to the Dutch Manner." Within the next century London became, and probably still is, the international center for book auctions. The Great Roxburghe Sale of 1812 is undoubtedly one of the landmarks in the history of the rare book trade. Book auctions are held today in every part of the globe. American librarians probably buy frequently from German, Swiss and French (Hotel Drouot) sales. Sotheby, however, who recently acquired Parke-Bernet, is undoubtedly the leading firm in the field.

American libraries use auction sales sparingly. Fifty percent of the institutions questioned bid less than five times a year; 20 percent not at all; and only 30 percent buy frequently at auctions. Reasons for this negative attitude were not given except for one library which states: "State procedures make it nearly impossible to purchase via auction." The active participation of the faculty in selecting from auction catalogs seems to be small. I have to say "seems" because the relation between the bibliographer and the teaching faculty of his discipline is not clearly brought out and varies greatly. In 25 percent of the fifty-three institutions reporting the use of auction sales, the faculty has a major share in selection. In 50 percent it is on the whole minor and in 25 percent it is zero. Within the library staff the lion's share of book selection falls to the rare book librarian, closely followed by the bibliographer. In half a dozen institutions the top administration selects and in a couple of cases the reference department. An exact percentage cannot be given because my question and, therefore, the answers were not specific enough. Half of the institutions bid through an agent or directly according to the situation; one-fourth always bid directly and the same percentage always employs an agent.

It is advisable to give one's bid to a trusted dealer. The bookdealer is familiar with the techniques which are essential for successful bidding at an auction. In the words of John Carter: "He can play a bid as a good fisherman plays a fish." He will inspect and collate the books on the premises and suggest a reasonable price to his client. He will not hesitate to acquire "a sleeper" at a bargain price, not charge one cent above his commission, but express his sincere satisfaction to his client that he had been to make such an advantageous acquisition. The auctioneer knows him, respects him and will accede to any justified complaint without any difficulty. The notorious conspiracy of the trade to defeat every bid of an outsider, which in
trade lingo is known as the "Knock Out" or "The Ring," hardly exists today. However, the appearance of a stranger at an auction is noted and his moves may be watched with suspicion. A 10 percent commission to the dealer is well spent and well earned.

Antiquarian Book Trade

Libraries are the recipients of catalogs produced by an active book trade. If we want to find the magic magnet we should take the initiative by challenging the trade to offer the titles we want. Before we can present such a challenge, however, it is imperative that we understand the working habits of the o.p. book trade and the personalities involved. Such a knowledge is not easy to come by. We can distinguish six main classes of antiquarian bookdealers:

1. The top level rare bookdealers who deal only in extremely choice and rare items. Their material will be high-priced but usually these men know their subject very well and will be able to supply titles one will not likely find elsewhere.

2. The large-scale general antiquarian bookdealers. These dealers are our most important business associates. They, too, have rare items but they do not limit themselves to this class of material. They generally have a very large stock because they maintain close connections with other dealers and with the auction market and frequently buy large private collections; most of them gladly cooperate with a good customer.

3. Specialist bookdealers operating either from small shops or from their own homes, usually by means of catalogs only.

4. Bookscouts, who in England are frequently called runners. Hamilton gives a good definition: "A scout is a part time or full time dealer who makes his living by searching out materials which he sells to collectors or dealers. If he visits private homes in quest of books (autographs) he is known as a bellringer—in England a knocker. The scout may carry his entire stock in a valise and his office is usually his home or apartment." A recent English detective novel is based on the living habits of a runner (Bernard Farmer, The Death of a Bookseller).

5. Dealers in publishers' remainders who in Germany are called "Modernes Antiquariat."

6. Junk dealers who sometimes include books among their wares.
They usually serve libraries badly because they are forced to live on a cash-and-carry basis.

Many histories of the book trade mention the o.p. trade in short chapters; a small number of treatises on specific phases can be found in diverse publications, but there is no general history of this important economic and bibliographical activity. The trade with titles not currently available (the term out-of-print would be anachronistic in the manuscript age) is well documented for classical antiquity. In the Middle Ages, Italy, especially Rome, was for a long time the goal of everybody who was interested in hard-to-find titles. From ca. 1100 on, Paris was the center of attraction. Gravity again shifted south in the protorenaissance, since the Italian trade (as well as Italian business activities in general) had the best organization. The earliest second-hand bookdealer in Rome had his shop in front of the old church of St. Peter in the closing years of the fourteenth century. With the development of the printing press the number of available copies increased dramatically, and it is only at this point that we can really justify the expression, o.p. book. It seems that o.p. booktrading was largely left to outsiders (also previously this commercial activity had no high social standing). The aristocrats of the book trade were the publishers and those individuals in the distributing trade who maintained a very close relation to publishers.

England was the first country to develop a respectable o.p. book-trade in the eighteenth century. It has maintained, if not always a pre-eminent place, at least high standing in this field ever since. The first antiquarian bookdealer of truly international fame was Bernard Quaritch (1819-1899), and the king of all book scouts was Thomas F. Dibdin (1776-1847). A serious second-hand book trade did not develop in the rest of the world before the middle of the nineteenth century. Prior to this time we find mainly a huckster-like activity; the frequently mentioned Diogenes Helmert may be regarded as a slightly ludicrous forerunner. Neither he nor the famous and picturesque bouquiniste on the Seine belong in the same class as Kraus, Rosenthal, Maggs, Rosenbach, etc.

Scores of outstanding personalities, men able to combine solid scholarly research with business acumen, have been associated with the antiquarian book trade during the last hundred years. It is fortunate for the student of books that he has access to a number of autobiographies and biographies of these prominent dealers. From such books we can gain a knowledge of important titles and price
fluctuations (generally noted with nostalgia) but can learn little about the techniques of the trade. If we want to understand the outlook of our business associates, we must use these books with caution; not every soldier is a budding Napoleon and not every o.p. dealer has the unique scholarly qualification of an E. P. Goldschmidt.

All librarians realize the pivotal role of the antiquarian bookdealer as a source of o.p. books and maintain business relations with a great number of them, both general bookdealers and specialists. Almost every library turns regularly to many dealers. One library reported doing business with 315 bookdealers in Europe, while another reported dealing with 122 in the U.S. and Canada. One library stated it has business relations with twenty-five dealers in Latin America, while another turns to as many as thirty-six dealers in Asia and one library uses four dealers in Africa.

Over 80 percent of the libraries questioned place their request for a title with one dealer at a time. However, most libraries report that they do not hesitate to deviate from this technique whenever the situation seems to demand it. When titles are sent to different potential dealers, they are frequently asked only to quote prices, not to search. This situation occurs quite often when a title is urgently needed and no effort can be spared to locate it. About 40 percent of the libraries do not give a time limit; the general expectations are to allow six to twelve months. Over 80 percent request an offer before the book can be mailed. A small number of trusted dealers are permitted to ship all titles requested as long as they are within a stated price limit; for instance $10 for a domestic title and $25 for a foreign one. Satisfaction with the services of individual dealers varies considerably; fairly constant praise is given to a few of the large European export dealers well-known to all of us.

**Want Lists**

About 70 percent of the libraries queried regularly combine individual titles desired into larger want lists; two institutions use this technique for serials only. The majority of institutions compile both general lists and specific subject lists. Among the forty-eight libraries which reported a frequent mailing of want lists, the preparation of these lists is generally credited to the Acquisitions Department (thirty-one times); bibliographers and departmental librarians are mentioned twelve times; serials department, three times; the director's office and the computer, one time each. About 81 percent of the
Purchase of Out-of-Print Material

libraries maintain carefully selected lists of dealers who receive such want lists.

Advertisements

About 40 percent of the institutions questioned no longer advertise because they feel that past results were too poor; the rest continue to advertise but in many cases only for books in English. The vast majority (about 75 percent) advertise directly, while the rest ask the dealer to place the advertisement. Some use both methods. Domestic booktrade periodicals are patronized almost exclusively; foreign journals are mentioned sporadically. The English Clicque (available to the trade only) and the Spanish Elenchus were quoted once each; no mention was made of the Bibliographie de la France or of the Bulletin de la Librairie Ancienne et Moderne. It should be noted that the columns of many German trade journals are for the exclusive use of the trade.

Within the domestic scene only two journals count: TAAB and AB Bookman's Weekly. It is generally accepted that lists should be short; an optimum of fifty titles was suggested. The same statistical frequency well known from circulation reports, etc., can be observed in our success from want lists. A few titles are quoted frequently; the rest sparingly or not at all. The record keeping of multiple quotations is cumbersome and only a few institutions have found an efficient solution.

Book Scouts

A few large bookdealers who buy both for their own voluminous stock and an ample clientele make efficient use of book scouts. Most libraries do not meet the necessary commercial qualifications to make this technique advantageous for both parties concerned. Only four institutions reported the regular service of a book scout. Three more contemplate using such service in the near future. The financial rewards of a book scout are generally on a commission basis, rates varying according to the magnitude of the operation and in relation to the price of the title in question. A charge of 20 percent makes sense only in the case of a very expensive item. Generally it may be anywhere between 50 percent and 100 percent. One library reported the services of a faculty member of its institution and noted that one-third of his salary was accepted as a part of the library's budget.
Buying Trips

Forty percent of the institutions queried do not send library staff members on buying trips. One colleague wistfully comments "unfortunately." Forty-one libraries (60 percent) do, but five add the limitations such as "occasionally," "infrequently," "exceptionally." Two-thirds of the libraries do not encourage faculty trips. The emphasis lies here on the word encourage. That probably means that the library does not pay traveling expenses. Undoubtedly the services of a well-informed specialist are gratefully accepted by every institution. One-third of the libraries go beyond this passive acceptance and suggest buying trips to the subject specialist of the teaching faculty. In a few instances the traveller has with him a small list of items especially desired; generally he will ask the dealer to offer to the library all the titles provisionally selected. It is understood that such offers have to be acted upon immediately and that both the dealer and the selector must be informed of the action taken.

United States Book Exchange

Another important source for locating out-of-print material is the United States Book Exchange (USBE). This non-profit organization was formed twenty years ago as the successor to the American Book Center for War Devastated Libraries. It has grown rapidly and now has a stock of three and a half million items. In 1968, it distributed with the help of 101 book lists, thirty-eight periodical lists and five special lists, ca. 600,000 items to its 1,739 members, of which 1,510 are in the U.S. and Canada. The yearly turnover of its stock is about 12 percent. Members pay a membership fee and handling fee per item bought. On the whole American librarians do not use the services of this institution as intensively and efficiently as they might. Forty-five percent do not check USBE lists at all; of the 55 percent who at least go through the motion of checking, two institutions are interested in serials and one only in Latin America. Twenty-seven libraries (ca. 40 percent of sixty-seven) regularly send requests of items wanted to USBE. Two libraries send only serial requests. However, the amount of money spent on purchases from USBE is very small. Most libraries estimated it with phrases such as "insignificant" or "very small." A few libraries reported a four digit figure for 1968, but only one approached a five digit figure. The general verdict with respect to the usefulness of USBE is a favorable one. Of the thirty-
seven libraries which regularly check the lists, twenty-nine (ca. 80 percent) were satisfied, although some did add minor reservations.

Reprints and Microreproductions

Research libraries need both the originals and modern reprints. In many cases, but by no means without exception (caveat emptor) a reprint will be less expensive than the original and clearly the easiest available purchase. Fifty-four (80 percent of libraries) check more or less systematically the catalogs of reprint publishers. One library adds the limitation for "undergraduate libraries and serials only." The early enthusiasm for this important source is slightly on the wane and some reluctance on the part of the buyer is waxing. Publishers are inundating libraries with offers, many of which are by no means bargains; and, most unfortunately they are publishing identical titles with great price differences. These prices may be justified in terms of production costs but are not always competitive with prices asked on the o.p. market. Worst of all, the selection of some reprint publishers is at times questionable. We see reprints of titles which have been a drag on the o.p. market for decades, and we frequently read reviews in our scholarly journals which clearly point out that the vastly diminished scholarly value of a given title did not justify its reprint. Thus, the conscientious book selector becomes increasingly cautious and sometimes rather reluctant.

Forty-nine libraries (about 75 percent) check reprint catalogs before giving an order or a request for searching to an o.p. dealer. In-so-far as our limited bibliographical control of reprints permits, such a check should be made a standing operating procedure. We should be in a position to compare prices; moreover, as many o.p. dealers check reprint catalogs automatically nowadays, we should give our business associates all the information we have on hand.

If an antiquarian reprint is not available we may consider the purchase of a microfilm. Forty-six institutions (ca. 70 percent) still give preference to microfilm, probably because the bulk of microforms available on the market is produced in this form; the pendulum, however, may swing in favor of microfiche. Fifty-two institutions (ca. 80 percent) order xerox copyflo in lieu of a microform. For newspapers and for many periodicals most libraries prefer microforms to originals. For monographs no generalization can be made. The decision of what to buy is dependent on the scholarly purpose and urgency of the re-
quest. In many instances a microform is fully acceptable as a substitute, but sometimes the library may want to continue its search for an original in spite of the availability of a microreproduction.

Serials

Although this paper is primarily but by no means exclusively concerned with monographs, it should be noted that the procedures for acquiring o.p. serials do not differ radically from those used in buying o.p. monographs. A detailed discussion of serials purchases would, however, be out of place as another paper in this issue is devoted to this field.

Budget

Thirty percent of the libraries were unable to estimate the percentage of the general books and serials appropriation spent for o.p. material. The estimate of the forty-seven (70 percent) libraries reporting ranges from 4 percent to 75 percent; the median lies with libraries that spent between 20 and 25 percent. A detailed breakdown runs as follows:

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<th>Percent</th>
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<td>5 and under</td>
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<td>Over 30</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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These are of course approximations only; most of them are not based on exact bookkeeping but are only estimates. Moreover, it is doubtful whether all libraries combine as a single category all types of o.p. material, originals, antiquarian reprints and microforms.

Only ten libraries identify in their budget proposals the percentage of the budget they will spend for o.p. material. Some libraries hope to be able to exceed their original estimate; thus, I received reports such as: "We will go beyond the estimate if possible" and "A massive sum for o.p. purchases is planned."
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Of sixty-seven libraries queried, fifty-eight commented on their experiences in acquiring o.p. material. Two libraries were very content: twenty-seven expressed general satisfaction; six leaned toward a negative answer; and twenty-three admitted frustration. Thus, on the whole, opinion is evenly divided between satisfaction and discontent.

The rate of success is in direct relation to the amount of staff time libraries can devote to this problem. The question of whether it is worthwhile to divert staff time from other important activities to this time-consuming task can be answered only in accordance with the acquisitions policy of a given institution. Libraries with insufficient staff will probably do better to concentrate on dealers' catalogs and select those books which are available.

Locating o.p. titles is difficult and laborious and the vast majority of librarians reported their inability to assign enough staff time for this job. As an example of this attitude, I quote from one of the letters received:

Out-of-print searching, like the price of freedom, takes eternal vigilance and an attention to detail which can become tedious. Although we have tried all obvious methods such as compiling subject lists for subject specialists and faculty travelling abroad, area lists by country of origin, general lists to be searched through dealer's stock, other general lists to be searched on the open market, and advertising, we have never seemed to arrive at the successful combination for appreciably reducing our want lists. Dealers do not seem interested in searching our lists, we do not have staff time to check the dealer's catalogs through our desiderata.

Some bookdealers are wont to blame our limited success on librarians' ignorance of the usances of the trade. Such an indictment may be at times correct but we compensate for it by our sincere desire to comprehend the working habits of our business associates. Moreover, ignorance is not the monopoly of one profession. Certainly some dealers, too, lack a sympathetic understanding of the complexity of library administration. Libraries are not independent institutions but are bound by the regulations of their governing bodies. Throwing bricks will not solve the problem. The words of one of the most important English antiquarian bookdealers, "I am sure that there is a supply of both good profits and good will for someone who can solve this problem," have only reaffirmed my conviction that to find a better way to locate o.p. titles is one of the most important tasks of librarianship and the booktrade. Nobody can deny that a solution
of this thorny problem would be equally advantageous to both parties concerned. Pooling all our expertise both in booklore and in management will be needed to find the magic magnet or at least the best substitute this imperfect world will grant us.

Overseas Library Procedures for Securing O.P. Books

In my search for the magnet I finally turned to libraries overseas. Unfortunately I received so few answers that my sample is unreliable. Not only are there many differences in organizational structure, but the diversity of language and the semantic difficulties in translating technical terms can easily lead to misunderstanding. Nevertheless, I venture the tentative hypothesis that the problems of overseas libraries remain unsolved even as ours.

A short summary of the answers received from overseas libraries gives the following picture. No publication was mentioned, not even the Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaften. Libraries do not have special searching sections for o.p. material; the majority have a desiderata file in which titles not found are retained for three years and longer. The subject specialist selects from second-hand catalogs with little activity on the part of the faculty. Orders are placed at least within one week, often on the day following the receipt of the catalog. Purchases from auctions are made infrequently, generally with little faculty participation. Both general bookdealers and specialists are asked to search and offer. No price limits are given but an offer is required. Want lists are issued infrequently but advertisements for desired titles are placed. No book scouts are employed but buying trips by library staff members do occur. USBE is known to only a few of them. Reprint catalogs are checked as systematically as time permits.

References

1. I record with thanks the great assistance given to me by my friend and colleague at Cornell, Miss Josephine Tharpe, University Bibliographer. Sixty-seven American and Canadian libraries returned my elaborate questionnaire, some of my book collecting friends discussed the problem with me and about a score of bookdealers were good enough to reply to my different queries. I would like to express my sincere thanks to my colleagues, fellow collectors and business associates for their highly appreciated cooperation.


3. From an answer to my questionnaire. For the sake of making an argument I am very unfair to the excellent and most pertinent observations made by my
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colleague. I am quoting his beginning sentence only; he then goes on and stresses correctly the wisdom of buying from catalogs instead of hunting for a specific title.


15. Sol M. Malkin, editor of *AB Bookman’s Weekly* supplied the information that 5,900 copies are mailed to 3,400 dealers, 1,400 libraries, and 1,100 collectors.

16. Williams, Edwin E. *A Serviceable Reservoir; Report of a Survey of the United States Book Exchange*. Washington, D.C., United States Book Exchange, 1959; the figures for the current year were supplied by Director of USBE, Alice Ball.


ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

PRIVATE BOOK COLLECTORS


FELIX REICHMANN


OUT-OF-PRINT BUYING


ADMINISTRATION OF OUT-OF-PRINT SEARCHING

Tauber, Maurice F. Technical Services in Libraries. A revised edition is in preparation and I am very grateful to Dr. Tauber for letting me read the revised chapter on o.p. book buying.

DESIDERATA FILES

SECOND-HAND BOOK CATALOGS


COST OF RARE BOOKS


REFERENCE TOOLS FOR PRICING OUT-OF-PRINT BOOKS


*Jahrbuch der Bücherpreise. Ergebnisse der Versteigerungen in Deutschland,*


**HANDBOOKS LISTING PRICES IN DEALERS' CATALOGS**


Morrison, William M. *Texas Book Prices ($1.50 to $4,000); A List of 4,000 Items of Texiana and Texana.* . . . Waco, Texas, n.p., 1963.


**RARE BOOKS**


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BOOK AUCTIONS AND THEIR CATALOGS


HISTORY OF THE BOOK TRADE


AB *Bookman’s Yearbook for the Specialist Book World*, 1969. Part 2. This issue is devoted to articles on the present day second-hand book trade and also contains a new Directory of Members of the International League of Antiquarian Booksellers.


BIOGRAPHIES AND AUTOBIOGRAPHIES OF PROMINENT BOOK TRADE DEALERS


FELIX REICHHMANN


DIRECTORIES OF OUT-OF-PRINT BOOK DEALERS


THE BOOK DEALER'S VIEW OF THE TRADE

Purchase of Out-of-Print Material

Reichley, Robert A. "The Bookseller; Key Figure in the Competition for Diminishing Supply of Rare Books," AB Bookman's Weekly, 43:892+, March 17, 1969.


PROCEDURES FOR SECURING OUT-OF-PRINT BOOKS IN OVERSEAS LIBRARIES


Special Collections

H. RICHARD ARCHER

The problems of special collections acquired by research libraries (whether they be college, university, or private), are deserving of special study and analysis by librarians interested in the trends of the past decade.

An acceptable definition for a special collection is:

an assemblage of material in some field of knowledge which includes at least some of the rare or more unusual items and a greater proportion of other titles bearing upon the special subject than would be included ordinarily in a library of the size.¹

In order to consider special collections which may be sought out, acquired, and processed by the research library, there are certain questions which require special attention:

1. How does the library learn about the imminent disposal of a special collection? Whose responsibility is it to follow up on suggestions which may come from a faculty member, a dealer, a collector, or a friend of the library?

2. What agents are used for acquiring the collection? Is it the responsibility of the director, a formal body of friends, or does the head of the special collections department make the final decision and arrange for acquiring the material? How are the funds made available, and who decides how these funds are to be spent?

3. Who should make the offer and complete the transaction? What routines should be employed for processing the special collection? How should the collection be appraised? How should duplicates and unwanted (out-of-scope) materials be disposed of?

In considering these questions, it is well to recall what one experienced library administrator pointed out: “Special collections in a li-

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library generally come from gifts of friends whose collector's instincts brought them together or who acquired them in order to present them. Such a collection may have been gathered by a friend or alumnus of the institution, or it may have been put together by an individual unknown to the institution, but one who during an active period of collecting managed to obtain distinctive and valuable materials for his own pleasure and use (e.g., the celebrated and valuable collection of nineteenth century fiction gathered and described by Sir Michael Sadleir, and sold to UCLA in 1952 after his bibliography on that topic was published). Often several institutions may be interested in purchasing the same large and important collection; therefore, the librarians responsible for seeking out research materials must be well-informed about the needs of their respective institutions and also be able to obtain the necessary funds by the time the negotiations reach the stage where decisions must be made.

It hardly needs to be emphasized here that all institutions do not follow the same procedures; a large research library may have certain advantages over the smaller university and college libraries that are struggling to gain a foothold on the ladder of academic respectability and are, therefore, less likely to attract unusual research materials for their growing collections. This is not to say that all special collections are appropriate at the time of their purchase or transfer to the institution that acquires them, but the annals of librarianship have shown that many research libraries have managed to anticipate the demands of future scholars, to gather special collections which are then mined and sifted in later years, and thus later greatly benefit both the users and the owners of the materials. (Experiences at Yale, Harvard, California, Texas, Chicago, Virginia, etc., are typical of this important aspect of special collections in recent decades.)

It is well to keep in mind that other problems may arise, especially if the special collection comes to the institution from a donor. The stipulations in a deed or gift, whether from an estate or a living collector, may be restrictive and not always in the best interest of the institution receiving the collection or of the scholars who plan to make use of the materials. There often will be some delicate matters to consider, and curators, as well as administrators, have had to face these situations for several decades. Solutions may be arrived at, but not without considerable thought and diplomatic maneuvering, and often the selection of a workable program that benefits the recipient and does not offend the benefactor may be difficult to achieve.
Traditionally, the older and well-established research libraries with their separate departments of special collections have had certain advantages. They can claim a knowledgeable staff, historical background, prestige, adequate space for housing incoming collections, as well as funds to support related acquisitions and for processing the materials. Often they are better able to exploit the collections for educational purposes. They may publish catalogs and books relating to subjects of the various collections, and often feature exhibits of the works or of scholarly research in process based on them.

Normally, the chief administrator of the rare book department, whether he has the title of curator, head, rare book librarian, or director of research, will be the officer of the library staff responsible for the final decision about acquiring a special collection offered to the library. Obviously, this person must work closely with the director or librarian who is in charge of the institutional library, and he should understand that the decisions made and agreements reached should be in line with the over-all collection policies of the institution.

The matter of employing agents for acquiring special collections depends on the nature of the collection being offered and upon the policies in effect at each institution. Some research institutions, private or state-supported, have their own "field representatives" who operate according to accepted practice and locate desirable materials for their institutions. (The Huntington, Lilly, Houghton, UCLA and many others employ this kind of representative for searching out special collections.)

Members of the antiquarian book trade likewise serve as valuable adjuncts in a great many instances where valuable and important collections are offered to institutions known to be active in certain areas of scholarly research. Each institution acts according to its own idea of what it feels is best for it. Those that have close ties with the antiquarian trade may enjoy greater success than others who rely upon different means of locating and acquiring special collections. It is not possible to present hard and fast rules for these procedures, and it is unlikely that many institutions will succeed in imitating the more fortunate libraries without changing their methods and adding larger amounts of money for the necessary activities related to searching out desirable collections.

When we come to consider the important topic of who makes the decision to acquire the material, whether an individual or a group
Special Collections

(such as a committee on acquisitions or an official friends organization), we must realize that such matters are decided according to the established procedures by the administrative body responsible for acquisition policies. The availability of funds is an important consideration, and when the necessary approval is given by the acquisitions committee and approved by the financial officer or library administrator, then the arrangements may be concluded.

It is generally understood that the institutions most active in searching out and acquiring important and valuable special collections normally discharge their obligations to the world of scholarship as well as to their own students and faculties in that they make the materials available for research purposes. Privately endowed libraries and some of the well-known private collections may restrict the use of their materials depending upon individual donor or owner preferences, but the state-supported institutions generally maintain an open-door policy.

At most institutions, the nature of the graduate program and the established curriculum have a marked effect on the type of materials sought by the libraries of these growing colleges and universities. The policies in effect at Boston University and Syracuse University may differ from those at certain large state universities such as Illinois, Michigan, California, Indiana, and Kentucky, but recent activities indicate that many of these tax-supported universities are engaged in similar transactions as they build their research collections by acquiring materials en bloc.

With regard to acquiring manuscripts and papers of contemporary and regional authors, Washington University in St. Louis, the Newberry Library in Chicago, and UCLA among others have been particularly active. At Washington University, for example, the librarians in charge of book selection and of special collections invited the faculty of the English department to make a list of contemporary writers who, while not yet widely recognized, were still judged to have potentially lasting importance. The librarians then wrote to the designated novelists and poets, explaining the Library's interest in collecting their printed works and manuscripts, and invited them to deposit their literary papers and correspondence in the Library to be available for future study. This program has been immensely successful. Some libraries concentrate on the papers of their institutions' alumni who have achieved fame or recognition; others may attempt to develop collections relating to the area in which the libraries are

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located. The regional approach in particular has had many adherents for at least two generations.

This is not the place to discuss in detail the problems related to the acquisition and maintenance of materials by and about living authors, though there are several institutions that have faced this situation and are aware of the headaches and inconveniences which occur when living authors continue to "live" for many years, and their heirs (for one reason or another) may attempt to control the use, as well as the physical materials themselves. Sometimes the current library administrator finds it difficult to carry out certain agreements and understandings that were specified by their predecessors in the administration.

Many collections have been donated, and even sold, with strict stipulations which seem unreasonable to librarians of today, although they may have been acceptable to the donors and recipients in the recent past. To avoid these problems, librarians acquiring en bloc collections, whether by gift or purchase, must be experienced and knowledgeable about such matters, otherwise the future generations of scholars and administrators may suffer as a result of hasty and inconsiderate actions performed by our present day curators and their advisors.

The matter of completing the transaction, once the library's decision has been made and accepted by the seller (or donor) is simply a business transaction. It is expected that the contract should be understood by both the recipient and the person selling the collection, whether or not he is represented by an agent. If there are restrictive clauses with regard to the disposal of any of the items included in the collection, or certain stipulations about processing and maintenance, these should be clearly stated. Naturally, the library as purchaser should abide by any of these stipulations so as to avoid possible misunderstandings, and even legal procedures, whenever a question arises about disposing of duplicates or out-of-scope materials.

After the materials have been acquired, the curator and his staff must decide how the collections are to be processed and made available, or cataloged and serviced. The additional considerations about maintenance and preservation are important of course, but they are not within the scope of this brief survey. If collections are acquired and stored without adequate finding lists or catalogs, they are useless to research scholars and library users.

The procedures for handling unit, or en bloc collections have been
treated in some detail by Baughman in his contribution to *Rare Book Collections*, where these and related matters are discussed. With regard to the question of appraisals, there have been a number of articles published in recent years dealing with the ever-changing regulations. A fairly recent bulletin issued by the Internal Revenue Service is entitled *Valuation of Donated Property*, which librarians and interested donors should refer to for specific instructions.

Another brief and useful code was included in *Rare Book Collections* as an Appendix entitled "A Statement of Recommended Policy Regarding Appraisals" and submitted by the ACRL Rare Book Section Committee on Appraisals.

Robert F. Metzdorf and John S. Kebabian both experienced bookmen and qualified appraisers, have discussed the problems and sometimes complicated ramifications of this very important subject, especially as related to acquisition procedures and gifts by donors to institutional libraries. Other valuable suggestions appear in two articles by Andreas L. Brown and William L. Carter. These are verbatim reports of papers read at a panel of the Rare Books Section held at Stanford University, June 24, 1967. Other notices appearing from time to time in the *AB* (or as it is now called, *Bookman's Weekly*) call to the attention of librarians and other interested persons any news likely to be of use to collectors and librarians.

The final subject to be discussed has to do with the problems of duplicates and the disposal of unwanted (out-of-scope) materials. The problems related to the procedures for determining which items are duplicates and how these may be disposed of in a convenient and suitable manner are numerous. As Baughman has stated: "The sale or exchange of duplicates that have been acquired by gift should not be undertaken without the donor's express approval; this entire matter should be cleared with him at the time the gift is being arranged."

If the collections have been received as bequests, there may be other questions with regard to disposal of duplicates and out-of-scope materials. In cases where the collections are acquired en bloc, by purchase, unless there are restrictive clauses pertaining to such matters, the library may handle the selling and exchanging of duplicates and out-of-scope items without worrying about offending a living donor or the families of the deceased benefactor.

The literature dealing with the problems of duplicates and their disposition is quite sparse. This topic was discussed at a panel of the Rare Books Section, held at Stanford in July 1967, and two of the
papers read at that meeting, one by J. M. Edelstein "On Disposal of Duplicates," and another by Edwin Wolf, 2nd, on "Fine Art of Selling Duplicates" summarize the thinking of these experienced librarians about current practices so far as rare book libraries are concerned. Edelstein states that:

The usual method for the disposition of special collections material is the tried and true one of establishing a relationship with a number of booksellers who know the collections in the library, are likely to want the type of duplicates which may show up in it, and are, in turn, likely to be able to offer at the time or later something wanted or needed by the library. Wolf, in his contribution to the panel, presented details about specific collections, mentioned certain famous transactions such as the Newberry-Silver and the Lilly-Indiana auction sales, and made cogent remarks on the dangers and pit-falls which librarians should attempt to avoid in the matter of disposing of duplicates.

Practices at many research libraries in college and universities vary somewhat, and no doubt a great number of transactions are conducted between dealers in antiquarian books and librarians with considerable regularity and with varying degrees of success. As a means of developing the collections in the libraries engaged in these activities, it seems safe to assume that both parties in these transactions benefit, and that future dealings may continue along the same lines.

It is not the purpose of this article to take up a matter which is of considerable interest to bibliographers and scholars, that of the decisions made regarding the selling of library materials, whether duplicate or not. This topic has been treated in some detail by Robert H. Taylor in his article entitled, "Bibliothecohimatiourgomachia." Later, Gordon Ray in his enlightening article, "Changing World of Rare Books," suggests that many of our universities are going through a process of upgrading, and that as a result, some of them are disposing of duplicates and other materials.

The philosophical and theoretical problems related to this practice would provide enough data for a lengthy treatise or learned book, therefore no attempt is made in this brief exploratory article to treat such a controversial subject.

In conclusion, it is necessary to state that the practices of the past decade or so (since World War II), have been fairly well documented, and those libraries engaged in the acquisition of special col-
Special Collections

Collections have become increasingly interested in procedures and plans for improving the collections and making them available for those who need the materials. It will be interesting to see how the older and better-known institutions fare in the decade of the 1970's, as we watch the expansion of newer and less famous colleges and universities play a role in this important area of librarianship and the development of resources.

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15. Wolf, op. cit., p. 5.

Additional References


January, 1970
H. Richard Archer

Government Documents and Other Non-Trade Publications

PETER J. PAULSON

In the universe of library acquisitions activities, materials available outside of the commercial book trade are generally relegated to a place of secondary importance. Nothing provides more dramatic confirmation of this fact than a search of the literature, where few articles on the subject are to be located, and where acquisitions texts tend to emphasize book purchases. And yet, in the development of research level collections, it is this class of material which is perhaps most crucial—for the quality of such collections may be measured by their ability to procure the unique and sometimes obscure publication, to cover a subject or field comprehensively or exhaustively, and to provide materials not available in other types of libraries.

Measured in terms of volume alone, the informational materials produced outside of the commercial book trade most probably exceed those produced within it. When one considers that the United States Government Printing Office is the world’s largest publisher, and then adds the ever-increasing volume of technical report literature, the publications of other governments and of international organizations, materials issued by associations, learned and scientific societies, and the works of university bureaus and of the non-profit university presses, it is clear that a sizeable annual output is involved. One should also remember that in large areas of the world today, such as Asia and Latin America, commercial publishing and the commercial book trade are not well-developed—so much so that one is not surprised to find a bank or government agency issuing works of literature and poetry, and the typical mode of publication is privately by the author. If we add to this list the whole range of printed ephemera (such as leaflets, posters, playbills, programs, tickets, postcards and

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other "job printing"), some of which is surely worth collecting and preserving, then the total volume with which we are dealing is enormous indeed.

For the acquisitions librarian, these are the "problem" publications. Bibliographic sources are diverse, uneven, and incomplete. Because of their fugitive nature, many of these publications escape the bibliographic net cast by the national bibliographies. Reliance upon these sources, or upon LC proof slips (although much improved for foreign publications since the beginning of the Title II program), will not guarantee complete coverage in either a subject or geographic area. Not only is it difficult to know what has been published outside of the commercial book trade, it is often difficult to locate a source of supply. Few subscription agents will conscientiously undertake to procure such publications on a continuing basis. Indeed, one of the most common complaints against "blanket-order" suppliers has been their failure to include the publications of academic institutions and government departments. Many of these publications are not intended for sale, and some organizations will not accept "standing orders" or subscriptions. Others maintain no permanent headquarters, and their addresses change as frequently as their officers. As a result, the acquisitions librarian in a research library often finds himself dealing with a multitude of individuals, publishers, or organizations, using the strategy of begging, buying, or exchanging, as appropriate.

The technique of procuring non-commercial publications on exchange has been used by libraries for at least several centuries. Von Busse gives numerous examples of eighteenth and nineteenth century exchanges between European university libraries. Although sometimes used as a means of ameliorating the impoverished condition of library book budgets, exchanges are often the only means by which a non-commercial publication may be regularly obtained. Indeed, in recent years some libraries have purchased materials from their own university presses, or from other publishers, for distribution to exchange partners. Publications of academic institutions (foreign institutions especially), and of learned and scientific societies, are particularly susceptible to this type of an acquisitions arrangement. The continuing importance of this acquisitions technique to American research libraries is demonstrated by the 208,000 packages transmitted through the Smithsonian International Exchange Service in 1967.²

In developing exchanges, the acquisitions librarian in a research library will rely heavily upon the UNESCO Handbook on the Inter-
Government Documents

national Exchange of Publications, and upon the supplementary information carried in the UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries. Directory sources such as the Yearbook of International Organizations, the International Library Directory, and the World of Learning, and other more specialized sources, are helpful. Access to an ample collection of telephone and geographic directories, and government manuals, is also essential.

Another acquisitions technique, peculiarly suited to the procurement of non-commercial publications, is that of gift solicitation. Special interest organizations, as well as authors whose works have been privately published, are often gratified to find that their publications are of interest to libraries, as Lawrence Thompson has pointed out in his felicitous article entitled “Of Bibliological Mendicancy.” Many government agencies are also willing to make their publications available without charge, although presumably from a different motivation. So widespread was the latter practice some years ago, that James McCamy was led to write, concerning government publications, that “only the uninformed, the modest, the hurried, or the righteous buy them.” Although, as we shall see below, large classes of government-sponsored publications have been excluded from free distribution, it still remains true that many government documents are available from the issuing agency without charge.

Central to the problem of acquiring government documents for the research library is the need for a convenient source of supply, preferably one offering automatic selective or comprehensive distribution, from which the whole range of current government-sponsored publication is available. In the United States, the federal depository system was originally intended to provide such a source of supply. The clear intent of the General Printing Act of 1895 was to centralize government printing in the Government Printing Office, and to place full control of the distribution of government publications in the Office of the Superintendent of Documents.

Over the years, however, much government publishing has come to be done outside of the Government Printing Office, and the Superintendent of Documents no longer effectively controls the distribution of all government publications. This trend became especially marked with the great proliferation of Federal activities during the New Deal. In 1936, A. F. Kuhlman spoke of an “unprecedented crisis” in the publication and distribution of federal publications, pointing to the “vast amount of material issued by federal agencies outside of
the office of the public printer." By 1968, this trend had gone even farther, and the Public Printer himself reported to Congress that there were some 300 agency printing plants outside of his control, and that their aggregate annual production was probably equal to that of the Government Printing Office. Most of the material so produced, of course, is not distributed to depository libraries. In addition, depository libraries do not receive most Congressional Committee prints, many government-produced maps, translations and other works of the Joint Publications Research Service, reports of the Cooperative Research Project, many National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and Atomic Energy Commission (AEC) publications, and all of the government-sponsored research reports now distributed by the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information. A 1964 study by Jennings Wood identified some 2,000 publications produced outside of the Government Printing Office, and of interest to libraries. Another partial measure of the volume of material produced and distributed outside of the depository system is the fact that the Readex Microprint edition of nondepository publications contained well over 12,000 items for 1967.

Indicative of the limitations of the Government Printing Office (GPO) depository system are the number of more specialized depository systems created by the Federal agencies themselves—the Army Map Service, Geological Survey, Census Bureau, NASA, and the Federal Regional Technical Report Centers are examples. Some of these (the Census Bureau, for example) are intended to supplement the GPO system by providing additional outlets for agency publications, others (the Army Map Service or NASA, as examples) are competitive with the GPO system, since they distribute materials not available to GPO depositories. Some of these specialized depository systems are highly restrictive (there are only eleven Federal Regional Technical Report Centers), while others are quite broad (the Census Bureau has 140 depositories in the United States). Until recently, the Atomic Energy Commission distributed microfiche copies of its reports to 101 depositories in the United States, but in August of 1969, it was announced that this system would be replaced by a subscription service available from a commercial firm.

In addition to these specialized depository systems, of course, the federal government has created a major alternative system for the distribution of government-sponsored research reports: the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information. Operated by
Government Documents

the Department of Commerce, the Clearinghouse emphasizes fast, economical distribution of "unclassified" research reports in less than print format (microfiche, offset or electrostatic copies), and utilizes modern computer technology to provide a carefully coordinated set of abstracts and indexes for this material. Until recently, research libraries have had to rely on U.S. Government Research and Development Reports or the FAST Announcement service as selection and acquisition sources for reports available from the Clearinghouse. In April 1969, however, the Clearinghouse announced a selective microfiche dissemination service which will allow subscribers to receive all or some of several hundred subject or agency categories. During 1969, the Clearinghouse estimates it will distribute over two million copies of some 50,000 reports received from fifty federal agencies.

Aware of the large number of government publications not being made available to depository libraries, thirty-two libraries joined together in 1947 to establish the Documents Expediting Project. With offices in the Library of Congress, the Project is supported by the contributions of the subscribing libraries, which by 1968 had increased to 142. Since the Project has had to discontinue distribution of the Joint Publications Research Service and Cooperative Research Project reports, the most important series now being distributed are the Congressional Committee prints (an estimated 75 percent of those issued are distributed) and the Foreign Broadcast Daily Reports. In addition to these publications, an attempt is made to obtain copies of titles selected from Monthly Catalog proof slips, and from samples supplied by cooperating agencies. In all, the Project distributed 241,000 items to member libraries in 1968.

When Congress revised the Depository Law in 1962, in response to many urgent pleas from librarians, it attempted to make these non-GPO publications available to depository libraries. Henceforth to be excluded were only those publications intended "for official use," those of "no public interest or educational value," and those classified "for reasons of national security." Appropriations for the implementation of this part of the Act have been slow in forthcoming, and to date the Superintendent of Documents has only been able to add the non-GPO publications of three agencies to the depository system: those of the Bureau of Census, and of the Departments of Interior and Labor. No new agencies have been added to this list since 1967, and it appears that implementation of this program is at a standstill.

Recognizing the problems inherent in the implementation of the
Depository Act of 1962, not the least of which is the storage burden imposed on the large research library if the Act were to be fully implemented, several proposals have recently been made which suggest a fresh approach to broadening the depository system. One of these proposals was put forth early in 1967 by a committee of the Association of Research Libraries. This committee suggested that record copies of non-GPO publications be deposited with the Library of Congress and with the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information, as appropriate, and that microcopies of these publications be made available free of charge to those libraries "with a demonstrated need for them." The first part of this proposal, in regard to the Library of Congress, was implemented by a Bureau of the Budget memorandum in June of 1967. In the following year, the Library of Congress reported receiving 10,000 non-GPO publications, of which 3,637 were found not to be listed in the Monthly Catalog. Although a selection of these publications was forwarded for listing in the Monthly Catalog, thus insuring their inclusion in the Readex Microprint edition of non-depository publications, the suggested free distribution of microcopies remains to be implemented.

It is clear that a research library which attempts to build a comprehensive collection of United States government publications, or even an exhaustive one in a subject area, will need to go far beyond the confines of the present depository system. At the very least, such a library will need to subscribe to the Readex Microprint edition of non-depository publications (at approximately $2,500 a year), to seek designation as a specialized depository from a number of agencies, to subscribe to the new microfiche dissemination service of the Clearinghouse (at an estimated $15,000 a year for comprehensive coverage, excluding AEC reports), and to make an undetermined contribution to the Documents Expediting Project. Considering the costs incurred in the processing, housing and servicing of large collections of government publications, it is not surprising to find the larger research libraries suggesting that the original intent of the depository program, to provide convenient access to the totality of government publication, be carried out.

For the research library concerned with the building of back files of United States government documents, or with the acquisition of replacement or security copies, a number of important retrospective series are available in reprint or microform. In the microform field, Readex Microprint and University Microfilms have been particularly
active, and such major series as the American State Papers, the Congressional Serial Set (through 1883), and the Congressional debates from the *Annals of Congress* through the *Congressional Record*, are available. Reprints of such basic bibliographical tools as the *Catalog of the Public Documents* (1896–1945), the *Monthly Catalog*, and the *Checklist of United States Public Documents*, are also on the market. As in other fields, the past ten years have witnessed a remarkable growth in both reprinting and microcopying of retrospective materials, and it may be expected that this trend will continue.

Turning to the acquisition of state documents, one finds a picture almost as diverse as the states themselves, although the activities of the American Library Association, the Association of State Libraries, the Library of Congress, and the National Legislative Conference have promoted some standardization of bibliographic control and distribution. About thirty-six states presently issue checklists of their publications. These vary widely in size and scope, from the simple exchange lists issued by some states to the more ambitious and inclusive lists of California, New York, and Louisiana. Supplementing these state lists, of course, is the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*, which in 1961 covered an estimated 60 percent of current state publishing activity, although a 1969 report states that “a concentrated effort to make the Checklist more comprehensive has resulted in an increase each year in the number of titles entered. . . .” The *Bulletin of the Public Affairs Information Service*, which includes state documents, is even more selective. Many states now have some centralized distribution agency; most commonly this agency is the State Library. In recent years, an increasing number of states have established depository systems (California, New York, Oregon, and Ohio are examples), but not all are able to offer the full range of government publications, and some are able to designate depositories only within their own state. About twenty-two state libraries report that they can offer documents on exchange to libraries in other states.

Historically, the collected or legislative documents of the several states have constituted an important research resource. The kinds of reports included in these sets, much like the content of the Congressional Serial Set, has been mainly a matter of tradition, and in many cases these reports do not adequately represent the current range of state activities. Rising costs of binding and preparation have caused some states to abandon this series, and one state (Massachusetts) has recently announced its intention to distribute microcopy in
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place of its printed collected documents. A highly select group of state publications is available from Falls City Microcards, comprising those titles listed in the quarterly Legislative Research Checklist of the Council of State Governments. As the activities of state government expand, and as the variety and importance of their publications increases, it will also become increasingly important for research libraries to promote the development of a national program for the bibliographic control and dissemination of state publications.

In the field of foreign documents, as with other government publications, the problem of keeping up with the seemingly kaleidoscopic changes in agency names, and of identifying agency addresses and sources of supply, is acute. Helpful in this respect are the Europa Yearbook, the International Year-book and Statesmen's Who's Who, the Political Handbook and Atlas of the World, and the UNESCO Handbook on the International Exchange of Publications. The latter provides the names and addresses of bibliographic and exchange centers for each country, from whom additional information may often be obtained. Most countries include government publications only as part of a more general national bibliography, although some (the Bibliographie de la France and the Indian National Bibliography are examples) list official publications separately in a supplement. Sixteen countries publish separate documents lists; outstanding in coverage and currency are those issued by Great Britain, Canada, and Israel. A useful list of current bibliographies of official publications has recently been prepared by James B. Childs. Another helpful guide to sources of information about foreign government documents, with brief descriptions of some of the basic publications of each country, is given in Etude des Bibliographies Courantes des Publications Officielles Nationales, published by UNESCO in 1958, and currently being revised.

Government documents and other non-trade publications, because of all the special problems inherent in their acquisition, may, in fact, be more costly to acquire than publications in the commercial book trade. But the unique character of a research collection is often dependent upon the effectiveness of its program for procuring this type of publication. The high cost of such acquisitions provides only an additional argument for the further development of cooperative acquisitions programs and for the further delineation of subject responsibilities among research libraries.
Government Documents

References


15. "A Proposed Program to Improve Bibliographic Control and Distribution of Government Publications." (Undated memorandum to Association of Research Libraries membership from the Committee on Non-GPO Publications.)


Acquisition of Microforms

ROMA S. GREGORY

Since microfilm first appeared on the library scene, it and its relatives have been hailed as everything from salvation to damnation by librarians and users alike. They save space and are inexpensive; they require expensive equipment and are an eye-straining nuisance to the user. Acquisitions librarians attempting a satisfactory compromise must perfect a balancing act that would bring a green glint of envy to the eye of an accomplished acrobat.

But why get it at all in this day of the ubiquitous copying machine and the gratifying increase of reprint publications? Librarians are thoroughly familiar with the rewards available in low cost acquisition and storage. The user is not impressed. He can occasionally resign himself to a microform if it is pointed out to him that paper prints can easily be made from transparencies and that the Xerox Corporation has recently developed a copier-enlarger which will print from opaque microforms. Further, the national, not to say international, sores of microform reproductions make acquisition increasingly quick and easy. Low cost can sometimes be palatably presented as a means of broadening acquisition capability. The reluctant user can also see some point in acquiring, or even producing, microforms as reserve or back-up copies of valuable, fragile or vulnerable publications. Even in the face of the completely obstinate user, the librarian must sometimes decide to acquire microforms of particularly vulnerable or very seldom-used material. To date no one has reported the removal of pages from a microfilm. And, finally, microform provides a means by which reproductions of manuscripts, early American imprints, rare legislative reports, and other unique or unobtainable items may be obtained.

Types of Materials Available

Any copyable publication or manuscript can be acquired in micro-

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form. But in spite of recent advertisements to the contrary, few libraries want everything in miniprint. There are some very bulky publications, printed originally on poor paper, consulted seldom but of vital importance to research collections which come easily to the attention of acquisitions librarians. Among these are newspapers, journals and government documents. Libraries collecting large numbers of U.S. government-supported research reports can acquire them on microfiche through the ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center), and the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information.

Theses and dissertations, many of them no longer available on interlibrary loan, are available on microfilm either from University Microfilms or from the library having the original copy.

In selected cases “binding” copies of journals can be acquired on microfilm. It must be noted here that almost always these must be second copies, since publishers understandably require that libraries subscribe to the original publication. There is also a considerable lag (up to six months) in the production of a journal volume on film.

Certain of the large producers have developed microform projects by which new libraries or libraries developing retrospective research collections can acquire large quantities of publications in microform. Usually these are based on well-known standard bibliographies.

The Formats

It is not the purpose of this paper to explore the technical aspects of either the formats or the equipment required for reading and storing microform. The acquisitions librarian, however, must know enough about them and their differences to make intelligent choices or to recommend the acquisition of necessary equipment if a new format is vital to a collection. Having decided for some variety of microform, perhaps in spite of the availability of reprints, the next set of decisions involves the specific form to be chosen.

Some publications have been reproduced in more than one microform with reduction ratios of 15:1 to 25:1. The availability of reading (or enlarging) equipment needed for use may determine the format although most research libraries find it necessary to own equipment capable of accommodating all of the formats. Comparatively small amounts of space are required to store microforms, but seldom can they be satisfactorily housed on book shelves. Most of the formats call for specially designed storage units. An important point to bear
Acquisition of Microforms

In mind is the cost of this equipment; it can cut sharply into the money saved by the low cost of the microforms themselves.

The 1969 edition of Guide to Microforms in Print lists ten different transparent or opaque formats. The transparencies include rolls of microfilm in either 16 m.m. or 35 m.m. sizes and microfiche (a sheet of microfilm) in several sets of dimensions. Sizes appear to have been standardized, at least for the moment, on 35 m.m. for roll microfilm and four by six inches for microfiche. A relative newcomer to the transparent scene is the PCMI (photochromic microimage) ultra-high reduction process which uses a reduction ratio of 200:1. One publisher, Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., has already announced a series of subject collections to be available on four by six inch ultramicrofiche beginning in the fall of 1970. A different breed of readers and reader-printers will have to be used. Theoretically the transparencies may be available in either negative (white print on dark background) or positive (dark print on white background) film. In practice, and if no specification is made, libraries usually receive positive film, especially from commercial producers. The opaque forms are represented by four sizes: three by five inches, six by nine inches, five by eight inches, and four by six inches.

Selection

There are no selection guides for micropublications.¹ The editor of Choice has promised microform reviews and hopes that they “will provide a sense of sanity in a confusing field of acquisition.”² These reviews will, of necessity, be primarily concerned with the technological reproduction of publications already reviewed for literary content, authority, scope, etc. As Veaner points out in an admirable list of “Criteria for Evaluation,”³ there is more to it than technology. The producer has copied the original publication, using, perhaps, more than one copy of the original in pursuit of perfection. The prospective buyer of the micro-publication is concerned with the success of the producer’s work, including fidelity to the original, the identity of the original and the standards used to control the quality of the product.

Another very important consideration, particularly where a bulk of publication is involved, is the control which provides access to the photographed material. Some of the publishers have arranged for sets of catalog cards, others for printed indexes or bibliographies, still others depend on existing indexes or bibliographies. These are external controls and at least have the advantage of being readable by the
naked eye although the quality of them varies widely. Those systems or projects which include internal controls or controls also in microform are less satisfactory for the user who, on the whole, resents having to use a reader for any part of his work.

Where no review or evaluation can be located, the prospective buyer can insist that the publisher cite the technological standards he has maintained, such as those of the United States of America Standards Institute. If his prospectus or catalogs do not make any statement regarding production standards, inquiries are in order. No library has the staff time to check incoming microforms, not to say periodic checks on the state of preservation of earlier purchases.

Since new micropublishing projects abound, as do young and rapidly developing libraries, there is enormous temptation in the "comprehensive" microform subject collections. These represent, at least theoretically, publications long out of print and probably not heavily in demand. If the project is based on a standard and well-known bibliography such as the Readex Microprint Corporation's effort to photograph every publication listed in Charles Evans' American Bibliography, a library feels relatively safe in indulging. But what of the new and unknown company proposing to supply thousands of volumes of classics at relatively low cost per volume? It sounds good; the prospectus glows but lacks a few basic facts. To whom does the wary acquisitions librarian turn for advice?

The American Library Association in 1958 established the Micropublishing Projects Subcommittee of the RTSD Resources Committee to serve as a coordinating agency for both libraries and publishers of microforms, to advise on the desirability of proposed publishing projects, to recommend micropublishing projects and to keep an eye on the quality of the photography and the bibliographic controls. An acquisitions librarian with serious doubts about a purchase under consideration may address an inquiry to the Subcommittee. He may also recommend it for review in Choice.

The Sources

It would be convenient indeed, if purchase orders for microforms could be enclosed in the same envelope with the purchase orders for books. To date few such possibilities exist; indeed, there are not even jobbers who will take on all of the microforms. The acquisitions librarian must go to the producers and these are many. Often one must locate a copy of the publication needed and order a microfilm from
Acquisition of Microforms

the owning library. Since a large number of books and journals have already been copied by commercial microform producers, however, it is easiest to try these sources first.

Although there are various union lists and continuing effort is producing more and better central controls, no microform acquisition program can do without a file of publishers' or producers' catalogs. The list of more than fifty publishers represented in Guide to Microforms in Print is an excellent one although it includes only American producers and not all of them. Acquisitions librarians are well advised to send for the catalogs of these publishers and request representation on their mailing lists.

The catalogs must be carefully read. A producer may make a blanket statement about incomplete runs of a journal rather than list the exact contents for each title. If excessively brief bibliographic listings are given, inquiries may be necessary. Occasionally a producer does not list prices. The reasons can be several including a "not yet published" status or requirement of the owner of the original that individual permission to reproduce be given.

Foreign sources are not so easy to identify but methodical perusal of lists of new publications in library journals often brings to light new sources and lists. Three good ones are listed under the "Selected Sources of Microform" section near the end of this article. Foreign book and serials dealers will occasionally acquire microforms for regular customers. If they are unable to supply, they are good about referring purchasers to a better source.

Since the bulk of the material required by American research libraries is already in at least one American library, a copy of Directory of Library Photoduplication Services is indispensable. This handbook, used in conjunction with National Register of Microform Masters and the National Union Catalog, often turns up either a microform master or a copy of the publication which can be photographed.

It is incorrect, however, to leap to the conclusion that copying automatically follows location of the publication. Copying processes are hard on books and an owner may consider that his book is too fragile or too tightly bound to be copyable. Or he may simply want to preserve its uniqueness. In the case of exceptionally valuable materials not available on interlibrary loan and owned by a library without copying equipment, once again a prospective purchaser must do without.

If the owner is willing to have his book photographed and does not
have the equipment to make the copy, an acquisitive library has three choices: 1) it can arrange to borrow the book on interlibrary loan, with permission to copy clearly given, and make its own copy, 2) it can place a purchase order with a commercial firm such as University Microfilms or MicroPhoto, informing them of the location of the book, or, 3) it can request the aid of a research library with photoduplication facilities and also near the owner of the publication.

Acquisitions Procedures

Placement of orders for microcopies can be done in several ways. It is not unusual for correspondence, perhaps between interlibrary loan librarians, to precede preparation of a purchase order. It may take place when an original to be copied is sought. Appeal to the National Union Catalog division of the Library of Congress for help in locating a copy, assuming one cannot be found in a nearer source, is quite in order. Since copies of publications are often sent in lieu of originals, microforms may be acquired through interlibrary loan, either on the standard "Interlibrary Loan Request Form" or on a similar "Library Photoduplication Order Form." Both of these ALA designed forms are available from library supply firms. Acquisitions librarians will probably prefer their own purchase order forms. Some libraries with large photoduplication departments such as the Library of Congress or the Library of the British Museum, have work order forms which they request purchasing libraries to use. Their use does not preclude the preparation of the purchaser's own purchase order.

Whatever form is used, the supplier must be told what format (if there is a choice) is expected and, in the case of transparencies, whether a negative or positive is wanted. For the most part, unless a negative is specified, a positive will be supplied. If the publication has never before been photographed, the purchaser requesting a positive may have to bear the cost of two films but probably will receive only the requested positive. Commercial firms accumulating a bank of negatives usually do not charge for the negative. Publications listed for sale in a producer's catalog are made from master negatives which are retained by the owner. If the purchaser insists on a negative, as he may if he wants to make prints, he will probably get a third generation copy, which may lack clarity since there is some loss in definition as copying moves further from the original.

Every acquisitions librarian is familiar with the anxious user who, suffering from the conviction that librarians do not really understand
Acquisition of Microforms

the exquisite proportions of research, have indulged in lengthy and detailed correspondence with the owner of an obscure manuscript or set of a rare journal. Indeed, the librarian may only be handed the bill to pay—or even be asked to arrange for reimbursement of the scholar who has not dared to trust. This is not all bad, especially if the owner of the publication is a private individual or a very small and special foreign library not yet caught up in the clutches of mass-produced collections. Careful and painstaking correspondence, preferably in the language of the owner, is sometimes the only way to successful acquisition. Faculty members ready and able to write, giving the detailed explanation of his research, as is sometimes required, are to be welcomed by the acquisitions librarian. Presentation of an American purchase order form, most especially one of the nasty little three by five inch multiple forms with cryptic abbreviations and incomprehensible directions, if unaccompanied and unheralded by appropriately respectful correspondence, is quite likely to be ignored. Sometimes, after agonizing delay, a letter of inquiry will result reflecting puzzlement and a degree of indignation which could have been avoided by a little diplomacy.

This kind of purchase may require prepayment, or sometimes American publications are specified as payment. The invoices may be presented by a commercial firm to which the copying work has been given and it may be especially difficult to relate the invoice to the product.

If the scholar does bring to the acquisitions librarian a citation in a 1912 journal to a manuscript held in a library which was destroyed in 1942, tracking down the manuscript (which may very well have been saved) can be an interesting task. Getting it photographed, once it is located, is another challenge. Appeal to a large research library in the country of the owner may be extremely helpful and is usually more successful than an arrangement made by the purchaser with a commercial firm.

In the course of correspondence with owning libraries to discuss ways and means of having a copy made, a precise cost quotation may be requested and given, prepayment may be required, or the purchasing library may be specifically requested to pay only on receipt of an invoice.

The correspondence may also bring out facts about the condition of the original publication which would make a copy unsatisfactory, or at least not of high quality. This is often the case with very old
books, tightly bound books, manuscripts and stained or otherwise damaged material. In this connection it is perhaps well to point out that, having been warned and having, in any case, ordered a “custom” job, the purchasing library may not return a copy or refuse to pay for it. Responsible craftsmen, either in library photoduplication departments or commercial firms may be expected to replace poor workmanship and, if there is any question about the reasons for poor work, inquiry should be made.

On occasion a library will want to acquire a copy of a publication protected by copyright. In the case of a commercial firm which offers the copy for sale, it may be assumed that release from the copyright holder has been secured. If in doubt, however, inquire. Libraries asked to make copies either refuse or request the purchaser to get permission to copy.

Earlier mention has been made of microform projects, the big commercial productions coming out over a period of years and intended to supply basic research material not available or terribly space-consuming in the original. As in the case of subscriptions to periodicals in microform, standing orders may be placed for these or, if the project is completed, arrangements can be made to spread payments over a period of years.

Libraries with large photoduplication departments and correspondingly large resources, sometimes allow for deposit accounts. The Library of Congress does this and so does the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information as well as other government-owned facilities. The advantages in this sort of financial arrangements do away with the necessity for time-consuming pursuit of price quotations and individual prepayments. Since microforms, especially those in lieu of interlibrary loan, often are quite inexpensive, considerable administrative cost can be saved with deposit accounts.

Selected Sources of Microforms

In addition to the list of publishers in Guide to Microforms in Print, the following are a very few special sources or publishers. There are many more and new ones appear constantly. This short list is only representative.

A.C.R.P.P. (Association pour la Conservation et la Reproduction Photographique de la Presse)

4, rue Louvois
Paris (2e), France
Acquisition of Microforms

This producer's catalogs of serial publications have an impressive representation of French periodicals and newspapers.

Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information
U.S. Department of Commerce
Springfield, Virginia 22151

This arm of the U.S. government supplies on microfiche unclassified research and development reports listed in the USGRDR Index. Libraries can establish deposit accounts and buy coupons which also function as purchase order forms. Microfiche cost 65 cents each or, if subject subscriptions are placed, 28 cents. The Clearinghouse has a Fast Announcement Service which sends out lists of reports by subject. It puts out a fairly constant flow of brochures and announcements about its services.

E.R.I.C. Document Reproduction Service
National Cash Register Co.
4936 Fairmont Avenue
Bethesda, Md. 20014

This unit supplies on microfiche, at 25 cents each, research reports in the field of education. They are indexed in Research in Education, published by the Educational Resources Information Center of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Interdocumentation Co., AG
Poststrasse 9
Zug, Switzerland

This company publishes a wide range of subject catalogs and produces both microcards and microfiche.

Micro Methods, Ltd.
East Ardsley
Wakefield, Yorkshire
England

This producer has an extensive stock of microform masters, primarily of serial material. He will accept purchase orders for single items and locate an original to photograph.

Aids and Lists

The following list of news sources, handbooks and bibliographies is highly selective and representative but includes the basic tools for the acquisition of microforms.
ROMA S. GREGORY


This bibliography lists materials which were filmed to record them in case they were destroyed during World War II. It includes a few very rare printed books. Copies of the films are available from the Photoduplication Service, Library of Congress.

Directory of Library Photoduplication Services, compiled by Cosby Brinkley, Chicago, 1966. Distributed by the Photoduplication Department, University of Chicago Library.

This handbook, currently in its third edition, lists in tabulated form the services of 157 libraries offering fairly complete photoduplication services. There is an additional list of over 600 other libraries which offer limited services. A new edition is in preparation.


This bibliography, representing over fifty American producers of microforms is an annual, listing in alphabetical order by main entry books and journals but no theses or dissertations. It is not intended to be a union list in any sense since it does not include library holdings. There is a companion volume, Subject Guide to Microforms in Print, which is also annual.


This annual catalog lists, with brief descriptions, many series of records held in the National Archives. It is supplemented by another catalog, Federal Population Censuses, 1790–1890. Prepayment is required for these films. The two catalogs give clear directions and order forms.

Microfilm Clearinghouse Bulletin.

This source of news about various microform projects and publications is published irregularly as an appendix to the Information Bulletin of the Library of Congress. Libraries investigating the feasibility of microform projects may ask for inquiries to be published in the Bulletin.
Acquisition of Microforms

National Register of Microform Masters, compiled by the Library of Congress, with the cooperation of the American Library Association and the Association of Research Libraries, 1966—

This bibliography is intended to prevent costly duplication of photographic reproduction. Its listings depend on reports from libraries and commercial producers. The masters listed are those used only for the purpose of reproducing copies for purchasers. They must meet the standards set up by the American Standards Association and, if possible, the requirements set up in Specifications for Library of Congress Microfilming. It includes foreign and domestic books, pamphlets, serials, newspapers and foreign doctoral dissertations. It does not include technical reports, typescript translations, archival manuscript collections or U.S. dissertations or theses. Locations are indicated by National Union Catalog symbols.

News From the Center.

This semiannual periodical begun in 1967 includes occasional articles as well as news notes. It is concerned with manuscript copying and is available from the Center for the Coordination of Foreign Manuscript Copying, Manuscript Division, Library of Congress. It was originally published as an appendix to the Library of Congress Information Bulletin but is now appearing separately.

Newspapers on Microfilm, compiled by the Union Catalog Division of the Library of Congress, 1967.

This sixth edition of a valuable union list includes both negative and positive microfilms of newspapers held by both American and Canadian libraries.


This alphabetical list gives publishers or producers, prices, years covered and format. When a title is available in several formats, this list provides useful comparative information.
ROMA S. GREGORY


Here in one alphabet are publications of all kinds and the locations of the negative masters. A supplement covering the years 1949–1959 was published in 1961. It does not list materials such as newspapers and dissertations covered by other lists.


This is a second edition of a bibliography arranged alphabetically by main entry, of commercial reproductions. Both American and European publishers are represented.

References

3. Ibid., pp. 450-452.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES


Acquisitions For Area Programs

ROBERT D. STEVENS

Area studies may be defined as an integrated, cross-disciplinary, total approach to a particular geographic area of the world coupled with the intensive study of the major languages of the area. The U.S. Office of Education in its support of language and area programs under the National Defense Education Act has emphasized a contemporary focus as an additional element in the definition.1 The areas subjected to this kind of study have varied from time to time and have on occasion been characterized as the non-Western world or the underdeveloped countries. The former qualification scarcely applies to Latin America, nor the latter to Japan. A glance at some of the definitions of “areas” indicates that these are the areas of the world outside the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. To put it another way, the areas studied are those that have been outside the mainstream of American academic interest. Or to speak from the viewpoint of a librarian, the areas consist of those parts of the world from which acquisitions are most difficult.

American academic concern with the non-Western world goes back more than a hundred years. Yale, for example, appointed a professor of Arabic and Sanskrit prior to the Civil War, and Sanskrit studies were established at Harvard, Columbia, and Johns Hopkins well before the end of the nineteenth century.2 The early programs tended to be confined to a single discipline in the humanities and showed more concern with the past than with contemporary affairs. In the 1930’s W. Norman Brown and others began to adopt an interdisciplinary approach, to include the social sciences as well as the humanities, and to look more to the present. The process was hastened by World War II and its aftermath. The Army Specialist Training Program, aimed at producing specialists in Asian and African languages, included interdisciplinary survey courses along with the intensive lan-

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guage training. An increasing number of area studies programs were initiated in the 1950’s and early 1960’s. Such programs now extend from the high school level to the Ph.D. and beyond in the case of research institutes.

Much of the recent impetus for area studies programs has come from the National Defense Education Act of 1958 under which the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has provided funding for 106 centers at sixty-three colleges and universities. These centers, originally established at the graduate level, have accommodated increasing numbers of undergraduates and by the mid-1960’s the ratio of undergraduates to graduates in center courses was reported as 3 to 1.8

The late unpleasantness on the campus to the contrary, or as witness, depending on one’s point of view, academia is inherently conservative and has not adjusted readily or completely to the notion of interdisciplinary studies. The traditional subject disciplines have retained for themselves the approval and awarding of higher degrees and the right to hold departmental status within a college or university. This unwillingness to break completely with traditional patterns of academic organization has made it necessary to establish coordinating bodies within the universities to establish interdisciplinary programs and, more important, to receive and administer federal or foundation grants. This pattern means, among other things, that a masterate in area studies has become a terminal degree simply because faculty status in a college or university, the raison d’être of most Ph.D.’s, is attached to the discipline-oriented departments. As one cynic has said of his own area, “In practice, a Latin-American ‘area studies program’ embraces whatever regionally oriented courses a university has on the books at the moment of fund raising. They can range from developmental economics to basic English for foreigners, from pre-Columbian archaeology to tropical agriculture.”9

Fortunately librarians have always been interdisciplinary in their approach to knowledge. But any smugness we may have about our abilities to organize to meet the demands of area studies programs is soon dispelled by a look at the fragmentation of our efforts within and without ALA to establish committees or groups to focus attention on the problems of non-Western materials. McNiff has noted that our indexes to library literature have been slow to adopt the very term “area studies.”6 Donn V. Hart indicated that a basic reference tool, the Education Index, did not as of 1964, “index any educational jour-
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*nals published in Latin America, Africa, or Asia*" A review of current issues of the *Index* indicates that the gap persists. The fault here rests with librarians since the journals indexed are chosen by the subscribing libraries under voting procedures determined by ALA's committee on Wilson indexes.

What has been said above is indicative of some, but not all, of the domestic problems involved in acquisitions for area programs. The McNiff article cited above and a study by Rolland Stevens discuss the problems of finding or training staff with capability in librarianship and languages, and the problems of restructuring the internal organization of libraries to accommodate area studies collections and the technical library staff to handle them. The place of area studies acquisitions personnel within the administrative framework of research libraries varies. Generally speaking, those who are responsible for non-Roman or Cyrillic alphabet materials tend to be established as a separate staff with custodial, reference, cataloging, and acquisitions functions. This has the advantage of allowing acquisitions personnel to develop language and area specialization and to build close rapport with specialized faculty.

The problems on the domestic side are compounded by the weak or non-existent infra-structure of book distribution and bibliographic control in many areas of the world. Often this weak infra-structure is coupled with a rigid system of governmental controls and taxes that seriously cripple acquisitions efforts. The pattern varies from country to country. In a particular country the difficulties may include all or a combination of the following:

1. Limited editions are published due to shortages of paper, printing supplies, and binding materials.
2. The book trade is unorganized or poorly organized.
3. The book trade lacks the capacity to deal with correspondence in foreign languages.
4. The book trade does not regularly announce new publications except in the local press.
5. The book trade is underfinanced and unable to handle credit in substantial amounts.
6. Current national bibliographies are lacking or so slow in appearing as to be useless for acquisitions purposes.
7. Important works, as for example Thai cremation volumes and Philippine fiesta volumes, are published and distributed outside the normal book trade.
8. Postal systems are inefficient or untrustworthy.

9. Complex export licensing arrangements must be made. Blanket licenses to permit continuing export are not always available, and when they are they may cover shipments of only a limited monetary value thus requiring inefficient multiple shipments and special licenses for shipment of a single expensive work.

10. Export of older works may require special clearance or may be prohibited entirely.

11. Export taxes must be paid.

12. The dealer is not permitted to retain or utilize foreign currencies to finance advertising in, or trouble-shooting trips to, this country.

13. Censorship prohibits export of all or selected books.

14. Export is prohibited or restricted because national needs for limited editions take priority over foreign needs.

The permutations are varied and the list could be extended. A notion of the difficulties and gaps in book distribution practices in South Asia as compared with the status of the trade in advanced countries can be gained from a UNESCO sponsored volume issued in 1965.\(^8\) A more detailed report on Indonesia was made by the Wolf Management Service under contract to the U.S. Agency for International Development.\(^9\) The same firm has made similar studies of Korea, the Philippines, and other countries. The status of the book trade in Latin America is summarized by M. J. Savary.\(^10\) We are reluctant to apply the pejorative word "underdeveloped" to the non-Western world generally, but no other single term better characterizes the book trade in non-Western countries. The problems are serious for their own countries and for those of us who would understand them and buy their books.

The efforts of research librarians to establish policies and procedures to surmount effectively these difficulties represent some of the finest achievements and some of the most resounding failures of American librarianship. A common failure appears to be the lack of a clearly stated acquisitions policy. The underlying philosophies range from Suzuki's primary emphasis on "building a sound collection of basic bibliographies and reference tools"\(^11\) for Japanese studies to Musgrave's notion that an area studies collection for Southeast Asia should collect and retain everything.\(^12\) It is to be noted that the two philosophies relate directly to the amount and availability of material from
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the areas in question and that in most institutions these philosophies or minor variants thereof constitute the sole guide to area studies acquisitions. Two other assumptions stemming from the nature of current area studies programs are implicit in most acquisitions programs but not always made explicit. One is the assumption that area studies are concerned with contemporary affairs; the other, that only the social sciences and the humanities are of interest. If one adopts the former notion and incorporates it into an acquisitions policy as the East-West Center Library has done with its emphasis on 1945 and later publications, he may find that faculty and research personnel need materials going back to the beginning of the Meiji period or earlier to understand and interpret current Japanese affairs. The exclusion of materials relating to science from area studies collections and the assumption that these will be acquired by the appropriate departmental library, as for example chemistry or architecture, is not so much a problem for area studies collections as for the university library as a whole. Such material often falls between two stools with the result that the individual universities and the nation as a whole suffer weak library resources in foreign science.

Within the individual institutions acquisitions for area studies differ from routine or "Western" acquisitions in several basic respects. The most important differences relate to efforts to compensate for the weak infrastructure mentioned earlier. There is more hand-tailoring of orders and exchange requests. Explanatory correspondence in the vernacular languages accompanies formal orders. Exchange correspondence is in the vernacular. There may be a whole network of individuals who have been persuaded to identify and purchase materials for payment in cash or in kind. Priced exchanges are frequently used and are justified on the grounds that such exchanges are the only means of acquiring materials. When adequate or even acceptable dealers can be found, blanket orders are heavily used and these tend to be more inclusive and have fewer restrictions than those for Western areas. Mistakes on the part of dealers in sending duplicates or materials out of the scope of the blanket order are frequently excused on the grounds that an under-financed dealer can ill afford even a few returns, and needs to be encouraged to send more rather than less.

Purchasing trips by acquisitions staff or by faculty are used as a device in the more difficult areas. Some libraries, as for example the Library of Congress, send area experts on regularly scheduled acquisi-
tions every second or third year. Cecil Hobbs' reports on his acquisitions trips to Southeast Asia give a good account of the difficulties and accomplishments of such a mission. Occasionally a traveling acquisitioner buys for more than one library. Peripatetic faculty members are used as bookbuying agents with varying degrees of success depending on the faculty member's book sense and business acumen. Unfortunately faculty members tend to have narrow interests, often think that they know the existing library resources better than they do, and naturally plan their travel to fit their own needs rather than in terms of acquisitions problems. Travel by library staff is expensive and the intervals between trips so long that desirable items are missed. Travel by faculty being sporadic and erratic is not a firm base for area acquisitions but only an occasional fill-in.


The difficulties in area studies acquisitions are such that no library can afford to go it alone and a number of cooperative efforts have arisen from this fact. Some of the major efforts such as Latin American Cooperative Acquisition Project (LACAP), P.L. 480, and the Farmington Plan, which changed its approach radically when faced with the problems of covering underdeveloped areas, are discussed in detail elsewhere in this issue of Library Trends. Some less comprehensive cooperative ventures are discussed below.

One of the lessons of LACAP and of the exploratory missions to Latin America by William H. Kurth and Nettie Lee Benson was that in difficult areas some more permanent arrangement is required than occasional acquisitions trips by librarians or scholars. The idea of a jointly financed permanent acquisitions representative acting on be-

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half of a consortium of universities has been mooted in various specialized groups of area studies personnel for many years. A cooperatively financed effort of this nature, the Chinese Materials and Research Aids Service Center in Taipei, has operated successfully since fall 1964 and is apparently reaching the point of being self-sustaining. The Center, financed initially with modest grants from the Association for Asian Studies, the American Council of Learned Societies and the Council on Library Resources, Inc., is managed by an American, Robert L. Irick. The Center purchases recent Chinese books on behalf of American libraries and has made imaginative use of facilities available on Taiwan to reprint scarce older works needed by Far Eastern collections in the U.S. and elsewhere. Africanists envisioned a similar arrangement for the Sub-Saharan area prior to the partial solution found through the National Program for Acquisition and Cataloging (NPAC) Nairobi office, and Southeast Asia specialists continue to discuss hopefully a jointly sponsored acquisitions agent in their area.

Cooperative microfilming projects have solved the problems of sharing resources and of piecing together existing serials files, as exemplified by the long-standing New York Public Library Official Gazettes Project and the Association of Research Libraries Foreign Newspaper Project carried out by the Center for Research Libraries. Gordon Williams, Director of the Center, fills an essential coordinating role in bringing together the interests of groups of scholars and librarians and in making possible a variety of cooperative projects. Recent examples of such projects are SAMP, the South Asia Microform Project and CAMP, the Cooperative Africana Microform Project. A similar microform project for Southeast Asia to be called SEAM and jointly sponsored by the Center for Research Libraries and the Committee on Research Materials on Southeast Asia (CORMOSEA), is now in the advanced planning stage. The Newsletter of The Center for Research Libraries is a basic source of acquisitions information for those concerned with area studies. The Farmington Plan Newsletter issued by the Association of Research Libraries also carries regular reports of area studies projects and materials. The two newsletters mentioned above are essential reading for area studies acquisitions personnel because the more substantial library press does not report items of area study interest in a unified fashion and does not supply complete coverage.

The problems of securing information and achieving coordinated
action are exacerbated by the failure of ALA and its subdivisions to provide a mechanism to deal with area studies. The task has been left to the Association of Research Libraries which has established seven area subcommittees to the Farmington Plan Committee. The area subcommittees combine the interests of the scholarly groups, as for example the Association for Asian Studies and the research libraries, and as working groups have been instrumental in achieving a great number of useful projects. These ARL activities, however, fall outside the mainstream of ALA and up to the present, with the exception of the Slavic and East European Subsection of the Subject Specialists Section, Association of College and Research Libraries, no formal groups within ALA provide a common meeting ground for those interested in area studies. This lack has tempted the area specialist librarians away from ALA and into the scholarly organizations, particularly the Association for Asian Studies where various subcommittees such as the Committee on American Library Resources on the Far East provide the opportunity for discussion of common problems and cooperative efforts. In the view of Warren Tsuneishi this separation has resulted in inadequate representation of area studies needs in the initial planning of national bibliographic or acquisitions projects such as NPAC.15 Fortunately, efforts are now being made to remedy the situation within ALA and a new Asian and North African Subsection of the Subject Specialists Section held its organizing meeting under the leadership of Louis P. Jacob, of the Asian Reference Department, University of Pennsylvania Library, at Atlantic City on June 26, 1969. This leaves Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa unrepresented within ALA, but the day may soon come when these areas too are included and the activities of groups like the Seminars on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials can be carried out in conjunction with ALA annual conferences.

The U.S. Government provides both indirect and direct support of acquisitions for area studies. The former is more difficult to measure in dollar terms or in terms of effect. Some of the indirect support takes the form of bibliographic underpinning essential to the success of area acquisitions; some takes the form of interlibrary lending or microfilming; some takes the form of leadership and use of federal personnel to assist in planning, or directly, in acquisitions activities.

The catalogs and bibliographies of the three great national libraries are important examples of indirect support, and to cite one specific example the Monthly Index of Russian Accessions currently costs some
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$500,000 per year to produce.\textsuperscript{18} Other continuing bibliographies of interest to area studies acquisitions include the \textit{PL-480 Accessions Lists} covering seven countries, the \textit{Handbook of Latin American Studies}, and the \textit{Microfilming Clearinghouse Bulletin} issued as an irregular supplement to the Library of Congress Information Bulletin. The April 10, 1969, issue of the \textit{Microfilming Clearinghouse Bulletin}, for example, lists a proposal for filming a major Russian serial and the availability of some dozen items of Russian interest and three relating to Africa. The March 1969 issue of \textit{Library of Congress Publications in Print} lists more than a hundred specialized bibliographies including bibliographies of official publications dealing with countries of interest to area specialists. The largest number of entries are for works dealing with Latin America; Eastern Europe and Sub-Saharan Africa are represented by more than twenty entries each; East Asia is represented by slightly fewer entries; and the Middle East and South and Southeast Asia are represented by smaller numbers of entries. The Slavic Bibliographic and Research Center of ARL and the Center for Chinese Research Materials established in Washington in the recent past function as intermediaries for making available to other libraries the bibliothecal resources of the federal government. Personnel of LC's Orientalia Division have played major roles in cooperative planning for area programs: Edwin Beal and Warren Tsuneishi in the Committee on American Library Resources for the Far East; the late Horace Poleman and Cecil Hobbs in the Committee on American Library Resources for South Asia; Conrad Reining and Julian Witherre1l in respect to African materials; Sergius Yakobson for East Europe and Howard Kline for Latin America.

The Office of Science Information Service of the National Science Foundation has supported bibliographies including the \textit{Union List of Serials}, the separate union catalog on cards of Japanese, Chinese and Korean serials, and the \textit{World List of Future International Meetings}. NSF has supported the SLA Translations Center and the Federal translations program using P.L. 480 funds as well as a number of indexing, abstracting and cover-to-cover translation projects. The Foundation's direct support of research libraries is not generally in the field of area studies acquisitions, but rather concerned with systems development.

Direct federal support of area studies resources includes grants to libraries under the provisions of the National Defense Education Act and the Higher Education Act, the facilitation of exchanges by the
International Exchange Service of the Smithsonian Institution, the provision of books to research libraries through the Public Law 480 Program, and, as a future possibility, the service of foreign centers operated under the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging as acquisitions agents for the general library community. The budget for direct support of area studies acquisitions exceeded $3,000,000 in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1969.

The Language and Area Centers Program operated by the U.S. Office of Education under provisions of Title VI of the National Defense Education Act (PL 85-864 as amended, Section 601a) funded 106 language and area centers at sixty-three colleges and universities. Of the total allocation of $5,872,000 an estimated 13.3 percent is earmarked for library purposes. "Data from technical reports received from the 106 NDEA centers for academic year 1967–68 reveal that a typical center received $3,285 or 6.1 percent of the total center allocation for library personnel and $3,850 or 7.2 percent of the total center allocation for general support of the library including the purchase of books."17

A small number of special purpose grants made under the provisions of Title II-A of the Higher Education Act of 1965 have been specifically for the purpose of area studies acquisitions. The Hoover Institution on War, Revolution, and Peace received a grant of $100,000 "to acquire materials in the areas of 20th century political, social, and economic affairs in Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union, Western Europe, China, Japan, and on all phases of international communism, and a grant of $40,000 was made to the University of Florida to purchase Latin American official publication of all types, but emphasizing statistical publications of the various governments."18 A portion of a $50,000 grant to the Music Library of the University of California at Berkeley will undoubtedly go in part towards specialized area acquisitions. It is probable also that some of the $5,000 general grants for acquisitions have gone towards area studies materials or freed equivalent funds for the purpose.

The legal authority for funding area studies acquisitions has been clearly established, and these two programs of the Office of Education have provided significant but scarcely massive support. The problem is clearly one of more adequate funding by Congress especially for Title II-A of the Higher Education Act.

Direct support by the International Exchange Service of the Smithsonian Institution is measured more readily in pounds and packages
transmitted and received on behalf of American research libraries than in dollars. The savings to a research library using this service are the difference between international and domestic postage for books sent or received from abroad. The price of the service is paid in the lack of speed due to consolidation of ocean freight shipments both in Washington and at the exchange centers abroad. In 1967, a representative fiscal year, the International Exchange Service shipped abroad on behalf of American libraries 157,315 packages of literary and scientific publications weighing 218,720 pounds, and received for re-transmittal to libraries 51,102 packages weighing 90,507 pounds. Shipments abroad were directed to more than 100 countries.

The kinds and dollar amount of support mentioned above are overshadowed by the Public Law 480 program which now spends about two and a quarter million dollars annually in acquisitions and processing of area studies materials for American research libraries. For Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Israel, Nepal, Pakistan, United Arab Republic, and Yugoslavia, where PL-480 provides almost comprehensive coverage of current publications area studies, faculties and research personnel are provided with such depth of coverage and quantity of material that they can have no substantial complaint. From the scholar's viewpoint the worst that can be said of current coverage is that in vast countries like Indonesia or India the acquisition of publications issued in the provinces has sometimes been weak or that more effort should be made to collect political party ephemera and the like. Some librarians have complained not only of the quantity but the quality of publications received, failing to grasp the notion that to an area studies specialist good coverage of second-rate novels, and of motion picture fan magazines, or of provincial newspapers, can be as useful as primary research materials as are first-rate novels or scholarly journals.

As with the making of books, area studies acquisition has no end. The subject deserves a whole book. All that this paper has done is to summarize some common policies and practices and point to some recent trends. It would be well to remember that area studies acquisitions, as Fred Wagman pointed out long since, are concerned with 59 percent of the book production of the world and constitute a significant part of the book budget requirements and work load of contemporary research libraries.
References


Acquisitions For Area Programs


Library-Book Trade Relations

HELEN WELCH TUTTLE

The great, beneficial, and overdue trend of the past decade in relations between the library and the book trade has been in the direction of increased communication, more awareness of interdependence, and greater cooperation. Between the librarian and the bookseller the movement toward togetherness has been made in larger part by the librarian, not because he is more accommodating, more outgoing, or more eager to work harmoniously than the bookseller. Rather, the librarian, given increased purchasing power and constantly pressured to provide his patrons with speedier access to the publications, has had to turn to his source of supply for help, and has had to put faster service above larger discounts, to think less of saving pennies and more of stretching staff time. If he formerly thought of the profit-dependent bookseller as an adversary, he has now made the pleasing discovery that the seller is more partner than opponent, a knowledgeable and helpful fellow, and altogether a good man to have on one's team.

In relation to publishers, librarians have generally felt that they could not influence production decisions, that the publisher felt little interest in the library's predominantly single-copy ordering, that if the publisher thought of libraries at all, he knew that the librarian was a captive customer and that he could well be left until last when orders were being filled. The publisher seemed unaware or uninterested in the fact that, particularly in smaller communities across the country, the library might be the only local place where potential buyers could see the publisher's product on display.

Even here there has been some change. A talk given in May 1969 at the annual meeting of the American Book Publishers Council by Dan Lacy, long respected as an articulate representative of publishing, is reported by Publishers' Weekly as follows:

Helen Welch Tuttle is Assistant University Librarian for Preparations, Princeton University Library.
Publishers haven't always seen the value of library business, Mr. Lacy observed. Before World War II, the head of an important publishing house rose at a meeting of the National Association of Book Publishers and recommended that members raise a fund to enable the American Medical Association to investigate "contagion" carried by the circulation of public library books; he hoped that this would induce people to buy books rather than borrow them.

Today the indispensability of the library market is appreciated, Mr. Lacy continued; it makes up a major part of the market for general publishing, including 80%-85% of the sale of children's books. It is the main market for facsimile reprints, for reference books and encyclopedias, for university press and other scholarly books. The growth of book title output from about 11,000 to 30,000 a year in 13 years is related to the growth in library demand. Librarians, educators and publishers are working together more closely.\textsuperscript{1}

Nowhere is the increased fraternization of the library and the trade more apparent than in the increasing organized togetherness of the last decade or so, evidenced by guest speakers of the one group appearing at the meetings of the other, the same phenomenon in the journals of the two groups, cooperative efforts to solve problems of mutual interest, and the creation of a number of joint standing committees.

It is not surprising that of American Library Association units the Rare Books Section of the Association of College and Research Libraries, with its concern for the supply of old and rare books, should have been one of the first to arrange meetings with the book trade. During the past decade the Section has offered preconference institutes before most of the ALA annual conferences. The institutes have generally been held on the sites of eminent rare book collections located in or near the conference city, and most recently have been co-sponsored by the Bibliographic Society of America (BSA). Themes such as "Book Illustration," "Rare Books in Natural History," "Americana," and "Antiquarian Book Trade in the Twentieth Century" have brought together speakers from both the profession and the trade, and have explored mutual concerns. The 1966 New York Conference listed a program meeting of the Section and the BSA on the topic "Men and Books—The Interdependencies of Collectors, Rare Book Librarians, and Book Sellers." The programs have generally been entertaining and of good quality, and as usual the non-scheduled and informal chatter among bookdealers and librarians has offered nonappraisable values to all participating.
Since 1959, when the Antiquarian Booksellers Association of America (ABAA) was incorporated, the library has had an authoritative body to turn to for problem negotiations in the antiquarian portion of its acquisition business, and thus mutual energies have been used to form more positive associations. Sol Malkin, informer to and chronicler extraordinary of the antiquarian book trade (acquisition personnel neglect to scan his *AB Bookman's Weekly* at their peril), has brought together pertinent information about the ABAA in his article, "Organization and Structure of the American Antiquarian Book Trade."\(^2\)

The Rare Book Section's approach to togetherness is an informal but positive one. At the opposite extreme is the functioning of the ALA Bookdealer–Library Relations Committee, which is attached to the Acquisitions Section of the Resources and Technical Services Division. This group has served as a grievance committee for librarians and has sought to develop acceptable standards of conduct for both parties to the commercial acquisition process. Carl Jackson, an early chairman during a period of considerable trouble, characterized the Committee in 1962 as follows: "The Bookdealer–Library Relations Committee, an outgrowth of the former Fair Trade Practices Committee, concerns itself with all problems stemming from the practices and procedures of libraries and booksellers in the purchasing and supplying of books. It aims to study specific problems, offer constructive advice, and especially to establish standards of performance in order to promote better bookdealer–library relationships."\(^3\)

The earlier Fair Trade Practices Committee attempted a stronger role in dealer–library disputes. The impracticality of such an attempt was soon recognized, and the proceedings of the Acquisitions Section Executive Committee at the 1960 Montreal Conference includes the statement: "The Executive Committee decided that arbitration or mediation by the Fair Trade Practices Committee must be abandoned and all the committee can do in cases of differences between librarians and booksellers is refer to the standards as stated in the Code on Fair Trade Practices."\(^4\)

The Code referred to appeared in the literature first in 1957 as "Buying and Selling Books and Manuscripts: Some Canons of Good Practice," when the committee was under John Fall's chairmanship. It covered such topics as approvals, auction buying, copying, discounts, evaluations, returns, and sale of duplicates, and it invited suggestions for revision. An effort was made to avoid any implication that dealers were being criticized, the introduction explaining that "A
code of fair practices for book dealers and librarians is not needed in order to convince members of either group that it is reprehensible to steal or lie. There are many points, however, on which a dealer or librarian may honestly be uncertain as to the proper procedure, and a code might be a useful guide for those who want to do the right thing.5

Out of some of the complaints grew the Committee's efforts to develop performance standards for book jobbers, later enlarged to produce a manual to include comments on bookdealer-library relations from the points of view of various types of publishers, booksellers, and libraries,6 and eventually emerging as a cooperative study made with the National League of Cities exploring book buying procedures, particularly those which involve the library working under contract with a jobber through a purchasing agent.7 The result was a report, "Purchasing Library Materials in Public and School Libraries; A Study of Purchasing Procedures and the Relationships between Libraries, Purchasing Agents and Dealers," by Evelyn Hensel and Peter D. Veillette. Although not aimed toward the large research library, the report proposes projects which all acquisition librarians should approve and support, for example, the suggestion that "A standard format for order forms should be developed and adopted by all libraries."8 Enlarging on this recommendation, the report explains: "Wholesalers have said that standardization of order forms would reduce their costs and enable them to give better service and higher discounts. Although it may not be possible to produce a single form that would satisfy everyone it should at least be possible to standardize the information needed by the dealer and the position of the various items of information."8

It is unfortunate that so much of the Bookdealer-Library Relations Committee activity has had to be concerned with negative approaches to this important relationship. A more recently formed joint committee, the American Book Publishers Council/Resources and Technical Services Division (ALA) Joint Committee, set up in 1966, has concerned itself with such topics of mutual interest as reprinting, universal numbering systems, library materials price indexes, the scope of Books in Print, and book production delays. Its preconference institute last June on "New Dimensions in Acquisitions" brought in contributions from all aspects of the book trade, and participants could not fail to note the useful freshness of approach in Dan Melcher's insistence that a library could obtain 48-hour service from book jobbers,
Art Brody's recalling his attempt to solve LC's cataloging backlog problem, and Ted Waller's efforts to arouse both librarians and the trade to cooperate in trying to avoid the disastrous cuts in federal aid to libraries.

With the development of federal aid to libraries has come a complementary recognition that libraries, publishers, and booksellers should cooperate to promote measures which provide reading materials to the public and, equal in importance, to see that good programs are not interrupted or crippled by the withdrawal of support.

While ALA president in 1966, Robert Vosper, who came out of an academic library acquisitions background, made an attempt to complement ALA's working relationship with the publishing industry. He established a joint committee of ALA, the American Booksellers Association, and the Antiquarian Booksellers Association of America. In an interview that year Vosper expressed his pleasure with the new link as follows:

I think one of the very pleasing things I have been able to do is set up a committee in the ALA establishing formal relationships with the American Booksellers Association and the Antiquarian Booksellers Association of America. Libraries and the book trade have not always had cordial relations. Now I think we are in a position to work together in a common goal and a common concern to get books to readers and we ought to be able to think of more imaginative ways to accomplish this than we have in the past. Patrons of libraries of all kinds should be advised that books in great demand, out on circulation, are readily available, especially paperbacks, at reasonable prices in bookstores.

This effort toward cooperation is still in the embryo state and has not given evidence of the direction its activities will take.

Librarians and the producers of books have met and reached amicable disagreement in the matter of a standard book numbering system. When such a facility was proposed for all new U.S. imprints, librarians held open meetings with representatives of the publishing industry and the Library of Congress, and the topic was explored. Later an Interdivisional Committee on a Universal Numbering System for Publications was established by the Resources and Technical Services Division and the Information Science and Automation Division. The Committee's name indicates the librarians' concern that the system adopted cover all publications and on a world-wide basis. The Committee was able to bring about discussion between the publishers
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and the Library of Congress designed to explore a system which would include numbering not only for books but for other library materials as well, but no change was made in the system developed for books only. This attempt is still unsuccessful. 10

Standard Book Numbers are being assigned in increasing numbers to new books published in this country under the direction of the Standard Book Numbering (SBN) Agency, a collaborative effort of the American Book Publishers Council, the American Educational Publishers Institute, the United States of America Standards Institute's Committee Z39, the Library of Congress, and R. R. Bowker Company. The SBN is built into the British system, which was adopted in 1967. 11 It now appears on LC catalog cards and in Publishers' Weekly and Library Journal new book listings. Eventually LC will accept orders for catalog cards listed by SBN, and publishers and jobbers will fill book orders thus transmitted. Librarians are exploring its uses.

Following its practice of moving into vacuums, ALA has for more than thirty years interested itself in the reprint field. Its earliest purpose was to persuade publishers to bring back into print titles which were needed by libraries. Its latest concern has been to regulate library lending to publishers of volumes to be reprinted. 12

In 1966, Sam P. Williams, editor of the Reprint Expediting Service Bulletin, provided a history of the years of effort by librarians in the reprint field. 13 Williams starts with the 1938 Carnegie Corporation grant of $10,000 to ALA to explore reprinting possibilities and the formation of the ALA Out-of-Print Book Committee. He ends with the successful and ongoing Reprinting Committee of the ALA Acquisitions Section and the part presently played by the Reprint Expediting Service Bulletin. Somewhere in between he was able to report, "The original Carnegie grant was husbanded over the next twelve years of the Committee's existence and expended finally in the preparation of a definitive report on the out-of-print book situation in 1951 prepared by G. William Bergquist." 14 Dear dead days beyond recall, when ten thousand dollars was ten thousand dollars instead of a couple of meetings of the advisory committee for the study of . . . !

Today's lively reprinting industry makes cooperation useful for both the trade and the library. Librarians are able to suggest titles for reprinting, provide some indication of potential sales, offer a ready market for many titles to provide a partial underwriting of the costs of production, and often supply the copy from which the reprint is made. In return, the reprinters bring back into print some of the titles which the library needs.

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Reprinters are moving toward a formal organization to promote their interests, a facility which they lack unless they are publishers of original manuscripts as well. Heretofore, the movement has been too new to be organized and perhaps too competitive, as reprinters search the same resource of earlier publications now in the public domain to find potential money-makers.

Librarians and the book trade have another organizational link, the United States of America Standards Institute (USASI). Through it they develop standards which affect both areas. Standards Committee Z39 on Library Work, Documentation, and Related Publishing Practices is sponsored by the Council of National Library Associations. Its chairman is librarian Jerrold Orne and its vice-chairman Anne Richter of the Bowker Company. Its growing list of concerns includes standards relating to periodical title abbreviations, machine-input records, bibliographic references, transliteration, both library and publishing statistics, indexing, abstracts, filing, bookbinding, standard book numbering, and book publishers advertising.15

Informal efforts toward developing useful standards continue, and can eventually feed into the USASI apparatus for formal standards. Standardization as an effective and efficient tool is gaining wider acceptance. The process of developing standards and gaining acceptance for them is a slow but worthwhile one. For example, in 1966, the Special Libraries Association (SLA) Board of Directors and the American Book Publishers Council (ABPC) approved a statement of recommended practices for the advertising and promotion of books, listing the bibliographic elements which were minimum inclusions and those which were desirable. In 1968, a first meeting of a new USASI committee, Subcommittee 19 on Book Publishers Advertising was held, and the first order of business was a review of the SLA/ABPC statement.16 In March 1969, a second draft version, "USA Standard for Advertising of Books," was circulated.17 Once it is approved in final form as a U.S. standard, it will begin the long road to international acceptance.

The relationship of the library and the book trade should be recognized as a partnership. Back in 1917, Edward F. Stevens, then president of the New York Library Association, gave an address with the title, "An Honorable and Lasting Peace." Stevens' thesis was that librarians, publishers and booksellers are antagonistic. In the climate of the then ongoing war to make the world safe for democracy, he ad-
vocated "a cessation of those longstanding hostilities among those people who have to do with books, the family feud which is becoming more acute and alarming, while the family of nations is establishing the peace universal."\textsuperscript{18} He deplored the librarian's tendency to think of publishers as forming "a class under suspicion as undeserving of the confidence of librarians, because their purposes with books were less exalted than our own, and their methods tainted with the commercialism of business."\textsuperscript{19} He pointed out that "the extent to which the business of publishing enjoys prosperity is the extent to which libraries, which depend on publishing, will prosper. Libraries cannot absorb all the product of publishing, bookselling is the only alternative outlet, and as one survives so must the other in the economy of the great industry of books in which we jointly labor."\textsuperscript{20} He saw peace as firmly established on a "recognition of a certain identity of interests among publishers, booksellers, and librarians."\textsuperscript{21}

Building a useful partnership between the library and the trade should start in library schools. The training of the Lilly Fellows at Indiana University, LeRoy Merritt's assignment of his students to do critical surveys of booksellers' catalogs, formal courses and informal seminars in publishing, talks to library school groups by those in the trade—both lectureships and informal visits—these are inadequate to introduce new librarians to the importance of the book trade to the building of library resources. The future should bring a trend toward much more of this valuable and productive exposure.

Strong links between the trade and libraries have been forged by persons leaving one field to join the other. Those with book trade experience who decide to become librarians bring a background of knowledge which is a decided plus value, particularly if it has been obtained in the European book trade with its background of formalized training. Some librarians have left libraries to enter the shop. European firms which do a great deal of business with American libraries sometimes send their promising young employees to the United States to work for a year or so in American libraries. Such transfers between the two professions emphasize their like aspects and increase their knowledge of each other.

That the librarian does not understand the bookdealer's business is an old complaint. The librarian is buying and the dealer is selling, so the librarian tends to assume the arrogance or the patronizing kindness of the one who decides the outcome of the encounter. The librarian, a salaried individual in an enterprise which is unfettered by
the necessity of showing a financial profit, fails to understand the
margins within which the bookseller must operate if his business is
to survive. When the dealer gives a service, it must appear in his
overhead charges. When the librarian performs a service, he is simply
carrying out the function for which he was hired. This difference in
approach is perhaps the greatest hazard in the library-bookdealer
relationship. The librarian should realize that if booksellers were pri-
marily interested in profit, they would not be trafficking in books; they
would reserve them for leisure hours and put their working hours into
replacing hilltop meadows and wooded valleys with dismal streets of
look-alike houses wrapped in twenty-year mortgages.

A sampling of library literature shows that those in the trade have
long been urging librarians to try for a better understanding of the
problems of the bookseller, and then to work in closer harmony with
the bookseller to the advantage of library service. Exhortations along
these lines still appear in modest amounts in the literature. Jake Zeit-
lin, dean of the West Coast antiquarian dealers, emphasized in a talk
to librarians, as he has before, that there is not enough communication
between libraries and booksellers. Thomas F. O’Connell reported
his successful attempt to bring the dealer to the librarian, when he
asked Benjamin Muse, owner of a bookstore on Cape Cod, to come to
York University Library in Toronto to talk to the staff. Muse stressed
commonality between the library and the store, pointing out that good
books do not automatically come into a bookstore; that, as in a li-
brary, books must be selected and sought after for stock. Thus, in a
scholarly bookstore the owner’s livelihood depends upon his ability
to find the quality book to sell. John Parker, librarian, states the matter
colorfully as he projects the librarian into the trade formerly domi-
nated by the private collector: “We bring narrow budgets and the
trappings of bureaucracy into a trade where ample means and a close
personal relationship between the merchant and his client are an
ancient and warm tradition. . . . Members of our profession have too
long looked upon booksellers as ‘the trade’ and themselves as its
victims.”

The growing number of formal links between the trade and the
library described above suggest that there is more activity and promise
in this area than there has been. A bookseller writing two years ago
thought so; Dominick Coppola in the Spring 1967 Library Resources
and Technical Services thought it worthwhile to encourage such inter-
action. He ended his report on the bookseller and acquisitions with
the exhortation: “May I emphasize that it is up to the librarians now more than ever before to learn as much as possible about the book trade, to keep abreast of developments, and to use to the fullest extent the facilities which it has to offer. It falls to the well-informed and dynamic librarians to challenge the imagination of booksellers and to encourage them to enter new fields and devise better and different ways in which they can be of service to the library community.”

While the librarian may legitimately be concerned with prompt delivery of invoices so that they may be processed with shipments of books, answers to claims for nondelivery of orders, and excessive delays in producing the titles ordered, yet a preoccupation with these details to the exclusion of other values to be got from the bookseller is a pity. The old nonproductive librarian-dealer attitude is illustrated by a symposium published in the British journal, Assistant Librarian, in 1963. Entitled “Books Are Different” and exploring the relationship of libraries and the book trade, the gathering of viewpoints includes “The Trade’s View of Librarians” written by R. D. Sanders, Managing Director of the Book Centre who had previously served for twenty-five years as Secretary of the Publishers Association, and “The Librarian’s View of the Trade,” written by the librarian H. G. T. Christopher.

Sanders pointed out that in his former capacity he had had official relations with all sorts of related organizations, but his only contact with the Library Association had been one small joint committee of the two associations together with the Booksellers Association, a committee with the function of deciding whether a library qualified for the 10 percent discount offered to free libraries spending annually a specified amount for new books. He had had the impression that librarians regarded themselves as professional people who ought not be concerned with matters of trade. He suggested that all concerned with the production and distribution of books should work together toward their common goal of increasing the book-reading public, and suggested a number of topics for discussion which would benefit from joint attack and which were basic to this mutual concern. In short, Sanders was thoroughly professional in his approach to the discussion of the relationship between libraries and the book trade.

Christopher’s contribution, representing the point of view of the librarian, can be characterized most succinctly in his own words: “Summing-up, what librarians require is prompt delivery; regular, quick and accurate reporting of non-supplied items; intelligent an-
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ticipation of library demands for certain items; ‘on approval’ facilities from all types of booksellers; and an efficient system of the recording of orders.” And what reciprocal contributions does he assign to librarians? Librarians should provide correct bibliographic descriptions for the titles they order, should simplify their invoicing demands, and should not expect booksellers to service (i.e., catalog and process) their books for them. As difficult as it is to admit, this illustrates the professional attitude of the “nonprofessional” tradesman and the non-professional attitude of the “professional” librarian. As Alexander Woollcott said of the master of the golden-hearted poodle Harpo, “The delicate balance of ownership inclines, if anything, the other way.”

Publishing, bookselling, librarianship—all can be professional in character and all can share the responsibility of providing books for the reading public. That is why most of us who are old in the library world felt a sense of shock when Bowker was purchased by Xerox. Bowker and Wilson have been library science publishers since before we can remember, and their interests have traveled hand in hand with the needs of libraries. When a library problem indicated a need for a new or changed publication, Bowker or Wilson was a partner in working out the solution. We do not know whether Bowker thought of itself as being in a profession, but it took a professional attitude toward libraries.

We do not know about Xerox. We know it has produced very useful gadgets upon which libraries have come to depend. But we also know that it is a business giant with an awesome record of growth and profit-making. We fear that it may approach the library publishing business as a business instead of as a Bowker-type profession. We wonder if the finicky details of gathering together a directory of publishing, or other such tool important to libraries, and the slender margin for profit which it offers, will seize the serious attention of such a giant. If publishing gains attention as a potentially lucrative field for investment where money can either earn high returns or be lost advantageously, acquisition librarians will be operating within a very different situation.

Special mention should be made of the relationship of the librarian and the antiquarian dealer, particularly the dealer who specializes and becomes an authority in his specialization. Surely the building of library resources in the rare book category is the most exciting and least routine of the acquisition areas. The increasing importance of
the specialist dealer in the pursuit of these resources is not a new trend, rather a strengthening of an old one as the important materials appear less frequently in the market.

The antiquarian bookseller searches out the scarce materials, sometimes preserving them from destruction; gathers and passes along bibliographic lore; defines new collecting fields, pointing out the value of neglected areas of collecting; aids the private collector to bring together the great collections which often end in institutional libraries; sometimes gathers a collection of his own, drawing upon his exceptional opportunities to do so; publishes catalogs which are virtually annotated subject bibliographies; and pushes the librarian toward greater knowledge of such materials by example, by shame, and by precept.

Besides these direct services, the antiquarian dealer brings color and romance, an aura of derring-do and adventure into the plodding and safe, civil-service atmosphere of the library. Dealers in rare books sometimes take on a quality of rarity themselves, an attribute made up of knowledge of people, knowledge of books, and an appreciation without illusion of both. Such dealers hold with an open hand, as we are told we must do if we are to love usefully and creatively. While the librarian is acquiring and sharing and keeping, the dealer is acquiring and sharing and letting go and acquiring again in an endless wave, retaining only a sense of pride in a partnership dedicated to gathering the great resources and creating the distinguished collections.

The affectionate warmth and mutual respect of the dealer–librarian relationship, which should permeate all who have the good luck to work with books, is epitomized and reaffirmed by a 1967 book, A Garland for Jake Zeitlin, on the Occasion of His 65th Birthday & the Anniversary of His 40th Year in the Book Trade, made up of fourteen articles by a happy profusion of authors, booksellers, librarians and collectors. 28

Should the professional librarian, the impartial provider of bibliographic aid to all who seek the library, pursue this gay rogue? By all means! Pamper him, court him, all but fondle him. If you feel that you are enjoying it too much and have a twinge of conscience, just remember that it is part of your job, the best part!

JANUARY, 1970
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Future Prospects of Library Acquisitions

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PIONEER AMERICAN UNIVERSITY and research librarians were strongly addicted to rugged individualism in their methods of book procurement. Funds were limited and collections grew at a snail’s pace, relatively speaking. Nevertheless, each library was regarded as a completely independent entity, its development proceeding with little or no consideration of its neighbors, and it was reliant upon its own resources except for an occasional inter-library loan.

Establishment of the National Union Catalog in 1900, and publication of the Union List of Serials in Libraries of the United States and Canada in 1927, were the first major evidences of a change of direction. Thenceforth, librarians began to think of their holdings within a larger frame of reference, as segments of a national resource, the sharing of which could be of immense mutual benefit. Perhaps the coming of the Great Depression in the nineteen thirties expedited the process, when such cooperative enterprises were born as the regional bibliographic centers in Denver, Philadelphia, and Seattle, along with numerous local and state union catalogs.

Not until after World War II was there any major effort undertaken toward joint or coordinated acquisition. The first was the Cooperative Acquisitions Project for Wartime Publications, sponsored by the Library of Congress, which demonstrated several facts: American libraries could look to their national library for leadership in large cooperative activities; research libraries were able and willing to support a broad program for the improvement of library resources; the idea of libraries combining for the acquisition of research materials was feasible and desirable; and the research resources of American libraries were a matter of national concern.

Following close on the heels of the Library of Congress Project for...
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Wartime Publications, and profiting from the experience gained in that program, came the Association of Research Libraries' Farmington Plan. The beginning, in 1948, was modest, comprising only publications issued in three Western European nations: France, Sweden, and Switzerland. Within five years, however, the Farmington Plan's scope was worldwide.

A natural outgrowth of the Farmington Plan was the Public Law 480 program administered by the Library of Congress. In 1961, the Congress authorized the expenditure of counterpart funds or blocked currencies for the acquisition of multiple copies of publications in certain countries where surplus funds had accumulated. The program presently includes Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Israel, Nepal, Pakistan, the United Arab Republic, and Yugoslavia. Millions of copies of books, pamphlets, periodicals, newspapers, and government publications have been procured and distributed to several hundred American libraries since inception of the project.

Another area of the world was covered, starting in 1959, by the Latin American Cooperative Acquisition Project (LACAP) in which some forty libraries are currently participating, utilizing commercial channels.

Also productive have been cooperative acquisition undertakings by smaller groups of institutions. An example is the Midwest Universities Consortium for International Activities—the University of Illinois, Indiana University, Michigan State University, and University of Wisconsin—which has provided funds for sending library staff members on collecting expeditions to the Far East, Southeast Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The representatives not only procured substantial quantities of material that in all likelihood would otherwise have been unavailable, but also established useful contacts with book dealers, publishers, and librarians abroad.

Sending its agents abroad is an old story, of course, to the Library of Congress with its global collecting activities, and scarcely less so to a number of other individual institutions, such as Stanford University's Hoover Institution Library, Northwestern University Library (chiefly to Africa), and the University of California (especially to the Far East).

Thus, with the rich background of experience gained from the Cooperative Acquisitions Project for Wartime Publications, the Farmington Plan, the Latin American Cooperative Acquisition Project, the Public Law 480 program, and its long-time procurement activities...
abroad, the Library of Congress was fully prepared to take advantage of special provisions in the Higher Education Act of 1965. This was the enabling legislation for the immensely important National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging.

The specific provision is contained in Title II, Part C, entitled "Strengthening College and Research Library Resources," of the Higher Education Act of 1965, reading as follows:

There are hereby authorized to be appropriated $5,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1966, $6,315,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1967, and $7,770,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1968, to enable the commission to transfer funds to the Librarian of Congress for the purpose of (1) acquiring, as far as possible, all library materials currently published throughout the world which are of value to scholarship; and (2) providing catalog information for these materials promptly after receipt, and distributing bibliographic information by printing catalog cards and by other means, and enabling the Library of Congress to use for exchange and other purposes such of these materials as are not needed for its own collections.¹

The program as it developed has had the dual purpose of building up the collections of the Library of Congress, as the national library, thereby benefiting libraries in general, and of providing catalog information to meet the needs of other libraries. It was agreed that all titles with an imprint date of 1966 or later and all titles listed in current foreign national bibliographies, regardless of imprint date, would be eligible for acquisition and cataloging under the program. Further, the program would cover all monographic publications, trade and non-trade; annuals, including reports, yearbooks, proceedings, and transactions; selected foreign dissertations; atlases; and government publications, if they met the criteria. Periodicals and non-book materials, however, were not to be included at the outset.

Other significant aspects of the program as it related to acquisitions included the use of air mail to expedite deliveries; continuation of the Library of Congress' existing acquisition policy as it dealt with the purchase of books; blanket order arrangements with certain foreign book dealers; orders for all Farmington Plan titles; and the establishment of acquisition centers in areas where the book trade is not well-organized and where there is no national bibliography. To provide reasonable assurance of complete coverage, the Library of Congress supplied to each of a group of libraries for control purposes copies

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of catalog cards printed for current imprints; the cooperating libraries, in turn, were expected to send to the Library of Congress copies of their orders for current domestic and foreign acquisitions for which no catalog card could be found in the control file or in the published National Union Catalog.

Until congressional appropriations make possible full implementation of the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NPAC), the complete coverage visualized by the originators of the plan will be delayed, but it is apparent that in the foreseeable future the world’s publishing output, promptly after it comes off the press, will be coming to the United States cataloged at home or abroad and ready for use. Within their respective spheres, the National Agricultural Library and the National Library of Medicine are active participants in the over-all program.

The question may properly be asked: Will the NPAC eventually supersede the Farmington Plan, LACAP, and similar efforts at cooperative acquisition? The answer is definitely in the negative. For insurance purposes alone, it will continue to be desirable to acquire more than one copy of every worthwhile book issued abroad and to decentralize locations. In a nation with a population in excess of 200,000,000, spread over a huge geographical area, among whom are tens of thousands of scholars, scientists, and research workers and millions of students, there is a clear and present need for multiple copies of materials of value to scholarship. Also, ready availability is an important factor. As Fremont Rider pointed out years ago, in The Scholar and the Future of the Research Library, “On one point they [scholars] all seem to be amazingly unanimous: they all seem to have a desire . . . to have their research materials available, not in New York or California, but under their own finger tips wherever they may happen to be working.”

The concept of collecting in the national interest is being furthered, too, by a relatively new type of institution, best exemplified by the Center for Research Libraries (CRL) in Chicago. The CRL was founded twenty years ago as the Midwest Inter-Library Center, to serve two main functions: to house and service little-used research materials for member libraries, and to purchase selected materials for cooperative use. After reorganization in 1965, the Center changed from a regional to a national, indeed to an international, institution, since there are several Canadian members, and adopted its present name. As of 1969, the institutional membership numbered thirty-eight,
spread from coast to coast. Over the past four years, the Center's acquisition funds have grown from $43,000 to $404,000, based chiefly on current membership assessments and federal government grants.

By definition, the Center for Research Libraries concentrates its collecting activities on highly-specialized, little-used materials. Thus, it has assembled, for example, the most complete collection of foreign dissertations in the United States and maintains extensive holdings of foreign and domestic newspapers on film, foreign government publications, college catalogs, state documents, Russian Academy of Sciences documents, and textbooks. For about the past fifteen years, that is starting in 1956, supported by grants from the National Science Foundation, the Center has subscribed to several thousand rarely held serials included in Chemical Abstracts and Biological Abstracts.

From the point of view of the acquisition policies and programs of the individual member libraries, the principal value of such an organization as the Center for Research Libraries is to relieve them of responsibility for collecting a variety of fringe materials, expensive to acquire, seldom needed, and filling valuable space, but perhaps important when wanted.

Effective July 1, 1969, the CRL Board of Directors specified that regular and continued use of the Center's materials could be made only by members of the Center, effectively restricting loans, with occasional exceptions, to institutions providing financial support.

On a much smaller scale, the Hampshire Inter-Library Center in Amherst, Massachusetts, established in 1961, serves purposes similar to those of the CRL. The participating institutions are Amherst, Mount Holyoke, and Smith Colleges, the University of Massachusetts, and the Forbes Library in Northampton. The Hampshire Center was set up to purchase and store jointly-owned research materials. Its primary collecting interests are current and retrospective serial files and monumental sets.

For decades, university and research librarians have been pursuing a type of cooperation which has often turned out to be a will-of-the-wisp, i.e., specialization of fields. Acquisition agreements among libraries appear, theoretically at least, to be a logical alternative to the impossible goal of trying to collect everything. Skeptics who question the feasibility of dividing fields have frequently had their doubts justified by problems of distance and communication and by institutional intransigence. One can, of course, point to notable exceptions: Duke University and the University of North Carolina, Columbia
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University and the New York Public Library, Newberry and the John Crerar Libraries, etc., and the Farmington Plan is a successful example of specialization of collecting interests among the sixty or more participating libraries. It is realistic to expect, however, that university libraries will have to duplicate extensively the holdings of other libraries; otherwise, they will seriously inconvenience their faculties and students.

The success of programs of library cooperation in universities, it ought to be recognized, must depend principally upon over-all institutional attitudes, especially in the willingness to rationalize graduate and research activities. Libraries can hardly move farther or faster in inter-institutional agreements than their parent universities are willing to go. Universities must specify in detail, therefore, their fields of primary interest prior to having their libraries reach understandings for specialization.

Virtually every state in the union has seen the mushrooming of its institutions of higher education during recent years. Former agricultural and mechanical colleges and teachers colleges have been transformed, almost overnight, to the status of general universities. The financial implications for the states are staggering, if these expanded institutions are to become universities in fact as well as in name. A major item of cost is library expansion, including the building of university-level collections. Can the states afford to permit each library to grow separately and independently? Is it realistic to expect that state legislatures will provide the high-level support required for building strong university libraries? Is it feasible for state-supported university libraries to work together to bring maximum library service to their users at costs somewhere within reason?

It is in response to such questions as these that an intriguing proposal was made and is under consideration in the state of North Carolina. The plan, in brief, would be to centralize highly-specialized collections, rather than dispersing them over the fifteen state university and senior college libraries. The logical location for such a central facility, to be shared by all institutions, would be the Chapel Hill-Durham-Raleigh area, since the state's principal library resources are already to be found there. There would be established, separate from any existing library, a state-wide depository collection, which in addition to containing specialized holdings beyond the ordinary needs of the participating libraries would provide bibliographic services in the form of a revision and expansion of the North Carolina Union Catalog,
through teletype connections among the libraries, and through rapid delivery service from the central facility and from campus to campus.

According to the proposal as visualized, the entire library research resources of the state would eventually be united to serve all students, scholars, and general researchers. There would continue, of course, to be special subject-oriented collections developed in individual institutions, complementing and supplementing the central depository. Bibliographic access to such collections would be provided through the North Carolina Union Catalog. The primary aim would be the creation of a cooperative service with a communications and transportation network assuring the availability of all resources to all legitimate users.

The sharing of library collections could be greatly expedited if telefacsimile systems were perfected, both to make the equipment more economical and more efficient. Even now, at least one library system, that of Pennsylvania State University, finds it advantageous to operate a telefacsimile service on a state-wide basis. That system's most recent annual report notes that telefacsimile equipment connects the University Park Library and eighteen scattered commonwealth campus libraries. When the telefacsimile network was first established, the decision was made to use the equipment only for the transmission of urgently needed material. That policy was found to be too restrictive, however, and commonwealth campus librarians are now permitted individual discretion—a change in procedure which it is believed will result in considerably more frequent and effective use of the telefacsimile equipment.

Inter-institutional agreements for sharing resources have been influenced to some degree by huge micro-reproduction projects, which continue to proliferate. Few libraries can afford or would desire to subscribe to all such undertakings. In some instances neighboring libraries have divided responsibility for particular projects, an economy move which still gives their clientele access to large bodies of specialized material. A new dimension has been added, however, with the Rand Corporation's proposal entitled A Billion Books for Education in America and the World and the Encyclopaedia Britannica's announcement of a series of "Resource and Research Libraries" in ultramicrofiche. A library that subscribes to all the series which the Britannica plans to produce would possess a million volumes in ultramicrofiche form at a price which would not appear to be astronomical. Will this development make less attractive, or will it promote,
the idea of inter-library cooperation, especially the division of fields? The incentive for collecting agreements may be lessened by the possibility of having virtually every book needed near at hand, even though in greatly reduced format.

Reproduction of material in full size is having a dramatic effect on library acquisition activities (i.e., publication in near-print form, by Xerox and photo-offset). Since the coming of Xerox, it has been stated that no book should be considered out of print, assuming that somewhere a copy is available for reproduction. The importance of this fact is accentuated by the requirements of the many new "instant" university libraries. In the past, it would have been virtually impossible for such libraries to have acquired the numerous basic periodical files, collections of primary sources, and reference works needed for a research library. The material had gone out of print and was simply un procurable at any price. Within the past few years, reprinting has become big business. The 1969 edition of Guide to Reprints lists 183 firms which are engaged to a greater or lesser extent in reprint publishing, in the United States and abroad. Their productions include complete runs of general and special journals; society publications; bibliographical and other reference works; series dealing with special subjects, such as the Negro, law, theatre, American studies, criminology, and history of science; and innumerable individual book titles. Among the giants in the field are the AMS Press, Johnson Reprint Corporation, Kraus Reprint Company, Gregg International Publishers, Burt Franklin, Gale Research Company, and Slatkine Reprints.

A parallel development has been to make any items desired available on an individual basis, in microform or by Xerox "copy-flo" techniques. A leader in the field is the Xerox Corporation's University Microfilms, which is building up an immense stock of microfilms of titles in all fields, from which reproductions in microform or full scale can be supplied. This is not a publishing venture, but a service tailored to meet a particular need for single copies of out-of-print titles. In many instances, the reprints are on better paper and produced in better formats than the originals.

By way of summary, it should be noted that the world output of published material is increasing at a geometric rate, presenting research libraries with a dilemma of great dimensions in attempting to keep abreast of the flood. Beginning with World War II, the collecting concerns of American libraries, formerly largely restricted to the United States and Western Europe, have become worldwide. The
expanding library holdings are a direct response to the increased scholarly preoccupation with area studies. The outpouring of print in all its forms points toward an increased necessity for carefully defined acquisition policies, specialization of fields among libraries, and cooperative acquisition plans.

The solutions being found for the problems created by the information and publication explosion are imaginative and practical. Among the highlights are the Library of Congress’ global acquisitions program, the Farmington Plan, the Public Law 480 program, the Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Project, the establishment of joint central facilities, such as the Center for Research Libraries, and agreements among individual libraries for divisions of fields of collecting.

The impact of technology on research libraries is accelerating. It is quite conceivable that libraries will eventually be linked together in an international network, drawing freely upon each others’ resources and sharing in great central reservoirs. But even before such a day of wonders dawns, libraries are using technical progress and mechanisms to improve communications, e.g., by teletype; to speed transmission of materials between libraries, e.g., by telefacsimile (a device that is obviously in its infancy); and to reproduce in microfilm, microcard, microfiche, and ultramicrofiche and in standard reprint format vast quantities of research materials. The influence of such developments upon individual libraries is almost incalculable. One result, undoubtedly, will be that every piece of literature or bit of information in any library can be made readily available to the seeker after knowledge. The laissez faire philosophy which university librarians, in particular, have been inclined to follow, attempting to achieve virtual autonomy in wide areas of knowledge and to serve all the needs of their clientele without reference to other institutions, will call for drastic revision.

The richness and variety of American library resources are unsurpassed by those of any other nation. In an article for the *Encyclopedia Americana* on “One Hundred Notable Libraries of the World,” the present writer concluded that thirty of the 100 are in the United States. The college and university libraries of the nation alone hold in excess of 300,000,000 volumes, and are growing at the rate of 25,000,000 volumes annually. To these impressive figures can be added the holdings of great reference libraries, hundreds of special libraries, and thousands of public libraries, providing users of Amer-
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ican libraries with bibliographical resources beyond compare. The users, however, will never be completely satisfied. They will constantly demand more.

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